A Plant-Inducible Gene of Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris Encodes an Exocellular Component Required for Growth in the Host and Hypersensitivity on Nonhosts

SOPHIEN KAMOUN AND CLARENCE I. KADO*

Department of Plant Pathology, University of California, Davis, California 95616

Received 6 March 1990/Accepted 19 June 1990

Using Tn4431, a transposon that allows transcriptional fusions to a promoterless luciferase (lux) operon, we have isolated a nonpathogenic mutant of Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris, i.e., JS111, that does not incite any of the black rot symptoms on all tested cruciferous host plants (J. J. Shaw, L. G. Settles, and C. I. Kado, Mol. Plant Microbe Interact. 1:39–45, 1988). In the study reported here, we determined that in contrast to the wild-type strain, JS111 is unable to induce a hypersensitive necrotic response on nonhost plants such as datura, tomato, and cucumber, suggesting that JS111 is a nonpathogenic, nonhypersensitive Hrp mutant. JS111 displayed culture growth rates, exopolysaccharide production, and protease, pectate lysase, cellulase, amylase, and phosphatase activities comparable to those of the wild-type strain. However, the growth of JS111 in host leaves was markedly attenuated. Coinoculation of JS111 with the wild-type strain in cauliflower or radish leaves rescued the growth deficiency of the mutant to normal levels. The locus mutated in JS111 was cloned and named hrpXc, and transcriptional and genetic complementation analyses of the hrpXc locus were conducted. The regulation of hrpXc expression was also investigated in vitro and in planta, using fusions to a lux or chloramphenicol acetyltransferase reporter gene. The hrpXc gene was found to be strongly induced in radish leaves. This is the first report and analysis of a hrp locus from a Xanthomonas species.

In recent years, the application of molecular genetic approaches to plant pathogenic bacteria has led to the identification and isolation of a number of genes involved in the interaction between the bacterium and the plant. These genes can be tentatively classified into four groups relative to the phenotype they confer on the bacteria. (i) hrp (hypersensitive response and pathogenicity) genes are required for pathogenicity on hosts and for the induction of a hypersensitive response (HR) on nonhost plants (1, 2, 23). (ii) dsp (disease-specific) genes are necessary for pathogenicity but do not affect HR induction on nonhosts (6). (iii) avr (avirulence) genes confer race- or cultivar-specific interactions. The avirulence genes are dominant genes and restrict the host range of the bacteria to the cultivars that contain a complementary resistance gene(s) (36, 37). (iv) Of considerable importance are the hsv (host-specific virulence) genes that have been isolated from bacteria with wide host ranges and are required for pathogenicity on only some of the host plants (13, 14, 28; D. Gabriel, ASM News 52:19-25, 1986). hsv genes can extend the host range when introduced in narrow-host-range strains (25, 39).

In this paper, we report the identification and characterization of a *hrp* gene from *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. campestris, the causal agent of the black rot of crucifers, a worldwide and economically important plant disease (40). Hydathodes are the principal natural mode of entry in the plant, although secondary entry sites can develop in the roots or in wounds (5). The invasion of *X. campestris* pv. campestris in crucifers is usually confined to the xylem (3), where it grows and eventually causes the distinct blackening of leaf veins, followed by the drying and death of panels of leaf tissue. Soft rots and water soaking symptoms induced by *X. campestris* pv. campestris are not observed in the field. However, these atypical symptoms can be experimentally obtained by infiltration of the bacteria in young seedlings or detached host leaves (34).

The mechanism by which X. campestris pv. campestris incites black rot is not known. Mutants that lack degradative enzymes and extracellular polysaccharides (EPS) were non-pathogenic (9), whereas mutants defective only in cellulase, protease, polygalacturonate lyase, or EPS production were still able to cause black rot (8, 11, 31, 35, 38). Therefore, the exact roles of degradative enzymes and of EPS production in the disease cycle are still unclear. It has been proposed that degradative enzymes may play a role when X. campestris pv. campestris is growing saprophytically on dead plant tissue (11).

Using Tn4431, a transposon that allows transcriptional fusions to a promoterless luciferase (lux) operon, we previously isolated a nonpathogenic mutant of X. campestris pv. campestris, JS111, that does not incite any of the black rot symptoms on all tested host plants (35). The locus mutated in JS111 was cloned and named hrpXc. In this paper, evidence is presented that JS111 is a Hrp mutant and that this mutant can be complemented exocellularly in planta by coinoculation with the wild-type strain. These results suggest that a diffusable factor is needed for pathogenic invasiveness into host tissues.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and plasmids. The strains and plasmids used are listed in Table 1. The spontaneous rifampin-resistant (Rm^r) mutants were constructed as previously described (33).

Media and antibiotics. Escherichia coli was routinely grown in LB medium or LB 1.5% agar plates (29) at 37°C; X. campestris pathovars were grown in medium 523 broth or 523 1.5% agar plates or on minimal medium 925 1.5% agar plates (17) at 29°C. The antibiotics used for E. coli were

^{*} Corresponding author.

Strain or plasmid	Relevant characteristics	Source or reference
Strains		
E. coli HB101		H. W. Boyer
X. campestris pv. campestris		
84-81	Wild-type isolate from wild mustard	R. Campbell
2D520	Spontaneous Rm ^r mutant of 84-81	35
JS111	Rm ^r Tc ^r Hrp ⁻ ; Tn4431 mutant of 2D520	35
2D520TL	Rm ^r Km ^r Ap ^r ; 2D520 containing one copy of pUCD607 integrated in the chromosome	R. McElhany
2D540	Wild-type isolate from wild radish	This study
2D540R	Spontaneous Rm ^r mutant of 2D540	This study
X. campestris pv. translucens	•	•
10D5	Wild-type isolate from wheat	M. P. Starr
10D5R	Spontaneous Rm ^r mutant of 10D5	This study
X. campestris pv. vesicatoria		
6D53	Wild-type isolate	K. Kimble
6D53R	Spontaneous Rm ^r mutant of 6D53	This study
Plasmids		
pUCD615	lux promoter probe; oripSa oripBR322 Apr Kmr (Gmr)	32
pUCD206B	cat promoter probe; oripSa oripBR327 Apr Kmr (Nmr)	4
pTZ18R	Ap ^r	U.S. Biochemical Corp. ^b
pUCD607	tet-lux fusion; oripSa oripBR322 Apr Kmr (Gmr)	33
pUCD656	pUCD615-based cosmid containing <i>hrpXc</i> , from 2D520 gene bank	35
pUCD2550	pTZ18R::pUCD656 11.0-kb EcoRI fragment	This study
pUCD2554	pUCD206B::pUCD2550 4.0-kb BamHI-BglII fragment	This study
pUCD2556	pUCD206B::pUCD2550 0.6-kb BamHI fragment	This study
pUCD2552	pUCD615::pUCD2550 4.0-kb BamHI-BglII fragment	This study
pUCD2559	pUCD615::pUCD2550 0.6-kb BamHI fragment	This study
pUCD682	pUCD2::hrpXc 4.4-kb XhoI-BglII fragment	35
pUCD685	SacII deletion of pUCD682	35
pUCD645	pUCD615-based cosmid with Tc ^r , from JS111 gene bank	35
pUCD646	BamHI subclone of pUCD646 with Tc ^r	J. Shaw

TABLE 1. Bacterial strains and plasmids^a

^a Km(Gm) and Km(Nm) designate kanamycin resistance genes that also encode resistance to gentamicin and neomycin, respectively; Rm, Tc, and Ap designate rifampin, tetracycline, and ampicillin resistance genes, respectively; *ori* and a plasmid name indicate the source of the origin of replication. ^b Cleveland, Ohio.

kanamycin (20 μ g/ml), chloramphenicol (20 μ g/ml), and ampicillin (50 μ g/ml); the antibiotics used for X. campestris were rifampin (50 μ g/ml), kanamycin (20 μ g/ml), and tetracycline (5 μ g/ml).

Enzymes and chemicals. Enzymes were obtained from New England BioLabs, Inc. (Beverly, Mass.) or Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals (Indianapolis, Ind.) and used as recommended by the manufacturer. Chemicals were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, Mo.).

DNA manipulations. DNA manipulations were performed as described by Maniatis et al. (26). DNA fragments were isolated from agarose gels, using a Geneclean kit (Bio 101, La Jolla, Calif.).

Electroporation of X. campestris pv. campestris. We have developed the following DNA transformation procedure by electroporation for X. campestris pv. campestris. Bacteria are grown on medium 523 1.5% agar plates overnight, suspended in 9 ml of sterile distilled H₂O to an optical density at 600 nm of 1.0, and pelleted by centrifugation for 5 min at 15,000 \times g at 4°C. Cells were resuspended in 1 ml of H_2O and washed again twice in the same volume. The final pellet was resuspended in 50 μ l of H₂O, from which 40 μ l was thoroughly mixed with 1 to 2 μ l (approximately 50 to 100 ng) of plasmid DNA prepared from minipreparations. The mixture was introduced in the electroporation chamber and pulsed at 2.5 kV cm^{-1} with a pulse duration of 40 ms, using a Gene-Pulser (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Richmond, Calif.) (10). A 1-ml amount of SOB medium (29) was immediately added to the cells, and then the mixture was incubated with

shaking for 2 h at 30°C before plating. Transformation frequencies as high as 10⁶ transformants per μ g of DNA were obtained for *X*. *campestris* pv. campestris 2D520X and derivative strains.

Enzymatic assays. Assays for pectate lyase activity were conducted on sodium polypectate medium (11, 19), extracellular protease activity was assayed on skimmed milk agar (6), cellulase activity was determined on carboxymethyl cellulose medium (11), amylase production was assayed on starch medium (41), and alkaline phosphatase activity was detected by adding 40 μ g of 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate per ml to the medium (27). Maceration of potato tuber slices and detached plant leaves was determined as previously described (35). The chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (CAT) assay was performed as reported earlier (18).

Pathogenicity assays. Plant pathogenicity assays of X. campestris pv. campestris strains were conducted on cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea* L. var. botrytis cv. 'Early Super Snowball'; Park Seed Co.) and white radish (*Raphanus sativus* cv. 'White Icicle'; Burpee Co.) by whole plant wound inoculation (34). Pathogenic strains were scored as those producing black rot symptoms regardless of atypical symptoms. The assay for detached leaves was performed by infiltrating the petiole of white radish leaves with 500 μ l of H₂O containing 10⁷ cells of the strain(s) tested. Subsequently, the leaves were wrapped with plastic film and incubated at 23°C. Leaf blots were obtained by exposing the leaves to an X-ray film for 3 h at different times of incubation.

In planta growth. In planta growth was determined in cauliflower leaves as previously described (35). A 1:1 (cell/ cell) mixture of two strains was used for the coinoculation experiments. The number of bacteria per leaf for each strain was determined by serially diluting macerated leaves in PM buffer (10 mM potassium phosphate [pH 7.2], 1 mM MgCl₂) and plating on medium 523 agar plates supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics. In the coinoculation experiments, JS111 populations were determined on rifampin and tetracycline plates, whereas differential enumeration (rifampin plates-rifampin and tetracycline plates) was used to estimate the number of wild-type derivatives. Statistical analysis of the data was performed by using Duncan's multiple-range test (24).

Hypersensitivity assays. Hypersensitivity tests were performed on the leaves of the following nonhost plants: tomato (Lycopersicon esculentum cv. 'Watters PF'; Harris Moran Seeds), jimson weed (Datura stramonium, UCD cultivation), and cucumber (Cucumis sativus cv. 'Strait Eight'; Northrup King Co.). A bacterial solution in sterile distilled water (10^8 cells per ml) was infiltrated in leaf panels as described by Klement et al. (20). HR was scored as a brown necrosis occurring in all of the infiltrated area 2 to 4 days after inoculation.

Plant induction Lux assay. Strains 2D520TL and JS111 were grown overnight on medium 523 agar plates from which cells were used to inoculate radish leaves by wounding the petiole (34). At times 0, 2, 10, and 24 h after inoculation, sections of the leaves were cut and emitted light was measured with a photon detector (Beckman Instruments, Inc., Fullerton, Calif.) (33). Bacterial populations were estimated after each leaf section was macerated in PM buffer, serially diluted, and plated on 523 agar plates supplemented with rifampin and kanamycin for 2D520TL or with rifampin and tetracycline for JS111. Light production by 2D520TL and JS111 ex planta was determined by inoculating 30 ml of 523 medium in Nephelo flasks to an initial optical density at 600 nm of 0.01 and monitoring both luminescence and growth at different times of incubation (32).

RESULTS

Phenotypic characterization of JS111. Tn4431 mutagenesis of X. campestris pv. campestris 2D520 generated a nonpathogenic mutant, JS111, that does not incite any of the black rot symptoms on any of the cruciferous host plant tested, i.e., cauliflower, radish, cabbage, turnip, and Arabidopsis thaliana (S. Kamoun and C. I. Kado, unpublished data). We previously noted that both the wild type and JS111 produced similar amounts of exopolysaccharides and degradative enzymes and displayed similar growth rates when grown ex planta in the laboratory (35). Protease, pectate lyase, cellulase, amylase, and phosphatase activities along with maceration of potato tuber slices and detached cauliflower and radish leaves were identical between JS111 and its parental strain 2D520 (Table 2). These results indicate that the nonpathogenic mutant JS111 is distinct from the previously described pathogenicity mutants of X. campestris pv. campestris (6, 7).

Interaction of JS111 with nonhost plants. To determine whether JS111 is a Hrp or a Dsp mutant, the interaction of X. *campestris* pv. campestris 2D520 and JS111 with nonhost plants such as D. *stramonium* was investigated. When infiltrated in the leaves of D. *stramonium*, 2D520 induced a dark necrosis typical of an HR after 2 to 4 days (20). In contrast with the wild-type strain, JS111 was unable to cause

TABLE 2. Degradative enzyme production by the wild-type and JS111 strains

Colored and	Enzyme(s)	Production ^a	
Substrate	assayed	Wild type	JS111
Skimmed milk	Protease	+	+
Sodium polypectate	Pectate lyase	+	+
Carboxymethyl cellulose	Cellulase	+	+
Starch	Amylase	+	+
X-phosphate	Phosphatase	+	÷
Potato tuber	Various	SR	SR
Detached cauliflower or radish leaves	Various	SR	SR

 a +, Enzymatic activity was consistently detected; SR, soft rotting of the plant tissue tested was observed. The enzyme(s) responsible for the soft rotting was not determined.

an HR when infiltrated in *D. stramonium* leaves (Fig. 1). Similar results were obtained with two other nonhost plants, tomato and cucumber. Since JS111 is nonpathogenic on host plants and unable to induce an HR on nonhost plants, it is a new member of the Hrp mutant family (23).

Exocellular complementation of JS111. JS111 showed very attenuated growth in cauliflower leaves and was never able to grow to more than 2.5×10^6 CFU per leaf, in contrast with the wild-type strain, 2D520, which reached a population level about 1,000 times higher than that of the mutant 8 days after inoculation (Fig. 2A). Interestingly, when a 1:1 (cell/ cell) mixture of the wild type and JS111 was inoculated on cauliflower, the two strains displayed very similar growth curves. Equal populations of the wild type and JS111 were



FIG. 1. HR of datura 4 days after inoculation with X. campestris pv. campestris 2D520 (left) and JS111 (right).



FIG. 2. Time course of the growth of X. campestris pv. campestris strains in separate and mixed inoculations in cauliflower leaves. (A) 2D520 (\blacklozenge), JS111 (\Box), and mixed inoculations (2D520 [\diamondsuit] and JS111 [\blacksquare]). (B) 10D5R (\blacklozenge) JS111 (\Box), mixed inoculations (JS111 [\blacksquare]). Each point represents the average of three to six replicas. Bars reflect the standard deviation throughout the experiment.

consistently isolated from each leaf. In coinoculated cauliflower leaves, JS111 reached a population level higher than 10^7 CFU per leaf, suggesting that the growth deficiency of the mutant could be complemented by the presence of the wild-type strain (Fig. 2A). In separate inoculations in cauliflower leaves, another X. campestris pv. campestris isolate, 2D540R, attained a population level 1,000 times higher than that of JS111 in only 5 days. In coinoculated leaves, the 2D540R population was only 10 times higher than the JS111 population 3 days after inoculation and about 50 times higher after 5 days, suggesting that JS111 was also complemented by this strain (Table 3). Coinoculation of JS111 with the cereal pathogen X. campestris pv. translucens 10D5R did not complement the growth of the mutant in planta. Heterologous strain 10D5R reached a population size similar to that of JS111 5 days after inoculation in cauliflower leaves (Fig. 2B and Table 3). Similarly, X. campestris pv. vesicatoria 6D53R, a pathogen of members of the family Solanaceae, also did not complement JS111 in cauliflower leaves (Table 3).

Molecular analysis of the hrpXc locus. The locus mutated in JS111 was cloned and localized by complementation analysis to a 2.1-kilobase (kb) sector of a cosmid derived from a genomic library of the parental strain. This fragment spans from a SacII site to a XhoI site and is contained in plasmid pUCD685 (35; Fig. 3A). This locus, designated hrpXc, was further characterized by subcloning a 4.0-kb Bg/II-BamHI and a 0.6-kb BamHI fragment from pUCD2550 into the BamHI site of the broad-host-range promoter probe vector

TABLE 3.	Growth of the different strains in separate and mixed	
	inoculations in cauliflower leaves	

Strain ^a	No. of bacteria/leaf ^b at given time after inoculation		
	72 h	120 h	
2D520	$4.0 \times 10^7 \text{ A}$	$2.1 \times 10^8 \text{ A}$	
JS111	$2.3 \times 10^{6} \text{ C}$	$1.3 \times 10^{6} \text{ BC}$	
2D520 I	$3.6 \times 10^7 \text{ AB}$	$5.7 \times 10^{7} \text{ A}$	
JS111 I	$2.8 imes 10^7 ext{ AB}$	$4.2 \times 10^{7} \text{ A}$	
2D540R	$2.1 \times 10^8 \text{ AB}$	$2.0 \times 10^9 \text{ A}$	
2D540R II	$3.7 \times 10^{6} \text{ BC}$	$1.2 \times 10^8 \text{ A}$	
JS111 II	$3.2 \times 10^{5} \text{ C}$	$2.5 imes 10^6 \text{ B}$	
6D53R III	$3.4 imes 10^4 \text{ D}$	$3.8 imes 10^5$ CD	
JS111 III	$2.3 \times 10^{6} \text{ C}$	$4.2 \times 10^5 \text{ BCD}$	
10D5R IV	$5.3 \times 10^{3} E$	5.1×10^5 BCD	
JS111 IV	$2.0 \times 10^5 \text{ C}$	$9.6 \times 10^5 \text{ BC}$	

^a Strains followed by the same roman numeral were paired for the mixedinoculation experiments.

^b For each time point, values followed by the same letter did not differ significantly (P = 0.05) by Duncan's multiple-range test.

pUCD206B (4), yielding pUCD2554 and pUCD2556, respectively. These two plasmids were electroporated into JS111, and both JS111(pUCD2554) and JS111(pUCD2556) remained nonpathogenic, suggesting that the *Bam*HI site is located inside the *hrpXc* gene (Fig. 3A).

To determine the direction of transcription of hrpXc, E. coli and X. campestris pv. campestris strains containing pUCD2554 and pUCD2556 with bidirectional fusions of hrpXc to the promoterless cat gene of pUCD206B were assayed for CAT activity. No CAT activity was detected from E. coli HB101(pUCD2554). However, HB101(pUCD2556) showed CAT activity of about 10 nmol/min per mg (Fig. 3B). JS111 or 2D520 containing these two plasmids failed to produce any CAT activity, suggesting that the hrpXc-cat fusion is not expressed in X. campestris pv. campestris under these conditions. Subsequently, the 4.0-kb BglII-BamHI and the 0.6-kb BamHI fragments from pUCD2550 were also cloned into the BamHI site of pUCD615 (32), yielding two plasmids, pUCD2552 and pUCD2559, respectively, that contain bidirectional fusions of the hrpXc gene to a promoterless lux operon. Light emission was detected only from HB101(pUCD2559) and 2D520(pUCD2559). Thus, the direction of transcription of the hrpXc locus is likely to occur from right to left, and the hrpXc promoter is probably located in the 0.6-kb BamHI-EcoRI fragment (Fig. 3B)

The orientation of Tn4431 in JS111 was determined by restriction enzyme analysis of pUCD645 and pUCD646. pUCD645 is a Tc^r cosmid isolated from a gene bank of JS111 (35). Subcloning of pUCD645 localized the Tc^r gene to a 17-kb *Bam*HI fragment contained in pUCD646. Further restriction enzyme mapping of pUCD646 showed that the promoterless *lux* operon of Tn4431 is inserted in the same orientation as the *hrpXc* locus. Thus, JS111 contains a *hrpXc-lux* fusion, and expression of the *hrpXc* promoter could be assayed simply by measuring the luminescence of JS111 (Fig. 3B).

Analysis of hrpXc expression. To evaluate the level of expression of the hrpXc gene in rich media and in the plant, light emission from JS111 (hrpXc-lux) was compared with that from 2D520TL (tet-lux). 2D520TL contains one copy of plasmid pUCD607 (33) stably integrated in the chromosome and thus carries one copy of the lux operon fused to the constitutive promoter of a tet gene. In the first experiment, the bioluminescences of 2D520TL and JS111 were moni-



FIG. 3. Molecular analysis of the hrpXc locus. (A) Restriction map and complementation analysis of hrpXc. The restriction sites of the enzymes EcoRI, BamHI, BglII, XhoI, and SacII are shown. Numbers represent the estimated size of each fragment in kilobases. The location and orientation (relative to the promoterless lux operon) of Tn4431 in the mutant JS111 are shown by the arrow. The different subclones constructed are shown as boxes that represent the size and location of the insert. Filled boxes represent complementing clones; open boxes represent noncomplementing clones. (B) Transcriptional analysis of hrpXc. The restriction map and location of Tn4431 are represented as described above. The fragments fused to either cat or lux cassettes are represented by the boxes. Filled boxes represent constructs with either CAT or LUX activity; open boxes represent constructs that do not show any activity. The deduced size of the hrpXc gene is represented by the shaded area; and orientation is shown by the arrow.

tored in rich medium 523. 2D520TL reached light production levels as high as 10^{-1} kcpm/CFU, whereas JS111 only produced levels close to the background (about 10^{-4} kcpm/ CFU) (Fig. 4A). A similar difference in the expression of the *hrpXc* and *tet* promoters was observed in the minimal medium 925 (data not shown). In a second experiment, both strains were separately inoculated into attached radish leaves, and light production from leaf sections was measured at different times and equilibrated to the number of bacteria. In this case and as early as 2 h after inoculation, 2D520TL and JS111 showed similar levels of bioluminescence varying around 2×10^{-3} kcpm/CFU (Fig. 4B). These results suggest that the *hrpXc* promoter is strongly induced and expressed at a constitutive level in radish leaves.

Since JS111 is strongly bioluminescent in the plant, it should be possible to monitor growth of the bacteria in the



FIG. 4. Analysis of hrpXc and tet expression by using *lux* fusions in medium 523 (A) and in radish leaves (B). Symbols: \Box , light emission from JS111 (hrpXc-*lux*); \blacklozenge , light emission from 2D520TL (*tet*-*lux*). Each point represents the average of three (A) or four (B) replicas. Bars reflect the standard deviation throughout the experiment.

leaf simply by visualizing light production. Thus, detached radish leaves were inoculated with either JS111 or a 1:1 mix of JS111 and the wild type. The light produced by JS111 was visualized by exposing the leaves to an X-ray film at different times of incubation. The leaf blots obtained clearly indicated that the growth and invasiveness of JS111 in the xylem of radish leaves were greatly enhanced by coinoculation with the wild type (Fig. 5). These data confirm the exocellular complementation of JS111 by the wild-type strain earlier reported in attached cauliflower leaves (Fig. 2A) and clearly show that the hrpXc promoter is strongly expressed in radish xylem.

DISCUSSION

JS111 is a Hrp mutant. JS111 was shown to be similar to the wild-type strain in growth rate in rich or minimal medium, EPS production, production of degradative enzymes tested, and the ability to macerate potato tuber slices and detached host leaves. However, JS111 was unable to cause an HR on several nonhost plants, displayed attenuated



FIG. 5. Light leaf blots of detached radish leaves inoculated with JS111 (left) or a 1:1 (cell/cell) mixture of JS111 and 2D520 (right) determined at 1 (A), 4 (B), 5 (C), and 6 (D) days after inoculation at the position shown by the arrows. Light emission reflects metabolically active JS111.

growth in host leaves, and could not induce any black rot disease symptoms on any of the cruciferous hosts tested.

Pleiotropic mutants of X. campestris pv. campestris classified as nonpathogenic have been reported by Daniels et al. (6, 7, 9). These mutants were deficient in either the synthesis or the export of protease, amylase, pectate lyase, and cellulase and also in the production of EPS. Surprisingly, mutants deficient only in protease, cellulase, polygalacturonate lyase, or EPS production are still able to induce black rot (8, 11, 31, 35, 38); thus, the role of degradative enzymes and EPS in black rot disease is still unclear and could be minor. It has been proposed that degradative enzymes could help the bacteria survive during saprophytic growth on dead plant tissue (11). The nonpathogenic mutant described in our studies clearly showed that both degradative enzymes and EPS are still produced at wild-type levels, suggesting that virulence factors other than these products are essential for black rot induction.

Hrp mutants of several plant pathogenic bacteria have been described (1, 2, 22, 23, 30). In *Pseudomonas solanacearum*, two *hrp* clusters have been identified (16); interestingly, one of these clusters contained in the cosmid pVir2 was found to hybridize to the DNA of several *X. campestris* pathovars, including *X. campestris* pv. campestris (2). Even though these studies suggested the presence of *hrp* genes in *Xanthomonas* species, the mutant described herein is the first reported xanthomonad Hrp mutant. However, no crosshybridization was detected between pVir2 and *hrpXc* (H. Kamdar, S. Kamoun, and C. I. Kado, unpublished data).

JS111 requires an exocellular component for growth in the

host. JS111 displays attenuated growth in the plant similarly to a number of Hrp mutants (23). However, the growth and invasiveness of the mutant were enhanced by coinoculation with the wild-type strain 2D520 in cauliflower and radish leaves, suggesting that 2D520 can supplement JS111 with an exocellular component required for growth in the host and pathogenicity (Fig. 2A and 5). 2D540R, another isolate of X. campestris pv. campestris, also complemented the growth of JS111, suggesting that the hrpXc locus could be conserved among different strains (data not shown). However, heterologous strains X. campestris pv. translucens 10D5R and X. campestris pv. vesicatoria 6D53R did not enhance or complement the growth of JS111 in cauliflower leaves (Fig. 2B and Table 3). It is unclear whether this lack of complementation is due to the absence of a functional homolog of the hrpXc gene in these pathovars or to the inability of these strains to attain high population levels in cauliflower.

Whether the HR is caused directly by a protein product or by a metabolite synthesized by the bacteria remains to be determined. A 60-kilodalton extracellular protein from P. solanacearum was recently shown to induce an HR on potato (15). However, fenthion, a small insecticidal molecule, was also shown to cause a necrosis on tomato cultivars containing the bacterial resistance gene *pto* (H. Laterrot, TGC Rep. **35**:6, 1985), and the product of the *avrD* gene of P. solanacearum pv. tomato is predicted to possess a catalytic activity involved in the synthesis of a specific low-molecularweight HR elicitor (M. M. Stayton, S. J. Tamaki, and N. Keen, Phytopathology **79**:1144, 1989). The results of the coinoculation experiments conducted in this study suggest that the hrpXc gene may encode an exocellular compound that is different from the major degradative enzymes and is required for both pathogenicity on crucifers and HR on nonhost plants. However, it is still unclear whether the same component is actually responsible for both phenotypes.

The *hrpXc* promoter is strongly induced in radish leaves. Complementation analysis of the hrpXc locus suggests that the size of this gene is between 1.0 and 2.1 kb. Transcriptional analysis showed that the orientation of hrpXc is identical to that of the promoterless lux operon in the Tn4431 inserted in JS111. Thus, JS111 contains a chromosomal hrpXc-lux fusion that was used to study the regulation of the hrpXc promoter. In minimal or rich medium, the level of expression of the hrpXc promoter was about 2 to 3 orders of magnitude lower than that of the constitutive promoter *tet*, whereas in radish leaves the two promoters displayed similar activities, suggesting that the expression of hrpXc is highly induced when X. campestris pv. campestris is present in radish xylem (Fig. 4). Recently, a plant-inducible region (hrpABCD) was identified in the hrp cluster of P. solanacearum pv. phaseolicola by using an ice nucleation locus (inaZ) as a reporter gene (21). Expression of these genes appeared to be dependent on another locus, hrpS, whose predicted protein product shows strong homology to several procaryotic regulatory proteins (12). However, expression of the hrpABCD genes did not appear to require specific plant substances but rather seemed to be dependent on nutritional and physiological factors that the bacteria encounter in the apoplast (21). We are currently investigating whether the high level of expression of *hrpXc* in the plant is actually dependent on induction by a plant product or on some nutritional or physiological conditions specific to the xylem.

The use of a nondisruptive detection system, such as bioluminescence, in the study of plant-microbe interactions has many potential applications (33). In this study, for example, a *lux* system was successfully used to monitor the active invasiveness in radish leaves of an *X. campestris* pv. campestris nonpathogenic mutant under different conditions (Fig. 5) and also to determine the level and strength of expression of a *hrpXc* promoter in vitro and in radish xylem, a natural ecological niche for the bacteria (Fig. 4B). These results confirm our previous contention of the originality and usefulness of bioluminescence as a tool to study plantmicrobe interactions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Joe Shaw for constructing some of the Rm^r xanthomonads, Yong Huang for helping with the hypersensitivity assays, Mike Cooley for communicating the electroporation protocol, and Jun Tsuji for suggesting that JS111 could be a Hrp mutant.

This work was supported in part by a grant from Aisin-Seiki, Co., Ltd. S.K. was supported by the University Mission of Tunisia, Washington, D.C.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Bauer, D. W., and S. V. Beer. 1987. Cloning of a gene from *Erwinia amylovora* involved in induction of hypersensitivity and pathogenicity, p. 425–429. *In* E. L. Civerolo, A. Collmer, R. E. Davis, and A. G. Gillaspie (ed.), Plant pathogenic bacteria. Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, Amsterdam.
- Boucher, C. A., F. Van Gijsegem, P. A. Barberis, M. Arlat, and C. Zischek. 1987. *Pseudomonas solanacearum* genes controlling both pathogenicity on tomato and hypersensitivity on tobacco are clustered. J. Bacteriol. 169:5626–5632.
- 3. Bretschneider, K. E., M. P. Gonella, and D. J. Robeson. 1989. A comparative light and electron microscopical study of compat-

ible and incompatible interactions between Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris and cabbage (Brassica oleracea). Physiol. Mol. Plant Pathol. 34:285–297.

- Close, T. J., R. C. Tait, and C. I. Kado. 1985. Regulation of Ti plasmid virulence genes by a chromosomal locus of Agrobacterium tumefaciens. J. Bacteriol. 164:774–781.
- Cook, A. A., J. C. Walker, and R. H. Larson. 1952. Studies on the disease cycle of black rot of crucifers. Phytopathology 42:162-167.
- Daniels, M. J., C. E. Barber, P. C. Turner, W. G. Cleary, and M. K. Sawczyc. 1984. Isolation of mutants of Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris showing altered pathogenicity. J. Gen. Microbiol. 130:2447-2455.
- Daniels, M. J., C. E. Barber, P. C. Turner, M. K. Sawczyc, R. J. W. Byrde, and A. H. Fielding. 1984. Cloning of genes involved in pathogenicity of *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris* using the broad host range cosmid pLAFR1. EMBO J. 3:3323-3328.
- Dow, J. M., D. E. Milligan, L. Jamieson, C. E. Barber, and M. J. Daniels. 1989. Molecular cloning of a polygalacturonate lyase gene from *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris* and role of the gene product in pathogenicity. Physiol. Mol. Plant Pathol. 35:113-120.
- Dow, J. M., G. Scofield, K. Trafford, P. C. Turner, and M. J. Daniels. 1987. A gene cluster in *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris* required for pathogenicity controls the excretion of polygalacturonate lyase and other enzymes. Physiol. Mol. Plant Pathol. 31:261-271.
- Dower, W. J., J. F. Miller, and C. W. Ragsdale. 1988. High efficiency transformation of *E. coli* by high voltage electroporation. Nucleic Acids Res. 16:6127–6145.
- Gough, C. L., J. M. Dow, C. E. Barber, and M. J. Daniels. 1988. Cloning of two endoglucanase genes of *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris*: analysis of the role of the major endoglucanase in pathogenesis. Mol. Plant Microbe Interact. 1:275-281.
- Grimm, C., and N. J. Panopoulos. 1989. The predicted protein product of a pathogenicity locus from *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *phaseolicola* is homologous to a highly conserved domain of several procaryotic regulatory proteins. J. Bacteriol. 171:5031– 5038.
- 13. Hirooka, T., and C. I. Kado. 1986. Location of the right boundary of the virulence region on *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* plasmid pTiC58 and a host-specifying gene next to the boundary. J. Bacteriol. 168:237-243.
- Hirooka, T., P. M. Rogowsky, and C. I. Kado. 1987. Characterization of the virE locus of Agrobacterium tumefaciens plasmid pTiC58. J. Bacteriol. 169:1529–1536.
- Huang, Y., J. P. Helgeson, and L. Sequeira. 1989. Isolation and purification of a factor from *Pseudomonas solanacearum* that induces a hypersensitive-like response in potato cells. Mol. Plant Microbe Interact. 2:132-138.
- Huang, Y., X. Peilin, and L. Sequeira. 1989. A second cluster of genes that specify pathogenicity and host response in *Pseudo*monas solanacearum. Mol. Plant Microbe Interact. 3:48–53.
- 17. Kado, C. I., M. G. Heskett, and R. A. Langley. 1972. Studies on *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*: characterization of strains 1D135 and B6 and analysis of the bacterial chromosome, transfer RNA and ribosomes for tumor inducing ability. Physiol. Plant Pathol. 2:47-57.
- Kamoun, S., M. B. Cooley, P. M. Rogowsky, and C. I. Kado. 1989. Two chromosomal loci involved in production of exopolysaccharide in *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. J. Bacteriol. 171:1755-1759.
- Keen, N. T., D. Dahlbeck, B. Staskawicz, and W. Besler. 1984. Molecular cloning of pectate lyase genes from *Erwinia chrysan*themi and their expression in *Escherichia coli*. J. Bacteriol. 159:825-831.
- Klement, Z., G. L. Farkas, and L. Lovrekovich. 1964. Hypersensitive reaction induced by phytopathogenic bacteria in the tobacco leaf. Phytopathology 54:474–477.
- Lindgreen, P. B., R. Frederick, A. G. Govindarajan, N. J. Panopoulos, B. J. Staskawicz, and S. E. Lindow. 1989. An ice nucleation reporter gene system: identification of inducible

pathogenicity genes in *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. phaseolicola. EMBO J. 8:1291-1301.

- Lindgreen, P. B., N. J. Panopoulos, B. J. Staskawicz, and D. Dahlbeck. 1988. Genes required for pathogenicity and hypersensitivity are conserved and interchangeable among pathovars of *Pseudomonas syringae*. Mol. Gen. Genet. 211:499–506.
- Lindgreen, P. B., R. C. Peet, and N. J. Panopoulos. 1986. Gene cluster of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. "phaseolicola" controls pathogenicity of bean plants and hypersensitivity on nonhost plants. J. Bacteriol. 168:512-522.
- 24. Little, T. M., and F. J. Hills. 1978. Agricultural experimentation: design and analysis. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York.
- Loper, J. E., and C. I. Kado. 1979. Host range conferred by virulence-specifying plasmid of Agrobacterium tumefaciens. J. Bacteriol. 139:591-596.
- 26. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- Manoil, C., and J. Beckwith. 1985. TnphoA: a transposon probe for protein export signals. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:8129– 8133.
- Mellano, V. J., and D. A. Cooksey. 1988. Development of host range mutants of Xanthomonas campestris pv. translucens. Applied Env. Microbiol. 54:884-889.
- 29. Miller, J. H. 1972. Experiments in molecular genetics. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- Niepold, F., D. Anderson, and D. Mills. 1985. Cloning determinants of pathogenesis from *Pseudomonas syringae* pathovar syringae. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:406-410.
- Ramirez, M. E., L. Fucikovsky, F. Garcia-Jimenez, R. Quintero, and E. Galindo. 1988. Xanthan gum production by altered pathogenicity variants of *Xanthomonas campestris*. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 29:5-10.
- 32. Rogowsky, P. M., T. J. Close, J. A. Chimera, J. J. Shaw, and C. I. Kado. 1987. Regulation of the vir genes of Agrobacterium

tumefaciens plasmid pTiC58. J. Bacteriol. 169:5101-5112.

- 33. Shaw, J. J., and C. I. Kado. 1986. Development of a Vibrio bioluminescence gene-set to monitor phytopathogenic bacteria during the ongoing disease process in a non-disruptive manner. Bio/Technology 4:560-564.
- Shaw, J. J., and C. I. Kado. 1988. Whole plant wound inoculation for consistent reproduction of black rot of crucifers. Phytopathology 78:981-986.
- 35. Shaw, J. J., L. G. Settles, and C. I. Kado. 1988. Transposon Tn4431 mutagenesis of Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris: characterization of a nonpathogenic mutant and cloning of a locus for pathogenicity. Mol. Plant Microbe Interact. 1:39–45.
- 36. Staskawicz, B., D. Dahlbeck, and N. Keen. 1984. Cloned avirulence gene of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. glycinea determines race-specific incompatibility on *Glycine* (L.). Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81:6024-6028.
- 37. Staskawicz, B., D. Dahlbeck, and C. Napoli. 1986. Molecular genetics of race-specific incompatibility in *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. syringae, p. 109–144. In I. Sussex, A. Ellingboe, M. Crouch, and R. Malmberg (ed.), Current communication in molecular biology: plant cell-cell interactions. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- Tang, J. L., C. L. Gough, C. E. Barber, J. M. Dow, and M. J. Daniels. 1987. Molecular cloning of protease(s) genes from Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris: expression in Escherichia coli and role in pathogenicity. Mol. Gen. Genet. 210:443-448.
- Thomashow, M. F., G. C. Panagapoulos, M. P. Gordon, and E. W. Nester. 1985. Host range of Agrobacterium tumefaciens is determined by Ti plasmid. Nature (London) 283:794-796.
- 40. Williams, P. H. 1980. Black rot: a continuing threat to world crucifers. Plant Dis. 64:736-742.
- 41. Wood, P. J. 1981. The use of dye-polysaccharide interactions in β-D-glucanase assay. Carbohydr. Res. 94:C19–C23.