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Die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Camalexin (3-Thiazol-2'-yl-Indol) ist das charakteristische Phytoalexin von *Arabidopsis thaliana* und wird zur Pathogenabwehr gebildet. Camalexin wird ausgehend von Cystein, bzw. einem Cysteinderivat (z. B. Glutathion) und Tryptophan synthetisiert, wobei drei Cytochrom P450-Enzyme beteiligt sind CYP79B2, CYP71A13 und CYP71B15. Die Gene der Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthese (z.B. *ASA1* und *TSA*) sind stark coreguliert. Die Signalkaskade die zur Induktion der Camalexinbiosynthese führt ist noch größtenteils unverstanden. Unter anderem wurden deshalb Promoterdeletionskonstrukte von *ASA1* und *CYP71B15* generiert und Pflanzen, welche Mutationen in Kandidatengenen tragen, analysiert. Diese Kandidaten wählte man aufgrund der Coregulation mit den Camalexinbiosynthesegenen *CYP71A13* und *CYP71B15* aus. T-DNA- bzw. Transposon-Insertionslinien und siRNAi- bzw. amiRNA-Linien wurden auf ihren Camalexingehalt untersucht. Im Zentrum dieser Analysen standen (als Kandidaten zur Einführung des Thiazolrings von Camalexin) verschiedene Vertreter der Glutathion-S-Transferasen. Allerdings zeigte keiner dieser Linien - nach Induktion - bisher einen eindeutigen camalexindefizienten Phänotyp, was auf hohe genetische Redundanz zurückzuführen sein könnte.

PAMPs (pathogen associated molecular patterns) sind hochkonservierte Strukturmotive von Mikroorganismen, welche durch spezielle Rezeptoren (PRRs, transmembrane pattern recognition receptors) erkannt werden und somit in Pflanzen eine Immunantwort auslösen. Im Gegensatz zu Flagellin induzierten die Nep1-artigen Proteine NLP_{Pp}, NLP_{Ps} und PaNie aus Oomyceten, sowie Peptidoglycan aus *Staphylococcus aureus* die Camalexinbiosynthese. Die detaillierte Analyse von Pflanzen, welche PaNie unter der Kontrolle eines Ethanol-induzierbaren Promoters exprimieren (Alc::PaNie_{Dc}), zeigte eine starke Induktion der Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene und eine reproduzierbare Camalexinakkumulation in vegetativen Geweben. Im Gegensatz zu Blättern und Stängel sind Blüten und Schoten nicht in der Lage Phytoalexine in großer Menge zu synthetisieren.

Die Evolution der Biosynthese von Sekundärstoffen gleicher Grundstruktur in Pflanzen und Bakterien ist bisher nur wenig verstanden. Deshalb bot die Isolation der Thiazolyl-Verbindung BE-10988 aus einem Streptomyces eine interessante Möglichkeit die Biosynthese dieser Verbindung mit der des Camalexins zu vergleichen. Durch retrobiosynthetische NMR-Analyse und Markierungsexperimente mit direkten Vorstufen

konnte gezeigt werden, dass das 3-Thiazolyl-Indol-Derivat BE-10988 aus *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988 (wie Camalexin) aus Tryptophan und Cystein synthetisiert wird. Im Gegensatz zu Camalexin ist hier nicht Indol-3-Acetaldoxim, sondern Indol-3-Pyruvat eine Vorstufe. Dies zeigte, dass Pflanzen und Bakterien in diesem Fall unterschiedliche Mechanismen der Tryptophanderivatisierung entwickelten.

SUMMARY

Camalexin (3-thiazol-2'-yl-indole) is the characteristic phytoalexin of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, which is induced by a great variety of plant pathogens. Camalexin is synthesized via tryptophan and cysteine or a cysteine derivative e.g. glutathione by three cytochrome P450 enzymes CYP79B2, CYP71A13 and CYP71B15. Camalexin and tryptophan biosynthetic genes (e.g. ASA1 and TSA) are strongly coregulated. The signalling cascade which induces camalexin biosynthesis is largely unknown. Therefore promoter deletion constructs of ASA1 and CYP71B15 were generated and plants carrying mutations in candidate genes were analysed. These candidates were chosen because of their coregulation with the camalexin biosynthetic genes CYP71A13 and CYP71B15. The camalexin content of T-DNA and transposon insertion lines, siRNAi and amiRNA lines was analysed. Glutathione-S-transferases, candidates for the introduction of the thiazole ring of camalexin, played a major role within this analysis. So far, none of these lines showed a clear camalexin deficient phenotype after induction, possibly due to high genetic redundancy.

PAMPs (pathogen associated molecular patterns) are highly conserved motives of pathogens which are recognized by specific receptors (PRRs, transmembrane pattern recognition receptors) and trigger innate immune responses. Oomycetic Nep1-like proteins NLP_{Pp}, NLP_{Ps} and PaNIE and peptidoglycan from *Staphylococcus aureus*, in contrast to bacterial flagellin, induced camalexin biosynthesis. *Arabidopsis* plants expressing PaNIE under the control of an alcohol inducible promoter were analysed in detail. In response to PaNIE expression the camalexin and tryptophan biosynthetic genes were strongly induced and camalexin accumulated reproducibly in vegetative tissues. In flowers and siliques PaNIE expression elicited only minor camalexin formation, indicating low capability for phytoalexin synthesis in reproductive organs in contrast to leaf and stem tissue.

The evolution of structurally similar secondary metabolites between plants and bacteria is hardly investigated. Therefore the isolation of the thiazolylindole BE-10988 from

Streptomyces provided an interesting possibility to compare its biosynthesis with camalexin biosynthesis. Retrobiosynthetic NMR-analysis and labelling experiments with direct precursors showed that tryptophan and cysteine served as biosynthetic precursors of the thiazolylindole BE-10988 from *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988 in analogy to the biosynthetic pathway of camalexin. However, not indole-3-acetaldoxime but indole-3-pyruvic acid serves as precursor showing that plants and bacteria have evolved independent mechanisms of tryptophan modification in the biosynthesis of thiazolylindole derivatives.

ABKÜRZUNGEN

Neben SI-Einheiten, Elementsymbolen und dem Ein- oder Dreibuchstabencode für Aminosäuren wurden folgende Abkürzungen verwendet:

3-msp	3-Methylsulfinyl-Propyl-Glucosinolat
4-meoind	4-Methoxy-Indol-3-ylmethyl-Glucosinolat (4-Methoxy-Glucobrassicin)
4-msb	4-Methylsulfinyl-Butyl-Glucosinolat (Glucoraphanin)
4-mtb	4-Methylthio-Butyl-Glucosinolat (Glucoerucin)
8-mso	8-Methylsulfinyl-Oktyl-Glucosinolat
Abb.	Abbildung
<i>A. brassicae</i>	<i>Alternaria brassicae</i>
<i>A. brassicicola</i>	<i>Alternaria brassicicola</i>
AAOx1	Arabidopsis-Aldehydoxidase 1
CAN	Acetonitril
AHBA	3-Amino-5-Hydroxy-Benzoesäure
A/G2	avrRPT2-induced gene 2
AminoDHS	Amino-3-Dehydro-Shikimat
amiRNA	artifizielle micro RNA
ANAC042	abscisic acid responsive NAC 42
ASA1	Anthraniлат Syntase
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>B. cinerea</i>	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>
Avr	Avirulenz
<i>C. carbonum</i>	<i>Cochliobolus carbonum</i>
cDNA	komplementäre DNA
CHCl ₃	Chloroform
Col-0	Columbia 0
CSHL	Cold Spring Harbor Line
CUC2	cup-shaped cotelydons2
Da	Dalton
DEAE	2-Diethylamino-Ethyl
DEPC	Diethylpyrocarbonat
dest	destilliert
DMSO	Dimethylsulfoxid
DNA	Desoxyribonukleinsäure
dNTPs	Desoxynukleotide
DW	dry weight (Trockengewicht)
EDTA	Ethyldiamin-N-N-N'-N'-Tetraacetat
ETI	effector triggered immunity
EtOAc	Ethylacetat
EtOH	Ethanol
ETS	effector triggered susceptibility
FAD-bdcp	FAD-binding domain containing protein
Flg22	Flagellin 22
FLS2	flagellin sensitive 2
FW	fresh weight (Frischgewicht)
GST	Glutathion-S-Transferase
GUS	β-Glucuronidase
H ₂ O _{bidest}	zweifach destilliertes Wasser

H ₂ O _{dest}	destilliertes Wasser
HPLC	High Performance Liquid Chromatography
HR	hypersensitive response
Ind-3	Indol-3-ylmethyl-Glucosinolat (Glucobrassicin)
IA	Isoamylalkohol
IAA	Indoleessigsäure (Auxin)
IAN	Indol-3-Acetonitril
IAOX	Indol-3-Acetaldoxim
ICA	Indol-3-Carboxaldehyd
kb	Kilobasenpaare
KO	Knock-Out
KOAc	Kaliumacetat
Ler	Landsberg <i>erecta</i>
MAPK	Mitogen aktivierte Proteinkinase
MeOH	Methanol
mRNA	messengerRNA (Boten-RNA)
NAC	NAM, ATAF1/2, CUC2-Transkriptionsfaktor
NAM	no apical meristem
NaOAc	Natriumacetat
NASC	Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Center
NB-LRR	nucleotide binding-leucine rich repeat
Nep1	necrosis and ethylene-inducing peptide 1
Nit4	Nitrilase4
NLP	Nep1-like proteins
NLP _{Pp}	NLP aus <i>Phytophthora parasitica</i>
NLP _{Ps}	NLP aus <i>Phytophthora sojae</i>
NLP _{Pya}	NLP aus <i>Pythium aphanidermatum</i>
NPP1	necrosis-inducing <i>Phytophthora</i> protein 1
OD	Optische Dichte
PAD	Phytoalexin defizient
PAMP	Pathogen associated molecular pattern
PaNie	<i>Pythium aphanidermatum</i> necrosis inducing elicitor
<i>P. aphanidermatum</i>	<i>Pythium aphanidermatum</i>
PAT	Phosphoribosylanthranilate Transferase
PEG	Polyetylenglycol
PGN	Peptidoglycan
<i>P. infestans</i>	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>
PTI	PAMP-triggered immunity
PCR	Polymerase Ketten Reaktion
<i>P. syringae</i>	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i>
SDS	Natriumdodecylsulfat
<i>S. griseus</i>	<i>Streptomyces griseus</i>
<i>S. hygroscopicus</i>	<i>Streptomyces hygroscopicus</i>
<i>S. kanamyceticus</i>	<i>Streptomyces kanamyceticus</i>
sp.	Spezies
spp.	Subspezies
<i>S. venezuelae</i>	<i>Streptomyces venezuelae</i>
R	Resistenz
RHA1a, b	RING-H2 group A
RING	really interesting new gene zinc finger
RNA	Ribonukleinsäure
ROS	reaktive Sauerstoffspezies
rpm	Umdrehungen pro Minute
RT-PCR	Reverse Transkriptase-PCR

RT	Raumtemperatur
siRNAi	small interfering RNA-interference
Tab.	Tabelle
Taq-Polymerase	<i>Thermus aquaticus</i> -DNA-Polymerase
TBE	Tris-Borat-EDTA-Puffer
TE	Tris-EDTA-Puffer
Tris	Tris-(Hydroxymethyl)-Aminomethan
TSA	Tryptophan Synthase α -Untereinheit
\ddot{u} N	über Nacht
USER TM	uracil-specific excision reagent
UV	ultraviolett
Vol	Volumen
v/v	Volumen zu Volumen
WT	Wildtyp
w/v	Gewicht zu Volumen

1. Einleitung

Pflanzen sind ständig den Angriffen von Bakterien, Viren, Pilzen, Invertebraten und sogar anderen Pflanzen ausgesetzt und müssen sich gegen diese verteidigen. Aufgrund ihrer sessilen Lebensweise ist es den Pflanzen nicht möglich den Angreifern zu entkommen. Pflanzen entwickelten deshalb ein Immunsystem dessen Grundvoraussetzung, wie auch bei allen anderen lebenden Organismen, darin besteht zwischen *Eigen* und *Fremd* unterscheiden zu können (Nürnberg et al., 2004).

Das Immunsystem der Pflanzen ist nicht in der Lage spezialisierte Zelltypen wie z. B. T-Zellen zu produzieren. Deshalb mussten Pflanzen andere Abwehrstrategien entwickeln (Lam et al., 2001). Eine davon ist die mechanischen Barriere, bestehend aus Kutikula, Zellwand und in die Zellwand eingelagerte Abwehrsubstanzen. Zusammen mit konstitutiv vorhandenen Sekundärmetaboliten (u. a. Phenole und phenolische Glycoside, Saponine, cyanogene Glycoside und Glucosinolate), welche auch als Phytoanticipine (VanEtten et al., 1994) bezeichnet werden, bilden sie die sogenannte präformierte Abwehr (zur Übersicht siehe (Osborn, 1996)). In Kombination mit induzierbaren Abwehrmechanismen (wie Phytoalexine) wird die *non-host*-Resistenz gebildet (Heath, 2000).

Jedes Pathogen hat nun eine spezifische Art und Weise entwickelt eine Pflanze zu befallen. Einige Arten durchdringen direkt die ersten Schichten, wie Kutikula oder Zellwand, durch mechanischen Druck oder einen enzymatischen Angriff. Andere nutzen bereits vorhandene Öffnungen, wie z. B. die Stomata auf der Blattunterseite. Weitere Pathogene wiederum befallen nur Gewebe, welches schon vorher verletzt wurde. Nach dem Eindringen in die Pflanze kann man die Pathogene in drei verschiedene Klassen aufteilen. Nekrotrophe Pathogene töten die Pflanzenzellen, biotrophe Pathogene lassen die Pflanzenzellen am Leben und hemibiotrophe Pathogene verhalten sich anfangs biotroph und wandeln sich nach gewisser Zeit zu nekrotrophen Pathogenen.

Effiziente Pflanzenresistenz beruht auf zwei Formen der angeborenen Immunität. Die ursprünglichste Immunantwort wird als „PAMP-triggered immunity“ (PTI) bezeichnet, wobei unterschiedlichste Strukturmotive, welche charakteristisch für ein breites Spektrum an Mikroorganismen sind, erkannt werden (Chisholm et al., 2006; Nürnberg et al., 2004; Zipfel and Felix, 2005). Die „effector-triggered immunity“ (ETI) beruht auf der Fähigkeit von Pflanzen Effektoren der Pathogene zu erkennen und auf sie in Form von Abwehrmechanismen zu reagieren.

1.1 PTI (*PAMP Triggered Immunity*)

Im Rahmen der ursprünglichsten Pflanzenresistenz entwickelten die Pflanzen ein sensitivs Detektionssystem, um damit einzelne Komponenten von Mikroorganismen erkennen zu können, welche als PAMPs (pathogen associated molecular patterns) bezeichnet wurden (Jones and Dangl, 2006; Nürnberger et al., 2004). PAMPs lösen die angeborene Immunantwort der Pflanzen aus und beinhalten Lipopolysaccharide von Gram-negativen und Peptidoglycan von Gram-positiven Bakterien, eubakterielles Flagellin, methylierte bakterielle DNA-Fragmente, Glucan, Chitin, Mannan und Proteine aus pilzlichen Zellwänden (Nürnberger et al., 2004). Flg22 ein hoch konserviertes Peptid am N-Terminus des Flagellins der Bakteriengeißel, ist das wohl am besten untersuchte PAMP. Flg22 wird von dem Rezeptor FLS2 (flagellin sensitive 2) erkannt und löst die PTI in Pflanzen aus (Felix et al., 1999). Die Verteidigungsstrategien der Pflanze während der PTI sind unter anderem Ethylenfreisetzung, Aktivierung von MAP-Kinasen, Phytoalexinbiosynthese, Induktion von PR-Genen und Ca^{2+} -Ausschüttung.

1.2 ETI (*Effector Triggered Immunity*)

Die zweite Form der angeborenen Immunität beruht auf der Interaktion von dominanten Avirulenz-(Avr) Genen der Pathogene (Effektor) mit dominanten Resistenz-(R) Genen (Rezeptor) der Pflanzen. Dies führte 1971 zum „Gen-für-Gen“ Modell von Flor (Flor, 1971). Pathogene, welche auf diese Weise erkannt werden und es folglich nicht schaffen die Pflanze zu befallen und eine Krankheit auszulösen, werden als avirulent, die Pflanze als resistent und diese Interaktion als inkompatibel bezeichnet. Die Interaktion zwischen Pathogen und Pflanze gilt als kompatibel, wenn entweder das Avirulenz- oder Resistenzgen oder auch Beide fehlen, es somit keine Gen-für-Gen-Erkennung gibt und die Krankheit ausgelöst wird. In diesem Fall spricht man von einem virulenten Pathogen und einer suszeptiblen Pflanze (Cohn et al., 2001; Dangl and Jones, 2001; Glazebrook, 2005; Heath, 2000). In den letzten Jahren wurden viele R- und Avr-Gene identifiziert. Die R-Gene sind in einige große Gruppen unterteilt deren größte Gruppe die NB-LRR-Klasse ist (nucleotide binding site–leucine rich repeat) (Belkhadir et al., 2004). Die NB-LRR vermittelte Immunantwort wirkt nur gegen biotrophe oder hemibiotrophe aber nicht gegen nekrotrophe Pathogene (Glazebrook, 2005). Während der ETI kommt es ebenfalls zu einer Ansammlung von reaktiven Sauerstoffspezies (ROS) und anderen schon von der PTI bekannten Abwehrmechanismen. Dennoch unterscheidet sich die ETI in ihrer Kinetik

von der PTI, außerdem kommt es bei der ETI häufig zum programmierten Zelltod (Hypersensitive Response) an der Infektionsstelle (Morel and Dangl, 1997).

1.3 Das Zusammenspiel von PTI und ETI

Wie in den beiden vorherigen Kapiteln beschrieben, besteht das Immunsystem der Pflanzen aus zwei Zweigen. PAMPs bzw. MAMPs (microbial associated patterns) werden von PRRs (transmembrane pattern recognition receptors) erkannt. NB-LRR-Rezeptoren, welche von R-Genen kodiert werden, binden die Effektoren von verschiedenen Pathogenen. In Abbildung 1 soll im Folgenden anhand eines Modells die Immunantwort von Pflanzen, bestehend aus PTI und ETI, erklärt werden. In der ersten Phase werden PAMPs/MAMPs (dargestellt durch ein rotes Karo) von entsprechenden Rezeptoren erkannt, wodurch die PTI ausgelöst wird, welche ein weiteres Wachstum des Pathogens blockiert. In der zweiten Phase setzen erfolgreiche Pathogene Effektoren ein, welche zur Virulenz des Pathogens führen. Die Effektoren haben die Fähigkeit die Effektivität der PTI abzuschwächen, dies resultiert in der ETS (effector triggered susceptibility). In der dritten Phase wird nun der Effektor (dargestellt durch einen roten Kreis) von seinem entsprechenden NB-LRR-Rezeptor erkannt und es folgt die ETI. Die ETI ist eine stärkere Art der Immunantwort, welche meistens mit einer HR-Reaktion an der Infektionsstelle endet. Die natürliche Selektion führt dazu, dass Pathogene neue Effektoren sekretieren, welche die ETI nicht auslösen. Zeitgleich entwickelten sich die Rezeptoren im Laufe der Evolution ebenfalls weiter, diese können dann die neuen Effektoren erkennen und sind somit wieder in der Lage die ETI auszulösen.

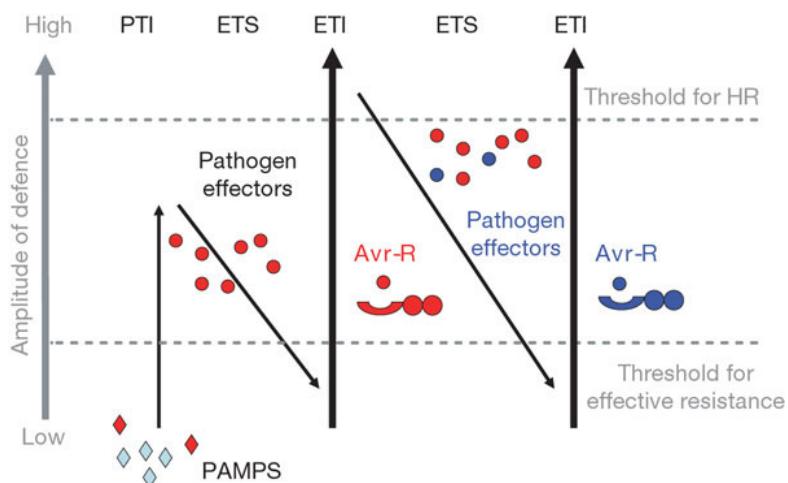


Abbildung 1: Illustration des Zusammenspiels von PTI und ETI anhand eines Modells von (Jones and Dangl, 2006).

1.4 Phytoalexine

Phytoalexine sind eine chemisch diverse Gruppe mit antimikrobieller Wirkung, welche sich ausschließlich an Infektionsstellen schnell ansammeln (Kuc, 1995). Beispiele sind einfache Phenylpropanoidderivate, Flavonoid- und Isoflavonoidderivate, Sesquiterpene und Polyketide. Phytoalexine werden oftmals aus einem oder mehreren Primärstoffwechselprodukten gebildet, z. B. aus Phenylalanin oder Tryptophan, aus Zwischenprodukten des Shikimatwegs oder aus Zwischenstufen des Acetat-Malonat Wegs (Hammerschmidt, 1999). Die vermeintliche Wirkung der Phytoalexine wurde erstmals 1940 veröffentlicht (Müller and Borger, 1940). Dabei wurde gezeigt, dass Kartoffelgewebe, welches mit einem inkompatiblen Stamm von *Phytophthora infestans* infiziert wurde, vor zukünftigen Infektionen mit kompatiblen *P. infestans*-Stämmen geschützt war. Diese Resistenz beruhte auf der Induktion von Phytoalexinen, welche das Wachstum des inkompatiblen Stammes verhindern und das Kartoffelgewebe vor zukünftigen Infektionen schützen konnte.

Die verschiedenen Pflanzenfamilien verwenden unterschiedliche Sekundärstoffe als Phytoalexine. Eines haben sie dabei aber immer gemeinsam, Phytoalexine sind in der Regel vor der Infektion der Pflanze nicht detektierbar und werden nach einem Pathogenangriff sehr schnell synthetisiert. Die Phytoalexine sammeln sich hierbei in Konzentrationen an, welche sich in Bioassays toxisch für die Pathogene auswirken, wobei die Wirkung der Phytoalexine in der intakten Pflanze noch nicht genau verstanden ist (Taiz and Zeiger, 2006). Seit Müller 1940 diese Entdeckung veröffentlichte wurden Phytoalexine aus mehr als 30 Pflanzenfamilien isoliert, wobei die Phytoalexine der *Brassicaceae* die ersten Schwefelhaltigen waren (Pedras et al., 2000). Glucosinolate sind eine weitere Gruppe schwefelhaltiger Sekundärstoffe der *Brassicaceae*, welche ebenfalls an der Verteidigung gegen Mikroorganismen und Insekten beteiligt sind (Giamoustaris and Mithen, 1997).

1.5 Nep1-artige Proteine (Nep1-like proteins)

Filtrate von *Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. erythroxyli*-Kulturen induzierten Nekrosen und die Produktion von Ethylen nach Infiltration in Blätter von *Erythroxylum cocam* (Bailey, 1995). Verantwortlich dafür war das 24 kDa schwere Protein Nep1 (necrosis and ethylene-inducing peptide 1), welches das Gründungsmitglied einer Familie mikrobieller Proteine (NLPs, Nep1-like proteins) ist, welche von pflanzenpathogenen Oomyceten (*Pythium aphanidermatum* und *Phytophthora* spp.), Pilzen (*Fusarium oxysporum* und *Neurospora*

crassa) und Bakterien (*Bacillus halodurans*, *Streptomyces coelicolor* und *Erwinia spp.*) sekretiert werden (Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006; Pemberton and Salmond, 2004). NLPs weisen ein breites Wirtsspektrum unter den dikotylen Pflanzen auf, zeigen allerdings keinerlei Wirkung bei monokotylen Pflanzen (Bailey, 1995; Veit et al., 2001). Allen NLPs gemeinsam ist die NPP1-Domäne (necrosis-inducing *Phytophthora* protein 1) (Fellbrich et al., 2002). Diese Domäne kann entweder zwei (Typ 1) oder vier (Typ 2) konservierte Cysteinreste enthalten, wobei Typ 1- Domänen in Pilzen, Oomyceten und Bakterien vorkommen, Typ 2- Domänen nur in Pilzen und Bakterien. Beiden Domänen (Typ 1 und 2) gemeinsam ist ein zentrales, konserviertes Sequenzmotiv, bestehend aus sieben Aminosäuren „GHRHDWE“ (Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006). Zusätzlich besitzen die NLPs ein eukaryotisches Exkretionssignal mit einer Proteinase-Erkennungssequenz (Veit et al., 2001). NLPs werden von Pflanzen einerseits als PAMPs (mittels PRRs) erkannt, andererseits haben sie eine toxische Wirkung auf Pflanzen (Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006; Pemberton and Salmond, 2004; Qutob et al., 2006). Die Abwehrreaktion der Pflanzen auf NLPs ist demzufolge vergleichbar mit der Reaktion auf andere PAMPs (s. Kapitel 1.2), bevor die Pflanze am Ende dennoch abstirbt. Bei einem Vergleich von NLPs mit zwei gut untersuchten PAMPs (Flagellin (Zipfel and Felix, 2005) und Transglutaminase (Brunner et al., 2002)) finden sich dennoch einige Unterschiede, welche auf die duale Wirkung von NLPs zurückzuführen sind. NLPs verursachen im Gegensatz zu Flagellin und Transglutaminase Gewebekrosen. Ebenso kann die Aktivität der beiden PAMPs auf ein Peptidfragment reduziert werden (*Pep-13*, *Flg22*) und zusätzlich haben NLPs ein breiteres Wirtspflanzenspektrum (Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006).

Ein Beispiel aus der Familie der NLPs ist das NLP aus *Phyti um aphanidermatum* (NLP_{Py}a, PaNie). Es wurde gezeigt, dass sowohl Zellkulturen, als auch intakte Blätter von Karotten nach Kontakt mit Proteinextrakten aus *P. aphanidermatum* mit der Aktivierung des Phenylpropanoid-Biosynthesewegs und mit Einbau von *de novo*-synthetisierter 4-Hydroxybenzylsäure in die Zellwand reagieren. Zusätzlich erfolgte ein schneller Zelltod in den analysierten Geweben. Verantwortlich hierfür war NLP_{Py}a (PaNie, *Pythium aphanidermatum* necrosis inducing elicitor), welches aus Proteinextrakten isoliert werden konnte (Koch et al., 1998). PaNie zeigt alle oben beschriebenen strukturellen und charakteristischen Eigenschaften und führt ebenso zu den beschriebenen Gewebekrosen (Veit et al., 2001).

1.6 Camalexin aus *A. thaliana*

Camalexin (3-Thiazol-2'-yl-Indol) ist das charakteristische Phytoalexin der Modellpflanze *A. thaliana* (s. Abb. 2). Die Biosynthese wird durch eine Reihe von Pflanzenpathogenen und abiotischen Faktoren, wie z.B. Silbernitrat induziert.

1.6.1 Die Entdeckung von Camalexin

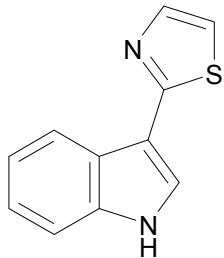


Abbildung 2: Camalexin

Camalexin wurde 1991 (Browne et al., 1991) in *Camelina sativa* aus der Familie der *Cruciferae* isoliert. *C. sativa* zeigt eine Resistenz gegenüber *Alternaria brassicae*, welche auf die Akkumulation von Camalexin zurückzuführen ist, da Camalexin fungizid gegen *A. brassicae* wirkt. Tsuji et al. entdeckten Camalexin 1992 in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, nach Behandlung mit *Pseudomonas syringae*. Es wurde ebenfalls in nahen Verwandten von *Arabidopsis thaliana* nachgewiesen, wie *Arabidopsis lyrata* (Zook et al., 1998) und *Capsella bursa-pastoris* (Jimenez et al., 1997). Camalexin wirkt antiproliferativ gegen eine menschliche Brustkrebslinie, so dass es möglicherweise in Zukunft auch für medizinische Zwecke eingesetzt werden kann (Mezencev et al., 2003). Camalexin kann mittels Dünnschichtchromatographie sehr leicht detektiert oder mittels Fluoreszenzdetektor nach High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) quantifiziert werden, da es unter UV-Licht blau fluoresziert.

1.6.2 Die Camalexinbiosynthese

Die Biosynthese von Camalexin wird durch viele Mikroorganismen induziert, Bakterien (Glazebrook and Ausubel, 1994; Tsuji et al., 1992), Viren (Callaway et al., 1996; Dempsey et al., 1997), Pilze (Glazebrook et al., 1997; Thomma et al., 1999; Zook and Hammerschmidt, 1997) und Oomyceten (Roetschi et al., 2001). Zusätzlich wird Camalexin durch viele abiotische Faktoren induziert, insbesondere durch solche, welche zur Bildung reaktiver Sauerstoffspezies (ROS) führen, z. B. Schwermetalle (Tsuji, 1993), Acifluorfen (Zhao et al., 1998), UVB-Licht (Mert-Turk et al., 2003b) und das Toxin Fusarinsäure (Bouizgarne et al., 2006).

Es wurden Markierungsexperimente durchgeführt, um die Camalexinbiosynthese aufzuklären. Hierzu wurde markiertes [¹⁴C]Anthraniлат effektiv in Camalexin eingebaut und aus diesem Grund hat Camalexin seinen Ursprung in der Shikimatbiosynthese. Hingegen konnte nur geringer Einbau von [³H]Tryptophan beobachtet werden, zusätzlich zeigten die Tryptophansynthase-Mutanten *trp3-1* (*tsa1*) und *trp2-1* (*tsb1*) einen wildtypischen

Camalexingehalt. Diese Ergebnisse ließen auf einen Tryptophan-unabhängigen Biosyntheseweg von Camalexin schließen (Tsui, 1993). Markiertes Indol wurde noch effektiver in Camalexin eingebaut und stützte somit die These des Tryptophan-unabhängigen Biosynthesewegs (Zook, 1998). Mittlerweile wurde gezeigt, dass Camalexin aus Tryptophan über Indol-3-Acetaldoxim (IAOx), unter Beteiligung von CYP79B2 und CYP79B3, synthetisiert wird (Glawischnig et al., 2004). Es war bereits länger bekannt, dass CYP79B2 und CYP79B3 an der Biosynthese von Indolglucosinolaten beteiligt sind, indem sie die Umwandlung von Tryptophan zu IAOx katalysieren (Hull et al., 2000; Mikkelsen et al., 2000). Die Hypothese, dass Camalexin aus Indolglucosinolaten synthetisiert wird (Hanley et al., 1990), konnte dadurch entkräftet werden, dass *superroot1 (sur1)*-Mutanten, welche keinerlei Glucosinolate produzieren (Mikkelsen et al., 2004), trotzdem einen gewissen Camalexingehalt aufwiesen (Glawischnig et al., 2004). Durch den Einbau von extern verabreichtem, fluoriertem IAOx und [$2^{\text{-}}{^{14}\text{C}}$]IAOx in Camalexin wurde gezeigt, dass IAOx eine Vorstufe von Camalexin ist. Weiterhin wurde gezeigt, dass das C2-Atom des Thiazolrings von Camalexin seinen Ursprung ebenfalls in IAOx hat (Glawischnig et al., 2004).

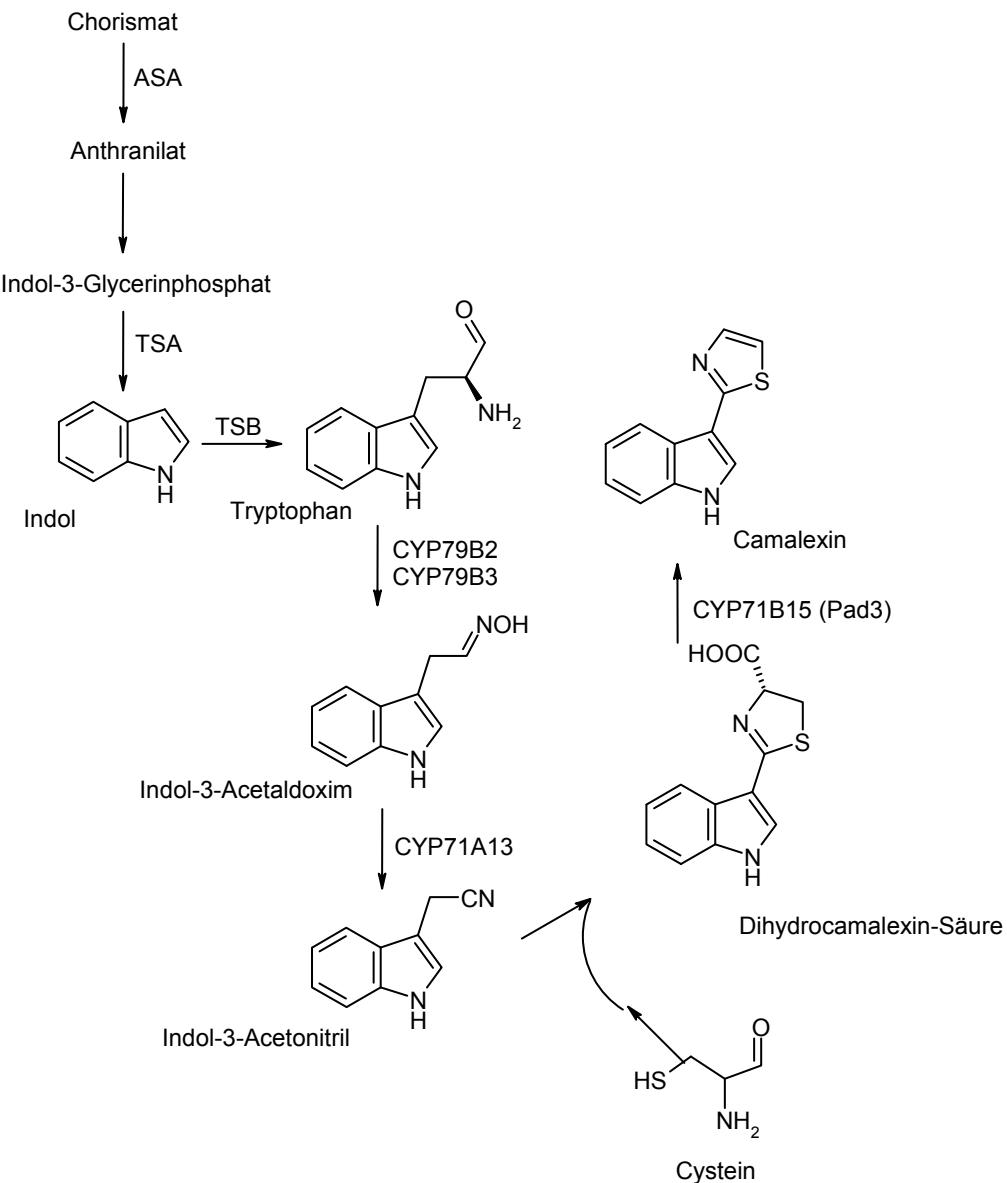


Abbildung 3: Die Camalexinbiosynthese (Glawischnig et al., 2004; Nafisi et al., 2007; Schuhegger et al., 2006; Zook and Hammerschmidt, 1997).

Fluoriertes Tryptophan und [¹⁴C]Trp dagegen wurden, wie schon früher gezeigt (Tsuiji, 1993; Zook, 1998; Zook and Hammerschmidt, 1997), schlecht in Camalexin eingebaut. Der Grund dieser schwachen Einbauquote von Tryptophan ist noch unklar. Möglicherweise kann das von Außen zugeführte Tryptophan aufgrund von Kompartimentierungen den Enzymen CYP79B2 und CYP79B3 nicht zugänglich gemacht werden. Die Tatsache, dass *cyp79b2/cyp79b3*-Doppelmutanten weder Indolglucosinolate (Zhao et al., 2002), noch Camalexin (Glawischnig et al., 2004) synthetisieren zeigt, dass nur CYP79B2 und CYP79B3 zum IAOx-Pool beitragen. Aus diesem entstehen Camalexin und Indolglucosinolate (Bak et al., 2001; Hansen et al., 2001) und ein postulierter Weg über YUCCA-abhängige Tryptaminhydroxylierung (Zhao et al., 2001) spielt hier keine

Rolle. Zusätzlich gilt IAOx als Vorstufe von Auxin (IAA), dies konnte durch Enzymtests mit ^{14}C -IAOx gezeigt werden (Helminger et al., 1985). Die erhöhte Auxin-Akkumulation in *sur1*- und *sur2*-Mutanten im Vergleich zum Wildtyp, welche beide *downstream* von IAOx liegen, bestätigt die Hypothese einer IAOx-abhängigen Auxinbiosynthese (Bak et al., 2001; Barlier et al., 2000; Mikkelsen et al., 2004). Unter normalen Wachstumsbedingungen akkumulieren *cyp79b2/cyp79b3*-Doppelmutanten wildtypische Auxinkonzentrationen. Unter Hitzestress allerdings synthetisieren diese Mutanten im Vergleich zum Wildtyp nur noch ca. 65% freies Auxin (Zhao et al., 2002). Weiterhin zeigen diese Mutanten eine reduzierte Auxin-Synthese in Wurzelspitzen, wodurch eine tryptophanabhängige Auxin-Synthese in Wurzeln wahrscheinlich erscheint (Ljung et al., 2005).

Fütterungsexperimente mit markierten Aminosäuren zeigten, dass sowohl Schwefel und Stickstoff, als auch C-4' und C-5' des Thiazolrings von Camalexin aus Cystein stammen (Zook and Hammerschmidt, 1997), während die restlichen Atome von Tryptophan abstammen. Der letzte Schritt der Camalexinbiosynthese, die Decarboxylierung von Dihydrocamalexin-Säure (2-(Indol-3-yl)-4,5-Dihydro-1,3-Thiazol-4-Carboxylsäure) zu Camalexin, wird von einem weiteren Cytochrom P450 Enzym katalysiert, CYP71B15 (PAD3) (Schuhegger et al., 2006). Während eines Screens auf camalexindefiziente Mutanten wurde *PAD3* entdeckt (Glazebrook and Ausubel, 1994) und das entsprechende Gen kloniert (Zhou et al., 1999). Dihydrocamalexin-Säure akkumuliert in Blättern und Wurzellexudaten von Silber-induzierten *pad3*-Mutanten und komplementiert den camalexindefizienten Phänotyp von *cyp79b2/cyp79b3*-Doppelmutanten (Bednarek et al., 2005; Schuhegger et al., 2006). Heterolog in Hefe exprimiertes CYP71B15 katalysiert die Umwandlung von Dihydrocamalexin-Säure zu Camalexin, wobei das (R)-Enantiomer bevorzugt wird. Arabidopsis-Mikrosomen von induzierten Wildtypen sind ebenfalls in der Lage diese Reaktion zu katalysieren, wohingegen Mikrosomen von induzierten *pad3*-Mutanten diese Reaktion nicht katalysieren können (Schuhegger et al., 2006).

cyp71a13-Mutanten zeigen nach Infektion mit *Pseudomonas syringae* oder *Alternaria brassicicola* einen deutlich reduzierten Camalexingehalt im Vergleich zum Wildtyp. Die Expression von CYP71A13 ist sehr stark mit CYP71B15 (PAD3) coreguliert. Heterolog in *E. coli* exprimiertes CYP71A13 setzt IAOx zu Indol-3-Acetonitril (IAN) um, während die Expression von CYP79B2 und CYP71A13 in *Nicotiana benthamiana* Tryptophan in IAN umwandelt. Zusätzlich komplementiert von Außen zugeführtes IAN den camalexindefizienten Phänotyp in Arabidopsis. Diese Ergebnisse zeigen, dass CYP71A13 die Umwandlung von IAOx zu IAN während der Camalexinbiosynthese katalysiert (Nafisi et al., 2007).

1.6.3 Die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese

Phytoalexine werden ausschließlich an der Infektionsstelle synthetisiert (Kuc, 1995). Dies gilt auch für Camalexin und konnte nach Infektion mit *Alternaria alternata* (Schuhegger et al., 2007) und *Botrytis cinerea* (Kliebenstein et al., 2005) gezeigt werden. Diese lokale Camalexinakkumulation korreliert mit der Induktion der Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthesegene, welche ebenfalls nur an der Infektionsstelle induziert werden (Schuhegger et al., 2006; Schuhegger et al., 2007). Interessanterweise wurde *CYP79B3* im Gegensatz zu *CYP79B2* nur sehr schwach exprimiert (Schuhegger et al., 2007). Passend dazu akkumuliert *cyp79b2* nach Behandlung mit Silbernitrat (Glawischnig et al., 2004) oder *B. cinerea* (Kliebenstein et al., 2005) deutlich weniger Camalexin als *cyp79b3*. Dies lässt die Schlussfolgerung zu, dass *CYP79B3* weniger eine Rolle bei der Camalexinbiosynthese, als bei der Indolglucosinolatbiosynthese spielt.

Eine natürliche Variabilität der Camalexinmenge in verschiedenen Ökotypen von *Arabidopsis* wurde nach unterschiedlichen Behandlungen gezeigt. Behandlungen waren *Botrytis cinerea* und Acifluorfen (Denby et al., 2004), *P. syringae* DC3000/avrRps4-Infiltration und Besprühen mit Silbernitrat (Rauhut, 2004; Schuhegger et al., 2007), UVB-Licht und *Peronospora parasitica*-Infektion (Mert-Turk et al., 2003b), *Hyaloperonospora parasitica*-Infektion (Mert-Turk et al., 2003a) und Infektion mit *C. carbonum* (Kagan and Hammerschmidt, 2002). Diese Untersuchungen zeigten, dass von der Art der Behandlung abhängt, wie viel Camalexin synthetisiert wird. Es gibt keinen Ökotyp, welcher immer viel oder wenig Camalexin, unabhängig von der Behandlung, synthetisiert. Demzufolge müssen die Unterschiede in der Camalexinakkumulation in den verschiedenen Ökotypen auf Unterschieden in den Signalerkennungs-, Signaltransduktions- und/oder Signalregulations-Loci beruhen und nicht in der katalytischen Effizienz von Biosynthesegenen.

Die Induktion von Camalexin als Antwort auf Pathogenbefall, Schwermetallbehandlung und viele andere Elicitoren, ist Teil des komplexen Netzwerks der Pflanzenabwehr, welche auf Salicylsäure-, Jasmonat- und Ethylen-abhängigen Signalketten beruht. Für die Induktion der Camalexinbiosynthese spielen Salicylsäure, Glutathion und ROS eine wichtige Rolle, deren Zusammenspiel ist allerdings noch nicht bis ins Detail verstanden. Letztendlich wird durch diese Signalketten die koordinierte Induktion, sowohl der Tryptophan-, als auch der Camalexinbiosynthesegene ausgelöst (Narusaka et al., 2003; Schuhegger et al., 2007; van Wees et al., 2003; Zhao and Last, 1996; Zhao et al., 1998).

Ein Screening von mutagenisierten *Arabidopsis*-Pflanzen lieferte neben *pad3* noch weitere phytoalexindefiziente Mutanten *pad1*, *pad2*, *pad4* und *pad5* (Glazebrook and Ausubel, 1994; Glazebrook et al., 1996). Die Funktion von *PAD1* und *PAD5* ist

weitestgehend unbekannt, lediglich eine Beteiligung von *PAD1* an der Jasmonat-Signalkette scheint wahrscheinlich (Glazebrook et al., 2003). *PAD4* codiert für ein Lipase-ähnliches Protein und *pad4*-Mutanten zeigen eine reduzierte Camalexinakkumulation (Jirage et al., 1999). Die Camalexinantwort in *pad4* ist allerdings abhängig vom verwendeten Pathogen. Die Behandlung mit *Botrytis cinerea* und *Cochliobolus carbonum* führt im Gegensatz zur Behandlung mit *P. syringae* pv. *maculicola* ES4326 (Ferrari et al., 2003; Glazebrook et al., 1997) nicht zu einer reduzierten Camalexinakkumulation. Folgendes Modell wurde für das Zusammenspiel von *PAD4*, Salicylsäure und Camalexin postuliert (Zhou et al., 1998). Nach Infektion mit *P. syringae* pv. *maculicola* ES4326 ist *PAD4* notwendig, um eine bestimmte Salicylsäurekonzentration zu erreichen, welche ausreichend ist, um die Camalexinbiosynthese zu induzieren.

Kürzlich wurde *PAD2* kloniert und dabei zeigte sich, dass es für die γ -Glutamylcystein-Synthetase 1 (GSH1, CAD2) kodiert, welche den ersten Schritt der Glutathionbiosynthese katalysiert (Parisy et al., 2007). *pad2*-Mutanten akkumulieren ca. fünfmal soviel Cystein wie Wildtypen, wohingegen nur noch ca. 20% Glutathion im Vergleich zum Wildtyp synthetisiert wird. Weiterhin ist die Menge an synthetisiertem Camalexin nach Behandlung mit *P. syringae* pv. *maculicola* ES4326 um ca. 90% reduziert (Parisy et al., 2007).

Das Vorkommen von ROS scheint für die Induktion der Camalexinbiosynthese notwendig zu sein. NLPs z. B. induzieren im Rahmen der Immunantwort sowohl Camalexin, als auch ROS (Qutob et al., 2006). Die chemische Induktion von ROS, durch die Behandlung von Arabidopsis mit Acifluorfen, endet ebenfalls in der Akkumulation von Camalexin (Zhao et al., 1998).

Die Signaltransduktionskette, welche die Biosynthese reguliert, ist noch zum größten Teil unbekannt. Es ist mittlerweile jedoch klar, dass Mitogen-aktivierte Proteinkinasen (MAPKs) zusammen mit WRKY-Transkriptionsfaktoren an der Signalübertragung beteiligt sind. Viele MAPKs, wie z. B. MPK3, MPK4 und MPK6 werden durch PAMPs oder Pathogeninfektionen aktiviert (Pedley and Martin, 2005; Tena et al., 2001). *Upstream* von MPK3 und MPK6 liegen MKK4 und MKK5 (Asai et al., 2002; Ichimura, 2002; Ren et al., 2002), wiederum *upstream* davon liegen MEKK1 und MAPKKKa (Asai et al., 2002; del Pozo et al., 2004). Diese Signaltransduktionskette bestehend aus MAPKKKa/MEKK1-MKK4/MKK5-MPK3/MPK6 (s. Abb. 4) reguliert die Camalexinbiosynthese nach Infektion mit *B. cinerea* (Ren et al., 2008). Die Aktivierung von MPK3/MPK6 induziert die Transkription der Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthesegene, was zur Akkumulation von Camalexin führt. Weiterhin sind *mpk3/mpk6*-Doppelmutanten nicht in der Lage Camalexin zu synthetisieren (Ren et al., 2008). Weitere MAPKs sind zusammen mit WRKY33 an der Regulation von CYP71B15 beteiligt (Qiu et al., 2008). MPK4 ist wie MKK1 und MKK2 an

der gleichen Signalkette beteiligt (s. Abb. 4) und *upstream* davon liegt wiederum MEKK1, welches schon aus der Signalkette von MPK3 und MPK6 bekannt ist (Ichimura et al., 1998). Mittels Yeast-2-Hybrid-Experimenten wurde MKS1 als MPK4-Substrat identifiziert und *in vivo*-Experimente in Arabidopsis zeigten, dass die zwei Transkriptionsfaktoren WRKY25 und WRKY33 mit MKS1 interagieren (Andreasson et al., 2005). Pathogeninfektionen führen zur Aktivierung von MPK4 und zu Phosphorylierung von MKS1, was schließlich zur Freisetzung von MKS1 und WRKY33 führt. Anschließend bindet WRKY33 an den Promoter von *CYP71B15* (Qiu et al., 2008).

Aufgrund der Beteiligung von WRKY-Transkriptionsfaktoren an der Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese wurden in dieser Arbeit Mutanten weiterer WRKY-Transkriptionsfaktoren untersucht. In *wrky18/wrky40*-Doppelmutanten ist die *PAD3*-Expression, nach Behandlung mit *P. syringae* DC300 erhöht (Shen et al., 2007). *wrky18* und *wrky40* wurden deshalb als mögliche Repressoren der Camalexinbiosynthese auf ihren Camalexingehalt und die Expression der Camalexinbiosynthesegene untersucht.

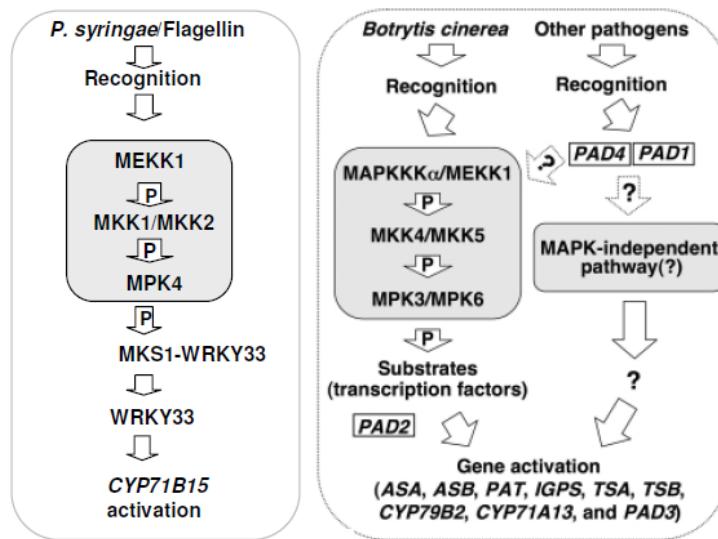


Abbildung 4: Übersicht über die MEKK1-MKK1/MKK2-MPK4- und MAPKKKa/MEKK1-MKK4/MKK5-MPK3/MPK6-Signalkaskaden und ihren Einfluss auf die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese, nach Qiu et al. (2008) links und Ren et al. (2008) rechts.

1.7 Thiazolylindole in anderen Organismen: BE10988 aus *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988

Das Vorkommen von Thiazolylindolen ist auf Arabidopsis und einige wenige andere Pflanzenarten, wie z.B. *Capsella bursa-pastoris* beschränkt. Interessanterweise hat man aber ebenfalls Thiazolylindol-Verbindungen in Bakterien entdeckt. Das 3-Thiazolyl-Indol-

Derivat BE-10988 aus *Streptomyces sp.* BA10988 besitzt ein dem Camalexin identisches Grundgerüst mit einigen zusätzlichen Modifikationen. Diese strukturelle Gemeinsamkeit zwischen Sekundärstoffen aus Bakterien und Pflanzen ist sehr selten. Die Biosynthese von Sekundärstoffen wurde nur in sehr wenigen Fällen in beiden Organismen untersucht. Hierbei ist es interessant zu klären, ob die Biosynthese in Pflanzen und Bakterien ähnlich abläuft. Phenylalanin-Ammonium-Lyasen sind in der Phenylpropanoidbiosynthese die Schlüsselenzyme der Pflanzen und wurden ebenfalls in Streptomyceten gefunden (Moore et al., 2002). Die Streptomyceten innerhalb der grampositiven Bakterien gehören zu den Aktinomyceten und kommen in der Natur allgegenwärtig vor. Hauptsächlich besiedeln sie den Boden und wachsen dort in Form von vegetativen Hyphen, welche sich zu Sporen differenzieren können und der Verbreitung dienen. In Sporenform können die Streptomyceten im Boden bis zu 70 Jahre überdauern (Ensign, 1978; Mayfield et al., 1972; Morita, 1985). Streptomyceten produzieren eine Vielzahl von extrazellulären Enzymen. Durch das Zersetzen vieler Polymere (Lignin, Chitin, Stärke) von toten Pflanzen, Tieren und Pilzen sind sie wichtig für die Biozönose, da dabei Mineralsalze (z.B. Ammonium und Nitrat) freigesetzt werden und den Pflanzen somit wieder zur Verfügung stehen (Crawford, 1988; McCarthy, 1987; McCarthy and Williams, 1992).

Es gibt unter den Streptomyceten nur sehr wenig Pathogene. Krankheiten beim

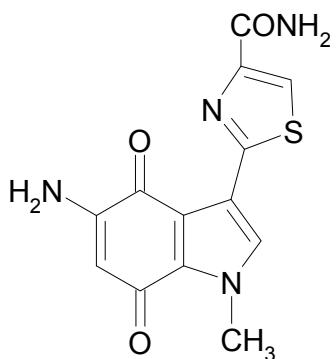


Abbildung 5: BE-10988

Menschen werden zumeist von anderen Vertretern der Aktinomyceten verursacht, wie z.B. *Mycobacterium* und *Nocardia*. Infektionen bei Pflanzen werden ebenfalls nur sehr selten durch Streptomyceten ausgelöst, der wohl bekannteste Fall ist der Kartoffelschorf.

Streptomyceten sind dafür bekannt viele Antibiotika und andere Klassen von biologisch aktiven Sekundärmetaboliten zu synthetisieren. Einige Beispiele sind Chloramphenicol (*S. venezuelae*), Hygromycin B (*S. hygroscopicus*), Kanamycin (*S. kanamyceticus*), Streptomycin (*S. griseus*) und viele Weitere (Kieser et al., 2000). Einige der Sekundärmetabolite

beinhalten, analog zum Camalexin, einen Thiazolring (Chang et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2002). In einem Screeningprogramm für DNA-Topoisomeraseinhibitoren wurde aus dem Streptomyces Stamm BA10988 die aktive Verbindung BE-10988 isoliert. Die Strukturformel von BE-10988 ist in Abbildung 5 dargestellt. BE-10988 zeigt eine erhöhte DNA-Topoisomerase-Komplexbildung und inhibiert, wie Camalexin, das Wachstum von Tumorzellen, hier P388 Maus-Tumorzellen (Oka et al., 1991). Einige Beispiele zeigen, dass Thiazolringe in Bakterien oftmals durch nichtribosomale Peptidsynthetasen gebildet

werden (Crossa and Walsh, 2002). Ein NRPS-Genfragment mit einer Cystein-spezifischen Adenylierungsdomäne wurde im Rahmen der Diplomarbeit von A. Grabrucker aus *Streptomyces sp.* BA10988 isoliert (Grabrucker, 2005). Es erscheint deshalb wahrscheinlich, dass der Thiazolring von BE-10988, genauso wie bei Camalexin, seinen Ursprung in Cystein hat. Die Indoloquinonkomponente von BE-10988 kann durch zwei hypothetische Biosynthesewege entstehen (s. Abb. 6) zum Einen aus Tryptophan, ähnlich wie Camalexin oder zum Anderen analog zur Biosynthese der Mitomycin-Antibiotika (Mao et al., 1999). Im Fall des Mitomycin-ähnlichen Wegs würde die Biosynthese bei frühen Zwischenprodukten des Shikimatwegs beginnen, 3-Aminodehydroshikimat und 3-Amino-5-Hydroxybenzylsäure.

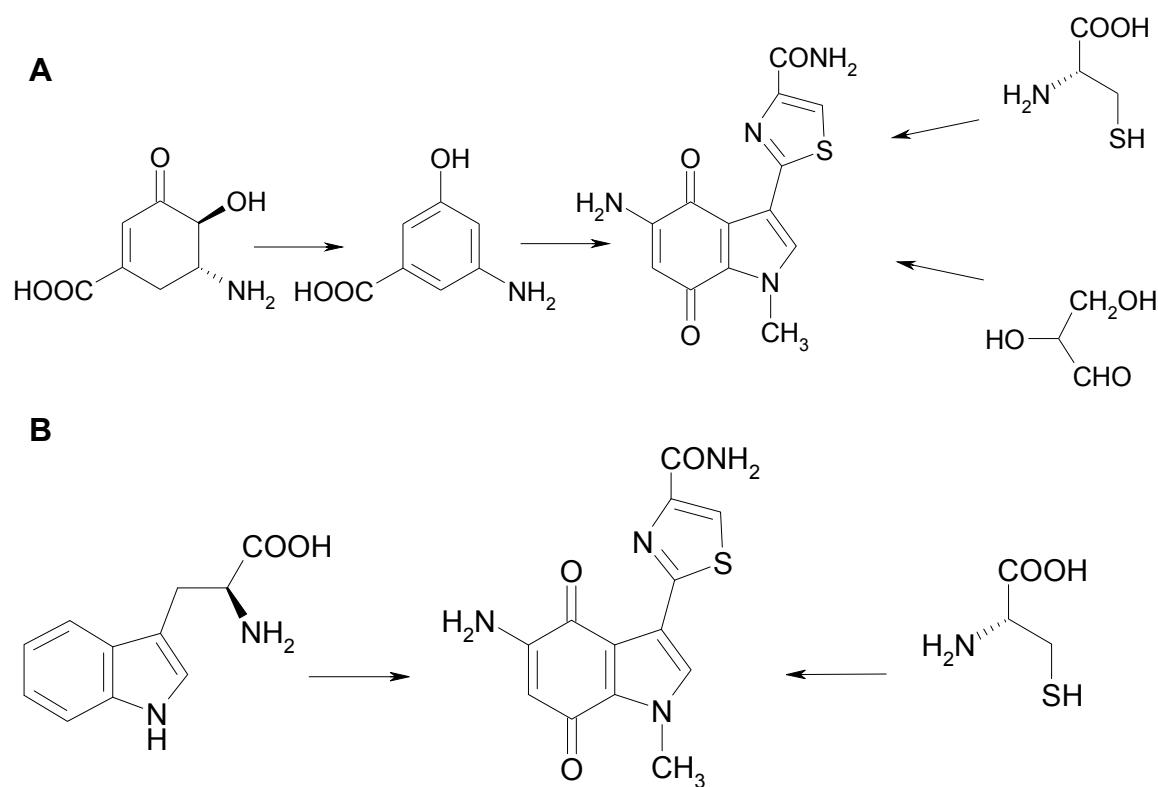


Abbildung 6: Zwei hypothetische Biosynthesewege für BE-10988 aus *Streptomyces sp.* BA10988.

- (A) Biosyntheseweg von BE-10988 analog zu den Mitomycin-Antibiotika aus 3-Amino-5-Hydroxybenzylsäure, Cystein und einem Dreifachzucker
- (B) Biosyntheseweg von BE-10988 analog zu Camalexin aus Tryptophan und Cystein

1.8 Ziele der Arbeit

Das Ziel dieser Arbeit war es Gene zu identifizieren, welche an der Camalexinbiosynthese oder deren Regulation beteiligt sind. Dies geschah durch die Analyse von Knock-Out oder Knock-Down-Pflanzen. Weiterhin sollte die Camalexinreaktion von *Arabidopsis* nach der Behandlung mit verschiedenen PAMPs charakterisiert werden. Dabei wurde die Camalexinakkumulation und die Expression der Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthesegene in *Alc::PaNie_{Dc}*-Pflanzen detailliert analysiert, welche *PaNie_{Dc}* als Transgen unter der Kontrolle eines Alkohol-induzierbaren Promoters exprimieren.

BE-10988 aus *Streptomyces sp.* BA10988 besteht genauso wie Camalexin aus einem Indolgrundgerüst mit einem 3-substituierten Thiazolring. Deshalb sollte mittels retrobiosynthetischer NMR-Analyse, beruhend auf der Markierung mit [$U-^{13}C_6$]Glukose und der Analyse der Kopplung zwischen ^{13}C -Kernen, geklärt werden, ob BE-10988 wie Camalexin aus Tryptophan und Cystein synthetisiert wird oder ob die Biosynthese von BE-10988 analog zu den Mitomycin-Antibiotika abläuft.

2. Material und Methoden

2.1 Material

2.1.1 Pflanzen

Arabidopsis thaliana wurde in einem Erde:Sandgemisch (3:1), in einer begehbarer Pflanzenkammer (HEMZ 20 240 S, Heraeus), bei 12 h Licht (80-100 mol Photonen·m⁻²·s⁻¹), 19 °C und 40% relativer Luftfeuchte gezogen.

Tabelle 1: Verwendete T-DNA-Insertionslinien (Alonso et al., 2003)

Name	AGI-Code	SALK-Nummer
GSTF2	At4g02520	SALK_030186
GSTF3	At2g02930	SALK_048444
GSTF6	At1g02930	SALK_040223
GSTU4	At2g29460	SALK_125181
GSTU3	At2g29470	SALK_054737 SALK_017999
Nit4	At5g22300	SALK_016289
AAOx1-3	At5g20960	SALK_069221
AtMP2-Intron	AT3g48890	SALK_149315
AtMP2-Exon	AT3g48890	SALK_042103
RHA1a	At4g11370	SALK_046581
O-Methyltransferase	At1g33030	SALK_075264
ANAC042 Homolog Allel 3	At3g12910	SALK_046570
ANAC042 Homolog Allel 5	At3g12910	SALK_046587

Transposon-Insertionslinie (Martienssen, 1998; Sundaresan et al., 1995): ANAC042 (At2g43000)

Alc::PaNie_{Dc}: Borries Luberacki (Zentrum für Molekularbiologie der Pflanzen und Pflanzenbiochemie, Tübingen)

gstf2f3f6, GSTF2F3F6F7 siRNAi, GSTF9F10 siRNAi: Katharina Lange (Lange, 2005)

wrky18, wrky40, wrky18/40: I. E. Somssich (Molekulare Phytopathologie, Max Planck Institut für Züchtungsforschung, Köln)

2.1.2 Mikroorganismen

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> : | XL1-Blue (Bullock et al., 1987) |
| <i>Streptomyces</i> sp.: | BA10988 (Oka et al., 1991) |
| <i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> : | GV3101 (Koncz and Schell, 1986) |

Pseudomonas syringae:

DC3000/avrRPM1 (Jörg Durner, Uta von Rad; Helmholtz Zentrum München)

2.1.3 Plasmide

Tabelle 2: Verwendete Plasmide

Plasmid	Resistenzmarker	Hersteller
pGem T-Easy	Ampicillin	Stratagene, USA
pCAMBIA1305.1u	Kanamycin (Bakterien); Hygromycin B (Pflanzen)	CAMBIA, Australien; diese Arbeit
pCAMBIA330035Su	Kanamycin (Bakterien); L-PPT (Pflanzen)	CAMBIA, Australien; (Nour-Eldin et al., 2006)

2.1.4 Oligonukleotide

Tabelle 3: PCR-Primer (Genotypisierung)

Interne Nummer	Name	Sequenz	Gen/Kostrukt
94	B2 5' Bjarne	TGGACAAGTATCATGACCCAATCATCCACG	CYP79B2
95	B2 3' Bjarne	AACGGTTAGCCAGAACATATCGT	CYP79B2
96	B3 5' Bjarne	TGTTCTATGCATGGACTGGTGGTCAACATG	CYP79B3
97	B3 3' Bjarne	AGGAAACCGATCACTGACCCTTG	CYP79B3
121	F3Clar	ATCGATGCTGGGAGAAGGTTGGTCCCTTG	GSTF2 siRNAi
122	F3Kpn	GGTACCGCTGGGAGAAGGTTGGTCCCTTG	GSTF2 siRNAi
125	F9Clar	ATCGATGCTTTGAGAGATGTGCCCTCG	GSTF9 siRNAi
126	F9Kpn	GGTACCGCTTTGAGAGATGTGCCCTCG	GSTF9 siRNAi
127	35S	ACGCACAATCCCACATCCTTCG	GSTF2siRNAi GSTF9 siRNAi
130	LB b1	GCGTGGACCGCTTGCTGCAACT	SALK-Linien
135	GSTF2 WT	GTTTGATGTTGAAGGTGAAGGTG	GSTF2
136	GSTF2 FR	GGCATACAGATATAGAGCATCAC	GSTF2
143	GSTF3-WT-2	AAATTCTCACAGAACCTCTCT	GSTF3
144	GSTF3-FR-2	TTGGGAACAAGTATTCAAGTTCAACTAT	GSTF3
147	GSTf1	TGCTGACATCACTCAAGGCCTT	GSTF6
151	GSTF6WT-2	CCTTTTTGGTGACAGTTACGCTC	GSTF6
196	Nit4-WT	ATCTCATAGCCAATAAACCC	Nit4
197	Nit4-FR	ATGCTAGCCAAGTTCTCTT	Nit4
198	PDR12-WT	CAGTGCACCAGTCGTCAAC	PDR12
199	PDR12-FR	CACACCCAAGAACCTCTC	PDR12
208	GSTU4-WT	ACAAACCCACATAAACTAGTCAAA	GSTU4
209	GSTU4-FR	ATTACATACAGTCATCGGTGGTT	GSTU4
231	ANAC042-CSHL-FR	TGGATGGTCCCATATCATAAGTA	ANAC042
232	ANAC042-CSHL-WT	ATGAGTGGCGAAGGTAACCTAGG	ANAC042
233	ANAC042-	CTAAGAAAAGAAGGTGGAAAGC	ANAC042

	Hom-FR		Homolog
234	ANAC042-Hom-WT	TGGCCCTACACACTCTAACCCCTA	ANAC042 Homolog
235	ATMP2-Exon-FR	AGAAATACCTGCTCTGAGAAAACA	Atmp2
236	ATMP2-Exon-WT	AAAACACAAAACGTTACTCTTCTCTC	Atmp2
237	ATMP2-Intron-FR	GCTCCGATTCTAAAAAGCCCCCTTCTTA	Atmp2
238	ATMP2-Intron-WT	GCTTCTAATGGTATTGTTCCAAGAAAAG	Atmp2
239	Methyl-Trf-FR	GTGTTGTAAACATATCTCCAGC	O-Methyltransferease
240	Methyl-Trf-WT	ACCTTAAAGATTCTGTTCTGAAGG	O-Methyltransferease
241	RHA1a-FR	TAAACCAATCTGAACCAGAACCC	RHA1a
242	RHA1a-WT	ATCATGGGTCTTCCTGAAGATT	RHA1a
254	WT-AAOx1.3	CCCGGGTATAGATCAAGCTGGC	AAOx1.3
255	FR-AAOx1.3	CCGCACAATGAGTGACTTCTTCT	AAOx1.3
258	Ds3-4	CCGTCCCGCAAGTTAAATATG	ANAC042

Tabelle 4: Primer für die quantitative RT-PCR

Interne Nummer	Name	Sequenz	Gen/Kostrukt
38	3879B2	AGACGAACAAGGCAACCCA	CYP79B2
74	o74B2ri	TTCTCAGGTAGCTTCCAAGTG	CYP79B2
40	79B3	GGACGAAGCTGGCCAGCCT	CYP79B3
75	o75B3ri	GGGGTTACGACCAAGACCGTAA	CYP79B3
115	TSAF	CCCATCCAGCTATCTGTTTACATG	TSA
116	TSAR	AACAAGGTGTTGGAGAGGGGAACA	TSA
117	ASAF	ATGTCTAGCGTTGGTCGTTAGCG	ASA1
118	ASAR	CTTGACCACAGCCTCCTGTACTCT	ASA1
142	GSTF3-FR-1	CATA GTTGAAC TTGAAT ACTTGT TCCC	GSTF3
150	GSTF10-FR2	GTCCTCTCTCTTCAATAGTCTTCC	GSTF10
154	:101actin1f1	TGGA ACTGGA ATGGTTAAGGCTGG	Actin1
155	:102actin1r1	TCTCCAGAGTCGAGCACAAATACCG	Actin1
156	GSTF2/F3RTf	TCTCCCGCAACCCCTTTGGTC	GSTF2/GSTF3
157	GSTF2RTf1	GTAGATGGACTTGAATATTGTTCAA	GSTF2
160	GSTF7RTf1	CATCTTCCGCAACCCCTTTGG	GSTF7
161	GSTF7RTf1	TCTTCTGATTAACAGTTGTGAG	GSTF7
162	GSTF9RTf1	TCTACAGCCTTTGGTACTGTT	GSTF9
163	GSTF9RTf1	GCTCTTGAGAGATGTGCCTCG	GSTF9
164	GSTF10RTf1	GATT CAGCCTT CGGT AAAATC	GSTF10
165	GSTF6rtf2	GATTTTCGAATCAAGAGCAATTA	GSTF6
166	GSTF6rtr2	TATTACATCTCTGATCGATAAAT	GSTF6
174	B15-RTf4	GGAATGATCTCGGACATATTGTTAG	CYP71B15
175	B15-RTf4	TGGACATATTCTCCTACCAG	CYP71B15
210	Tom-GSTU3RT-F2	ATTTGTCGATGAACAAGTCACAATG	GSTU3
211	Tom-GSTU3-RT-R2	TCTCTTAGACCGCTTGATT CGT	GSTU3
212	Tom-GSTU4-RT-F2	AGTCGTTGATGAACAGGTTGGA	GSTU4

213	Tom-GSTU4-RT-R2	TCATTGTTGTCTCTTAGGCTGAT	GSTU4
245	FAD-26380-RT-F	CCAATCACCGATGCCATCTTAC	FAD-bdcp
246	FAD-26380-RT-R	TGGCTTGCCCATCGATCTTCAC	FAD-bdcp
247	FAD-26390-RT-F	CCAATCACCGATGCCATCTCCTT	FAD-bdcp-Homolog
248	FAD-26390-RT-R	TGGCTTACGTCATTGACGTTGT	FAD-bdcp-Homolog
259	A13-RT-F	TATGATCTTGGATATGTTATCGGAGG	CYP71A13
260	A13-RT-R	ATTGATTATCACCTCTGTCCCTG	CYP71A13
265	PaNie-RT-F2	GCCGTGATCAACCATGATGCTGT	PaNie
266	PaNie-RT-R2	TTGTAGCCACTGTGAGCCGATGCC	PaNie
324	RHA1b-RT-f	GGGTCTTCCAACAGATTCAAAG	RHA1b
325	RHA1b-RT-r	CTGAAGTACCCCAATCAAACG	RHA1b
326	RHA1a-RT-f	GTCTTCCTGAAGATTTCATCACC	RHA1a
327	RHA1a-RT-r	AACCAGAACCCCAATCAGATTG	RHA1a
328	AIG2-RT-f	CCACGGCTATCACCTGTATAAG	AIG2
329	AIG2-RT-r	GCCGGAGAAGAATCATCTTG	AIG2
330	AIG2hom-RT-f	CGGCTATCACGTATATAGACTC	AIG2-Homolog
331	AIG2hom-RT-r	GCAGTGGGAGGATCATCGAA	AIG2-Homolog

Tabelle 5: Primer für die Promoter-Deletionskonstrukte

Interne Nummer	Name	Sequenz	Gen/Kostrukt
1u	PacI-B15/ASA-EcoRI	AATTCGCTGAGGCTTAATTAAAGAGA GAGAGATTAATTAAACCTCAGCC	PacI-Kasette
2u	PacI-B15/ASA-Ncol	CATGGGCTGAGGTTTAATTAAATCTC TCTCTCTTAATTAAAGCCTCAGCG	Pac-Kasette
7u	B15-Promoter-R	GGTTTAAUCATTTCCGCCCTGTTCTTG	CYP71B15-Promoter-Deletionskonstrukte
8u	B15-Promoter-F1	GGCTTAAUAGAGGTTCTAAGATTCTTAGA G	Deletionskonstrukt 1
9u	B15-Promoter-F2	GGCTTAAUGTTCCAGAGTCAAACCAAAC TTGGA	Deletionskonstrukt 2
10u	B15-Promoter-F3	GGCTTAAUGAAAGAAAAACAAAGACACA CACACAC	Deletionskonstrukt 3
11u	B15-Promoter-F4	GGCTTAAUATGAAATAAAATCCAACGGAA GAAGGC	Deletionskonstrukt 4
12u	B15-Promoter-F5	GGCTTAAUAAATCTACTTCGGCATTTC ACGTAC	Deletionskonstrukt 5
13u	B15-Promoter-F6	GGCTTAAUTACTCTTGAGATATGTTCTT GACACC	Deletionskonstrukt 6
14u	B15-Promoter-F7	GGCTTAAUTAGAAGATGATGATATATGGAT CCC	Deletionskonstrukt 7
15u	B15-Promoter-F8	GGCTTAAUAAAATTGAAGTTACTGACG GCTTCC	Deletionskonstrukt 8
16u	B15-Promoter-F9	GGCTTAAUTGGCTTAGCTTGAGACGACC	Deletionskonstrukt 9
17u	B15-Promoter-F10	GGCTTAAUTGGTAGTGTCTCATATTAGAAA TGG	Deletionskonstrukt 10
18u	B15-Promoter-F11	GGCTTAAUCTTACGATTATTACAGAC TACAGC	Deletionskonstrukt 11
19u	ASA1-Promoter-	GGTTTAAUCATTGTAACGGCTAAGAACTC	ASA1-Promoter-

	R	G	Deletionskonstrukt
20u	ASA1-Promoter-F1	GGCTTAAUGCTGTGAAGTGACTCATATC	Deletionskonstrukt 1
21u	ASA1-Promoter-F2	GGCTTAAUGGGTAGTGATAATCATATTG T	Deletionskonstrukt 2
22u	ASA1-Promoter-F3	GGCTTAAUGAAATGACTAGGAAGGATTA	Deletionskonstrukt 3
23u	ASA1-Promoter-F4	GGCTTAAUATGCTTTAATGTGGATGGA	Deletionskonstrukt 4
24u	ASA1-Promoter-F5	GGCTTAAUAAAAGCAACCTCCAATTAC	Deletionskonstrukt 5
25u	ASA1-Promoter-F6	GGCTTAAUGTATTGTTAACATTCCGCTA	Deletionskonstrukt 6
26u	ASA1-Promoter-F7	GGCTTAAUGAAAGACTTTCGAACACTA	Deletionskonstrukt 7
27u	ASA1-Promoter-F8	GGCTTAAUTAGTTTCCGAAAAGGGTT	Deletionskonstrukt 8
28u	ASA1-Promoter-F9	GGCTTAAUCACATGGTCATCTCTTAT	Deletionskonstrukt 9

Tabelle 6: Primer für amiRNAs

Interne Nummer	Name	Sequenz	Gen/Kostrukt
29u	miRNA-A	GGCTTAAUCTGCAAGGCGATTAGTTGGT AAC	amiRNA
30u	miRNA-B	GGTTTAAUGCAGATAACAATTACACAG GAAACAG	amiRNA
31u	I miRNA-GSTU3/4	GATAATTCCCACCTTACCAAGTCTCTCT TTTGTATTCC	amiRNA-GSTU3/U4
32u	II miRNA-GSTU3/U4	GACTTGGTAAGGTATGGGAATTATCAAAG AGAACATGA	amiRNA-GSTU3/U4
33u	III miRNA-GSTU3/U4	GACCTGGTAAGGTAAAGGAATTATCACAG GTCGTGATATG	amiRNA-GSTU3/U4
34u	IV miRNA-GSTU3/U4	GATAATTCCCTTACCTTACCAAGGTCTACAT ATATATTCCCT	amiRNA-GSTU3/U4
35u	I miRNA-FAD	GATTCTGTAATTAAACAAGGCCCTCTCTCT TTTGTATTCC	amiRNA-FADbdcp
36u	II miRNA-FAD	GAAGGCCTTGTAAATTACAGAAATCAAAGA GAATCAATGA	amiRNA-FADbdcp
37u	III miRNA-FAD	GAAGACCTTGTAAATACAGATTACAGG TCGTGATATG	amiRNA-FADbdcp
38u	IV miRNA-FAD	GAATCTGTATTAAACAAGGTCTCTACAT ATATATTCCCT	amiRNA-FADbdcp
39u	AIG2-miR-I	GATCAGTTAGTATCTAGCCGTTGTCTCTCT TTTGTATTCC	amiRNA-AIG2
40u	AIG2-miR-II	GACAACGGCTAGATACTAACTGATCAAAG AGAACATGA	amiRNA-AIG2
41u	AIG2-miR-III	GACACCGGCTAGATAGTAACGTGTTCACAG GTCGTGATATG	amiRNA-AIG2
42u	AIG2-miR-IV	GAACAGTTACTATCTAGCCGGTGTCTACA TATATATTCCCT	amiRNA-AIG2
43u	RING-H2-miR-I	GATATGTAAGGACAACGAGCATCTCTCTC TTTGTATTCC	amiRNA-RINGH2
44u	RING-H2-miR-II	GAGATGCTCGTTGTCCCTACATATCAAAGA GAATCAATGA	amiRNA-RINGH2

45u	RING-H2-miR-III	GAGACGCTCGTTGTCGTTACATTCACAG GTCGTGATATG	amiRNA-RINGH2
46u	RING-H2-miR-IV	GAAATGTAACGACAACGAGCGTCTCTACA TATATATTCCCT	amiRNA-RINGH2

2.1.5 Chemikalien und Reagenzien

Die verwendeten Chemikalien (analytischer Reinheitsgrad) wurden von BioRad® (München), Boehringer (Mannheim), Fluka (Schweiz), Merck (Darmstadt), Roth (Karlsruhe), Serva (Heidelberg) und Sigma-Aldrich (USA) bezogen. [$U-^{13}C_6$]Glukose wurde von NEC bezogen.

Enzyme wurden von Gibco BRL (Eggenstein), New England Biolabs (USA), Qiagen (Hilden), Roche (Schweiz), Serva (Heidelberg), Sigma-Aldrich (USA) und Stratagene (USA) bezogen.

2.2 Molekularbiologische Methoden

2.2.1 DNA-Isolierung

Die Plasmid-DNA-Präparation aus *E. coli* wurde nach (Birnboim and Doly, 1979), mittels alkalischer Lyse durchgeführt. Die Plasmid-DNA aus *A. tumefaciens* wurde ebenfalls mittels alkalischer Lyse isoliert. Genomische DNA wurde aus Blättern von *A. thaliana* nach (Souza-Canada, 2006) isoliert.

2.2.2 RNA-Isolierung

Gesamt-RNA wurde aus Blättern, Blüten und Stängeln von *A. thaliana* mittels NucleoSpin®RNA Plant-Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren) nach Angaben des Herstellers isoliert.

Das Schotenmaterial wurde homogenisiert, mit RNA-Extraktionspuffer (25 mM Tris-HCl pH 8,0, 25 mM EDTA pH 8,0, 75 mM NaCl, 1% SDS) versetzt und mit Phenol/CHCl₃/IA (50:24:1) und Phenol/CHCl₃/IA (25:24:1) extrahiert. Die RNA wurde mit 0,25 Vol. 10 M LiCl (tropfenweise zugegeben, um das Fällen von genomischer DNA zu verhindern) gefällt, mit 70% EtOH gewaschen, in 200 µl H₂O_{DEPC} rückgelöst, mit 2,5 Vol. EtOH/0,1 Vol. 3 M NaOAc pH 5,2 gefällt, mit 3 M NaOAc und 70% EtOH gewaschen und in 50 µl H₂O_{DEPC} gelöst.

2.2.3 cDNA-Synthese

Die cDNA-Synthese erfolgte mit dem TaqMan Kit (Roche, Schweiz) nach Angaben des Herstellers. Zur Synthese wurden ca. 0,5 µg Gesamt-RNA eingesetzt.

2.2.4 Southern Blot und Hybridisierung

Genomische DNA aus Streptomyces wurde restriktionsverdaut und auf einem 0,8%igen Agarosegel aufgetrennt und üN auf eine Hybond™ H+ Nylonmembran (Pall Biosupport Membranes) übertragen (Sambrook et al., 1989). Die verwendeten Sonden zum Nachweis der Streptomyces Mutanten waren Fragmente des analysierten Cytochrom P450-Gens und der NRPS. Diese Sonden wurden mittels Klenow-Reaktion mit α -³²P dCTP radioaktiv markiert. Die Auswertung erfolgte am STORM®860 Phosphoimager (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech) mittels ImageQuant (Molecular Dynamics).

2.2.5 Klonierung

Allgemeine Klonierungstechniken wie Restriktionsverdau mittels Restriktionsendonukleasen, Alkalische Phosphatase- und T4-Polymerase-Behandlung, sowie Ligationen wurden nach standardisierten Protokollen (Sambrook et al., 1989) oder nach Angaben des Herstellers durchgeführt.

2.2.6 Polymerase Kettenreaktion (PCR)

2.2.6.1 Standard-PCR

Standard-PCRs wurden nach (Saiki et al., 1988) im Thermoblock UNO (Biometra, Göttingen) mittels GoTaq® DNA Polymerase (Promega, USA) durchgeführt.

PCRs für das USER™-Cloning wurden mittels PfuTurbo® C_x Hotstart DNA Polymerase (Stratagene, USA) durchgeführt.

2.2.6.2 Quantitative RT-PCR

Die quantitative Bestimmung der Transkriptmenge wurde am Light-Cycler (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim) durchgeführt und gegen die Transkriptmenge von *Actin1* normiert. Für *Actin1*, *CYP71A13*, *GSTF2*, *GSTF3*, *GSTF6*, *GSTF7*, *GSTF9*, *GSTF10*, *GSTU3* und *GSTU4* wurde der FastStart DNA Master SYBR Green Kit (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim) und für *CYP79B2*, *CYP79B3*, *CYP71B15*, *TSA*, *ASA1*, *PaNie*, *FAD-bdcp*, *FAD-bdcp*-Homolog, *RHA1a*, *RHA1b*, *AIG2* und *AIG2*-Homolog der FastStart DNA Master^{PLUS} SYBR Green Kit (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim) verwendet.

Tabelle 7: Bedingungen der quantitativen RT-PCR

Gen	MgCl ₂ [mM]	DMSO [µl]	Annealingtemperatur [°C]	Extensionszeit [s]	Messung bei [°C]	Fragmentgröße [bp]
CYP79B2	-	-	60	25	87	550
CYP79B3	-	-	58	17	80	370
CYP71A13	3	-	55	15	80	307
CYP71B15	-	-	54	20	80	450
TSA	-	-	54	21	80	469
ASA1	-	0,5	54	26	80	587
PaNie _{Dc}	-	0,2	55	20	80	395
Aktin1	3	-	52	20	80	435
GSTF2	3	-	60	12	80	244
GSTF3	3	-	55	14	83	246
GSTF6	3	-	55	20	80	474
GSTF7	3	-	60	24	80	522
GSTF9	3	-	60	15	80	324
GST10	3	-	60	9	80	145
GSTU3	3	-	52	18	80	366
GSTU4	3	-	50	18	80	384
FAD-bdcp	-	-	54	18	80	364
FAD-bdcp-Homolog	-	-	54	18	80	364
RHA1a	-	-	55	19	80	440
RHA1b	-	-	55	19	80	437
AIG2	-	-	55	17	80	387
AIG2-Homolog	-	-	55	17	80	384

2.2.7 DNA-Sequenzierung

Plasmide für die DNA-Sequenzierung wurden zuvor mittels PEG-Fällung gereinigt (Sambrook et al., 1989). PCR-Produkte wurden mittels GFXTM DNA and Gel Band Purification Kit (Amersham) aufgereinigt. Für die Sequenzierung von Plasmid-DNA wurde 1 µg, für die Sequenzierung von PCR-Produkten 20 ng/100bp DNA luftgetrocknet und eingeschickt (MWG-Biotech, Martinsried).

2.2.8 USER™-Cloning

Das USER™-Cloning wurde wie von (Nour-Eldin et al., 2006) beschrieben, mit einer Ausnahme durchgeführt. In der verwendeten PacI-Kassette wurde die Restriktionsschnittstelle für BamHI durch das Sequenzmotiv GAGAGAGAGA ersetzt. Eine detaillierte Beschreibung der USER™-Cloning-Methode zur Klonierung der Promoterdeletionskonstrukte für *CYP71B15* und *ASA1* ist in der Bachelorarbeit von Harald Krispin zu finden (Krispin, 2007).

2.2.9 Klonierung von amiRNA-Konstrukten

Die Klonierung von amiRNA-Konstrukten (Schwab et al., 2006) gegen *GSTU3/GSTU4* und FAD-bdcp/FAD-bdcp-Homolog ist in der Bachelorarbeit von Harald Krispin detailliert beschrieben (Krispin, 2007). Die Klonierung von amiRNA-Konstrukten gegen *A/G2/A/G2*-Homolog und *Rha1a/Rha1b* wurde analog durchgeführt.

2.3 Elektroporation von Agrobakterien

Die Elektroporation von Agrobakterien erfolgte mit dem Gene-Transfection-Pulser (BioRad, USA) in 0,2 mm Küvetten bei 2,5 kV, 400 Ω und 25 µF mit 50-100 ng DNA. Die Selektion erfolgte auf YEP-Platten mit 35 µg/ml Rifampicin und Selektionsmarker des Plasmids.

2.4 GUS-Färbung

GUS-Färbungen von verschiedenen Geweben von *A. thaliana* wurden nach (Martin et al., 1992) durchgeführt.

2.5 Induktion mit Silbernitrat

Arabidopsisgewebe wurde mit 5 mM Silbernitrat besprüht und unter einer Plastikabdeckung die gewünschte Zeit inkubiert (Glawischnig et al., 2004).

2.6 Infiltration von *A. thaliana* mit *Pseudomonas syringae*

25 ml King's B-Medium (10 g/l Pepton, 1,5 g/l K₂HPO₄, 1,5 g/l Glycerol, 5 mM MgSO₄, pH 7) mit Tetracyclin (25 µg/ml) und Rifampicin (50 µg/ml) wurde mit *P. syringae* angeimpft und bei 28 °C für 24 h im Schüttler inkubiert. Dann wurden die Zellen pelletiert und in MgCl₂ (10 mM) resuspendiert. Die *P. syringae*-Lösung wurde mit MgCl₂ (10 mM) soweit verdünnt, bis die OD₆₀₀ 0,1 betrug. Diese verdünnte Suspension wurde nun mit einer 1 ml-Plastikspritze vorsichtig über die Stomata der Blattunterseite ins Blatt injiziert, bis das

gesamte Blatt bis zur Petiole infiltriert war. Die Pflanzen wurden in einer begehbarer Pflanzenkammer bei 19 °C unter einer Plastikabdeckung, um Austrocknung zu vermeiden, die gewünschte Zeit inkubiert. Anschließend wurden für die Messung Blätter an der Petiole abgeschnitten, gewogen und in einem Eppendorfgefäß in flüssigem Stickstoff eingefroren.

2.7 Transformation von *A. thaliana* mit Agrobakterien

Die Transformation von *A. thaliana* mit Agrobakterien erfolgte mit der „floral-dip-Methode“ (Clough and Bent, 1998).

2.8 Wachstumsbedingungen von *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988

Der in dieser Arbeit verwendete *Streptomyces* Stamm BA 10988 wurde von Dr. Saeki (Banyu Inc., Japan) bereitgestellt. Vorkulturen wurden in flüssigem dYT-Medium gezogen oder wuchsen auf festem Mannitol-Sojamehl-Medium (Hobbs et al., 1989). Für die Isolation von BE-10988 erfolgte das Wachstum von *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988 in einem Minimal Medium (Hopwood, 1967) das folgendermaßen verändert wurde: $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (0,1%), K_2HPO_4 (0,05%), $\text{MgSO}_4 \times 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0,02%), $\text{FeSO}_4 \times 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0,001%) in H_2O mit pH 7. Für die Retrobiosyntheseexperimente wurde 0,475% Glukose und 0,025% [$\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}_6$]Glukose hinzugefügt.

2.9 Isolierung von Naturstoffen

2.9.1 Analytische Camalexinextraktion aus *A. thaliana*

Für die Camalexinextraktion wurde das leicht abgewandelte Protokoll von (Tsuji et al., 1992) verwendet.

Das noch gefrorene Blattmaterial wurde im Eppendorfgefäß gemörser und in 600 µl MeOH (50 %) homogenisiert. Anschließend erfolgte die Inkubation für 30 Minuten bei 60 °C im Thermoschüttler und ein Zentrifugationsschritt für 15 Minuten bei 14.000 rpm. Der Überstand wurde in ein neues Eppendorfgefäß überführt und das Pellet nochmals in 600 µl MeOH (50 %) aufgenommen, wiederum im Thermoschüttler inkubiert und zentrifugiert. Die beiden Überstände wurden vereinigt und solange in einer Speed Vac-Zentrifuge getrocknet, bis der MeOH möglichst vollständig verdampft war. Die Probe wurde nun zehn Minuten bei 14.000 rpm zentrifugiert und der Überstand in ein neues Eppendorfgefäß überführt. Anschließend wurde der Überstand nun zweimal mit 1 Vol CHCl_3 ausgeschüttelt, wobei die beiden CHCl_3 -Phasen anschließend vereinigt wurden und in der Speed Vac-Zentrifuge vollständig verdampften. Das verbleibende Pellet wurde in 400 µl

MeOH (100 %) gelöst, zehn Minuten bei 14.000 rpm zentrifugiert und der Überstand in HPLC-Reaktionsgefäß überführt.

Die Camalexinanalyse erfolgte mittels HPLC (s. Kapitel 2.10). Dazu wurde eine LiChroCart 250-4 Säule verwendet (RP-18e, 5 µm; Merck), mit einer Flussrate von 1 ml·min⁻¹ mit 50% MeOH für 2 min, gefolgt von einem 12-minütigem linearen Gradienten auf 100% MeOH, dann 2 min bei 100% MeOH und abschließend 2 min bei 50% MeOH. Für die Detektion von Camalexin wurde der Fluoreszenzdetektor auf 318 nm und 370 nm eingestellt. Die Elution von Camalexin erfolgte nach ca. 10,7 min. Anhand der Retentionszeit und des UV-Spektrums konnte Camalexin eindeutig identifiziert werden.

2.9.2 Präparative Camalexinextraktion aus *A. thaliana*

In bis zu 5 Tabletts wurden Col-0 WT-Pflanzen (alternativ: PaNie-Pflanzen) großzügig ausgestreut. Vier Wochen alte Pflanzen wurden mit 5 mM Silbernitrat induziert (alternativ: 2% EtOH bei PaNie-Pflanzen). Nach 48 h (alternativ: 24 h bei PaNie-Pflanzen) wurden alle Blätter geerntet und in flüssigem Stickstoff gemörsert. Ca. 20 ml Pflanzenmaterial wurde in 50 ml Falcons überführt, mit 10-20 ml 50% MeOH vermischt, durch Vortexen gemischt und für 30 Minuten bei 60 °C im Wasserbad inkubiert. Wiederholtes Vortexen des Ansatzes während der Inkubation verbessert die Extraktion. Nach der Inkubation folgte ein Zentrifugationsschritt bei RT und 4.500 rpm für 15 min. Die Flüssigphase wurde möglichst vollständig abgenommen, in einen Rundkolben überführt, das Pflanzenpellet wiederum mit 10-20 ml 50% MeOH versetzt, durch Vortexen vermischt und der Inkubations- sowie der Zentrifugationsschritt analog wiederholt. Die Flüssigphase wurde wieder möglichst vollständig abgenommen und im Rundkolben gepoolt. Im Rotationsverdampfer erfolgte das Verdampfen des MeOH. Die Wasserphase wurde in 50 ml Falcons überführt, zweimal mit 1 Vol CHCl₃ ausgeschüttelt, das CHCl₃ im Rotationsverdampfer vollständig einrotiert und der Überstand dreimal mit je 2 ml EtOH rückgelöst. Mit der Speed Vac erfolgte eine Einengung auf ca. 1 ml.

Nun erfolgte der erste HPLC-Reinigungsschritt. Die Injektion wurde auf vier Mal je 250 µl aufgeteilt. Dazu wurde eine LiChroCart 240-10 Säule verwendet (RP-18e, 10 µm; Merck) mit einer Flussrate von 6 ml·min⁻¹ mit 50% MeOH für 2 min, gefolgt von einem 10-minütigen linearen Gradienten auf 100% MeOH, dann 2,5 min bei 100% MeOH und abschließend 3,5 min bei 50% MeOH. Für die Detektion von Camalexin wurde der Fluoreszenzdetektor auf 318 nm (Extinktion) und 370 nm (Emission) eingestellt. Die Elution von Camalexin erfolgte nach ca. 9,5 min. Anhand der Retentionszeit und des Spektrums konnte Camalexin eindeutig identifiziert werden. Die „Peaks“ wurden im

Rundkolben aufgefangen, im Rotationsverdampfer vollständig einrotiert, der Rückstand in MeOH rückgelöst und mit der Speed Vac auf ca. 400 µl eingeengt.

Der nächste Reinigungsschritt erfolgte mittels Dünnschichtchromatographie. Es wurden jeweils zwei präparative Kieselgelplatten mit 200 µl beladen. Als Laufmittel diente ein CHCl₃:MeOH-Gemisch im Verhältnis 9:1, wobei die Laufzeit ca. 1,5 h betrug. Unter UV-Licht (312 nm) war Camalexin als blau fluoreszierende Bande eindeutig erkennbar und konnte von der Platte abgekratzt werden. Im 50 ml Falcon erfolgte dreimal eine Extraktion mit je 10 ml MeOH. Die MeOH-Phasen wurden vereinigt, im Rotationsverdampfer vollständig einrotiert, der Rückstand in MeOH rückgelöst und mit der Speed Vac auf 1 ml eingeengt.

Nun erfolgte der zweite HPLC-Reinigungsschritt. Die Injektion wurde auf vier Mal je 250 µl aufgeteilt. Dazu wurde eine LiChroCart 250-10 Säule verwendet (RP-18e, 10 µm; Merck) mit einer Flussrate von 6 ml·min⁻¹ mit 30% Acetonitril (ACN) in 0,3% Ameisensäure für 2 min, gefolgt von einem 8-minütigen linearen Gradienten auf 70% ACN, dann einem 2-minütigen linearen Gradienten auf 100% ACN, dann 3 min bei 100% ACN und abschließend 2 min bei 30% ACN. Für die Detektion von Camalexin wurde der Fluoreszenzdetektor auf 318 nm und 370 nm eingestellt. Die Elution von Camalexin erfolgte nach ca. 7,5 min. Die „Peaks“ wurden im Rundkolben aufgefangen, im Rotationsverdampfer vollständig einrotiert, der Rückstand in MeOH rückgelöst und mit der Speed Vac auf ca. 2 ml eingeengt. Die Konzentrationsbestimmung erfolgte anhand des Molekulargewichts von Camalexin im Photometer. Die Reinheit wurde mittels GC-MS von Dr. Peter Spitteler (Lehrstuhl für Organische Chemie, TU München) bestätigt.

2.9.3 Isolierung von Glucosinolaten aus *A. thaliana*

In dieser Arbeit wurden Glucosinolate aus unbehandeltem und induziertem Blattmaterial extrahiert. Die Blätter wurden nach dem Einfrieren in Stickstoff zwei bis drei Tage in der Lyophylle gefriergetrocknet.

Die Glucosinolate wurden nach der Methode von (Petersen et al., 2001) extrahiert. Diese Methode beruht auf der Freisetzung der Glucosinolate aus den gefriergetrockneten Blättern durch Kochen in EtOH. Gleichzeitig wird dadurch das Enzym Myrosinase, welches die Glucosinolate zersetzt, inaktiviert. Die Glucosinolate wurden anschließend auf eine Ionenaustauschsäule aufgetragen und bindeten dort mit ihrer Sulfatgruppe. Durch die Sulfatasebehandlung können die Desulphoglucosinolate eluiert werden, wobei andere negativ geladene Substanzen an der Säule gebunden bleiben.

Das gefriergetrocknete Blattmaterial wird gewogen und anschließend 5 µl Benzylglucosinolat (5 mM) als interner Standard zugegeben. Die Proben kochte man nun

fünf Minuten in 4 ml EtOH (50 %), nahm den Überstand ab und kochte das Blattmaterial nochmals zwei Minuten in 2 ml EtOH. Die Überstände wurden vereinigt.

Mit jeweils 800 µl DEAE Sepharose wurden in 5 ml-Säulen Ionenaustauscher vorbereitet, jede Säule zwei Mal mit je 2 ml KOAc (0,5 M; pH 5,0) äquilibriert und zwei Mal mit je 2 ml H₂O_{bidest} gewaschen. Der oben vorbereitete Überstand wurde nun auf die Säule aufgetragen, um anschließend die Säule dreimal mit je 2,5 ml H₂O_{bidest} zu waschen. Nach dem Waschvorgang wurden 100 µl Sulfatase-Lösung (2,5 mg/ml) auf die Säule aufgetragen und die Säule sofort oben und unten mit Parafilm verschlossen. In inkubierten die Säulen bei RT.

Die Desulphoglucosinolate wurden zweimal mit je 2 ml H₂O_{bidest} eluiert, um anschließend die Proben mit der Speed Vac bis auf 150 µl einzudampfen. Diese 150 µl wurden in HPLC-Inserts abgefüllt, welche wiederum in die HPLC-Reaktionsgefäße überführt wurden.

Die Analyse der Desulphoglucosinolate erfolgte mittels einer LiChroCart 240-4 Säule (RP-18e, 5 µm; Merck) mit einer Flussrate von 1 ml·min⁻¹ mit H₂O für 2 min, gefolgt von einem 48-minütigen linearen Gradienten auf 60% MeOH, einem weiteren 3-minütigen linearen Gradienten auf 100% MeOH und abschließend 3 min bei 100% MeOH.

2.9.4 BE-10988-Isolierung aus *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988

In flüssigem dYT Medium (5 ml) wurde für 48 h bei 28°C eine Vorkultur von *Streptomyces* sp. BA 10988 angezogen. Mit dieser Vorkultur wurden 50 ml Minimal Medium (s. Kapitel 2.8) angeimpft und für 48 h bei 28°C und 200 rpm inkubiert. Diese zweite Vorkultur diente zum Animpfen von 1 l Minimalmedium. Insgesamt wurden 10 Erlenmeyerkolben (jeweils 1 l) bei 28°C und 200 rpm für 100 h inkubiert. Die Extraktion von BE-10988 erfolgte durch dreimaliges Ausschütteln jeder Kultur mit jeweils 1/3 Volumen EtOAc. Die EtOAc-Phase wurde anschließend mit Natriumsulfat getrocknet. Nach dem Eindampfen des EtOAc erfolgte die Aufreinigung von BE-10988 mittels präparativer HPLC. Dazu wurde eine LiChroCart 250-10 Säule (RP-18e, 10 µm, Merck) mit einer Flussrate von 5 ml·min⁻¹ mit 25% ACN für 2 min, gefolgt von einem 7-minütigen linearen Gradienten auf 100% ACN verwendet. Die Elution von BE-10988 erfolgte nach 6,6 min. Nach dem Eindampfen des ACN wurde die wässrige Phase dreimal mit 1/3 Volumen EtOAc ausgeschüttelt. Das Lösungsmittel wurde eingedampft und das gereinigte BE-10988 in deuteriertem DMSO aufgenommen.

2.9.5 Isolierung von Tryptophan und Tryptophan-Hydrolyse

Tryptophan wurde nach alkalischer Hydrolyse des Bakterienpellets, wie von (Eisenreich and Bacher, 1991) beschrieben, isoliert.

2.10 HPLC

Die HPLC-Analysen wurde mit einem System der Firma Dionex (PDA-100, ASI-100, P680, Chromleon Version 6.80 SP2 Build 2284) und einem Fluoreszenzdetektor der Firma Shimadzu (RF-10AXL) durchgeführt.

2.11 NMR-Spektroskopie

Die NMR-Spektren wurden von Dr. Wolfgang Eisenreich (Lehrstuhl für Biochemie, TU München) bei 27°C mit einem DRX 500 Spektrometer (Bruker Instruments, Karlsruhe, Germany) aufgenommen. BE-10988 wurde in deuteriertem DMSO, Tryptophan in 0,1 M NaOD gemessen.

Die retrobiosynthetische NMR-Analyse beruht hier auf der Fütterung einer universellen Kohlenstoffquelle ($[U\text{-}^{13}\text{C}_6]$ Glucose), welche die Grundlage für fast alle Stoffwechselwege darstellt. Nach der Isolation der Metabolite kann mittels NMR die Kopplung zwischen ^{13}C -Kernen analysiert und der biosynthetische Ursprung von Metaboliten, hier BE-10988, aufgeklärt werden (Bacher et al., 1998; Eisenreich and Bacher, 2007).

3. Ergebnisse

3.1 Analyse von Kandidatengenen für die Camalexinbiosynthese und deren Regulation

Die in dieser Arbeit untersuchten Kandidatengene zeigten alle eine starke Coregulation in Array-Experimenten mit den bekannten Camalexinbiosynthesegenen *CYP71B15* und *CYP71A13* (Expression Angler, <http://bbc.botany.utoronto.ca>). Wenn möglich wurden T-DNA- oder Transposon-Insertionslinien analysiert, anderenfalls wurde ein siRNAi- oder ein amiRNA-Ansatz verwendet, um Knock-Downs zu erzeugen. Die folgenden Tabellen zeigen eine Übersicht über die analysierten Kandidatengene (s. Tab 8, 9).

Tabelle 8: Übersicht über T-DNA- und Transposon-Insertionslinien.

Camalexinphänotyp: Es wurde untersucht, ob die Camalexinkonzentration in Rosettenblättern 24 h nach Silbernitratbehandlung signifikant und reproduzierbar verändert war. Teilweise wurden weitere Zeitwerte und *P. syringae*-induzierte Pflanzen analysiert.

Gen	Genotyp	Camalexinphänotyp
T-DNA-Insertionslinien		
GSTF2F3F6	Triple-Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
GSTU4	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
GSTU3	WT	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
Nit4	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
AAOx1-3	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
Atmp2 Exon	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
Atmp2 Intron	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
RHA1a	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
O-Methyltransferase	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
ANAC042 Homolog 3	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
ANAC042 Homolog 5	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
ATPDR12	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
Transposon-Insertionslinie		
ANAC042	Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
T-DNA-Insertionslinie x Transposon-Insertionslinie		
ANAC042xANAC042 Hom 3	Homozygot/Heterozygot	Noch nicht analysiert
ANAC042xANAC042 Hom 5	Doppel-Homozygot	Kein Camalexinphänotyp

Tabelle 9: Übersicht über amiRNA^a- und siRNAi^b-Linien

Gene	% Transkript vom WT	Camalexinphänotyp
GSTU3 ^a	GSTU3: 12%	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
GSTU4	GSTU4: 10%	
FAD-bdcp ^a	300%-500%	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
FAD-bdcp-Homolog		
Aig2 ^a	AIG2: 5%	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
Aig2 Homolog	AIG2-Homolog: 4%	
RHA1a ^a	RHA1a: 13%	Kein Camalexinphänotyp
RHA1b	RHA1b:14%	
GSTF2, GSTF3, GSTF6, GSTF7 ^b	GSTF2, F3, F6, F7: 0,1%-4,8%	Kein Camalexinphänotyp

Glutathion-S-Transferasen

Die analysierten GSTs der phi- (GSTF) und tau-Klasse (GSTU) (Wagner et al., 2002) sind möglicherweise verantwortlich für die Synthese des Thiazolrings von Camalexin. Dieser Ring entsteht wahrscheinlich durch Kondensation der Sulfhydryl- oder Aminogruppe von Cystein (oder Cysteinderivaten) mit 3-substituierten Indolverbindungen (z.B. Indol-3-Acetonitril) und abschließender Decarboxylierung durch CYP71B15. Glutathion-S-Transferasen katalysieren mit dem Angriff der reaktiven Thiolgruppe eines Glutathions auf elektrophile Gruppen vergleichbare Reaktionen. Die hier untersuchten GSTs der phi- und tau-Klasse waren zusätzlich zur Coregulation mit den Camalexinbiosynthesegenen in Alc::PaNie_{Dc} Pflanzen (s. Kapitel 3.3.3) stark induziert (s. Abb. 7). Die stärkere Induktion zeigten die GSTs der tau-Klasse. *GSTU3* und *GSTU4* waren ca. 43-fach bzw. ca. 100-fach induziert. Im Vergleich dazu war *GSTF6* als die am stärksten induzierte GST der phi-Klasse ca. 19-fach induziert. Die GSTs der phi-Klasse waren insgesamt stärker exprimiert als *GSTU3* und *GSTU4*.

gstf2f3f6-Triplemutanten zeigten nach Induktion mit Silbernitrat oder Infiltration mit *P. syringae* DC3000/*avrRPM1* keinen Camalexinphänotyp. In einem zweiten Ansatz wurden RNAi-Linien (Knock-Down für *GSTF2*, *GSTF3*, *GSTF6* und *GSTF7*) untersucht. Die Klonierung der siRNAi-Konstrukte gegen GSTs der phi-Klasse ist detailliert in der Diplomarbeit von Katharina Lange beschrieben (Lange, 2005). Trotz ausgeprägtem Silencing (< 5% Transkript für alle vier Gene, s. Abb. 9 A) konnte auch hier kein Camalexinphänotyp, nach Induktion mit Silbernitrat oder Infiltration mit *P. syringae* DC3000/*avrRPM1*, beobachtet werden.

gstu4-Mutanten zeigten ebenfalls keinen Camalexinphänotyp. Für *GSTU3* konnten keine Mutanten analysiert werden, da alle untersuchten Pflanzen vermutlich aufgrund einer Fehlannotation der SALK-Linien SALK_054737 und SALK_017999 wildtypisch waren. amiRNA-Linien gegen *GSTU3* und *GSTU4* zeigten ebenfalls keinen Camalexinphänotyp, trotz eines Silencings für beide Gene auf ca. 10% (s. Abb. 9 C).

GSTF9 und *GSTF10* sind schwach coreguliert mit Genen der Glucosinolat-, aber nicht mit denen der Camalexinbiosynthese. RNAi-Linien gegen *GSTF9* und *GSTF10* zeigten, wie erwartet, keinen Camalexinphänotyp. Das Silencing betrug hier für die Linie 4-27 0,4% Transkript für *GSTF9* und 25,7% für *GSTF10* (s. Abb. 9 B). Die zweite Linie 6-37 wies ein Silencing von 1,6% Transkript für *GSTF9* und 5,8% für *GSTF10* auf. Beide siRNAi-Linien wurden auf ihre Glucosinolatzusammensetzung, nach Induktion mit Methyljasmonat, analysiert (s. Abb. 8). Die Behandlung mit Methyljasmonat führt zu einer erhöhten Konzentration von Indol- und aliphatischen Glucosinolaten (Mikkelsen et al., 2003). Deshalb sollte ein glucosinolatdefizienter Phänotyp unter glucosinolatinduzierten

Bedingungen besser nachweisbar sein. Auffällig war, dass die Glucosinolatkonzentrationen insgesamt sehr hoch waren und 4-Methylthio-Butyl-Glucosinolat nicht detektierbar war. Deshalb wurde die Analyse zweimal durchgeführt (Abb. 8 A und B). Die Akkumulation von Indol-3-yl-Methyl-Glucosinolat ist in beiden Linien sowohl im WT, als auch in den RNAi-Linien nach Induktion mit Methyljasmonat leicht reduziert. Dieser Effekt ist in Linie 6-37 (s. Abb. 8 rechts) stärker zu sehen als in Linie 4-27 (s. Abb. 8 links) und soll in einer Zusammenarbeit mit Klaus Schlaeppi (Institut für Biologie, Universität Fribourg, Schweiz) genauer untersucht werden.

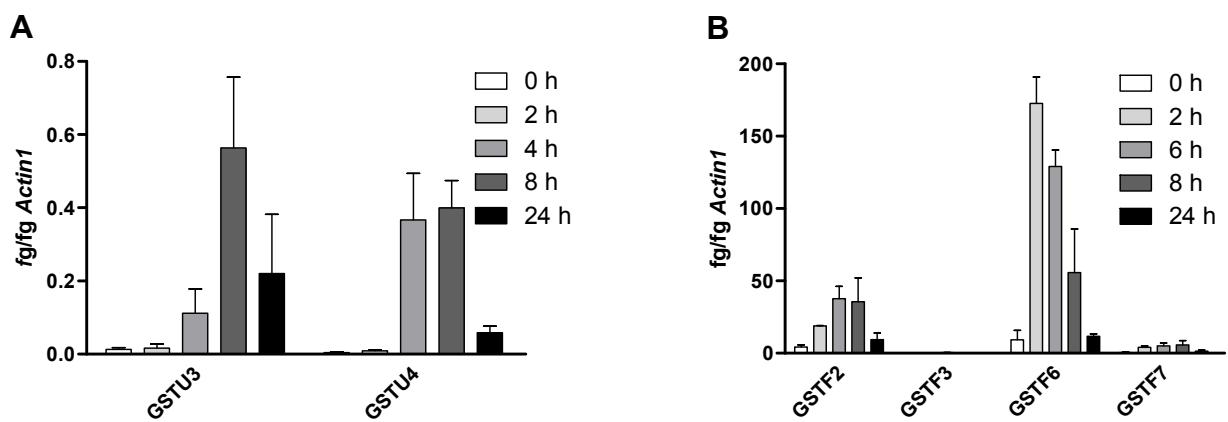


Abbildung 7: Induktion von Glutathion-S-Transferasen (GST) in Rosettenblättern von Alc::PaNie_{Dc} Pflanzen. Die Transkriptkonzentrationen, angegeben relativ zu *Actin1*, wurden durch quantitative RT-PCR (n=3) nach Besprühen mit 2% Ethanol bestimmt. Die Bestimmung der Transkriptkonzentrationen erfolgte zu den angegebenen Zeitwerten.

(A) *GSTU3* und *GSTU4*
(B) *GSTF2*, *GSTF3*, *GSTF6* und *GSTF7*

WRKY-Transkriptionsfaktoren

Einige WRKY-Transkriptionsfaktoren werden im Rahmen der ETI aktiviert (Asai et al., 2002). Es wurde gezeigt, dass *PAD3* in *wrky18*-, *wrky40*- und *wrky18/40*-Doppelmutanten, nach Infiltration mit *P. syringae* DC300, bis zu 4,75 Mal hochreguliert war (Shen et al., 2007). Diese WRKY-Transkriptionsfaktoren waren somit Kandidaten für Repressoren der Camalexinbiosynthese. Allerdings konnte die Induktion von *CYP71B15* und auch von *CYP71A13* in den *wrky*-Mutanten mit quantitativer RT-PCR, nach Silberinduktion, nicht bestätigt werden (s. Abb. 10 C, D). Ebenso wenig konnte eine signifikante Erhöhung oder Beschleunigung der Camalexinbiosynthese, nach Induktion mit Silbernitrat und Infiltration mit *Pseudomonas syringae* DC3000/*avrRpm1*, bestätigt werden (s. Abb. 10 A, B).

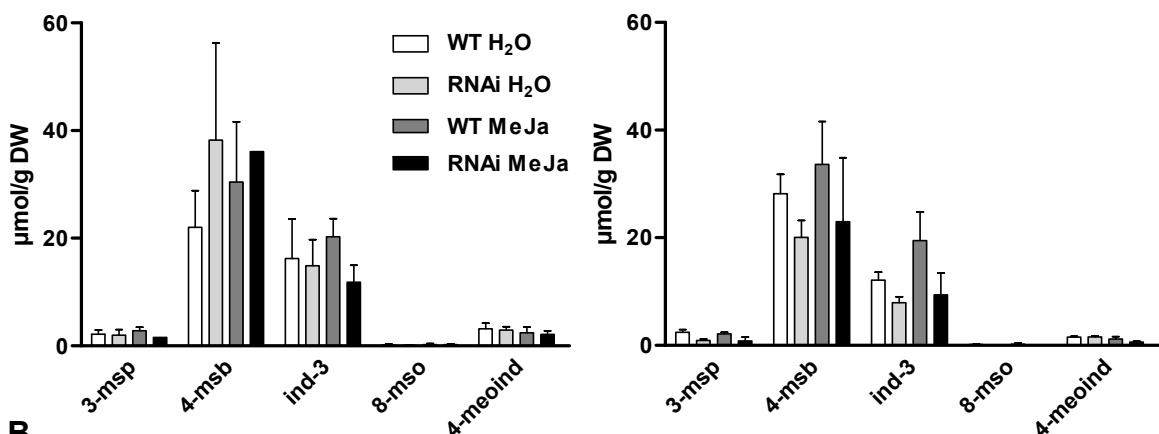
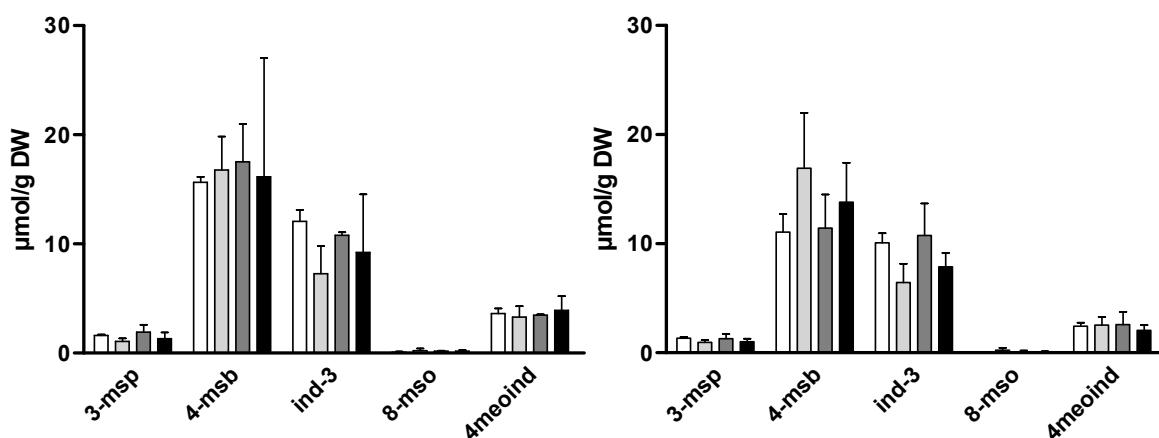
A**B**

Abbildung 8: Glucosinolatzusammensetzung zweier Linien (4-27, links; 6-37, rechts) von GSTF9F10 siRNAi-Pflanzen nach Behandlung mit Methyljasmonat (250 µM) und Wasser als Kontrolle in zwei Experimenten (A, B)

Wildtyppflanzen mit Wasserbehandlung (weiße Balken), RNAi-Pflanzen mit Wasserbehandlung (hellgraue Balken), Wildtyppflanzen mit Methyljasmonat-Behandlung (dunkelgraue Balken) und RNAi-Pflanzen mit Methyljasmonat-Behandlung (schwarze Balken).

Nitrilase4

Nit4 zeigte ebenfalls eine starke Coregulation mit Camalexinbiosynthesegenen, wobei erwartungsgemäß kein Camalexinphänotyp gezeigt werden konnte. *Nit4* ist an der Detoxifizierung von Cyanid beteiligt. Im ersten Schritt wird aus Cyanid und Cystein β-Cyanoalanin gebildet (katalysiert durch eine β-Cyanoalanin Synthase) und im zweiten Schritt wird β-Cyanoalanin in Asparagin und Aspartat umgewandelt (katalysiert durch *Nit4*) (Piotrowski et al., 2001; Piotrowski and Volmer, 2006). Da während der Camalexinbiosynthese Cyanid entsteht (Böttcher und Glawischnig, unveröffentlicht) wurde untersucht, ob sich in *nit4*-Mutanten und *cyp79b2/cyp79b3/nit4*-Triplemutanten β-Cyanoalanin nach Camalexininduktion (Silbernitrat) anhäuft. *nit4*-Mutanten sollten

theoretisch β -Cyanoalanin akkumulieren, da dieses nicht mehr zu Asparagin und Aspartat umgewandelt werden kann. *cyp79b2/cyp79b3/nit4*-Triplemutanten sind nicht in der Lage Camalexin zu synthetisieren und man würde demzufolge nicht erwarten, dass Cyanid aus der Camalexinbiosynthese entstehen kann. Deshalb dürfte sich in dieser Triplemutante kein β -Cyanoalanin anhäufen. 16 h nach Silbernitratinduktion wurden Rohextrakte von Rosettenblätter mit *o*-Phthaldialdehyd derivatisiert, um die Aminosäuren mittels HPLC detektieren zu können (Hill et al., 1979). Es konnte allerdings weder in der Triplemutante noch in der *nit4*-Mutante eine β -Cyanoalanin-Akkumulation nachgewiesen werden.

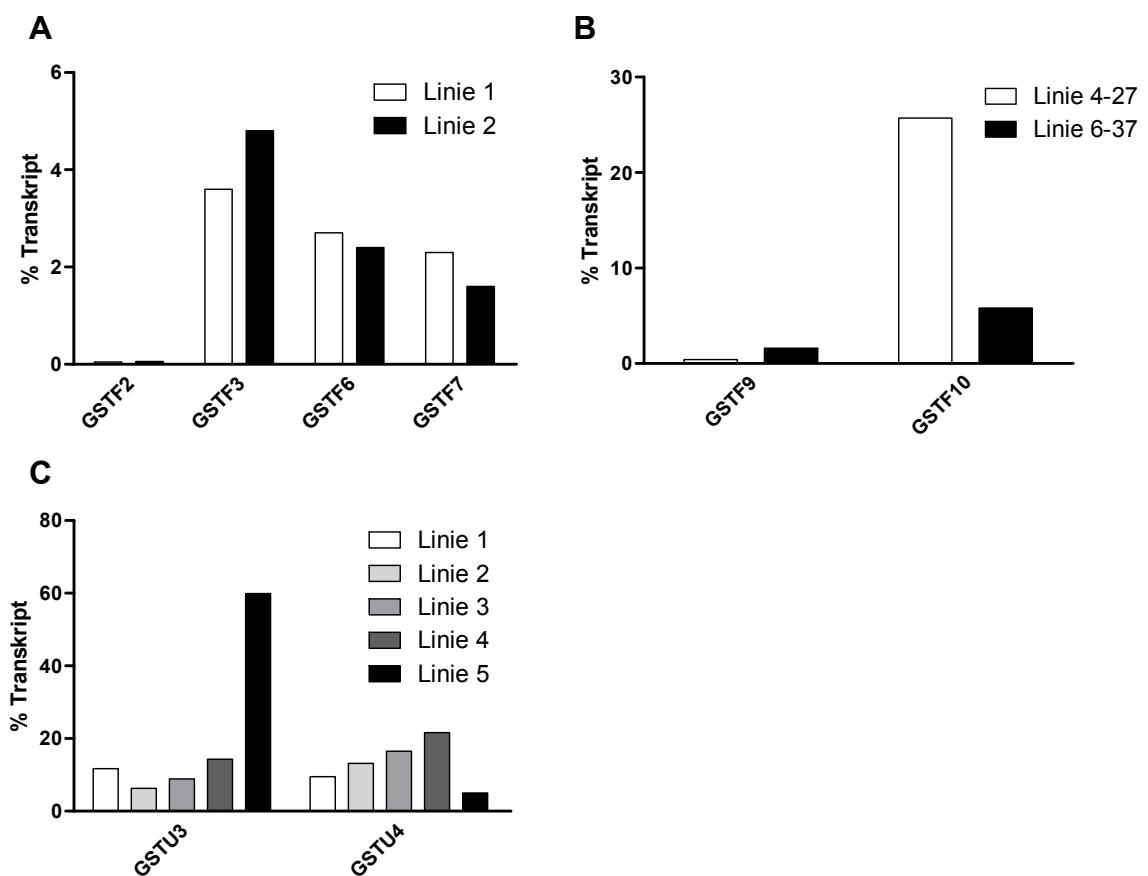


Abbildung 9: Genexpression von GSTs der phi- und tau-Klasse in siRNAi-/amiRNA-Linien im Vergleich zum Wildtyp (% Transkript). Die Transkriktkonzentrationen, angegeben relativ zu *Actin1*, wurden durch quantitative RT-PCR ($n=3$) 18 h nach Silbernitratbehandlung bestimmt.
(A) Expression von GSTF2, GSTF3, GSTF6 und GSTF7 in zwei Primärtransformanden (siRNAi)
(B) Expression von GSTF9 und GSTF10 in zwei heterozygoten Linien (siRNAi)
(C) Expression von GSTU3 und GSTU4 in fünf Primärtransformanden (amiRNA)

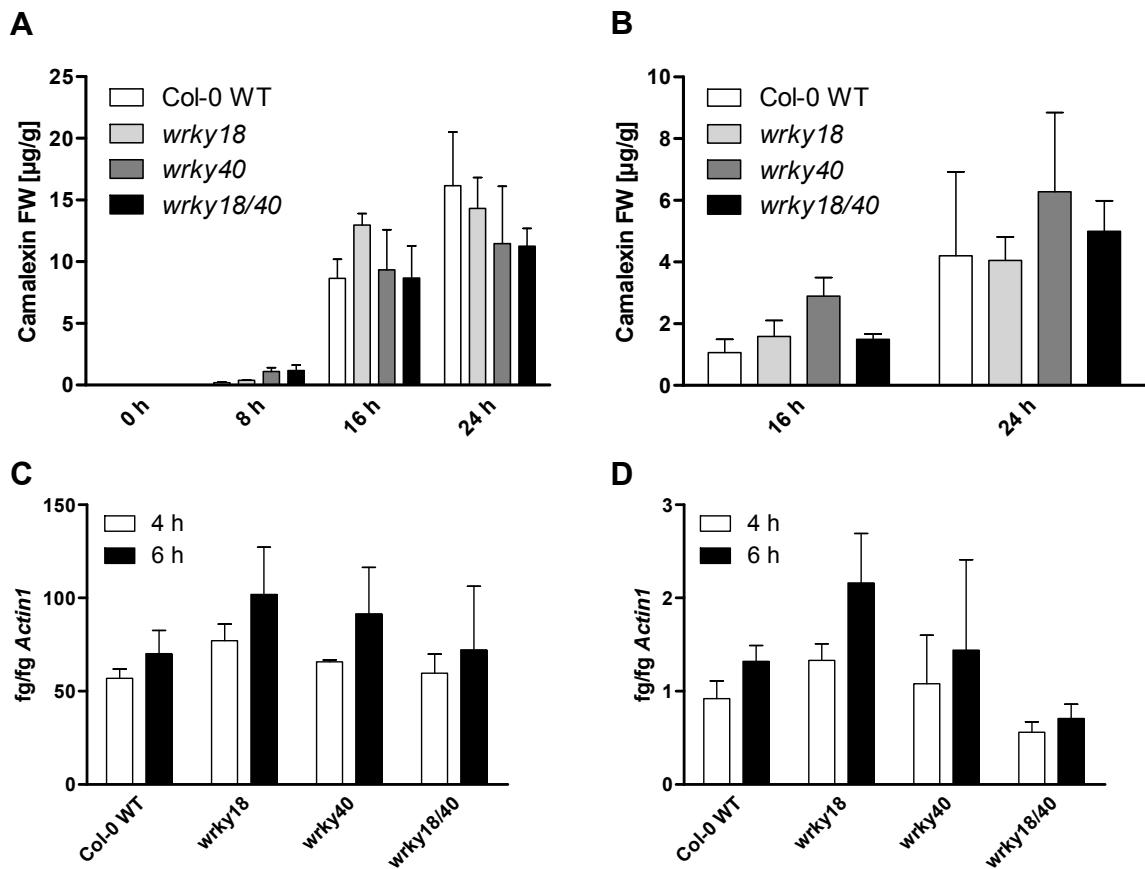


Abbildung 10: Analyse der wrky18-, wrky40- und wrky18/40-Doppelmutanten bezüglich Camalexininhalt nach Silbernitratbehandlung und Infiltration mit *P. syringae* und CYP71A13- und CYP71B15-Expression nach Silbernitratbehandlung.

(A) Camalexinakkumulation in wrky18-, wrky40- und wrky18/40-Doppelmutanten nach Besprühen mit Silbernitrat zu den angegebenen Zeitwerten.

(B) Camalexinakkumulation in wrky18-, wrky40- und wrky18/40-Doppelmutanten nach Infiltration mit *Pseudomonas syringae* DC3000/avrRpm1 zu den angegebenen Zeitwerten.

(C) Expression von CYP71B15 im WT und in wrky18-, wrky40- und wrky18/40-Doppelmutanten nach Besprühen mit Silbernitrat zu den angegebenen Zeitwerten.

(D) Expression von CYP71A13 im WT und in wrky18-, wrky40- und wrky18/40-Doppelmutanten nach Besprühen mit Silbernitrat zu den angegebenen Zeitwerten.

Aldehydoxidase1

Die heterologe Expression von AAO1 in *Pichia pastoris* zeigte eine breite Substratspezifität gegenüber verschiedenen Aldehyden, wobei Indol-3-Aldehyd bevorzugt wurde (Koiwai et al., 2000). Indol-3-Carbaldehyd wurde als mögliche Vorstufe von Camalexin postuliert (Zook and Hammerschmidt, 1997) und würde somit ebenfalls als Substrat für AAO1 in Frage kommen. Es konnte allerdings kein Camalexinphänotyp für *aao1* bestätigt werden.

ATMP2

ATMP2 besitzt eine Cytochrom B5-Domäne und ist somit ein Kandidat für die Katalyse eines Oxidationsschrittes, welcher vermutlich nach der Bildung von IAN und noch vor der Synthese des Thiazolrings stattfinden muss. Es wurden zwei Allele von *atmp2* untersucht, eine Exon- und eine Intron-Insertion. Beide Allele zeigten keinen Camalexinphänotyp. Ein Homolog zu ATMP2 ist ATMP1, welches Progesteron bindet (lino et al., 2007).

RHA1a/1b, ANAC042

RHA-Proteine bilden eine Gruppe kleiner Proteine (126-200 Aminosäuren) mit einer C-terminalen RING-H2-Domäne innerhalb der RING-H2 Fingerproteine (Jensen et al., 1998). Die genaue Funktion für RHA1a und 1b ist momentan unbekannt. Jedoch zeigte sich, dass RING-Finger Proteine eine wichtige Rolle bei der Ubiquitinierung von heterologen Substraten und von RING-Finger Proteinen selbst spielen (Joazeiro and Weissman, 2000). Einige RING-Proteine interagieren mit Transkriptionsfaktoren und sind somit an der Genregulation beteiligt (Hardtke et al., 2002). Für RHA2a wurde gezeigt, dass es mit einem NAC [NAM(„no apical meristem“), ATAF1/2, CUC2 (cup-shaped cotelydons 2)] Transkriptionsfaktor, hier ANAC (abscisic acid responsive NAC) interagiert (Greve et al., 2003). Ein Mitglied dieser Familie ANAC042 ist ebenfalls stark mit den Camalexinbiosynthesegenen coreguliert.

Allerdings konnte weder für die *RHA1a* T-DNA-Insertionslinie, noch für die amiRNA-Linien gegen *RHA1a* und *1b*, bei einem Silencing auf ca. 15%, ein Camalexinphänotyp nachgewiesen werden. Die Transposon-Insertionslinie für ANAC042, die T-DNA-Insertionslinie für ein homologes Gen zu ANAC042 und die Kreuzung zwischen ANAC042 und dem Homologen zeigten ebenfalls keinen Camalexinphänotyp.

FAD-binding domain containing proteins (FAD-bdcp)

Die genaue Funktion dieser Proteine ist unklar, jedoch zeigen sie eine Ähnlichkeit zu Oxidoreduktasen. Gegen zwei Homologe der “FAD-binding domain containing proteins” wurde ein amiRNA-Konstrukt generiert. Mittels quantitativer RT-PCR und Northern Blot konnte gezeigt werden, dass die Expression beider Gene ca. drei bis fünfmal höher war als im Wildtyp und somit keine Knock-Downs erzeugt werden konnten. Ein Camalexinphänotyp konnte demzufolge auch nicht nachgewiesen werden.

AIG2 (*avrRpt2*-induced gene 2)

A/G2 zeigt nach der Infektion mit *P. syringae* pv *maculicola*, welcher das *avrRpt2*-Avirulenzgen trägt (Reuber and Ausubel, 1996), eine von *RPS2* (Resistenzgen) und *avrRpt2* abhängige Induktion.

Ein amiRNA-Konstrukt gegen *A/G2* und ein Homolog wurde generiert, wobei kein Camalexinphänotyp bei einem Silencing auf ca. 5%, festgestellt werden konnte.

Tabelle 10: Genotypisierung der untersuchten Insertionsmutanten

Gen SALK-Nummer	FR-PCR		WT-PCR		Annealingtemperatur [°C]	
	Primer	Bandengröße [bp]	Primer	Bandengröße [bp]	FR-PCR	WT-PCR
GSTF2 SALK_030186	136/130	470	135/136	411	55	55
GSTF3 SALK_048444	144/130	322	143/144	291	55	55
GSTF6 SALK_040223	151/130	520	147/151	450	55	55
GSTU4 SALK_125181	209/130	564	208/209	476	55	55
Nit4 SALK_016289	197/130	360	196/197	600	50	50
AAOx1-3 SALK_069221	255/130	373	254/255	562	55	55
Atmp2-Exon SALK_042103	235/130	443	235/236	376	50	52
Atmp2-Intron SALK_149315	237/130	353	237/238	441	52	55
RHA1a SALK_046581	241/130	208	241/242	456	52	50
O-Methyltransferase SALK_075264	239/130	290	239/240	421	52	50
ANAC042 Hom 3 SALK_046570	233/130	202	233/234	557	52	50
ANAC042 Hom 5 SALK_046587	233/130	480	233/234	557	52	50
PDR12 SALK_005635	199/130	236	198/199	696	52	50
ANAC042	231/258	465	231/232	420	55	50
CYP79B2	94/130	800	94/95	1000	55	55
CYP79B3	96/130	450	96/97	1200	55	55

Tabelle 11: Genotypisierung der RNAi-Linien

Konstrukt	Primer	Bandengröße [bp]	Annealingtemperatur [°C]
GSTF9F10 siRNAi	126/127	450	60
GSTF2F3F6F7 siRNAi	122/127	350	60
GSTU3U4 amiRNA	127/B	800	57
FAD amiRNA	127/B	800	57
AIG2 amiRNA	127/B	800	57
RINGH2 amiRNA	127/B	800	57

Das Genotypisieren aller Knock-Outs und Knock-Downs wurde mittels PCR durchgeführt (s. Tab. 10, 11). Alle PCR-Produkte wurden mindestens einmal durch Sequenzierung bestätigt.

3.2 Analyse von CYP71B15- und ASA1-Promotor::GUS-Deletionsexperimenten

Die Analyse von Kandidaten, welche aufgrund ihrer Coregulation mit Genen der Camalexinbiosynthese ausgewählt wurden, lieferte kein Gen, welches an der Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese beteiligt ist. In einem anderen Ansatz sollte nun durch die Analyse von Promoter-Deletionsfragmenten zweier Gene der Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthese mögliche Transkriptionsfaktorbindestellen identifiziert werden, um letztendlich camalexinspezifische Transkriptionsfaktoren zu finden.

In Zusammenarbeit mit Dr. Georg Haberer (MIPS - plant genome bioinformatics group, Helmholtz Zentrum München) wurden die Promotoren der Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthesegene analysiert, um camalexinspezifische Promotorelemente zu identifizieren (Haberer et al., 2004; Thijs et al., 2001). Diese Promotorelemente müssen nun zwei Voraussetzungen erfüllen. Sie müssen sowohl in den Promotoren der Camalexinbiosynthesegene *CYP79B2*, *CYP71A13* und *CYP71B15*, als auch in den Promotoren der Tryptophanbiosynthesegene *ASA1*, *PA1/2* und *TSA* vorkommen. Zusätzlich dürfen sie nicht in den Promotoren der Glucosinolatbiosynthesegene vorkommen, da deren Biosynthese anders reguliert wird. Anhand dieses Ansatzes konnten 13 signifikante Promotorelemente identifiziert werden, welche diese Bedingungen erfüllen (s. Abb. 11).

box_20_2_TACTGTGn_n3 box_10_6_TGTACTGTnT_n3 m8_oops_7; mAAAGACC



Abbildung 11: Drei Beispiele für putative camalexinspezifische Promotorelemente.

Die Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthesegene sind coreguliert und werden demzufolge koordiniert induziert, wenn die Camalexinantwort aufgrund von Pathogenbefall o. Ä. ausgelöst wird. Deshalb wurde hier mit *ASA1* (Umsatz von Chorismat zu Anthranilat) ein Promotor eines Tryptophanbiosynthesegens und mit *CYP71B15* ein Promotor eines Camalexinbiosynthesegens ausgewählt. Mittels Promoter-Deletionsfragmenten sollte die

Promotorsequenz eingegrenzt werden, welche die essentiellen Elemente enthält. Als Reportergen wurde *GUS* verwendet, um anhand der Blaufärbung in *Arabidopsis*-Blättern Rückschlüsse auf die Aktivität der Promoterdeletions-Fragmente ziehen zu können. In der Bachelorarbeit von Harald Krispin (Krispin, 2007) ist eine detaillierte Beschreibung der Klonierung der Deletionskonstrukte mittels USERTM-Cloning zu finden. In den Tabellen 12 und 13 sind Länge und Position der Promoter-Deletionsfragmente dargestellt.

Tabelle 12: Promoter-Deletionsfragmente für CYP71B15.

Position +1: A des Startcodons; 5' UTR: -1 bis -42

Bezeichnung	Länge [bp]	Deletionsfragment
CYP71B15-F1	2876	+3 bis -2873
CYP71B15-F2	2421	+3 bis -2418
CYP71B15-F3	2121	+3 bis -2118
CYP71B15-F4	1903	+3 bis -1900
CYP71B15-F5	1522	+3 bis -1519
CYP71B15-F6	1169	+3 bis -1166
CYP71B15-F7	895	+3 bis -892
CYP71B15-F8	678	+3 bis -675
CYP71B15-F9	499	+3 bis -196
CYP71B15-F10	376	+3 bis -373
CYP71B15-F11	169	+3 bis -166

Tabelle 13: Promoter-Deletionsfragmente für ASA1.

Position +1: A des Startcodons; 5' UTR: -1 bis -93

Bezeichnung	Länge [bp]	Deletionsfragment
ASA1-F1	1222	+3 bis -1219
ASA1-F2	933	+3 bis -930
ASA1-F3	758	+3 bis -755
ASA1-F4	670	+3 bis -667
ASA1-F5	620	+3 bis -617
ASA1-F6	492	+3 bis -489
ASA1-F7	378	+3 bis -375
ASA1-F8	259	+3 bis -256
ASA1-F9	142	+3 bis -139

Alle Promoter-Deletionsfragmente wurden in pCambia1305.1 vor das *GUS*-Gen kloniert und über *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* in *Arabidopsis* transformiert. Für jedes Konstrukt wurden ca. 10 Primärtransformanden angezogen und auf ihre GUS-Färbung analysiert. Je drei Primärtransformanden mit deutlicher GUS-Färbung wurden ausgewählt und detailliert untersucht. Dazu wurde jeweils ein Blatt mit Silbernitrat besprüht und mit *P. syringae* infiltriert, um die Camalexinbiosynthese zu induzieren. Als Kontrollen wurden Blätter mit Wasser besprüht und mit 10 mM MgCl₂ infiltriert. Nach 24 h wurde die GUS-Färbung der Blätter durchgeführt. Es zeigte sich, dass alle Promoter-Deletionsfragmente von beiden Promotoren eine ähnlich intensive GUS-Färbung hervorrufen konnten. Die

Kontrollblätter waren nur unwesentlich schwächer gefärbt, so dass mit diesem Ansatz die Promotorsequenz, welche camalexinspezifische Transkriptionsfaktorbindestellen enthält, nicht eingeschränkt werden konnte.

3.3 Analyse der Camalexinantwort auf die Behandlung mit PAMPs

PAMPs werden durch Rezeptoren der Pflanzen erkannt und lösen eine Signaltransduktionskette aus, welche zur Immunantwort der Pflanze und somit auch zur Induktion der Camalexinbiosynthese führt. Mit Hilfe der Erkennung der PAMPs soll die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese weiter untersucht werden, da diese auch die Transkription der Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthesegene in hohem Maße induzieren.

3.3.1 Peptidoglycan induziert die Camalexinbiosynthese

In Zusammenarbeit mit Dr. Andrea Gust und Prof. Thorsten Nürnberg (Zentrum für Molekularbiologie der Pflanzen und Pflanzenbiochemie, Tübingen) wurde die Immunantwort von *Arabidopsis* auf die Infiltration mit zwei verschiedenen PAMPs untersucht. Im Rahmen dieser Kooperation erfolgte die Analyse von *Arabidopsis*-Rosettenblättern nach Infiltration mit Flagellin und Peptidoglycan. Peptidoglycane sind wichtige strukturelle Bestandteile der bakteriellen Zellwand. Fast alle Bakterien besitzen eine Peptidoglycanschicht wobei Zusammensetzung, Lokalisation und Dicke unterschiedlich sind. Peptidoglycane sind Polymere mit einem Rückgrat aus alternierenden N-Acetylglucosamin- und N-Acetyl-Muraminsäureresten (Glauner et al., 1988; Schleifer and Kandler, 1972). Da Peptidoglycane meistens an der Oberfläche von Bakterien sitzen bilden sie leichte Ziele, um vom Immunsystem erkannt zu werden. Es wurde gezeigt, dass ein Zerfallsprodukt von Peptidoglycan die kleinste notwendige Struktur aufweist, um in Säugetieren die PTI auszulösen (Traub et al., 2006).

In dieser Arbeit wurde Peptidoglycan (PGN) von *Staphylococcus aureus* und Flagellin (Flg22) verwendet. *Arabidopsis*-Rosettenblätter (ca. 6 Wochen alt) wurden mit Flg22 (1 µM), PGN (100 µg/ml), NLP_{Pp} (2 µM) und Wasser infiltriert und gefriergetrocknet, um anschließend Camalexin zu extrahieren. In Abbildung 12 ist eindeutig zu erkennen, dass PGN die Camalexinakkumulation induzierte, Flg22 hingegen hatte keinerlei Einfluss auf die Induktion der Camalexinbiosynthese. Die Infiltration mit NLP_{Pp} diente hier als Positivkontrolle. Die Infiltration mit Wasser als Negativkontrolle zeigte, dass Camalexin nicht allein durch Verwundung induziert wurde.

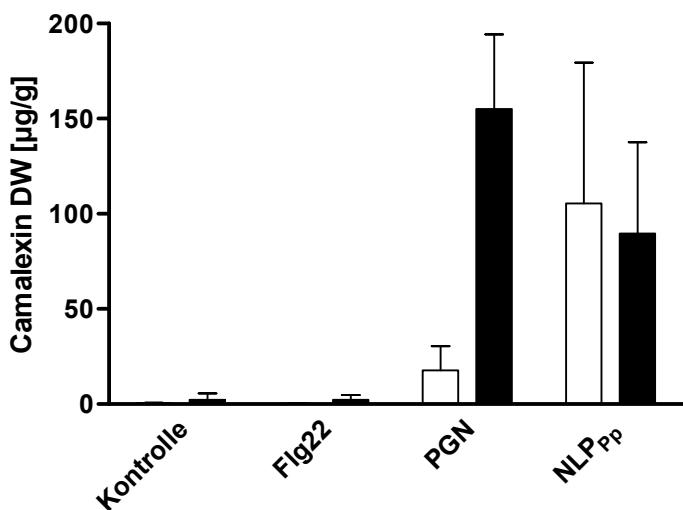


Abbildung 12: Peptidoglycan induziert die Camalexinbiosynthese.

Analyse der Camalexinakkumulation in jeweils sechs unterschiedlichen Blättern nach 2 Tagen (weiße Balken) und 4 Tagen (schwarze Balken). Negativ-Kontrolle: Wasser; Positiv-Kontrolle: NLP_{Pp}

3.3.2 Oomycetische NLPs induzieren die Camalexinbiosynthese

Im Rahmen einer Kooperation mit Birgit Kemmerling, Frederic Brunner und Thorsten Nürnberger wurde die Immunantwort von *Arabidopsis* gegenüber NLP_{Ps} näher charakterisiert. Dazu wurde die Camalexinakkumulation, nach Infiltration von NLP_{Ps} in Col-0-Wildtypen, analysiert. Zusätzlich wurde die Camalexinakkumulation in NLP_{Ps}-exprimierenden Pflanzen gemessen. In einer zweiten Kooperation mit Borries Luberacki und Hanns-Ulrich Seitz (Zentrum für Molekularbiologie der Pflanzen und Pflanzenbiochemie, Tübingen) wurde die Camalexinantwort, nach Infiltration von PaNie in Col-0-Wildtypen analysiert. Genauso wurde die Camalexinmenge in PaNie-exprimierenden *Arabidopsis*-pflanzen genauer untersucht.

Rosettenblätter von *Arabidopsis* wurden mit NLP_{Ps}, PaNie und Puffer als Kontrolle infiltriert und gefriergetrocknet, um Camalexin zu extrahieren (s. Abb. 13). Beide NLPs induzierten eine Camalexinakkumulation, welche bei 8 h begann. Die gemessene Camalexinmenge nach PaNie-Infiltration blieb bis 72 h mehr oder weniger konstant. Nach Infiltration mit NLP_{Ps} konnte man hingegen einen Anstieg bis auf ein Maximum von ca. 94 µg/g nach 48 h beobachten. Danach kam es zu keiner signifikanten Veränderung mehr.

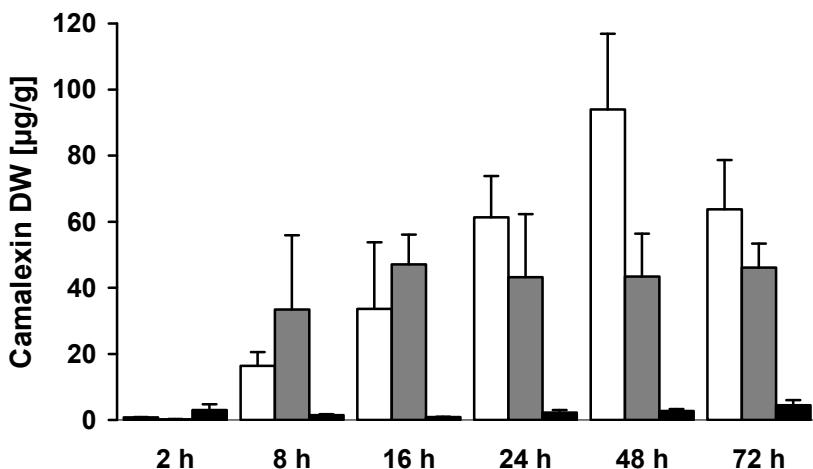


Abbildung 13: Camalexinakkumulation nach Infiltration mit PaNie und NLP_{Ps}

Camalexinakkumulation in fünf Wochen alten *Arabidopsis*-Rosettenblättern nach Infiltration von 2 µM rekombinantem NLP_{Ps} (weiße Balken; n=3), 2 µM rekombinantem PaNie (graue Balken; n=6) und Protein Renaturierungspuffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8,9; 1 mM GSH; 1 mM GSSG; 1 mM EDTA) als Negativkontrolle (schwarze Balken).

Um reproduzierbare Ergebnisse zu erhalten, müssen diese Infiltrationen mit größter Sorgfalt durchgeführt werden. Weiterhin muss darauf geachtet werden, dass das Protein während des Infiltrationsprozesses nicht degradiert. Die genannten Probleme wurden durch eine Expression von PaNie und NLP_{Ps} als Transgen in *Arabidopsis* umgangen. NLP_{Ps} wurde unter der Kontrolle eines Dexamethason-induzierbaren Promoters (Aoyama and Chua, 1997) exprimiert.

Die Camalexinantwort in den Dex-induzierbaren Pflanzen war langsamer als nach Infiltration des rekombinannten Proteins (s. Abb. 13 und 14). Nach Infiltration war bereits ab 8 h eine deutliche Camalexinakkumulation erkennbar, welche im Dex-induzierbaren System erst ab 16 h messbar war. Das Camalexinmaximum in den infiltrierten Pflanzen wurde nach 48 h erreicht, wohingegen im induzierbaren System bereits nach 24 h keine signifikante Veränderung in der Camalexinmenge mehr festzustellen war.

PaNie wurde unter der Kontrolle eines Alkohol-induzierbaren Promoters (Maizel and Weigel, 2004; Roslan et al., 2001) exprimiert. Dabei wurden die ersten 21 Aminosäuren des N-Terminus von PaNie, welche vermutlich eine Export-Funktion haben, durch eine Extensin-Exportsequenz von Karotte (*Daucus carota*; PaNie_{Dc}) ersetzt (Chen and Varner, 1985; Luberacki, 2007; Veit et al., 2001). Die Induktion der Camalexinbiosynthese durch dieses System wurde im Folgenden detailliert untersucht.

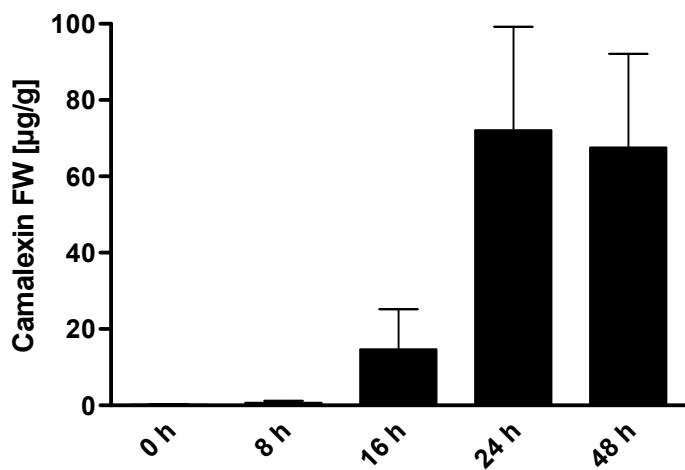


Abbildung 14: Camalexinakkumulation in den Rosettenblättern sechs-Wochen alter NLP_{Ps}-exprimierender Pflanzen. Die Behandlung erfolgte mit 5 μM Dexamethason.

3.3.3 Analyse von Alc::PaNie_{Dc}-Pflanzen

Durch Besprühen der Pflanzen mit Ethanol wird der Promoter aktiviert. Dies führt zu einer Expression von PaNie und folglich zu einer Immunantwort der Pflanze, mit anschließendem Zelltod (Luberacki, 2007). Grundlegend für diese Analysen war es, die Ethanolkonzentration festzulegen, welche zur höchsten Camalexinkonzentration führte.

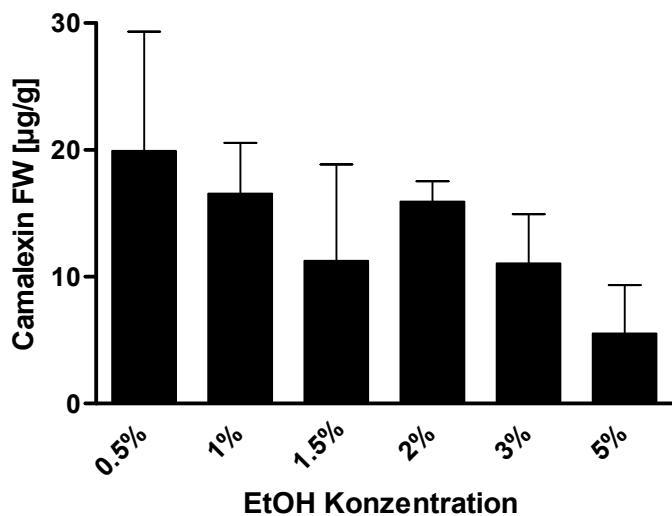


Abbildung 15: Camalexinakkumulation in den Rosettenblättern sechs-Wochen alter Alc::PaNie_{Dc} Pflanzen. Die Behandlung erfolgte mit den angegebenen Ethanolkonzentrationen.

Abbildung 15 zeigt, dass kein signifikanter Unterschied in der Camalexinakkumulation nach Behandlung mit 0,5%-3% Ethanol festzustellen war. Höhere Ethanolkonzentrationen

(>3%) führten zu einer abgeschwächten Camalexininduktion, weshalb für weitere Analysen 2%ige Ethanollösungen zur Induktion verwendet wurden.

3.3.3.1 Welche Gewebe sind in der Lage Camalexin zu synthetisieren?

Es ist bekannt, dass die Camalexinbiosynthese in Blättern induzierbar ist (Glawischning, 2007). Weiterhin lösen Wurzelpathogene wie *Pythium sylvaticum* oder *Plasmodiophora brassicae* ebenfalls eine Camalexinantwort aus (Bednarek et al., 2005; Siemens et al., 2008). Mit Hilfe des PaNie-Systems wurden Rosettenblätter, Stängel, Blüten und Schoten von Arabidopsis auf die Fähigkeit Camalexin zu synthetisieren analysiert. Die Pflanzen wurden dazu mit 2% Ethanol besprüht, nach 0 h, 2 h, 4 h, 6 h, 8 h, 24 h (Rosettenblätter) und 24 h (Stängel, Blüten, Schoten) wurde das Gewebe zur Camalexinextraktion geerntet (s. Abb. 16). Anhand des Blattmaterials zeigte sich, dass es nach 6 h zu einer nennenswerten Camalexinakkumulation kam. Die Camalexinmenge stieg dann bis 24 h steil an und veränderte sich anschließend nicht mehr signifikant. Nach 48 h waren zum ersten Mal größere nekrotische Blattbereiche erkennbar, bis nach 72 h die Blätter fast vollständig ausgetrocknet waren. Nach 24 h betrug die Camalexinkonzentration in drei unabhängigen Experimenten $16,1 \pm 4,0$, $15,9 \pm 1,6$, und $8,2 \pm 4,3$ µg/g FW (s. Abb. 15, 16 A und B) und war damit höher als nach dem Besprühen mit Silbernitrat ($5,3 \pm 1,7$; $3,7 \pm 1,2$ µg/g FW (Glawischning et al., 2004; Nafisi et al., 2007)) und nach der Infiltration mit PaNie ($3,6 \pm 1,6$ µg/g FW, entspricht dem Trockengewicht aus Abb. 13). Die Analyse der restlichen Gewebe wurde daher auf eine Messung nach 24 h reduziert, da ab diesem Zeitpunkt bereits eine deutliche Camalexinakkumulation in Blättern vorlag, die Blattschäden aber noch sehr moderat waren. Stängel, Blüten und Schoten wurden sowohl mit Silbernitrat, als auch mit Ethanol induziert (s. Abb. 16 C). Bei Blüten und Schoten lieferten beide Behandlungen vergleichbar niedrige Camalexinwerte (4-7% und 0,4-0,8% im Vergleich zu Blättern). Im Stängel war der Unterschied zwischen akkumuliertem Camalexin nach Silber- und Ethanol-Induktion bedeutend größer. Nach Ethanol-Induktion wurde 16-mal mehr Camalexin gemessen als nach der Behandlung mit Silber, dies entsprach ca. 20%-40% der Camalexinmenge in Blättern.

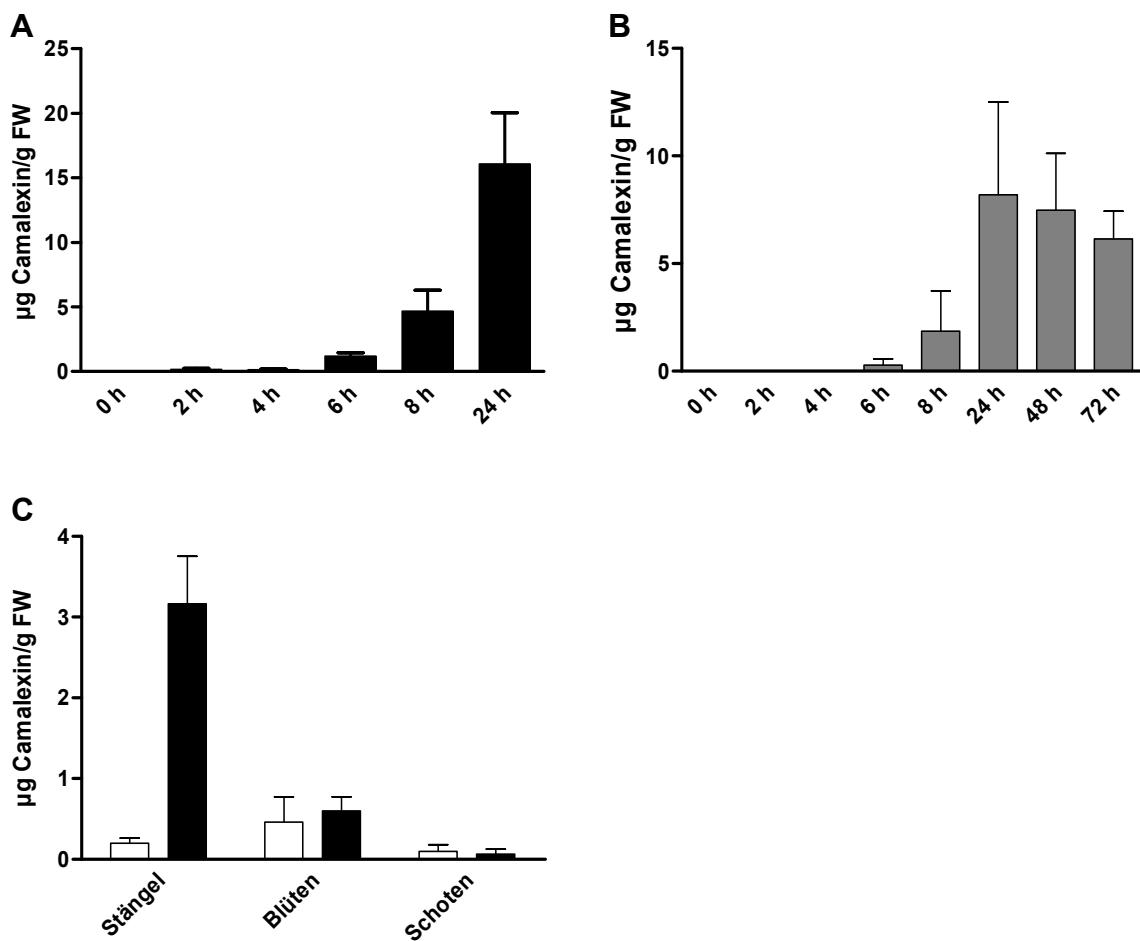


Abbildung 16: Camalexinakkumulation in verschiedenen Geweben von *A. thaliana*.
(A), (B) Camalexinakkumulation zu den angegebenen Zeitwerten nach Besprühen von Arabidopsisblättern mit 2% Ethanol (n=6, zwei unabhängige Experimente).
(C) Camalexinakkumulation in Stängel, Blüten und Schoten von Arabidopsis, 24 h nach Besprühen mit 5 mM Silbernitrat (weiße Balken; n=3) und 2% Ethanol (schwarze Balken; n=3).

Die Kreuzung von Alc::PaNie_{Dc}-Pflanzen mit CYP79B2p::GUS und CYP71B15p::GUS-Pflanzen (Glawischnig et al., 2004; Mikkelsen et al., 2000; Schuhegger et al., 2006) sollte Aufschluss über die Expression dieser beiden Camalexinbiosynthesegene in den untersuchten Geweben bringen. Ein Screening auf doppelt heterozygote Pflanzen erfolgte durch Besprühen der Pflanzen mit 2% Ethanol. Dies hatte zur Folge, dass PaNie exprimiert wird, wodurch eine Immunantwort der Pflanze eingeleitet und somit die Camalexinbiosynthese induziert wird. Dadurch wurden auch die beiden Camalexinbiosynthesegene CYP79B2 und CYP71B15 induziert, was letztlich die GUS-Färbung des behandelten Blattmaterials auslöste.

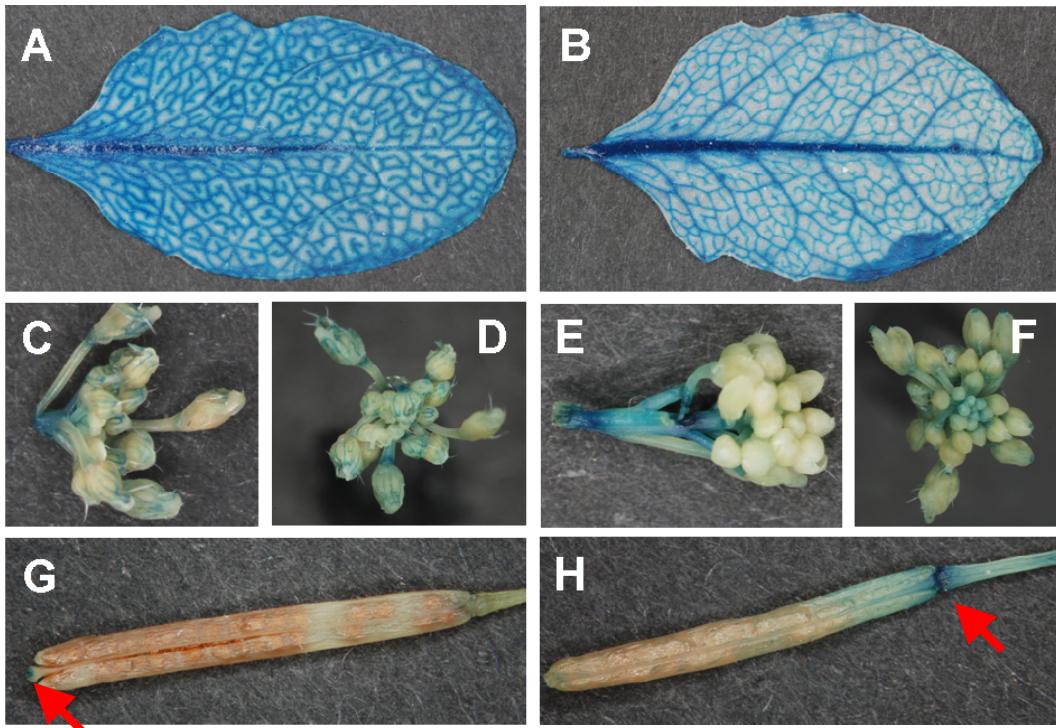


Abbildung 17: Aktivität von *CYP79B2p::GUS* (A, C, D, G) und *CYP71B15p::GUS* (B, E, F, H) im *Alc::PaNie_{Dc}* Hintergrund, 8 h nach Besprühen mit 2% Ethanol.
A, B: Rosettenblätter; C, D, E, F: Blütenstand; G, H: Schoten.

Die Behandlung erfolgte mittels 8 Tropfen Ethanol (je 5 μ l), welche gleichmäßig auf der Blattoberfläche verteilt wurden. Blüten und Schoten wurden gleichmäßig mit Ethanol besprüht. Abbildung 17 zeigt, dass beide Gene in den Blättern gleichmäßig, nicht nur an der Stelle mit Ethanolkontakt, exprimiert wurden (Abb. 17 A, B). Die Blüten zeigten nur am Blütenstiel und an den Kelchblättern eine sehr schwache GUS-Färbung (Abb.: 17 C, D, E, F). Die Färbung der Schoten beschränkte sich im Fall von *CYP79B2p::GUS* (Abb. 17 G) auf die Schotenspitze und im Fall von *CYP71B15p::GUS* auf die Schotenbasis (Abb. 17 H). Nichtinduziertes Pflanzengewebe zeigte keinerlei GUS-Färbung (Ergebnisse nicht gezeigt).

3.3.3.2 Die Induktion der Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthesegene

Zusätzlich zu den Promotor-GUS-Analysen wurde mittels quantitativer RT-PCR die Induktion der Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene untersucht. Als Kontrolle wurde in allen Geweben das *PaNie_{Dc}*-Transkriptionslevel gemessen, um auszuschließen, dass die niedrige Camalexinakkumulation in Stängel, Blüten und Schoten, im Vergleich zu Blättern, auf der fehlenden Expression des *PaNie_{Dc}*-Transgens beruht (s. Abb. 18, 19 A). In Blättern wurde *PaNie_{Dc}* bis auf ca. 10 fg pro fg *Actin1* induziert (s. Abb. 18), in Blüten und Schoten auf ca. 1,1 bzw. ca. 0,2 fg pro fg *Actin1* (s. Abb. 19 A). Im Stängel, welcher wesentlich mehr Camalexin akkumulierte als die Blüten kam es lediglich zu einer

Induktion von ca. 0,4 fg pro fg *Actin1* (s. Abb. 19 A). Demzufolge sollte die Induktion von PaNie_{Dc} in Blüten ausreichend sein, um eine Camalexinantwort zuverlässig auslösen zu können. Es kann allerdings nicht ausgeschlossen werden, dass die Induktion von PaNie_{Dc} in Schoten (ca. 0,2 fg pro fg *Actin1*) unter dem Schwellenwert liegt, welcher nötig für eine Camalexinantwort ist.

In Blättern zeigte sich eine klare Induktion aller Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene, wobei *CYP71B15* am stärksten exprimiert (ca. 40 fg pro fg *Actin1*) und am stärksten induziert (ca. 400-fach) war (s. Abb. 18). Relativ schwach exprimiert waren *CYP79B2*, *CYP79B3* und *CYP71A13*. Die Tryptophanbiosynthesegene *ASA1* und *TSA* waren ca. 100-fach induziert und somit stärker induziert als *CYP79B2*, *CYP79B3* und *CYP71A13*, aber schwächer als *CYP71B15*. Alle Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene zeigten dasselbe Expressionsmuster. Ohne Induktion war kaum eine Expression messbar, nach 2 h kam es zu einem starken Anstieg, welcher nach 6 h ein Maximum erreichte und dann zwischen 6 h und 24 h wieder deutlich abnahm. Die Expression von PaNie_{Dc} wich von diesem Muster leicht ab. Hier wurde das Maximum schon nach 2 h erreicht, ansonsten verlief die Expression vergleichbar.

Abb. 19 B-D zeigt, dass die Expression der Camalexin- und Tryptophanbiosynthesegene in Blüten und Schoten kaum erkennbar war. Lediglich *ASA1* war in Blüten schwach exprimiert. Im Stängel hingegen war die Expression von *ASA1* sogar höher als in Blättern (ca. 300%). *TSA* war im Stängel ebenfalls stark exprimiert, allerdings schwächer als in Blättern (ca. 30%), *CYP79B2* und *CYP79B3* zeigten ungefähr die gleiche Expression wie in Blättern und *CYP71A13* und *CYP71B15* waren deutlich schwächer exprimiert (ca. 50% bzw. ca. 4%).

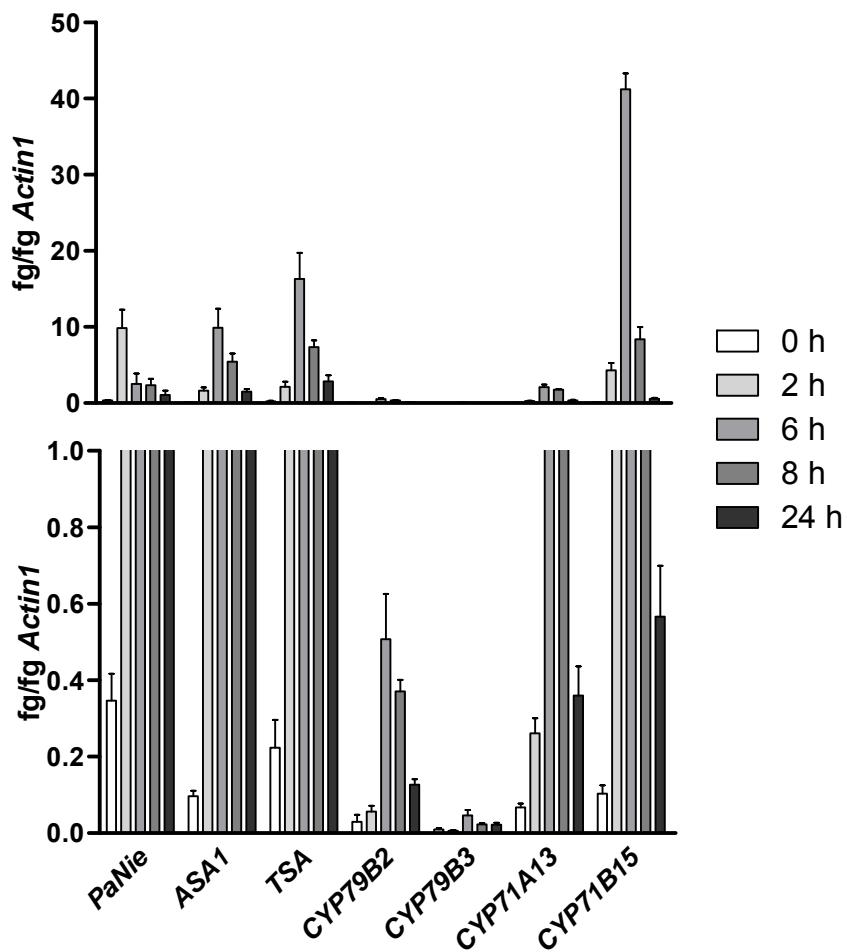


Abbildung 18: Induktion der Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene in Rosettenblättern von Alc::PaNie_{Dc} Pflanzen. Die Transkriptkonzentrationen, angegeben relativ zu *Actin1*, wurden durch quantitative RT-PCR ($n=3$) nach Besprühen mit 2% Ethanol bestimmt. Die Bestimmung der Transkriptkonzentrationen erfolgte zu den angegebenen Zeitwerten. Die untere Grafik zeigt eine Vergrößerung der Oberen.

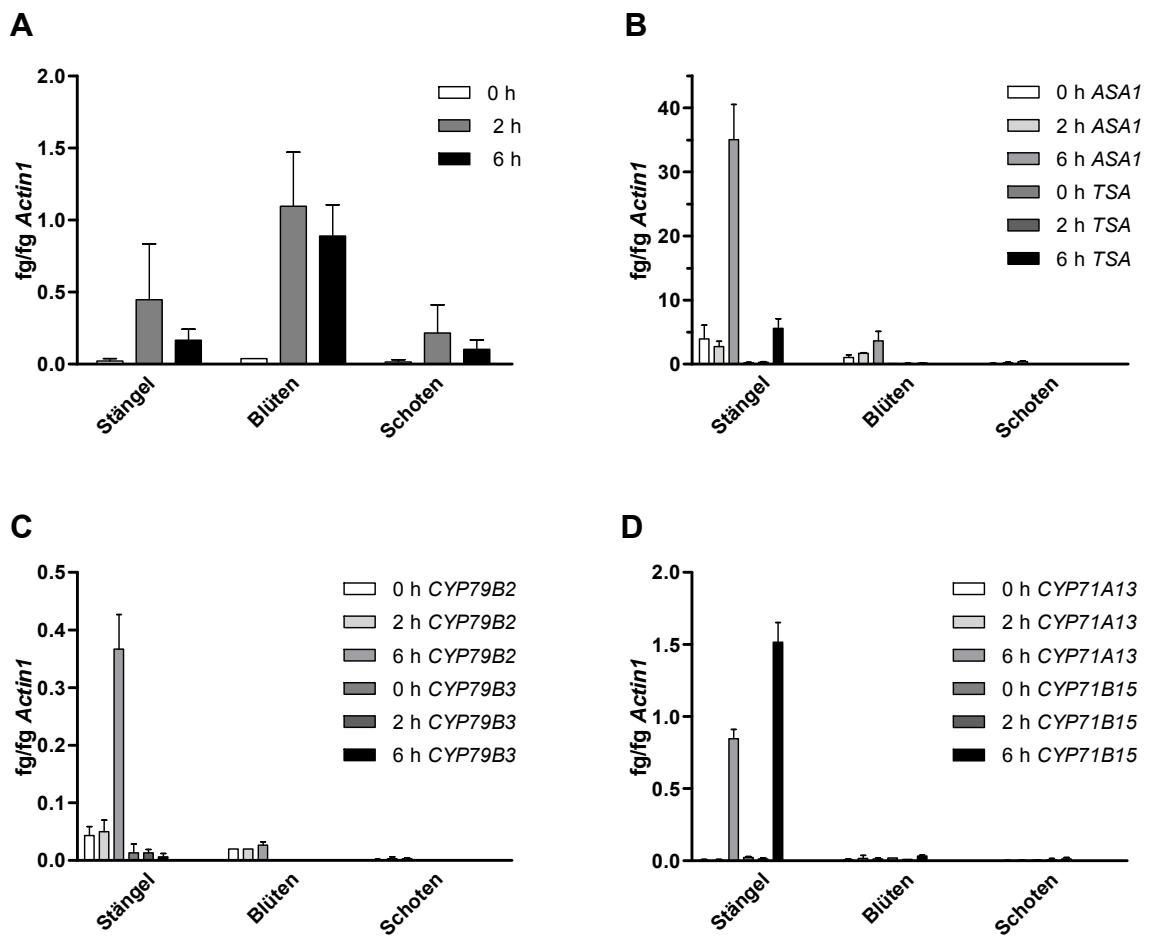


Abbildung 19: Induktion von *PaNie_{Dc}* und Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene in Stängel, Blüten und Schoten von Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}* Pflanzen. Die Transkriptkonzentrationen, angegeben relativ zu *Actin1*, wurden durch quantitative RT-PCR ($n=3$) nach Besprühen mit 2% Ethanol bestimmt. Die Bestimmung der Transkriptkonzentrationen erfolgte zu den angegebenen Zeitwerten.

(A) Induktion von *PaNie_{Dc}* in Stängel, Blüten und Schoten.

(B) Induktion von *ASA1* und *TSA* in Stängel, Blüten und Schoten.

(C) Induktion von *CYP79B2* und *CYP79B3* in Stängel, Blüten und Schoten.

(D) Induktion von *CYP71A13* und *CYP71B15* in Stängel, Blüten und Schoten.

3.3.3.3 Analyse der Glucosinolatinduktion in Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}*-Pflanzen

Die Indolglucosinolate haben, ebenso wie Camalexin, Tryptophan und IAOx als Vorstufen. Es war deshalb interessant zu klären, ob *PaNie* ebenfalls die Glucosinolatbiosynthese induziert. Sechs Wochen alte Rosettenblätter von Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}* wurden mit Ethanol besprüht und die Glucosinolate extrahiert. Abbildung 20 zeigt, dass nach 24 h und 48 h kaum eine Induktion der Glucosinolate erkennbar war. Einzig 4-Methoxy-Indol-3-yl-Methyl-Glucosinolat (4-meoind) zeigte sowohl nach 24 h als auch nach 48 h eine erhöhte Konzentration im Vergleich zu uninduziertem Blattmaterial. Das andere detektierbare Indolglucosinolat Indol-3-yl-Methyl-Glucosinolat (ind-3) zeigt allerdings keinerlei Induktion.

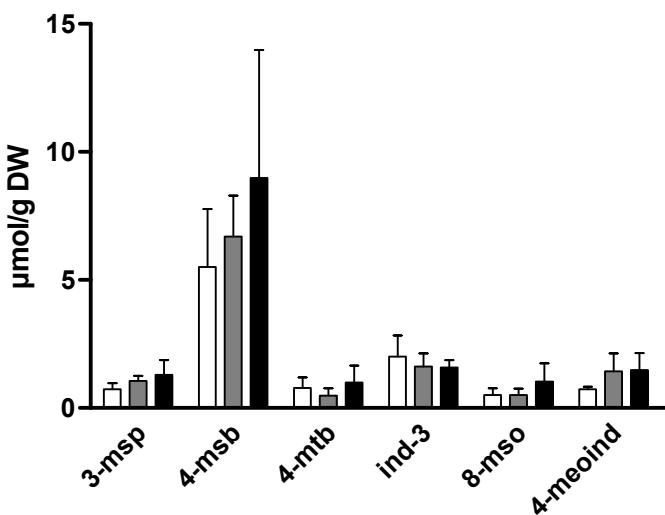


Abbildung 20: Glucosinolatzusammensetzung in Alc::PaNie_{Dc} Pflanzen nach Induktion mit 2% Ethanol. Messung der Glucosinolate (n=3) in 6-Wochen alten Rosettenblättern von *Arabidopsis* nach Besprühen mit 2% Ethanol nach 0 h (weiße Balken), 24 h (graue Balken) und 48 h (schwarze Balken). Detektierbar waren 3-msp, 4-msb, 4-mtb, ind-3 und 4-meoind. Die Glucosinolatkonzentrationen sind angegeben in $\mu\text{mol/g}$ Trockengewicht. Als interner Standard wurde Benzylglucosinolat (Glucotropaeolin) verwendet.

3.4 Thiazolylindole aus Bakterien: Der Ursprung der Biosynthese von BE-10988 in *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988

Das Vorkommen von Camalexin ist auf *Arabidopsis* und nahe Verwandten beschränkt. Es ist bekannt, dass Camalexin über Indol-3-Acetaldoxim aus Tryptophan gebildet wird. In der Natur finden sich natürlich noch weitere Thiazolylindol-Verbindungen. BE-10988 aus *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988 hat z. B. dasselbe Grundgerüst wie Camalexin, weshalb es interessant ist zu klären, ob hier Tryptophan auch die Vorstufe des Indolrings ist. Dies sollte mittels retrobiosynthetischer NMR-Analyse erfolgen. Markierungsexperimente mit Stabilisotopen (z. B. ^{13}C) werden schon seit Langem zur Aufklärung von Stoffwechselwegen verwendet. Die markierte Substanz (z. B. [U- $^{13}\text{C}_6$]Glukose) wird vom Organismus aufgenommen und im Metabolismus verteilt. Die Glukose muss dabei markiert und unmarkiert zur Verfügung gestellt werden. Bei der Verwendung von nur markierter Glukose wären alle daraus resultierenden Metaboliten ausschließlich markiert und man könnte daraus keine Informationen gewinnen. In diesem Fall wurde [U- $^{13}\text{C}_6$]Glukose und im Überschuss unmarkierte Glukose als alleinige Kohlenstoffquelle verwendet. Die gewünschte Substanz wird dann extrahiert, gereinigt und mittels NMR-Spektroskopie wird die Markierung nachgewiesen. Im ^{13}C -NMR-Spektrum liefert nur der ^{13}C -Kern und nicht der ^{12}C -Kern ein Signal. Bei Kopplungen von zwei oder mehreren nebeneinander liegenden ^{13}C -Kernen spaltet sich das Signal auf, wodurch ^{13}C - ^{13}C -

Bindungsblöcke gut verfolgt werden können (Bacher et al., 1998; Eisenreich and Bacher, 2007).

Streptomyces sp. BA10988 wurde in Minimalmedium mit 0,475% Glukose und 0,025% [$U-^{13}C_6$]Glukose angezogen. Die Extraktion von BE-10988 erfolgte mit Ethylacetat, wobei 10 l Bakterienkultur nötig war, um eine ausreichende Menge des Sekundärstoffes (5,5 mg) zu gewinnen. Die gereinigte Verbindung wurde in deuteriertem DMSO aufgenommen und mittels quantitativer NMR-Spektroskopie analysiert. Tryptophan wurde aus den Proteinen des zurückbleibenden Bakterienpellets isoliert, in NaOD aufgenommen und ebenfalls mittels quantitativer NMR-Spektroskopie analysiert. Diese Analysen wurden im Rahmen einer Kooperation von Dr. Wolfgang Eisenreich (Lehrstuhl für Biochemie, TU München) durchgeführt.

Das Ziel dieser Untersuchungen war die Aufklärung des biosynthetischen Ursprungs von BE-10988. Neben der Biosynthese, analog zu Camalexin aus Tryptophan und Cystein, war ein Weg analog zu den Mitomycin-Antibiotika denkbar (Mao et al., 1999). Für beide Biosynthesewege war eine hypothetische Isotopolog-Zusammensetzung von BE-10988 postuliert (s. Abb. 22 B, C). Voraussetzung für die Analyse von Biosynthesewegen mit Hilfe von ^{13}C -NMR-Spektroskopie ist die eindeutige Zuordnung aller ^{13}C -Signale der untersuchten Moleküle. Diese Zuordnung ist für BE-10988 bereits bekannt (Suda et al., 1991) und wurde nochmals bestätigt (s. Abb. 21 A).

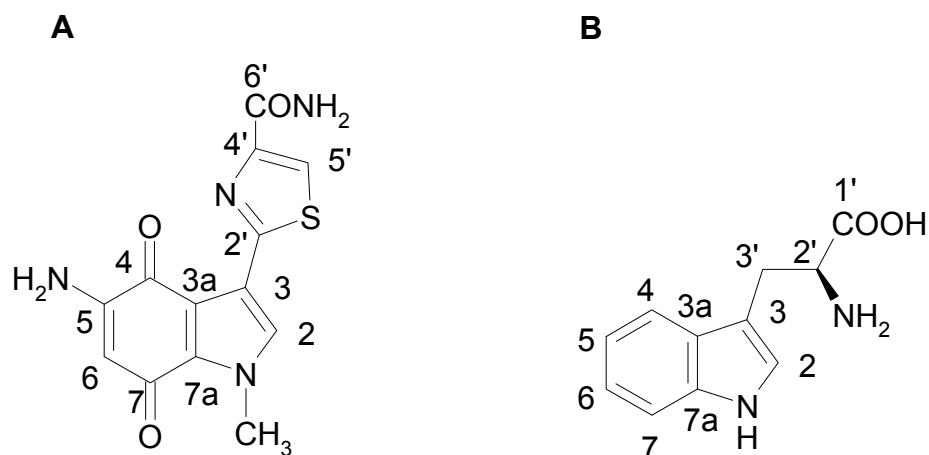


Abbildung 21: Zuordnung der Kohlenstoffatome von BE-10988 (A) und Tryptophan (B)

Die erhaltenen ^{13}C -NMR-Signale für Tryptophan aus *Streptomyces* gleichen prinzipiell dem bereits veröffentlichten Muster von ^{13}C -NMR-Signalen aus Pflanzen, ebenfalls nach Einbau von [$U-^{13}C_6$]Glukose (Glawischnig et al., 2000) (s. Abb. 21 B).

Tabelle 14: ^{13}C -NMR-Daten von Tryptophan nach Einbau von [$\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}_6$]Glukose

^a Prozentsatz der ^{13}C -gekoppelten Satellitensignale vom Gesamtsignal am angegebenen ^{13}C -Kern. Gekoppelte Positionen stehen in Klammern.

Position	δ , ppm	J_{cc} (Hz)	% $^{13}\text{C}^{13}\text{C}$ ^a
1'	182.81	53.3 (2')	55.6 (1'→2')
7a	135.99	53.7 (3a)	69.5 (7a→3a)
3a	127.08	53.7 (7a)	65.1 (3a→7a)
2	124.17	69.8(3)	46.4 (2→3)
6	121.58	nicht auflösbar	nicht auflösbar
4	118.90	nicht auflösbar	nicht auflösbar
5	118.65	nicht auflösbar	nicht auflösbar
7	111.63	58 (6), 2 (4 oder 5)	33.9 (7→6 und 5 und 4)
3	110.45	69.9 (2)	50.2 (3→2)
2'	56.37	53.5 (1'), 33.6 (3')	33.9 (2'→1' und 3'), 23.8 (2'→1'), 8.8 (2'→3')
3'	30.23	33.4 (2')	39.6 (3'→2')

Charakteristische Isotopologe von Tryptophan, welche eine Biosynthese von Tryptophan über den Shikimatweg zeigen, sind z. B. [3a, 7a- $^{13}\text{C}_2$]-, [4, 5, 6- $^{13}\text{C}_3$]- und [2, 3- $^{13}\text{C}_2$]Trp (s. Tab. 14, Abb. 22 C). Der aus dem Shikimatweg stammende Indolring des Tryptophans setzt sich aus Erythrose-4-Phosphat (C-4, C-5, C-6, C-7), Phosphoenolpyruvat (C-3a, C-7a) und Ribose-5-Phosphat (C-2, C-3) zusammen. Die hypothetische Biosynthese von BE-10988, ausgehend von Tryptophan, ist mit den ^{13}C -NMR-Kopplungsintensitäten in Abb. 22 C dargestellt.

Die Isotopolog-Zusammensetzung von BE-10988 wurde ebenfalls analysiert (s. Abb. 23, Tab. 15) und mit den beiden möglichen Biosynthesewegen (analog zu Mitomycin-Antibiotika oder Camalexin, s. Abb. 22 B, C) verglichen. Ein Teil der Biosynthese der Mitomycin-Antibiotika ist in Abb. 22 D dargestellt. Das Grundgerüst der Mitomycin-Antibiotika ist wie bei BE-10988 ein Indoloquinon. Die Vorstufe ist hier aber nicht Tryptophan, sondern ein Zwischenprodukt des Shikimat-Biosynthesewegs, 3-Amino-5-Hydroxy-Benzoesäure, welche zusammen mit D-Glucosamin und Carbamoylphosphat zu den Mitomycin-Antibiotika reagiert. Der hypothetische Biosyntheseweg für BE-10988, analog zu den Mitomycin-Antibiotika, ist in Abbildung 22 B dargestellt. Die Reaktion von 3-Amino-5-Hydroxy-Benzoesäure mit Cystein und einem (Amino-)Dreifachzucker (z. B. Glycerinaldehyd) würde ebenfalls BE-10988 ergeben. Die Kopplungen der ^{13}C -Atome in diesem hypothetischen Endprodukt konnten aufgrund von Erythrose-4-Phosphat und PEP als Vorstufen von 3-Amino-5-Hydroxy-Benzoesäure (Smithers and Engel, 1974) vorhergesagt werden und sind in Abbildung 22 B gezeigt (lila Balken). Die restlichen Kopplungen resultieren aus dem Einbau von Cystein (braun) und des Zuckers (rot).

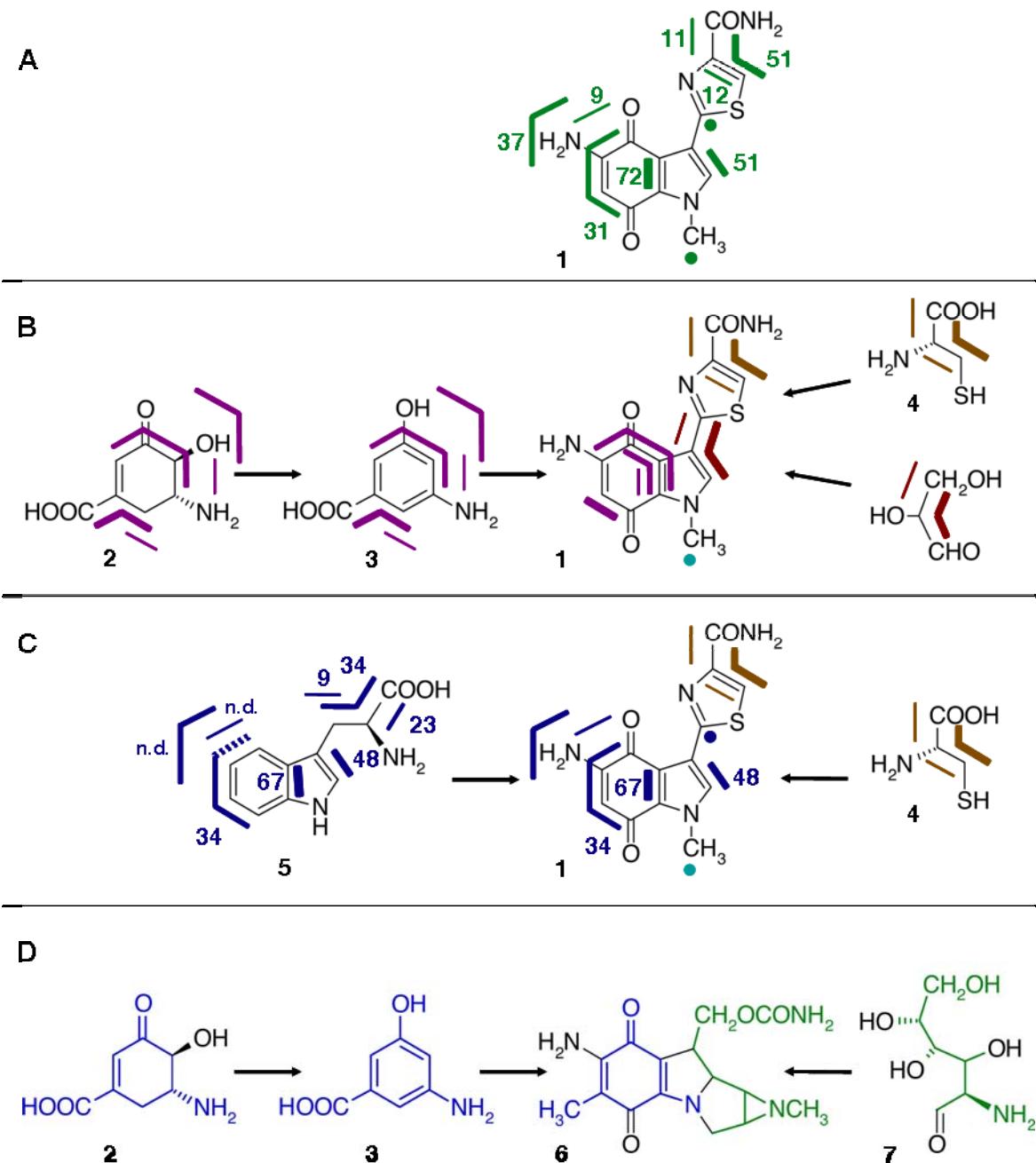


Abbildung 22: Vergleich zwischen dem gemessenen Markierungsmuster von BE-10988 (A) und zwei hypothetischen Biosynthesewegen (B und C).

(A) Gemessenes Markierungsmuster von BE-10988 (1), (B) Hypothetischer Biosyntheseweg von BE-10988 analog zu den Mitomycin-Antibiotika aus AminoDHS (2), AHBA (3) und Cys (4) (Mao et al., 1999), (C) Hypothetischer Biosyntheseweg von BE-10988 analog zu Camalexin aus Trp (5) und Cys (4), (D) Biosynthese der Mitomycin-Antibiotika aus AminoDHS (2), AHBA (3) und Glucosamin (7)

Die farbigen Balken repräsentieren ^{13}C -Kopplungen im jeweiligen Molekül, wobei die Dicke der Balken der Häufigkeit des entsprechenden Isotopologs entspricht. Einzelne ^{13}C -Kerne ohne Kopplung sind durch ausgefüllte Kreise markiert.

Der hypothetische Biosyntheseweg von BE-10988 aus Tryptophan, analog zu Camalexin, ist in Abbildung 22 C gezeigt. Im ^{13}C -NMR-Spektrum von BE-10988 (s. Abb. 23, Tab. 15)

wurde jedes Signal einzeln integriert, die Integrale der zusammengehörenden Satellitensignale addiert und dann der Anteil der Satelliten am Gesamtsignal, bestehend aus Zentral- und Satellitensignalen, berechnet, wobei das Zentralsignal durch die Resonanz eines ungekoppelten ^{13}C -Kerns entsteht. In Abbildung 22 C ist die aus Tabelle 14 berechnete Intensität der ^{13}C -Anreicherung des entsprechenden C-Atoms dargestellt, welche in den Kopplungssignalen auftritt.

Tabelle 15: ^{13}C -NMR Daten von BE-10988 nach Einbau von [U- $^{13}\text{C}_6$]Glukose

^a Prozentsatz der ^{13}C -gekoppelten Satellitensignale vom Gesamtsignal am angegebenen ^{13}C -Kern. Gekoppelte Positionen stehen in Klammern.

Position	δ , ppm	J_{cc} (Hz)	% $^{13}\text{C}^{13}\text{C}$ ^a
4	179.94	48.0 (5), 3.3 (6 oder 7)	74.5 (4→5, 4→5 und 6, 4→5 und 6 und 7)
7	178.06	63.9 (6)	36.9 (7→6 und 5 und 4)
1'	162.78	74.1 (2'), 7.8 (3')	49.4 (1'→2' und 3'), 12.8 (1'→2')
4'	159.34	61.5(3)	< 3 (4'→3)
5	151.33	67.3 (6), 48.3 (4), 3.3 (7)	67.0 (5→6 und 4), 8.9 (5→6)
2'	150.10	73.9 (1'), 64.1 (3')	48.3 (2→1' und 3'), 10.2 (2'→3'), 9.3 (2'→1')
7a	131.94	57.5 (3a)	70.6 (7a→3a)
2	130.36	67.7 (3)	51.2 (2→3)
3'	124.03	63.7 (2'), 8.6 (1')	53.7 (3'→2' und 1'), 12.9 (3'→2')
3a	117.38	57.7 (7a)	73.8 (3a→7a)
3	116.70	67.5 (2)	51.7 (3→2)
6	98.74	67.0(5), 4.3(4)	37.3 (6→5 und 4), 30.4 (6→5 und 7 und 4)

In Abbildung 22 A ist das Markierungsmuster von BE-10988 gezeigt, welches aus *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988 isoliert wurde, welcher in [U- $^{13}\text{C}_6$]Glukose-haltigem Medium kultiviert worden war. Dargestellt ist die aus Tabelle 15 berechnete Intensität der ^{13}C -Anreicherung des entsprechenden C-Atoms, welche in den Kopplungssignalen auftritt.

Der Vergleich der beiden hypothetischen Endprodukte (s. Abb. 22 B und C) mit den ^{13}C -NMR-Daten für BE-10988 (s. Abb. 22 A) zeigte, dass BE-10988 analog zu Camalexin über Tryptophan synthetisiert wird. Es waren nur die für Tryptophan spezifischen Isotopologe [4, 5, 6- $^{13}\text{C}_3$], [3a, 7a- $^{13}\text{C}_2$] und [2, 3- $^{13}\text{C}_2$] und nicht die [3, 2'- $^{13}\text{C}_2$]-, [2, 3, 2'- $^{13}\text{C}_3$]- und [3a, 4, 7a- $^{13}\text{C}_3$]-Isotopologe nachweisbar, welche für die Biosynthese von BE-10988, analog zu den Mitomycin-Antibiotika, charakteristisch wären.

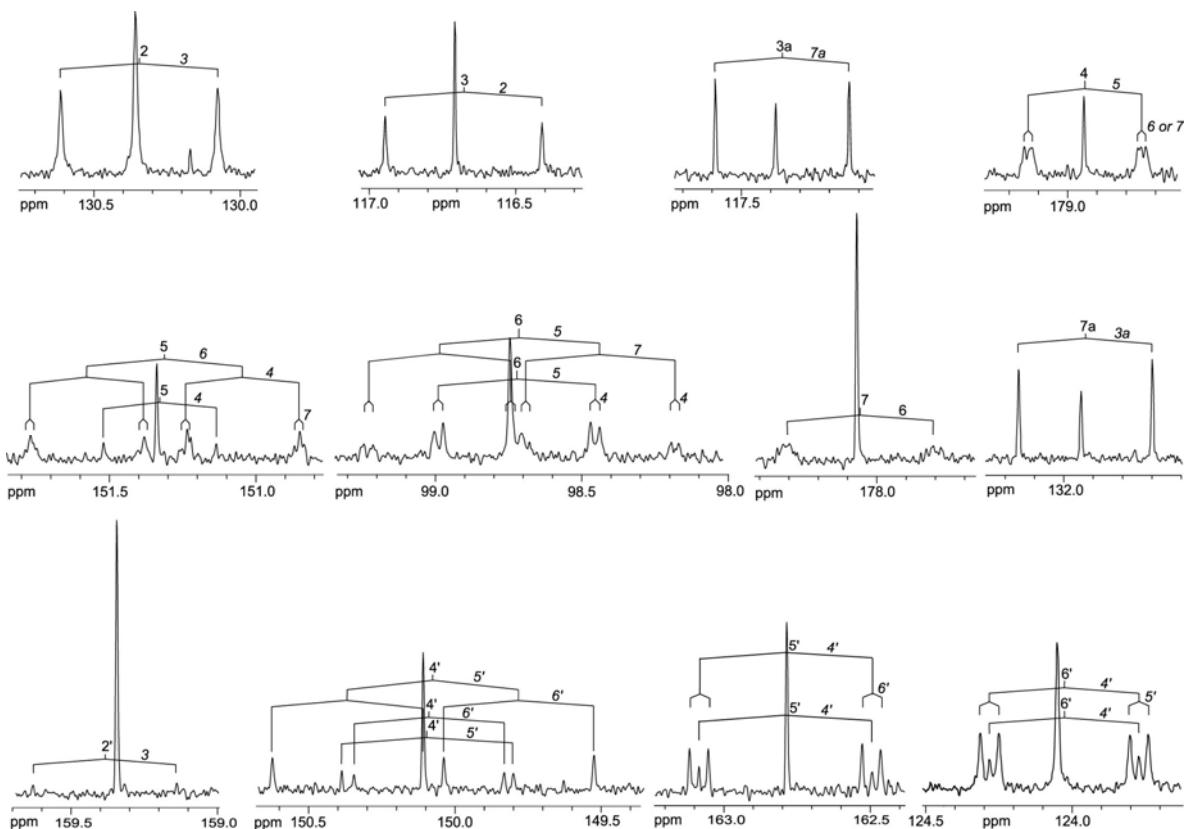
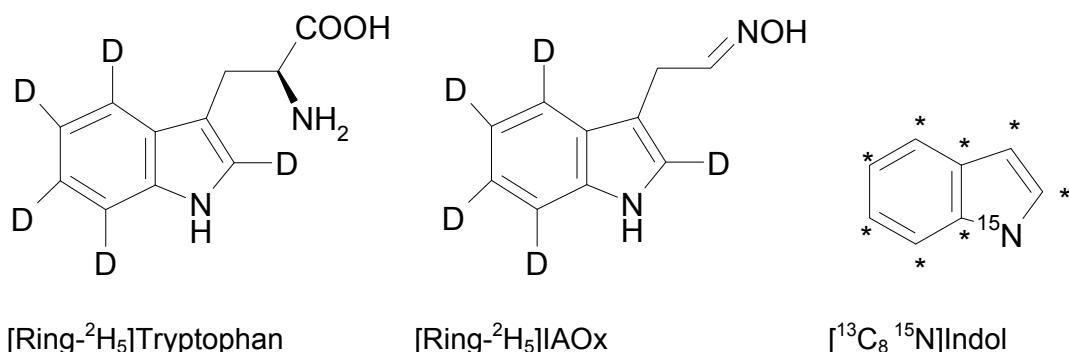


Abbildung 23: ^{13}C -NMR-Signale von BE-10988, welches aus *Streptomyces sp.* BA10988 aus U^{13}C_6]Glucose-haltigem Medium isoliert wurde.

Parallel dazu wurden in Zusammenarbeit mit Dr. Peter Spiteller (Lehrstuhl für Organische Chemie, Technische Universität München) und Prof. Michael Spiteller (Institut für Umweltforschung, Technische Universität Dortmund) Einbaustudien mit spezifischen Vorstufen durchgeführt. Die gefütterten Verbindungen waren [Ring- $^2\text{H}_5$]Tryptophan, [Ring- $^2\text{H}_5$]IAOx, [$^{13}\text{C}_8$ ^{15}N]Indol, [^{15}N]Anthranilat, [Ring- $^2\text{H}_5$]Indolpyruvat und [$^{13}\text{C}_3$ ^{15}N]Cystein und sind in Abbildung 24 dargestellt.



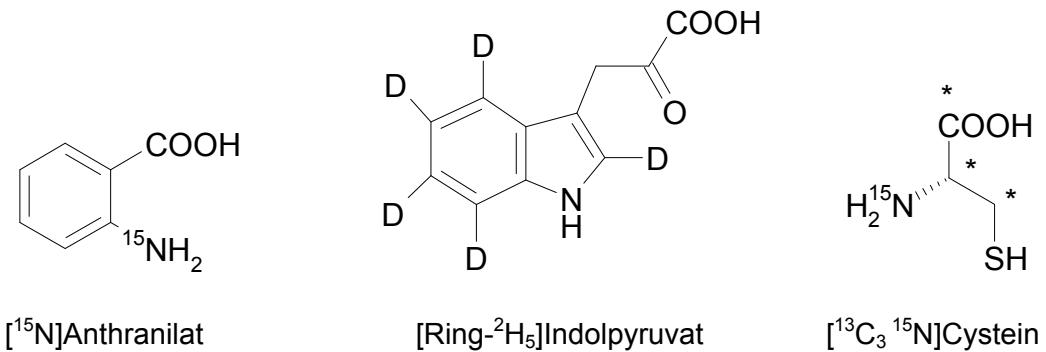
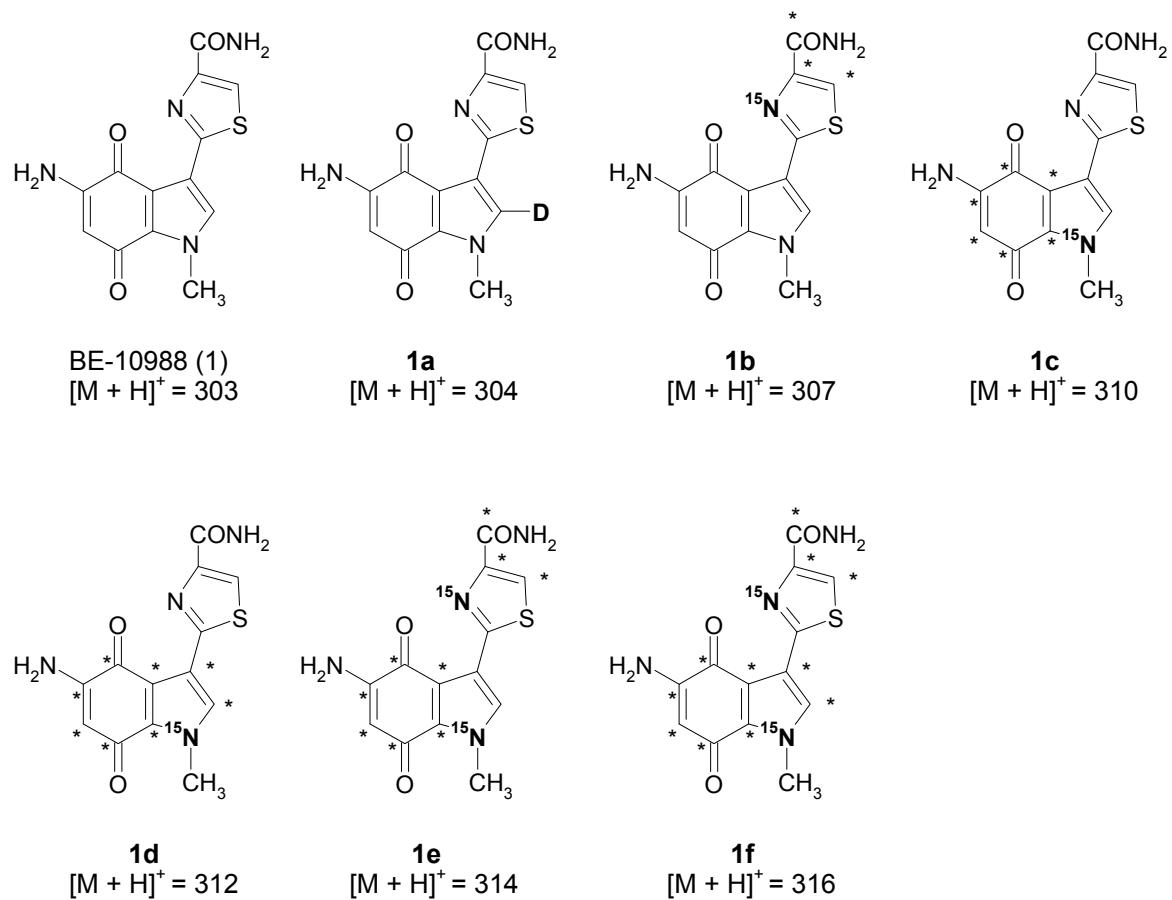


Abbildung 24: Die gefütterten Verbindungen zur MS-Analyse von BE-10988.

Abbildung 25: BE-10988 und markierte Analoge (* = ¹³C).

BE-10988 wurde anschließend aus 30 ml Minimalmedium extrahiert, welches die spezifische Vorstufe enthält und mit 0,75 ml einer Vorkultur von *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988 angeimpft wurde. Die isotopische Zusammensetzung wurde mittels LC-MS analysiert. Diese Experimente zeigten, dass die Markierung von L-Cystein, Indol und L-Tryptophan sehr effizient in BE-10988 eingebaut wurden (s. Tab. 16). Die Fütterung von

[Ring-²H₅]Trp lieferte [(m+1)+H]⁺ (**1a**) aber nicht [(m+2)+H]⁺. Der Einbau von [¹³C₃¹⁵N]Cystein bestätigt die Annahme, dass der Thiazolring von BE-10988 aus Cystein gebildet wird. Nach der Doppelfütterung von [¹³C₃¹⁵N]Cystein und [¹³C₈¹⁵N]Indol häufte sich [(m+13)+H]⁺ (**1f**) an, wodurch bestätigt wurde, dass beide Vorstufen für unterschiedliche Bestandteile des Heteroringsystems verantwortlich sind, das Indoloquinon und den Thiazolring (s. Abb. 25, Tab 16).

Während der Camalexinbiosynthese wird Tryptophan in einer P450-katalysierten Reaktion in Indol-3-Acetaldoxim umgewandelt. Für *Nocardia uniformis* wurde gezeigt, dass solche Oxim-synthetisierenden P450-Enzyme auch in Aktinomyceten vorkommen (Kelly and Townsend, 2002). Deshalb wurde [Ring-²H₅]IAOx als mögliche Vorstufe ebenfalls gefüttert. Die Markierung von 50 µM [Ring-²H₅]IAOx wurde allerdings nicht in BE-10988 eingebaut (s. Tab. 16). Eine andere mögliche Vorstufe ist Indol-3-Pyruvat, ein Zwischenprodukt in der Biosynthese von Indolocarbazolen in Aktinomyceten (Howard-Jones and Walsh, 2005; Nishizawa et al., 2005). Die Markierung von 50 µM [Ring-²H₅]Indolpyruvat führte zu ca. 29% Einbau in BE-10988 (s. Tab. 16). Allerdings besteht die Möglichkeit, dass Indolpyruvat vor dem Einbau zu markiertem Tryptophan transaminiert wurde. Um diese Möglichkeit auszuschließen wurde sowohl 50 µM [Ring-²H₅]Indolpyruvat, als auch 50 µM [Ring-²H₅]Tryptophan gefüttert und beide Male BE-10988 und Tryptophan aus dem Proteinhydrolysat extrahiert. Mittels HR-LC-ESIMS wurde der Einbau der Markierung in BE-10988 und Tryptophan untersucht. Die Markierung von [Ring-²H₅]Indolpyruvat wurde gleichermaßen in BE-10988 und Tryptophan eingebaut. Die Markierung von [Ring-²H₅]Tryptophan wurde ca. 2,4-mal effektiver in proteinogenes Tryptophan, als in BE-10988 eingebaut (s. Tab. 17). Dieses Experiment zeigte einerseits, dass Indolpyruvat sowohl zu BE-10988, als auch zu Tryptophan umgesetzt werden kann. Andererseits zeigte der effektivere Einbau der Markierung von Tryptophan in Proteine im Vergleich zu BE-10988, dass Indolpyruvat vermutlich ein Zwischenprodukt in der Biosynthese von BE-10988 ist.

Tabelle 16: Berechnete Einbauraten von spezifischen Vorstufen in BE-10988 aufgrund von LC-ESIMS-Spektren; ^a 200 µM anstelle von 50 µM, ^b [1-¹⁵N-BE-10988+H]⁺, Ind: Indol

Vorstufe (50 µM, falls nicht anders angegeben)	Relative Häufigkeit [%]						
	1	1a	1b	1c	1d	1e	1f
[² H ₅]Trp ^a	36,7	63,3	0	0	0	0	0
[² H ₅]Trp ^a + [U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Ind ^a	9,7	50,5	0	1,8	38,0	0	0
[² H ₅]IAOx	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
[² H ₅]IAOx + [U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Ind	57,6	(3,3)	0	28,5	10,6	0	0
[¹⁵ N]Anthraniлат	58,9	41,1 ^b	0	0	0	0	0
[¹⁵ N]Anthraniлат + [U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Ind	42,7	32,5 ^b	0	11,9	12,9	0	0
[² H ₅]IPyr	71,4	28,6	0	0	0	0	0
[² H ₅]IPyr + [U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Ind	32,0	14,4	0	11,2	42,4	0	0
[U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Cys	67,3	0	32,7	0	0	0	0
[U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Cys + [U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Ind	29,4	0	8,1	10,5	35,8	4,7	11,5
[U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Cys ^a	48,7	0	51,3	0	0	0	0

Tabelle 17: Berechnete Einbauraten von spezifischen Vorstufen in BE-10988 und Tryptophan aufgrund von HR-LC-ESIMS-Daten; die relative Häufigkeit der markierten Verbindungen ist angegeben, ohne dabei die natürliche Häufigkeit der Isotopologen zu berücksichtigen.

Vorstufe	Produkt	Relative Häufigkeit des markierten Produkts [%]
50 µM [² H ₅]IPyr	BE-10988	26,0
50 µM [² H ₅]IPyr	Tryptophan	27,8
50 µM [² H ₅]Trp	BE-10988	29,8
50 µM [² H ₅]Trp	Tryptophan	66,4

4. Diskussion

4.1 Die Biosynthese von Camalexin

Camalexin wird aus Tryptophan synthetisiert, wobei der erste Schritt der Biosynthese die Umwandlung von Tryptophan in Indol-3-Acetaldoxim durch CYP79B2 und CYP79B3 ist. IAOx wird durch CYP71A13 zu Indol-3-Acetonitril umgesetzt. Der Mechanismus der Synthese des Thiazolrings ist genauso wie der Schwefeldonor bis jetzt unbekannt. Der letzte Schritt der Camalexinbiosynthese ist die Decarboxylierung von Dihydrocamalexinsäure durch PAD3. Die bis jetzt bekannten Camalexinbiosynthesegene *CYP79B2*, *CYP71A13* und *CYP71B15* sind mit den Genen der Tryptophanbiosynthese, speziell *ASA1* und *TSA*, coreguliert. Die untersuchten Kandidatengene wurden alle aufgrund ihrer Coregulation mit den Camalexinbiosynthesegenen *CYP71A13* und *CYP71B15* ausgewählt. Es wurden sowohl T-DNA-Insertionslinien, als auch RNAi-Knock-Downs untersucht. Keine der analysierten Knock-Outs oder Knock-Downs zeigte einen camalexindefizienten Phänotyp. Offen ist lediglich die Analyse einer Kreuzung zwischen *gstu4*-Knock-Out und der amiRNA-Linie gegen *GSTU3* und *GSTU4*.

Die Bildung des Thiazolrings ist der noch fehlende Schritt in der Camalexinbiosynthese. Die Hypothese, dass die Verknüpfung der Indolkomponente mit dem Cysteinderivat von Glutathion-S-Transferasen (GST) katalysiert werden könnte besteht weiterhin, auch wenn die Analyse verschiedenster Mutanten keinen camalexindefizienten Phänotyp ergab. Untersucht wurden Vertreter der phi-Klasse (*GSTF2*, *GSTF3*, *GSTF6* und *GSTF7*) und der tau-Klasse (*GSTU3*, *GSTU4*) (Wagner et al., 2002). Sappl et al. (2009) machten eine ähnliche Beobachtung. Die Analyse von *AtGSTF6/F7/F9/F10*-RNAi-Linien zeigte zwar eine Reduktion der Transkriptmenge auf ca. 10-20%, einhergehend mit einer deutlichen Reduktion des GST-Proteingehalts. Es ließ sich allerdings kein Funktionsverlust der GST-Aktivität bezogen auf das Standardsubstrat 1-Chloro-2,4-Dinitrobenzen nachweisen. Zusätzlich zeigte diese RNAi-Linie während der Stressantwort auf Salicylsäure- oder Herbizidbehandlung einen unveränderten physischen Phänotyp (Sappl et al., 2009). Hier zeigte sich ebenfalls die hohe funktionelle Genredundanz innerhalb der Familie der GSTs. Es gibt einige Hinweise, welche für eine Beteiligung der GSTs an der Camalexinbiosynthese sprechen. Sie sind coreguliert mit den Camalexinbiosynthesegenen (s. Kapitel 3.1), sind im PaNIE-System induziert und zeigen ein ähnliches Expressionsmuster wie die Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene (s. Abb. 7). Kürzlich wurde gezeigt, dass *PAD2* eine γ-Glutamylcystein-Synthetase (GSH1) codiert (Parisy et al., 2007). GSH1 katalysiert den ersten Schritt der

Glutathionbiosynthese, die Bildung einer Peptidbindung zwischen der γ -Carboxylgruppe von L-Glutamat und der α -Aminogruppe von L-Cystein. GSH2 katalysiert die Verknüpfung von γ -Glutamylcystein mit Glycin was schließlich Glutathion liefert. Die *pad2*-Mutante zeigt im Vergleich zum Wildtyp einen reduzierten Glutathion- (21%) und einen erhöhten Cysteingehalt (500%) (Parisy et al., 2007). Zusätzlich bewirkt die *pad2*-Mutation eine erhöhte Anfälligkeit gegenüber *P. syringae* und einen reduzierten Camalexin gehalt (Glazebrook and Ausubel, 1994; Glazebrook et al., 1997). Diese Camalexindefizienz ist allerdings nicht der Grund für die erhöhte Anfälligkeit der Pflanzen gegenüber *P. syringae* und *Phytophthora brassicae*, weil *pad3* kaum einen Effekt bezüglich der Resistenz gegen diese Pathogene zeigt (Glazebrook and Ausubel, 1994; Roetschi et al., 2001). Es gibt einige weitere Mutationen in *GSH1 rml1*, *cad2-1* und *rax1-1*. *rml1* bildet nur noch 3% des Wildtyp-Glutathiongehalts und ist somit letal (Vernoux et al., 2000). *cad2-1* akkumuliert verglichen mit Wildtypen ca. 30% Glutathion und zeigt einen unveränderten Resistenzphänotyp gegenüber virulenten und avirulenten Stämmen von *Hyaloperonospora parasitica* und *P. syringae* pv. *tomato* (May et al., 1996). Deshalb ging man davon aus, dass Glutathion nicht sehr wichtig für die Krankheitsresistenz der Pflanzen ist. Im Gegensatz dazu steht die Entdeckung, dass *cad2-1* und *rax1-1* (ähnlicher Glutathiongehalt wie *cad2-1*) genauso wie *pad2*, anfälliger gegen avirulente Stämme von *P. syringae* sind (Ball et al., 2004). *pad2* ist ebenfalls anfälliger gegenüber Insektenfraß verglichen mit Wildtypen. *pad2*-Pflanzen werden, im Vergleich mit Wildtypen, von Larven des Generalisten *Spodoptera littoralis* bevorzugt gefressen und die Larven erreichten ein höheres Gewicht als diejenigen, welche von Wildtypen fraßen (Schlaeppi et al., 2008). Diese Anfälligkeit von *pad2* gegenüber *S. littoralis* ist auf den reduzierten Glutathiongehalt zurückzuführen. *S. littoralis*-Larven, welche von komplementierten 35S::*GSH1 pad2-1* Linien (wildtypischer Glutathiongehalt) fraßen (Parisy et al., 2007) zeigten keine erhöhte Gewichtszunahme im Vergleich zu wildtypischen Pflanzen (Schlaeppi et al., 2008). Außer dem reduzierten Glutathion- und Camalexin gehalt akkumuliert *pad2* nach Insektenfraß durch *S. littoralis* auch weniger Indolglucosinolate. Die komplementierten 35S::*GSH1 pad2-1*-Linien hingegen zeigen einen wildtypischen Indolglucosinolatgehalt. Der reduzierte Glutathiongehalt in *pad2* ist damit ebenfalls verantwortlich für den reduzierten Indolglucosinolatgehalt (Schlaeppi et al., 2008). Die Möglichkeit, dass der reduzierte Camalexin gehalt von *pad2* verantwortlich für die erhöhte Anfälligkeit gegenüber *S. littoralis* ist wurde dadurch entkräftet, dass *pad3*-Pflanzen, welche fast kein Camalexin synthetisieren nicht anfälliger gegenüber *S. littoralis* waren, im Vergleich zum Wildtyp (Schlaeppi et al., 2008). Das bedeutet, dass die erhöhte Anfälligkeit von *pad2* gegenüber Fraßinsekten wahrscheinlich auf den reduzierten Glucosinolatgehalt zurückzuführen ist,

welcher möglicherweise auf der Glutathiondefizienz beruht, was Glutathion immer mehr eine zentrale Rolle in der Pflanzenabwehr zukommen lässt.

Glutathion ist neben Ascorbat das entscheidende Antioxidans. Zusammen mit weiteren Enzymen und niedermolekularen Verbindungen wird ein Netzwerk gebildet, welches die Produktion von ROS während der Pflanzenabwehr und die Bereitstellung von ROS für Wachstum und Signaltransduktion reguliert (Mittler et al., 2004). Der reduzierte Glutathiongehalt könnte deshalb das Antioxidansnetzwerk stören und somit die Pflanzenresistenz negativ beeinflussen. Deshalb wurde in der ascorbatdefizienten Mutante *vtc1-1* (25% Ascorbat verglichen mit Wildtypen) getestet, ob das gestörte Redoxgleichgewicht einen Einfluss auf Insektenfraß hat. *S. littoralis* Larven gewannen auf *vtc1-1*-Mutanten deutlich mehr Gewicht (vergleichbar mit *pad2*) als auf Wildtypen. *vtc1-1*-Mutanten zeigten kein reduziertes Glucosinolatlevel und somit muss die erhöhte Anfälligkeit gegen Fraßinsekten eine andere Ursache haben (Schlaeppi et al., 2008). Der reduzierte Glucosinolatgehalt in *pad2* nach Insektenfraß konnte durch Glutathionfütterung komplementiert werden. Die Zugabe eines anderen Reduktionsmittel (Dithiothreitol, DTT), führte allerdings nicht zur Komplementation des reduzierten Glucosinolatgehalts (Schlaeppi et al., 2008). Dies spricht ebenfalls für eine spezifische Rolle von Glutathion in der Glucosinolatbiosynthese. Es bleiben also zwei Möglichkeiten für Glutathion die Camalexin- und Glucosinolatbiosynthese zu beeinflussen. Zum Einen ist die Redoxhomöostase in der Zelle durch den Glutathionmangel gestört, wodurch Biosynthesegene gehemmt werden könnten. Als zweite Möglichkeit könnte Glutathion als Schwefeldonor für die Biosynthese von Camalexin und Glucosinolaten fungieren. Es wurde postuliert, dass entweder Cystein oder ein Cysteinderivat (Glutathion oder γ -Glutamylcystein) der S-Donor für Indolglucosinolate und Camalexin ist (Halkier and Gershenzon, 2006; Mikkelsen et al., 2004; Zook and Hammerschmidt, 1997). Erst kürzlich wurde ein Markierungsexperiment mit 35 S-markiertem Glutathion und 35 S-markiertem Cystein durchgeführt, um anschließend Glucosinolate zu isolieren und diese auf Einbau der Vorstufen zu untersuchen. In beiden Fällen wurde allerdings die Markierung in Glucosinolaten gefunden. Die enge Verbindung zwischen Cystein- und Glutathionpool macht es unmöglich, ausschließlich eine der beiden Verbindungen zu markieren und demzufolge kann auf diesem Wege der S-Donor nicht identifiziert werden (Schlaeppi et al., 2008).

Kürzlich wurde im Rahmen eines Metabolomics-Ansatzes in *pad3* eine Verbindung, bestehend aus IAN und Cystein nach Induktion mit Silbernitrat, gefunden. Im gleichen Ansatz wurden ebenfalls die Konjugate von Glutathion und γ -Glutamylcystein mit IAN gefunden. Daraus ergibt sich eine mögliche Synthese des Thiazolrings von Camalexin

durch eine Verknüpfung von IAN mit Glutathion, Abspaltung von Glutamat und Glycin und folgendem Ringschluss. Voraussetzung dafür wäre eine vorangehende Oxidation zur Aktivierung von IAN, beispielsweise durch ein weiteres Cytochrom P450-Enzym (Böttcher und Glawischnig, unveröffentlicht). Denkbar wäre eine Reaktion analog zur Biosynthese von Isopenicillin N durch die Isopenicillin N-Synthase. Die zentralen Schritte dieser Reaktion sind die beiden eisen- und sauerstoffabhängigen Ringschlüsse des Tripeptids γ-(L-α-Aminoadipoyl)-L-Cysteinyl-D-Valin. Zuerst wird der β-Lactam-Ring gebildet, wodurch ein monozyklisches Intermediat entsteht, welches über eine Schwefel-Eisen-Bindung mit dem Enzym verknüpft ist. Dieses hochreaktive Zwischenprodukt vermittelt anschließend die Bildung des Thiazolrings, wodurch Isopenicillin N entsteht (Baldwin and Abraham, 1988; Baldwin et al., 1991; Burzlaff et al., 1999; Prescott and Lloyd, 2000).

4.2 Die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese

Zusätzlich zu den Biosynthesekandidaten wurden auch Kandidatengene für die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese untersucht. Diese Kandidaten wurden ebenfalls aufgrund ihrer Coregulation mit den Camalexinbiosynthesegenen *CYP71B15* und *CYP71A13* ausgewählt. Es wurden T-DNA- und Transposon-Insertionslinien und amiRNA-Linien analysiert, welche alle keinen camalexindefizienten Phänotyp zeigten. Untersucht wurden der Transkriptionsfaktor ANAC042, die beiden RING-H2-Fingerproteine RHA1a und RHA1b, die beiden WRKY-Transkriptionsfaktoren WRKY18 und 40 und AIG2 sowie einige Homologe. Die Kreuzung zwischen der *ANAC042*-Mutante und Allel 3 eines *ANAC042*-Homologen muss noch untersucht werden, wobei die Kreuzung mit einem anderen Allel des *ANAC042*-Homologen keinen reduzierten Camalexinphänotyp zeigte. amiRNA-Linien gegen *RHA1a* und *RHA1b* zeigten ebenfalls keinen camalexindefizienten Phänotyp. RHA1a und RHA1b könnten durch ihre Interaktion mit Transkriptionsfaktoren an der Genregulation beteiligt sein (Hardtke et al., 2002). Ein weiterer Vertreter der RING-H2 Fingerproteine RHA2a interagiert mit einem ANAC-Transkriptionsfaktor, weshalb es plausibel schien, dass diese beiden Genfamilien an der Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese beteiligt sein könnten (Greve et al., 2003). Allerdings gibt es mindestens 40 RING-H2 Fingerproteine, so dass es möglicherweise nicht ausreicht Knock-Downs für lediglich zwei Gene zu erzeugen.

Ein weiters amiRNA-Konstrukt erzeugte Knock-Downs von *A/G2* und einem Homologen. Über *A/G2* ist bis jetzt nur sehr wenig bekannt, man weiß lediglich, dass *A/G2* eine von *RPS2* und *avrRpt2* abhängige Induktion nach Infektion mit *P. syringae* pv *maculicola* zeigt (Reuber and Ausubel, 1996). Das Silencing funktionierte hier gut und transgene Pflanzen zeigten für beide Gene eine Reduktion der Transkriptmenge auf ca. 5%. Dieses Gen ist

eventuell an anderen Verteidigungsmechanismen der Pflanzen gegen Pathogene beteiligt und ist deshalb mit den Camalexinbiosynthesegenen coreguliert.

Die Analyse der *wrky18*, *40* und *18/40*-Mutanten beruhte auf folgender Hypothese. Möglicherweise können sie als Repressoren der Camalexinbiosynthese fungieren, da *PAD3* in den *wrky*-Mutanten ca. 5-fach hochreguliert war (Shen et al., 2007). Es zeigte sich, dass weder die Camalexinbiosynthesegene *CYP71B15* und *CYP71A13* hochreguliert waren, noch konnte eine signifikante Erhöhung oder Beschleunigung der Camalexinbiosynthese, nach Induktion mit Silber oder Infiltration mit einem virulenten und einem avirulenten *P. syringae* Stamm, gezeigt werden. Ein weiterer WRKY-Transkriptionsfaktor ist an der Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese beteiligt, WRKY33 bindet an den Promoter von *CYP71B15*. *wrky33*-Mutanten zeigen einen deutlich reduzierten Gehalt an *CYP71B15*- und *CYP71A13*-mRNA nach Behandlung mit Flagellin und Infiltration mit virulenten und avirulenten *P. syringae* Stämmen. Weiterhin akkumulieren sie nach Infiltration von *P. syringae* fast kein Camalexin mehr (Qiu et al., 2008). Diese sehr deutlichen Phänotypen konnten bei den in dieser Arbeit analysierten WRKY-Faktoren nicht annähernd beobachtet werden, weshalb davon auszugehen ist, dass *WRKY18* und *40* nicht an der Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese beteiligt sind.

Durch die Analyse der Kandidatengene konnten keine Gene identifiziert werden, welche an der Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese beteiligt sind. Deshalb sollten durch Promoter-Deletionsexperimente mögliche Transkriptionsfaktorbindestellen in den Promotoren von *ASA1* und *CYP71B15* gefunden werden. Als Reportergen wurde hier *GUS* verwendet, um in induzierten Blättern die Blaufärbung zu analysieren. Es wurden 11 Promoter-Deletionsfragmente für *CYP71B15* zwischen 2,9 kb und 170 bp und 9 Promoter-Deletionsfragmente für *ASA1* zwischen 1,2 kb und 140 bp getestet. Die Promoter-Deletionsfragmente sowohl von *ASA1*, als auch von *CYP71B15* zeigten alle eine mehr oder weniger unveränderte GUS-Aktivität, so dass keine Möglichkeit bestand die Promotersequenz einzugrenzen, in welcher Transkriptionsfaktorbindestellen liegen. Eine mögliche Erklärung wäre, dass durch die Promoterverkürzungen Repressoren der Promotoren verloren gegangen sind, so dass selbst die kürzesten Fragmente noch einen funktionalen Promoter darstellen. Allerdings erscheint es unwahrscheinlich, dass dann in beiden Genen ausnahmslos alle Promoter-Deletionsfragmente eine mehr oder weniger identische GUS-Färbung hervorrufen. Möglicherweise würde ein anderes Reportergen, wie z.B. Luciferase, eine bessere Analyse der Promoter-Deletionsfragmente ermöglichen. Die Analyse von Arabidopsis-Pflanzen nach Behandlung mit verschiedenen PAMPs sollte weitere Informationen über die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese liefern. Hierbei wurde geklärt, welche PAMPs eine Camalexinakkumulation induzieren. Flg22 ist

wahrscheinlich das am besten untersuchte PAMP. Es ist ein hochkonserviertes Peptid am N-Terminus des Flagellins der Bakteriengeißel und löst die PTI in Pflanzen aus (Felix et al., 1999). Die Verteidigungsstrategien der Pflanze sind dabei die Freisetzung von Ethylen, die Aktivierung von MAP-Kinasen, die Biosynthese von Phytoalexinen, die Induktion von PR-Genen und die Ca^{2+} -Ausschüttung. Kürzlich wurde gezeigt, dass die Erkennung von Flagellin eine MAPK-Signalkaskade auslöst, wodurch letztendlich *PAD3* durch *WRKY33* aktiviert wird (Qiu et al., 2008). Dies steht im Gegensatz zur Beobachtung in Abbildung 12, dort hatte die Behandlung von *Arabidopsis* mit Flagellin keine Camalexinakkumulation hervorgerufen. Möglicherweise aktiviert Flagellin ausschließlich *PAD3* und *CYP71A13*, aber nicht die Gene der Tryptophanbiosynthese und die frühen Camalexinbiosynthesegene *CYP79B2* und *CYP79B3*. Dies könnte mittels quantitativer RT-PCR geklärt werden. Eine weitere Möglichkeit wäre, dass die Konzentration von Flagellin ausschlaggebend ist, denn von Qiu et al. (2008) wurde zur Infiltration eine 10-mal höher konzentrierte Flagellinlösung verwendet, als in dieser Arbeit. NLPs aus Oomyceten induzieren ebenfalls die Camalexinbiosynthese (s. Abb. 13 und 14) und aktivieren MAPK-Signalkaskaden. Die Beteiligung von MAPK-Signalkaskaden an der Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese wurde kürzlich gezeigt (Qiu et al., 2008; Ren et al., 2008). Detaillierte Untersuchungen von *Arabidopsis*-Pflanzen, welche PaNIE heterolog unter der Kontrolle eines Alkohol-induzierbaren Promoters exprimieren verdeutlichen, dass dieses System sehr gut geeignet ist Camalexin und die Expression von Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegenen reproduzierbar zu analysieren. Es wird vorgeschlagen in Zukunft dieses System, anstatt der Silbernitratbehandlung, zu verwenden. Die Expression eines oomycetischen Proteins entspricht eher der Situation in der Natur als die Silberbehandlung. Dies ist vergleichbar mit der Pathogenbehandlung, ohne aber die große Streuung in der gemessenen Camalexinmenge in Kauf nehmen zu müssen, welche nach Infiltration von Pathogenen zu beobachten ist. Ein weiterer Vorteil gegenüber der Behandlung mit Silbernitrat ist, dass der Effekt von PaNIE systemisch ist. Deshalb wird kein Gemisch aus gesundem und nekrotischem Pflanzengewebe analysiert, wie es nach Silberinduktion der Fall ist. Abbildung 16 zeigt, dass am meisten Camalexin in vegetativen Geweben wie Blätter und Stängel (20-40% im Vergleich zu Blättern) akkumuliert wird und nur sehr wenig in reproduktiven Geweben wie Schoten (0,4-0,8% im Vergleich zu Blättern) und Blüten (4-7% im Vergleich zu Blättern). Die Anwendung von z.B. *Expression Angler* und Analyse von veröffentlichten Arraydaten (Toufighi et al., 2005) zeigte, dass Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene nach Pathogenbehandlung, bezogen auf das Col-0-Transkriptom, stark coreguliert sind. Die Analyse der Genexpression bestätigte diese Daten. Demzufolge sind die Camalexinbiosynthesegene in Blättern bis zu 400-fach,

die Tryptophanbiosynthesegene nach 6 h mehr als 50-fach induziert. Die Kinetik der Tryptophanbiosynthesegene stimmt mit der Kinetik der Camalexinbiosynthesegene in Blättern also sehr gut überein, wohingegen die Expression der Tryptophan- und Camalexinbiosynthesegene in anderen Geweben wie Stängel, Blüten und Schoten deutlich geringer ist. Abbildung 19 zeigt, dass die Expression mit der Camalexinmenge korreliert, d. h., dass in Blüten und Schoten die Camalexinbiosynthesegene kaum exprimiert sind und im Stängel noch eine gewisse Expression erkennbar ist. Diese Daten zeigen, dass das PAMP-Signal im reproduktiven Gewebe nicht ausreichend weitergeleitet wird, um eine Phytoalexinbiosynthese zu induzieren. Alc::PaNie_{Dc}-Pflanzen wurden mit Pflanzen gekreuzt, welche GUS unter der Kontrolle des *CYP71B15*- oder des *CYP79B2*-Promoters exprimieren (Glawischnig et al., 2004; Mikkelsen et al., 2000; Schuhegger et al., 2006). Die Analyse dieser Pflanzen nach Besprühen mit Ethanol ergab eine starke GUS-Färbung in Rosettenblättern beider Kreuzungen und nur eine sehr schwache GUS-Färbung in Schoten und Blüten (s. Abb. 17). Möglicherweise sind Teile der camalexininduzierenden Signalkaskade in reproduktiven Geweben nur sehr schwach exprimiert. Da Camalexin für Pflanzen toxisch ist (Rogers et al., 1996) könnte es sein, dass diese Toxizität in Blättern nach Pathogenbefall toleriert wird, um das Pathogen zu hemmen, während die negative Auswirkung von Camalexin auf reproduktives Gewebe zu stark wäre. Deshalb wäre Camalexin ein ungeeigneter Verteidigungsmechanismus in diesen Geweben. Möglicherweise ist deshalb die Glucosinolatkonzentration in Blüten, Schoten und Samen so hoch (Brown et al., 2003; Petersen et al., 2002), um den fehlenden Effekt von Camalexin ausgleichen zu können. Der Vorteil der Glucosinolate ist, dass sie ihre toxische Wirkung erst nach dem Kontakt mit Myrosinasen entfalten. Dies geschieht durch Gewebezerstörung durch Fraßinsekten oder Pathogene, wodurch die biologisch aktiven Abbauprodukte entstehen (Halkier and Gershenson, 2006).

Im Gegensatz zu beispielsweise Peptidoglycan führt die Behandlung von *Arabidopsis* mit NLPs zum Zelltod. Diesen Unterschied könnte man näher untersuchen, um die Signaltransduktionskette aufzuklären, welche schließlich zum Zelltod führt und möglicherweise auch Teil der Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese ist. Dazu könnte man einen Mutantenscreen durchführen, indem man Alc::PaNie_{Dc}-Pflanzen z.B. mit EMS mutagenisiert und mit Ethanol besprüht, um so die Expression von PaNie zu induzieren. Normalerweise müssten all diese Pflanzen absterben. Allerdings könnten Mutanten im Signaltransduktionsweg überleben. Besonders interessant wäre es den Rezeptor für NLPs identifizieren zu können. Mittels positionellen Klonens könnte damit das Gen identifiziert werden, welches mutiert ist und die Signaltransduktionskette die zum Zelltod führt unterbricht. Eine weitere Möglichkeit die Alc::PaNie_{Dc}-Pflanzen zur Untersuchung der

Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese zu verwenden wäre ein Microarray-Ansatz. Dazu könnte man verschiedene Zeitwerte nach Ethanolinduktion testen, beginnend bei z.B. zwei Stunden. Hiermit könnten hochregulierte Gene bzw. Gene, welche mit den Camalexinbiosynthesegenen coreguliert sind, identifiziert werden, um somit weitere Kandidatengene für die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese untersuchen zu können.

4.3 Evolution der Camalexinbiosynthese und strukturell verwandter Verbindungen

Die Biosynthese von Camalexin und Glucosinolaten entwickelte sich möglicherweise aus dem Biosyntheseweg von cyanogenen Glycosiden (Bak et al., 2006). Cyanogene Glycoside wurden in fast 3000 höheren Pflanzenarten gefunden. Die Biosynthese der cyanogenen Glycoside in Pflanzen ist mindestens 300 Millionen Jahre alt. Sie werden zu den Phytoanticipinen gezählt und erst das Zusammentreffen von cyanogenen Glycosiden und β -Glycosidasen oder α -Hydroxynitrilasen sorgt für die Spaltung in Blausäure, Zucker und einen Aldehyd oder ein Keton. Dieses Zwei-Komponenten-System schützt die Pflanzen gegen Herbivoren und Pathogene, welche das Gewebe zerstören (Bak et al., 2006). Cyanogene Glycoside werden aus aromatischen (Tyrosin oder Phenylalanin), aliphatischen (Isoleucin, Valin oder Leucin) oder nichtproteinogenen Aminosäuren gebildet. Der Biosyntheseweg wurde als erstes in *Sorghum bicolor* aufgeklärt. Dort sind zwei Cytochrom P450 Enzyme und eine UDP-Glycosyltransferase beteiligt. Der erste Schritt ist die Umwandlung der Aminosäure zum entsprechenden Oxim, katalysiert durch CYP79A1. Das zweite Cytochrom P450-Enzym (CYP71E1) katalysiert die Bildung eines Cyanohydrins, welches dann durch die Glycosyltransferase UGT85B1 glycosiliert wird (zur Übersicht: (Bak et al., 2006)). In zahlreichen cyanogenen Angiospermen konnten CYP79-Orthologe identifiziert werden (Bak et al., 2000; Halkier et al., 1996; Nielsen and Moller, 2000). Es konnten allerdings keine eindeutigen Orthologen für CYP71E1 und UGT85B1 identifiziert werden. Glucosinolate werden zum Teil aus denselben Aminosäuren gebildet wie die cyanogenen Glycoside und die Umwandlung der Aminosäuren in ihre entsprechenden Oxime wird ebenfalls durch CYP79-Enzyme katalysiert (Bak et al., 1998). Die CYP79-Enzyme der Glucosinolatbiosynthese sind damit phylogenetisch mit den CYP79-Enzymen der Biosynthese der cyanogenen Glycoside verwandt, wodurch eine Rekrutierung der Gene aus der Biosynthese der cyanogenen Glycoside in den jüngeren Biosyntheseweg der Glucosinolate wahrscheinlich erscheint (Bak et al., 1998). Die Oxime, welche in der Glucosinolatbiosynthese entstehen, werden von CYP83A1 oder CYP83B1 weiter umgesetzt (Bak and Feyereisen, 2001; Bak et al., 2001; Hansen et al., 2001; Naur et al., 2003). Phylogenetische Untersuchungen zeigten,

dass CYP83A1 und CYP83B1 eigentlich zur Familie der CYP71-Enzyme gehören, welche in der Biosynthese der cyanogenen Glycoside die Oxime weiter umsetzen (Bak et al., 2006). In phylogenetischen Bäumen clustern CYP83A1 und CYP83B1 innerhalb der CYP71-Familie (Bak et al., 2006). Aufgrund der allgemeingültigen Nomenklatur (Nelson et al., 1996) würden sie eine Unterfamilie bilden. Es wurden allerdings beide Unterfamilien aufrechterhalten, um mögliche Irritationen bei einer Namensänderung zu vermeiden. Es bleibt trotzdem die Frage offen, ob die CYP83-Enzyme der Glucosinolatbiosynthese aus einem Orthologen von *CYP71E1* entstanden sind oder ob die glucosinolathaltigen Pflanzen andere CYP71-Homologe dafür rekrutierten. Das Indol-3-Acetaldoxim, welches durch CYP79B2 und CYP79B3 aus Tryptophan gebildet wird, ist die Vorstufe der Indolglucosinolate und von Camalexin. *CYP71B15* ist nahe verwandt mit *CYP71E1*, *CYP83A1* und *CYP83B1*, was darauf hindeutet, dass die CYP71-Familie eine große Rolle in der Evolution von Sekundärmetaboliten spielt (Bak et al., 2006). CYP83A1 und CYP83B1 sind auf Aminosäureebene zu mehr als 55% identisch mit CYP71E1. Abbildung 26 zeigt die mögliche Evolution der Glucosinolate, von Camalexin und der nicht-cyanogenen cyanoalkenyl Glycoside aus dem alten Biosyntheseweg der cyanogenen Glycoside (Bak et al., 2006).

Camalexin ist auf *Arabidopsis* und einige wenige nahe Verwandte beschränkt. In der Familie der *Cruciferae* gibt es außer Camalexin noch viele andere Phytoalexine, welche z. T. ebenfalls schwefel- und stickstoffhaltige Seitenketten aufweisen (Pedras et al., 2000). *Camelina sativa* und *Capsella bursa pastoris* synthetisieren außer Camalexin noch 6-Methoxy-Camalexin und *Capsella bursa pastoris* zusätzlich N-Methyl-Camalexin (Browne et al., 1991; Jimenez et al., 1997). In einigen Metabolomics-Experimenten wurden nach Behandlung mit *Pseudomonas syringae* und *Phytophthora sylvaticum* die potentiellen Vorstufen von Camalexin, Indol-3-Carbaldehyd und Indol-3-Carboxylsäure identifiziert (Hagemeier et al., 2001; Tan et al., 2004). In Wurzellexudaten finden sich ebenfalls viele indolische Verbindungen wie die Camalexin-Vorstufen Dihydrocamalexin-Säure und Indol-3-Acetonitril, Indol-3-Propansäure und die möglichen Camalexin-Vorstufen Indol-3-Carboxylsäure und Indol-3-Carbaldehyd, sowie deren methylierte, methoxylierte und glycosilierte Derivate (Bednarek et al., 2005; Narasimhan et al., 2003; Walker et al., 2003). Es wurde dabei ebenfalls ein Camalexin-Glucosid und weitere Phytoalexine wie Brassilexin und Sinalexin identifiziert, welche in Blättern noch nicht nachgewiesen werden konnten, aber von anderen Brassicaceen schon bekannt waren (Pedras et al., 2000). In Brassica-Arten konnte Indol-3-Acetaldoxim als Vorstufe von einigen dieser Metabolite nachgewiesen werden (Pedras et al., 2001).

Bakterien synthetisieren ebenfalls viele unterschiedliche Sekundärstoffe, wobei strukturelle Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen Sekundärstoffen aus Pflanzen und Bakterien sehr selten sind (Moore et al., 2002). BE-10988 ist ein Thiazolylindol aus *Streptomyces sp.* BA10988 und besitzt das gleiche Grundgerüst wie Camalexin. Es ist deshalb von Interesse die Biosynthese von BE-10988 zu untersuchen, um klären zu können, ob Schritte der Biosynthese von Camalexin und BE-10988 identisch ablaufen, ob ähnliche Enzymsysteme weiterentwickelt oder universell vorhandene Gene rekrutiert wurden.

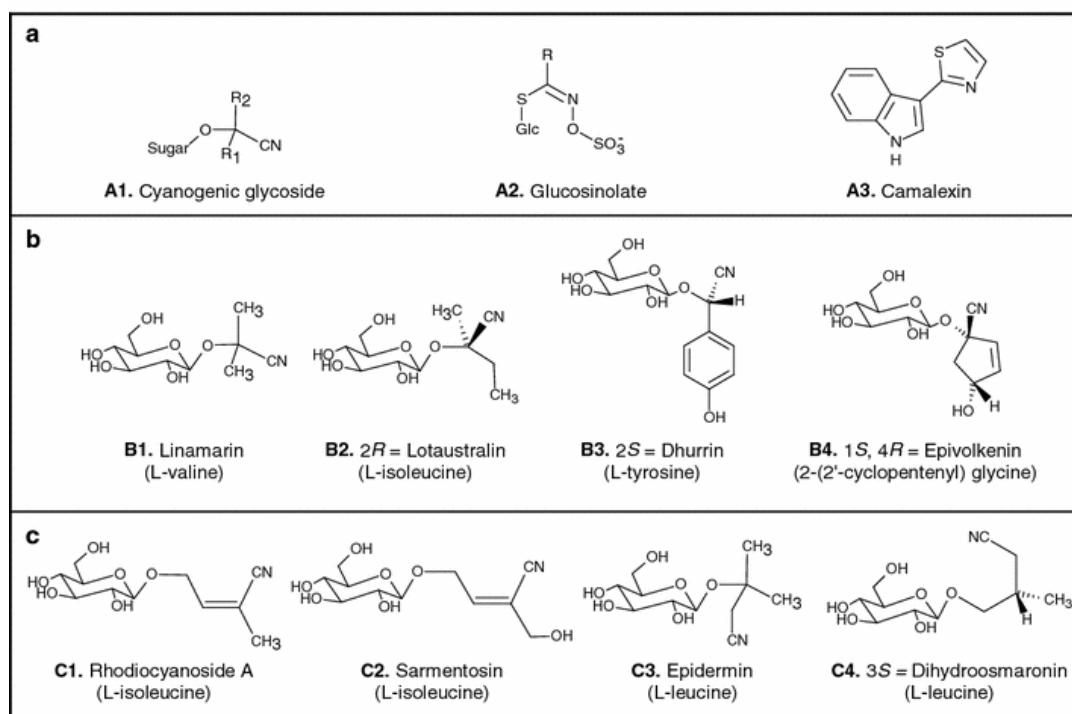
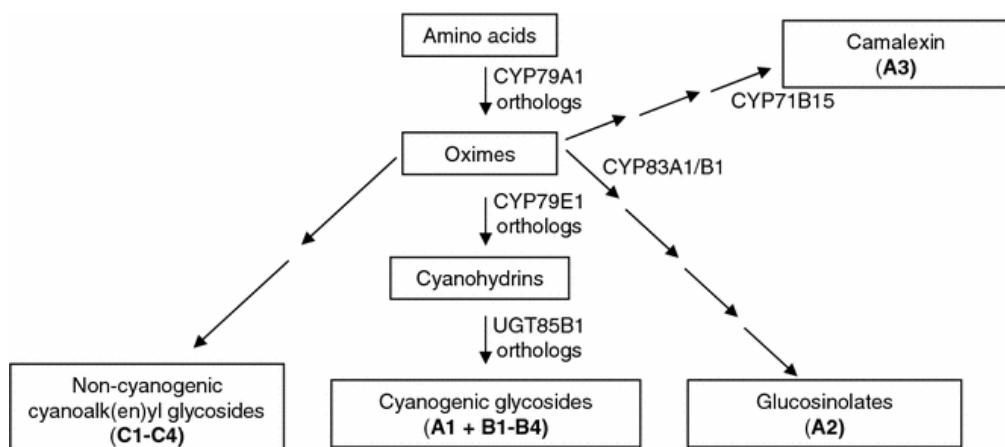


Abbildung 26: Entwicklung der Biosynthese von Glucosinolaten, Camalexin und cyanoalkenyl Glycosiden aus der Biosynthese von cyanogenen Glycosiden (aus Bak et al., 2006). (a) Allgemeine Struktur von cyanogenen Glycosiden, Glucosinolaten und Camalexin, (b) cyanogene Glycoside, gebildet aus aliphatischen, aromatischen und nicht proteinogenen Aminosäuren, (c) nicht cyanogene cyanoalkenyl Glycoside

Die retrobiosynthetische NMR-Analysen zeigten, dass BE-10988 aus *Streptomyces sp.* BA10988 genauso wie Camalexin über Tryptophan synthetisiert wird. Diese Ergebnisse wurden mittels Einbauexperimenten mit markierten spezifischen Vorstufen bestätigt. Zusätzlich wurde gezeigt, dass der Thiazolring von BE-10988 ebenso wie der des Camalexins durch den Einbau von Cystein oder eines Cysteinderivats gebildet wird.

Die Fütterung von [Ring-²H₅]Trp lieferte [(m+1)+H]⁺ (**1a**, s. Abb. 25) aber nicht [(m+2)+H]⁺. Eine Erklärung könnte sein, dass das Deuterium an der Position C-6 beim Einbau von Sauerstoff an der Position C-7 ausgetauscht wird. Tryptophan wird aus Indol-3-Glycerinphosphat durch einen Tryptophansynthasekomplex gebildet, wobei das intermediär gebildete Indol vermutlich nicht freigesetzt wird (Miles, 2001). Dennoch liefert die Fütterung von [¹³C₈ ¹⁵N]Indol markiertes BE-10988 [(m+9)+H]⁺ (**1d**, s. Abb. 25). Möglicherweise ist der angesprochene Tryptophansynthasekomplex durchlässig für Indol oder die Tryptophansynthase β funktioniert unabhängig von den α-Untereinheiten. Die Fütterung von [¹³C₈ ¹⁵N]Indol lieferte zusätzlich [(m+7)+H]⁺ (**1c**, s. Abb. 25), dies würde für einen Zerfall von extern verabreichtem Indol und einem Wiedereinbau von Zerfallsprodukten wie Anthranilat sprechen.

Diese Markierungsexperimente und die retrobiosynthetische NMR-Analyse konnten den biosynthetischen Ursprung von BE-10988 aufklären. Der aufgrund dieser Ergebnisse vorgeschlagene Biosyntheseweg von BE-10988 ist in Abbildung 27 dargestellt. Kandidaten für eine Beteiligung an der Biosynthese von BE-10988 sind wie bei der Camalexinbiosynthese Cytochrom P450-Gene und eine nichtribosomale Peptidsynthetase (NRPS) zur Bildung des Thiazolrings. Durch Insertionsmutagenese in Kandidatengenen sollte der Biosynthesecluster für BE-10988 identifiziert werden. Es wurde die Beteiligung einer NRPS und eines Cytochrom P450-Gens an der BE-10988 Biosynthese untersucht (s. Kapitel 1.7). Gegen konservierte Bereiche der Adenylierungs- und Oxidationsdomäne einer NRPS mit cisteinspezifischen Domänen wurden degenerierte Primer entwickelt (Chang et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2002). In der Diplomarbeit von Andreas Grabrucker ist die Identifizierung einer NRPS-Teilsequenz (*single-copy gene*) beschrieben (Grabrucker, 2005). Mittels Protoplastentransformation sollten für dieses Gen Insertionsmutanten erzeugt werden. Dieser Ansatz war nicht erfolgreich, weshalb in Zusammenarbeit mit Prof. Wohlleben (Lehrstuhl für Mikrobiologie/Biotechnologie, Mikrobiologisches Institut, Universität Tübingen) ein *E. coli*-Konjugationssystem etabliert wurde. Die daraus resultierenden Mutanten zeigten aber keine reduzierte BE-10988-Biosynthese. Die Kontrolle des Einbaus des Knock-out-Konstrukts in das Genom von *Streptomyces* konnte weder mit PCR, noch mit Southern-Blot endgültig bestätigt werden. Dieser Ansatz der Insertionsmutagenese wurde deshalb nicht weiterverfolgt.

In der Biosynthese des indolischen Antibiotikums Rebeccamycin durch den Aktinomyceten *Lechevalieria aerocolonigenes* wird Tryptophan durch die Aminosäureoxidase RebO zu Indolpyruvat oxidiert (Howard-Jones and Walsh, 2005; Nishizawa et al., 2005). Da Indolpyruvat wahrscheinlich ein Intermediat der Biosynthese von BE-10988 ist, könnte ein RebO-Homolog an der BE-10988-Biosynthesen beteiligt sein. Die Identifizierung und Analyse dieser Aminosäureoxidase in *Streptomyces sp.* BA10988 würde endgültig Indolpyruvat als Zwischenprodukt der BE-10988-Biosynthese bestätigen.

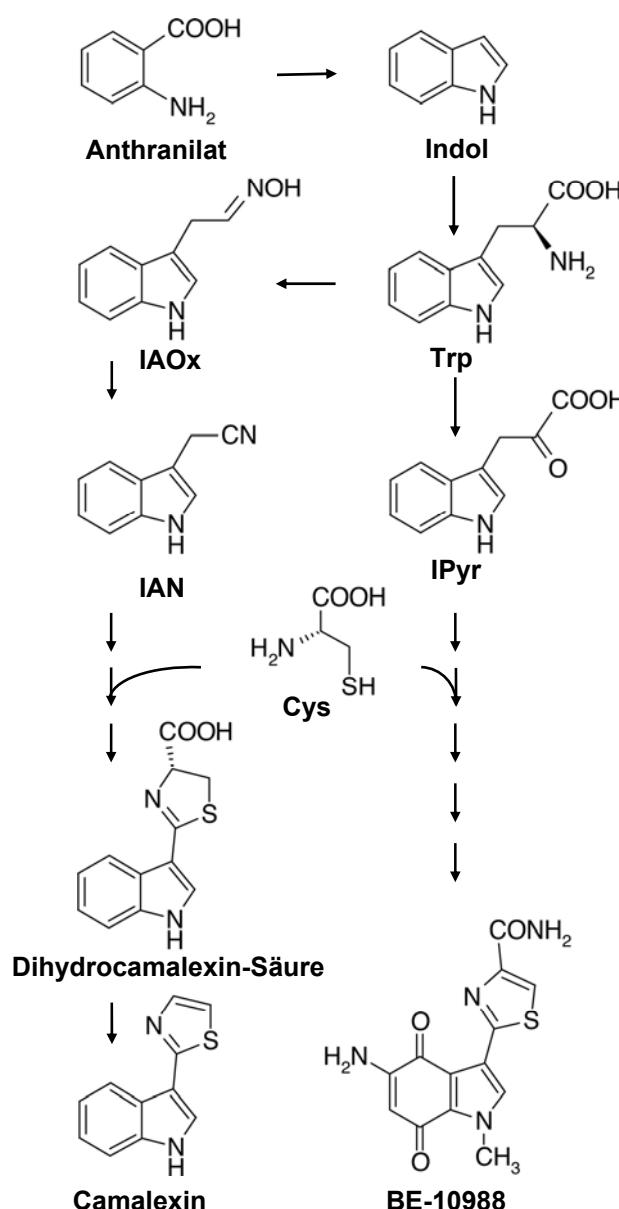


Abbildung 27: Der Biosyntheseweg von BE-10988 und Camalexin im Vergleich.

Links: Die Camalexinbiosynthese (Glawischnig et al., 2004; Nafisi et al., 2007; Schuhegger et al., 2006; Zook and Hammerschmidt, 1997).

Rechts: Der vorgeschlagene Biosyntheseweg für BE-10988 (Rauhut et al., 2008).

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Die Regulation der Camalexinbiosynthese in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

Am Lehrstuhl für Genetik unter der Anleitung und Betreuung durch

Priv.-Doz. Dr. Erich Glawischnig

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- Die Promotionsordnung der Technischen Universität München ist mir bekannt.

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6. Anhang

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Phytotoxicity and Innate Immune Responses Induced by Nep1-Like Proteins^W

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We show that oomycete-derived Nep1 (for necrosis and ethylene-inducing peptide1)-like proteins (NLPs) trigger a comprehensive immune response in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, comprising posttranslational activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase activity, deposition of callose, production of nitric oxide, reactive oxygen intermediates, ethylene, and the phytoalexin camalexin, as well as cell death. Transcript profiling experiments revealed that NLPs trigger extensive reprogramming of the *Arabidopsis* transcriptome closely resembling that evoked by bacteria-derived flagellin. NLP-induced cell death is an active, light-dependent process requiring HSP90 but not caspase activity, salicylic acid, jasmonic acid, ethylene, or functional SGT1a/SGT1b. Studies on animal, yeast, moss, and plant cells revealed that sensitivity to NLPs is not a general characteristic of phospholipid bilayer systems but appears to be restricted to dicot plants. NLP-induced cell death does not require an intact plant cell wall, and ectopic expression of NLP in dicot plants resulted in cell death only when the protein was delivered to the apoplast. Our findings strongly suggest that NLP-induced necrosis requires interaction with a target site that is unique to the extracytoplasmic side of dicot plant plasma membranes. We propose that NLPs play dual roles in plant pathogen interactions as toxin-like virulence factors and as triggers of plant innate immune responses.

INTRODUCTION

Both plants and animals possess innate defense mechanisms to resist microbial infection (Akira et al., 2006; Chisholm et al., 2006). Although innate immune systems from both lineages share conceptual and mechanistic features, they are likely the result of convergent evolution (Ausubel, 2005). Efficient plant disease resistance is based on two evolutionarily linked forms of innate immunity. The primary plant immune response is referred to as PAMP-triggered immunity (PTI) and has evolved to recognize invariant structures of microbial surfaces, termed pathogen-

or microbe-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs/MAMPs) (Nürnberg et al., 2004; Ausubel, 2005; Zipfel and Felix, 2005; Chisholm et al., 2006). Subversion of PTI by microbial effectors is believed to be one of the key strategies of successful pathogens to grow and multiply on host plants (Alfano and Collmer, 2004). In the coevolution of host–microbe interactions, individual plant cultivars have acquired resistance (R) proteins that guard microbial effector-mediated perturbations of host cell functions and thereby trigger plant immune responses. This type of plant defense is referred to as effector-triggered immunity (ETI) and is synonymous to pathogen race/host plant cultivar-specific plant disease resistance (Ausubel, 2005; Chisholm et al., 2006).

Activation of either type of plant immunity requires sensitive host perception systems that recognize microbe-derived determinants of nonself (Chisholm et al., 2006). PTI is initiated upon recognition of conserved microbial structures (PAMPs) by plant surface receptors (Zipfel and Felix, 2005). Importantly, PAMP-induced immune responses have recently been demonstrated to contribute to basal resistance of host plants against virulent

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pathogens and have been shown to be crucial for the stability of nonhost resistance (Zipfel et al., 2004, 2006; Kim et al., 2005; He et al., 2006). Activation of plant cultivar-specific disease resistance is mediated by direct or indirect recognition of microbial effectors through R proteins. Microbial effectors that are supposed to serve as virulence factors in the absence of their cognate plant R protein are thus turned into avirulence (AVR) factors (Alfano and Collmer, 2004). This type of effector recognition has been genetically characterized as gene-for-gene resistance (Chisholm et al., 2006).

In addition to PAMP or AVR effector-mediated nonself recognition, breakdown products of the plant cell wall are known to serve as endogenous danger signals that monitor distress of host structures and elicit plant immune responses (Vorwerk et al., 2004). Such plant-derived elicitors that are probably released by glucohydrolytic activities from attacking microbes may conceptually be compared with animal stress proteins that are produced upon microbial infection and function as danger signals, alerting the immune system by induction of innate immune responses (Gallucci and Matzinger, 2001).

Microbial toxin-induced plant innate immunity constitutes a seemingly paradoxical phenomenon that is not well understood. Phytopathogenic microorganisms produce a wide range of cytolytic compounds that function as key virulence determinants (van't Slot and Knogge, 2002; Glazebrook, 2005). In particular, phytopathogenic necrotrophic fungi synthesize numerous host selective and host nonselective toxins that facilitate killing of host plant tissue (van't Slot and Knogge, 2002; Wolpert et al., 2002; Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006). An intriguing characteristic of many of these toxins is that they trigger individual facets of the plant defensive arsenal. For example, certain *Fusarium* spp produce the sphinganine toxin fumonisin B1 (FB1) that elicits cytolysis of plant and animal cells most probably through competitive inhibition of ceramide synthase, a key enzyme in sphingolipid biosynthesis (Wang et al., 1996; Tolleson et al., 1999). In addition to cell death, FB1 triggers accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), deposition of callose, defense-related gene expression, and production of the phytoalexin camalexin in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Asai et al., 2000; Stone et al., 2000). Likewise, the cell death-inducing toxins fusicoccin from *Fusarium amygdali* or AAL toxin from *Alternaria alternata* trigger expression of pathogenesis-related (PR) genes in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) or *Arabidopsis*, respectively (Schaller and Oecking, 1999; Gechev et al., 2004). Moreover, the host selective cell death-inducing toxin victorin from *Cochliobolus victoriae* was shown to elicit the production ofavenanthramide phytoalexins in oat (*Avena sativa*) (Tada et al., 2005). In all cases, it remains unclear whether plant immune responses constitute an unavoidable consequence of toxin action or, alternatively, if activation of plant defense is essential for the virulence function of fungal toxins. In summary, cytolytic toxins appear to play dual roles in plant-pathogen interactions as virulence determinants and, like PAMPs or AVR effectors, act as nonself recognition determinants for the activation of plant innate immune responses (Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006). Such an activity spectrum is not unique to plants as various bacteria-derived cytolytic toxins were shown to trigger both innate immune responses and cell death in mammalian cells (Huffman et al., 2004; Srivastava et al., 2005).

Programmed cell death (PCD) is a common consequence in both compatible and incompatible plant-pathogen interactions (Greenberg and Yao, 2004; Glazebrook, 2005). The hypersensitive response (HR) is a type of PCD that is frequently observed in ETI. PAMPs may also cause PCD by direct or indirect interactions with pattern recognition receptors. For example, an ethylene-inducing xylanase from *Trichoderma viride* causes PCD in tomato cells, apparently by binding to a cell surface receptor (Ron and Avni, 2004). Less is known about the host cell death that occurs in susceptible plants, but increasing evidence suggests that resistance and susceptibility-associated PCD share regulatory and mechanistic features (Greenberg and Yao, 2004). The timely induction of PCD may present a formidable barrier to pathogen establishment, especially to biotrophic organisms that rely on living host cells for nutrients. Defense strategies that culminate in PCD may nonetheless become a dangerous liability to the host when it is engaged with necrotrophic pathogens (Greenberg and Yao, 2004). Inappropriate PCD can accelerate disease and foster the growth of necrotrophic pathogens that live off of dead or dying cells (Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006).

Fusarium oxysporum f. sp *erythroxylī*-derived Nep1 constitutes the founding member of a family of microbial proteins that are secreted by plant pathogenic oomycetes, fungi, and bacteria (Pemberton and Salmond, 2004; Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006; Kamoun, 2006). Nep1-like proteins (NLPs) trigger plant defense responses and, subsequently, cell death. NLPs are relatively small proteins of ~24 kD that exhibit a high degree of sequence conservation, including a pair of Cys residues that are predicted to form a disulfide bridge. Moreover, their necrosis and defense-inducing activity is heat-labile, suggesting that an intact three-dimensional structure and enzymatic activity are important for NLP activity. Among angiosperms, dicotyledonous plants are considered susceptible to the effects of NLPs, whereas monocots are insensitive (Bailey, 1995; Veit et al., 2001; Fellbrich et al., 2002; Keates et al., 2003; Mattinen et al., 2004; Pemberton et al., 2005). Studies in various dicot plants have shown that NLPs can activate defense-associated responses, such as the synthesis of phytoalexins and ethylene, the accumulation of defense-related transcripts, and cell death (Veit et al., 2001; Fellbrich et al., 2002; Keates et al., 2003; Mattinen et al., 2004; Pemberton et al., 2005; Bae et al., 2006). Despite the fact that NLPs rapidly activate plant defense responses, these proteins have been shown to contribute to the virulence of necrotrophic fungal and bacterial pathogens. Several arguments support the view that NLP action on plants may resemble that of host nonselective toxins. (1) NLPs exert cytolytic activity that causes cell maceration and death in dicotyledonous plants in a manner that is similar to disease symptom development during natural infections of host plants (Pemberton and Salmond, 2004; Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006; Kamoun, 2006). (2) Loss or gain of NLP expression affects virulence and disease symptom development in dicotyledonous plants, suggesting that NLPs act as positive virulence factors during infection of plants (Amsellem et al., 2002; Mattinen et al., 2004; Pemberton et al., 2005). For example, inactivation of the NLP-encoding genes (NLP_{Ec}) in different *Erwinia carotovora* strains resulted in significantly reduced levels of soft rot disease on potato (*Solanum tuberosum*), indicating that NLP_{Ec} contributes to bacterial fitness and disease symptom development.

(Mattinen et al., 2004; Pemberton et al., 2005). Likewise, over-expression of Nep1 in the hypovirulent fungus *Colletotrichum coccodes* dramatically increased its aggressiveness toward the host plant *Abutilon theophrasti* and even enlarged the host range of this pathogen (Amsellem et al., 2002). (3) Finally, increased transcript accumulation of a *Phytophthora sojae* NLP (NLP_{Ps}) coincided closely with the transition from biotrophy to necrotrophy during infection of soybean (*Glycine max*) (Qutob et al., 2002), also suggesting that NLP_{Ps} may act as a virulence factor by facilitating host cell death.

Here, we show that NLPs exhibit a wide taxonomic distribution pattern that is unusual for microbial virulence factors. This, together with the wealth of NLP-sensitive plants, makes these proteins well suited to serve as nonself recognition determinants in plant-pathogen interactions. We present a comprehensive analysis of innate defense reactions that are mounted in intact *Arabidopsis* plants in response to various oomycete-derived NLPs. Our analyses suggest that NLPs trigger a spectrum of plant immune responses that largely resembles that of regular PAMPs, such as bacterial flagellin. In addition to alerting the plant immune system, NLPs function as toxins by causing host cell death in dicotyledonous plants. NLP-mediated necrosis is an active process with features that are both shared and distinct from PCD mediated by other known triggers of plant cell death. Moreover, NLP-induced cell death is light dependent and requires membrane side-specific interaction with a dicot plant-specific target site.

RESULTS

Taxonomic Diversity of the NLP Protein Family

The NPP1 domain has been recognized by the Conserved Domain Database in GenBank, by Pfam (PF05630), and by InterPro (IPR008701) as an identifiable protein motif. NPP1 refers to the original name of the *Phytophthora parasitica*-derived NLP_{Pp} (Fellbrich et al., 2002). Databases of known and predicted protein sequences in GenBank were searched using the Conserved Domain Database to find sequences containing an NPP1 domain or a fragment thereof. A total of 62 protein sequences encoding NLPs could be retrieved that upon correction for redundant sequences represent 44 different NLPs from 22 species (Figure 1). Thus, such proteins appear to be common molecular patterns that are associated with both prokaryotic and eukaryotic microorganisms but cannot be found in the genomes of any higher organisms, including plants (see Supplemental Figures 1 and 2 online). NLP sequences are present in gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria as well as among fungi and stramenopiles but are predominantly present in organisms that at least partially rely on heterotrophic (either hemibiotrophic, necrotrophic, or saprophytic) growth. Consequently, many plant pathogens that favor such an infection strategy were shown to harbor NLP sequences. In contrast with certain saprophytic and plant pathogenic bacterial species that possess a single NLP-encoding gene, phytopathogenic fungi or oomycetes (belonging to the eukaryotic stramenopile lineage) were shown to harbor NLP-encoding gene families (see Supplemental Figure 2 online). A total of 10 NLP-encoding sequences were reported from four plant pathogenic

fungal species, while 16 sequence entries were found for four species of the oomycete genus *Phytophthora*, all of which are destructive plant pathogens. This apparent gene diversification suggests that NLPs are important to the hemibiotrophic or necrotrophic lifestyle of fungi and oomycetes in general and of *Phytophthora* species in particular.

NLPs Trigger a Comprehensive Immune Response in *Arabidopsis*

NLPs of bacterial, fungal, and oomycete origin trigger cell death and other defense-associated responses in numerous dicotyledonous plant species (Pemberton and Salmond, 2004; Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006). Because of the wide distribution of NLP sequences among microbial taxa and the broad sensitivity spectrum of potential hosts, NLPs are predestined to act as nonself recognition determinants during the activation of innate immune responses in plants. Because a detailed study of the complexity of NLP-induced immunity in one particular plant species is missing, we conducted a comprehensive characterization of local defense-associated responses in the dicot model plant *Arabidopsis*. Previously, the NLP-mediated production of ROS and ethylene and the accumulation of transcripts encoding pathogenesis-related proteins, necrotic lesion formation, and callose apposition at the interface between necrotic and healthy plant tissues have been documented (Veit et al., 2001; Fellbrich et al., 2002; Keates et al., 2003). Here, we focus on the characterization of additional early plant responses that in part constitute elements of NLP-induced signal transduction cascades as well as on NLP_{Pp} -induced alterations in the *Arabidopsis* transcriptome.

Posttranslational activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) activity is commonly associated with plant immunity (Pedley and Martin, 2005). Infiltration of recombinant NLP from *P. parasitica* (NLP_{Pp}) into *Arabidopsis* leaves and subsequent immunodetection of MAPK activity using an antibody specific for the enzymatically active form of MAPK was performed. As shown in Figure 2A, NLP_{Pp} treatment resulted in rapid but transient phosphorylation of two MAPK species of 44 and 46 kD, respectively. This pattern closely resembles that obtained upon stimulation of an *Arabidopsis* cell culture with the PAMP, flg22 (Nühse et al., 2000). Production of nitric oxide (NO) is another hallmark of immune responses in both animals and plants (Zeidler et al., 2004). As shown in Figure 2B, treatment with NLP_{Pp} of *Arabidopsis* resulted in a dosage-dependent increase in NO production within 30 min. Likewise, application of 1 μ M flg22 triggered an NO burst similar to that produced by NLP_{Pp} (data not shown). While MAPK activation and NO production are likely implicated in signal transduction processes, production of the antimicrobial phytoalexin, camalexin, is part of the executing arsenal of the plant defense system. Both NLP_{Ps} and NLP from *Pythium aphanidermatum* (NLP_{Py}) triggered the production of similar camalexin levels in *Arabidopsis* plants (Figure 2C). The maximum concentration produced was 93.9 μ g/g dry mass in plants that were treated with NLP_{Ps} for 48 h. In addition, both NLP preparations initiated camalexin production with comparable kinetics. The earliest time point when substantial amounts of the phytoalexin were found to accumulate was 8 h after infiltration.

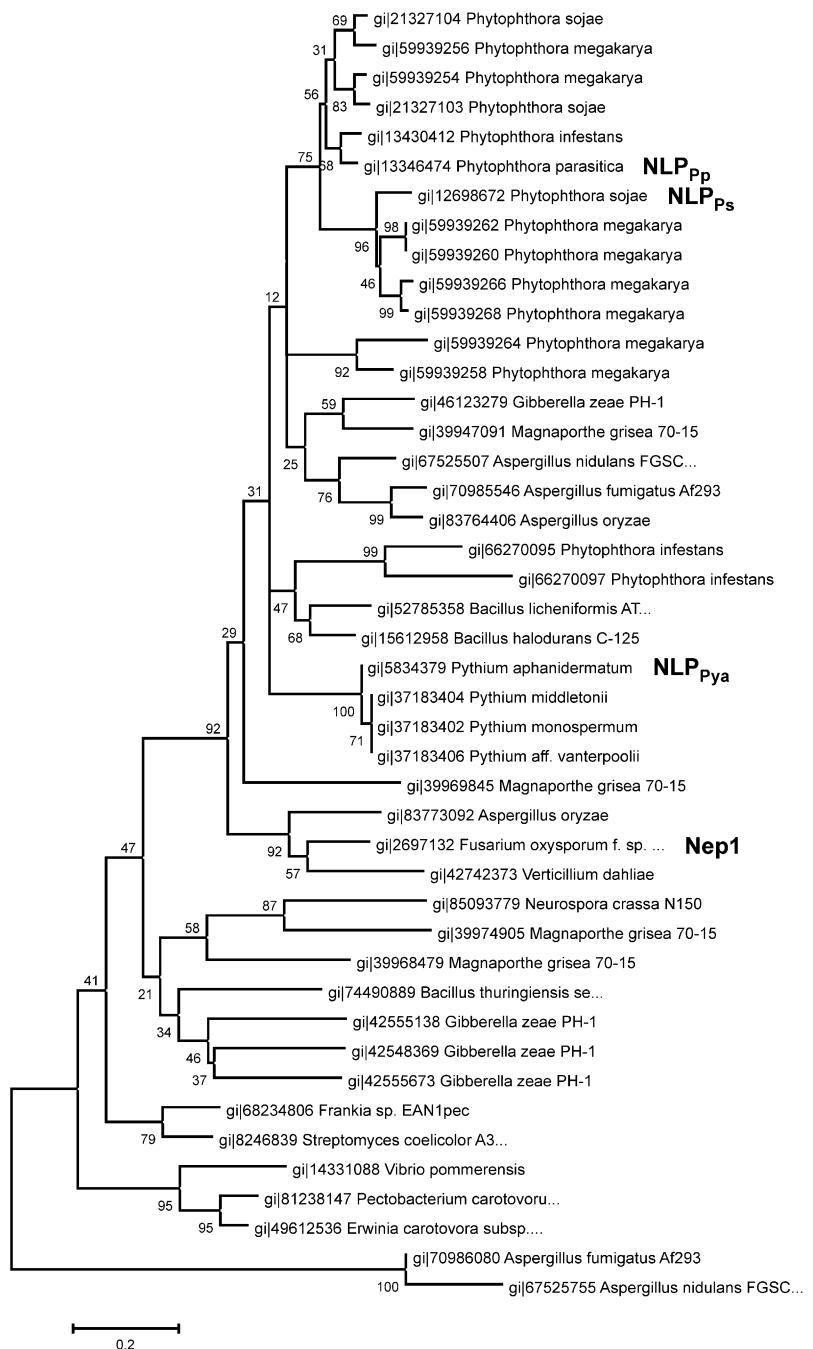


Figure 1. Phylogeny of NLPs.

The Nep1 protein sequence and 43 related sequences are shown. The scale bar represents 20% weighted sequence divergence. GenBank identifier numbers for each protein sequence are shown along with the species of origin. Sequences with special relevance to this study are additionally labeled: Nep1, necrosis and ethylene inducing peptide 1; NLP_{Pp}, NLP from *Phytophthora parasitica*; NLP_{Ps}, NLP from *Phytophthora sojae*; NLP_{Pya}, NLP from *Pythium aphanidermatum*.

Stimulus-induced alterations in transcriptional programs are important for the ability of living cells to respond to changes in their environment. To elucidate NLP_{Pp}-induced changes in the transcriptome of *Arabidopsis* plants, we obtained expression estimates from plant samples harvested 1 or 4 h after infiltration.

These time points were chosen because they precede the onset of NLP_{Pp}-induced cell death. Thus, gene expression due to death-related signals should be minimized under these conditions. We used Affymetrix ATH1 arrays, which contain 22,746 probe sets, corresponding to >80% of annotated genes. For

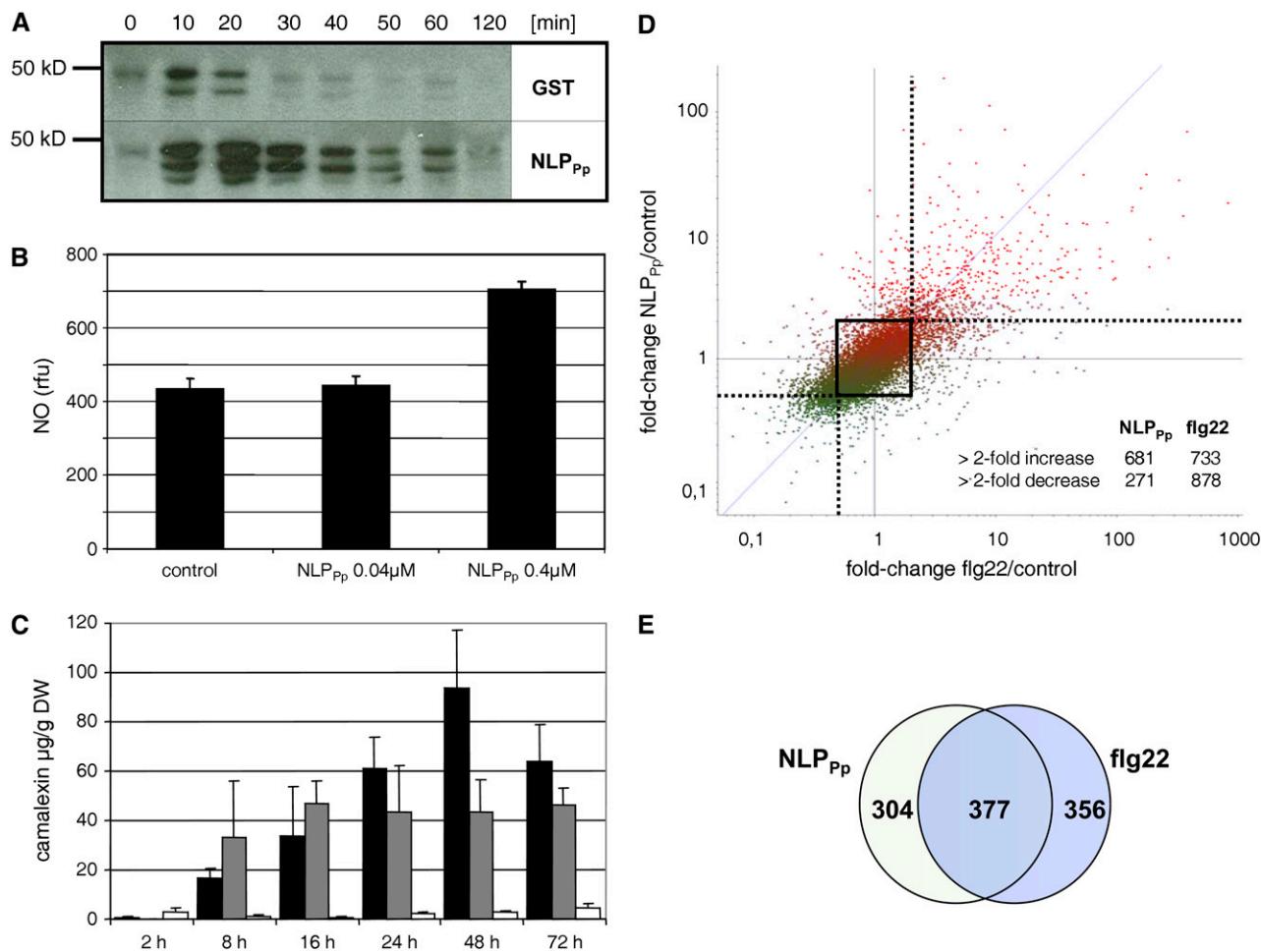


Figure 2. NLP-Induced Activation of Plant Immune Responses in *Arabidopsis*.

(A) Five-week-old *Arabidopsis* plants were infiltrated with 2 μM recombinant NLP_{Pp} or glutathione S-transferase (GST) as control (Fellbrich et al., 2002) for the times indicated. Proteins were extracted and subjected to protein blot analysis using a 1:1000 dilution of phospho-p44/42 MAP kinase antibody as described in Methods.

(B) *Arabidopsis* cell culture aliquots ($2.5 \times 10^4/50 \mu\text{L}$) were treated with the indicated recombinant NLP_{Pp} concentrations or *Escherichia coli* protein extracts as control. NO production is given as relative fluorescence units (rfu).

(C) Camalexin accumulation in 5-week-old *Arabidopsis* rosette leaves after infiltration with 2 μM recombinant NLP_{Ps} (black bars), 2 μM recombinant NLP_{Pya} (gray bars), or protein renaturation buffer as control (white bars). Camalexin was extracted at the time points indicated and determined as described in Methods. All experiments shown in (A) to (C) were performed at least three times with identical results. Data in (B) and (C) show average values ± SD.

(D) and (E) Transcriptome analysis in 5-week-old *Arabidopsis* plants treated with 1 μM recombinant NLP_{Pp} (GST as control) or 1 μM synthetic flg22 (water as control). All experiments were performed in triplicate, and expression levels for each probe set were analyzed as described in Materials.

(D) Behavior of 12,557 genes significantly expressed at 1 or 4 h after treatments. Scatterplot analysis of fold induction of the probe sets for NLP_{Pp} trials (4 h) versus fold induction for flg22 trials (4 h). For each treatment versus control condition, genes that changed were assigned based on a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test combined with a Benjamini and Hochberg false discovery rate algorithm. The numbers given in the inset refer to those genes of which expression was statistically significantly altered more than twofold at least at one of the two time points tested. The rectangular box comprises those genes that are unaltered in expression upon stimulation. Probe sets in areas enclosed by dotted lines are coordinately upregulated (red dots) or downregulated (green dots).

(E) Venn diagram showing the total number of genes that are coordinately expressed by both stimuli (overlap) or of which expression is specifically upregulated by either NLP_{Pp} or flg22 treatment.

comparative reasons, global expression profiles triggered by the bacterial PAMP, flg22, which activates PTI responses in *Arabidopsis* through binding to its cognate pattern recognition receptor, FLS2 (Gomez-Gomez and Boller, 2000), were obtained. The prime incentive for performing comparative microarray analyses on elicited plants was to determine whether gene sets responding to flg22 (Zipfel et al., 2004) were also responsive to NLP_{Pp} treatment. Positive evidence would support the notion that toxin-like proteins, such as NLPs, and genuine PAMPs, such as flg22, trigger similar alterations in global expression profiles.

An overall analysis of NLP_{Pp} and flg22-specific transcriptome profiles revealed a high degree of coexpression, strongly suggesting that both stimuli have a comparable impact on plant gene expression (Figure 2D). The number of genes of which expression was found to be induced more than twofold upon either 1 or 4 h of NLP_{Pp} treatment was 681 (3% of all genes arrayed), while the corresponding number of flg22-induced genes was 733 (3.2%) (Figure 2E). Individual data sets of NLP_{Pp} or flg22-induced genes are provided in Supplemental Tables 1 to 5 online. Importantly, expression of 377 out of 681 genes (55.4%) induced by NLP_{Pp} treatment was similarly induced upon recognition of flg22. Again, this finding strongly supports the view that microbe-derived toxin-like molecules, such as NLP, and genuine PAMPs trigger similar alterations in the plant transcriptome. A classification of the encoded proteins according to their proposed molecular function showed that each elicitor not only activated the expression of largely overlapping gene sets but also of genes that fall into the same functional categories (data not shown). The latter finding is important because it is also based upon the analysis of the nonoverlapping gene set.

A detailed analysis of NLP_{Pp}-induced genes revealed two important findings. First, numerous genes encoding receptor-like protein kinases, disease resistance-like proteins, and pathogenesis/defense-related proteins were responsive to NLP_{Pp} treatment (Table 1). Second, expression of the vast majority of these genes was responsive to NLP_{Pp} but was also affected by flg22 treatment. For example, seven out of 16 genes encoding Leu-rich repeat receptor-like protein kinases (LRR-RLKs) were induced by either stimulus. Expression of the FLS2 gene was induced by flg22 but was not induced above threshold levels by NLP_{Pp} (see Supplemental Tables 3 and 4 online). LRR-RLKs build a large monophyletic gene family in *Arabidopsis*, comprising ~235 members (Shiu et al., 2004), two of which have been implicated in noncultivar-specific plant immunity (Gomez-Gomez and Boller, 2000; Zipfel et al., 2006). Likewise, numerous LRR-containing disease resistance proteins are known to contribute to plant cultivar-specific immunity (Nürnberger et al., 2004; Zipfel and Felix, 2005). Although it is premature to assign gene functions merely on the basis of stimulus-induced alterations in the corresponding transcript profiles, it is assumed that many LRR-RLKs contribute to nonself recognition and microbial containment during attempted infection (Zipfel and Felix, 2005; Chisholm et al., 2006).

The WRKY family of transcription factors comprises a third class of signal transduction components that are associated with plant immunity. Expression of WRKY genes known to be induced during bacterial infection or flg22 treatment was also enhanced in NLP_{Pp}-treated plants (Table 1). Moreover, mitogen-activated

protein kinase 3 (MPK3), another component of flg22-induced signaling cascades (Asai et al., 2002), was responsive to flg22 and NLP_{Pp}. In addition, numerous PR or defense-associated genes (chitinase, peroxidase, polygalacturonase-inhibiting protein, proteinase inhibitor, and biosynthetic enzymes of the general phenylpropanoid pathway, such as Phe ammonia lyase 1 and 4-coumarate-CoA ligase 1 and 2) were induced to variable extent by either stimulus. Transcript levels of genes encoding respiratory burst oxidase isoforms D (*RbohD*) and F (*RbohF*), both of which have been implicated in ETI against *Pseudomonas syringae* pv *tomato* and *Hyaloperonospora parasitica* (Torres and Dangl, 2005), increased upon NLP_{Pp} treatment, whereas expression of other *Rboh* isoform-encoding genes was not affected.

As shown in Figure 2C, infiltration of NLP_{Ps} or NLP_{Pya} induced camalexin production. Based on our microarray experiments, we conclude that camalexin biosynthesis is preceded by production of the corresponding biosynthetic enzymes. Transcripts encoding anthranilate synthase (*ASA1*), Trp synthase (*TSA1*), and cytochrome P450 enzymes (*PAD3/CYP71B15* and *CYP79B2*) were found to accumulate in plants infiltrated with NLP_{Pp} at times before camalexin accumulation.

The plant hormones ethylene, jasmonic acid (JA), and salicylic acid (SA) have been implicated in various aspects of plant disease resistance signaling (Pieterse and Van Loon, 2004). To analyze a possible involvement of hormone signaling in NLP_{Pp}-induced plant responses, we investigated the expression of hormone biosynthesis enzyme-encoding genes. Genes encoding ethylene biosynthesis enzymes 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) synthase (ACS) and ACC oxidase were strongly induced upon NLP_{Pp} treatment. These results are in good agreement with previous studies that showed NLP_{Pp}-induced ethylene production (Fellbrich et al., 2002). Likewise, transcript levels of some genes encoding ethylene response proteins or ethylene-responsive element binding proteins were altered in plants treated with NLP_{Pp}. Strikingly, none of the genes encoding various isoforms of JA biosynthetic enzymes were altered in expression, such as phospholipase A, lipoxygenase, allene oxide synthase, allene oxide cyclase, 12-oxophytodienoate reductase, or jasmonate-O-methyl transferase (see Supplemental Tables 1 and 2 online). These results indicate that NLP_{Pp} treatment does not rapidly activate de novo synthesis of JA biosynthetic enzymes in plants. By contrast, accumulation of transcripts encoding SA biosynthetic enzymes was observed as transcripts for isochorismate synthase 1 (*ICS1/SID2*) and Phe ammonia lyase accumulated rapidly in plants treated with NLP_{Pp} (Table 1).

Among the 304 genes that were induced at early time points by NLP_{Pp}, but not by flg22 (Figure 2D; see Supplemental Tables 1 and 2 online), there were 20 sequences encoding PR proteins and disease resistance-like proteins with LRR, LRR-RLK, or TIR-NBS signatures. Moreover, four cytochrome P450-encoding genes and five NLP_{Pp}-responsive genes that encode lipases, a lipid-modifying enzyme, or a phospholipid transport protein were found.

Reduction of plant growth in the presence of flg22 constitutes a surprising yet inexplicable phenomenon that facilitated the identification and isolation of the flagellin receptor FLS2 by forward genetic screening (Gomez-Gomez and Boller, 2000; Zipfel et al., 2006). To test whether growth and development of

Table 1. NLP_{Pp} or flg22-Induced Genes with Known or Putative Roles in Immunity-Related Signal Perception, Signal Transduction, Pathogen Defense Execution, and Hormone Metabolism

Arabidopsis Genome Initiative	Description	Name	NLP _{Pp}		flg22			
			1 h	4 h	1 h	4 h		
Receptor-Like Kinases					(Fold Expression/Adjusted P Value)			
Lectin RLKs								
AT3G53810	Lectin protein kinase		–	4.3/0.019	–	–		
AT3G59700	Lectin protein kinase	At LECRK	2.2/0.042	7.4/0.028	4.7/0.012	9.8/0.003		
AT4G04960	Lectin protein kinase		–	3.8/0.028	–	2.6/0.010		
AT4G28350	Lectin protein kinase		–	5.5/0.020	3.7/0.007	–		
AT5G01550	Lectin protein kinase		–	10.7/0.020	–	–		
AT5G35370	Lectin protein kinase		–	2.3/0.040	2.2/0.034	2.8/0.025		
AT5G60270	Lectin protein kinase		–	2.9/0.049	3/0.007	–		
S-locus RLKs								
AT1G61360	S-locus lectin protein kinase		3.1/0.025	2.1/0.020	3.3/0.019	6.9/0.010		
AT1G61370	S-locus lectin protein kinase		2.2/0.007	3.9/0.013	2.9/0.004	–		
AT1G61420	S-locus lectin protein kinase		–	3.3/0.025	2.4/0.010	–		
AT2G19130	S-locus lectin protein kinase		5.7/0.011	–	4.2/0.007	–		
AT4G21390	S-locus lectin protein kinase		3/0.017	9.4/0.019	6.5/0.007	–		
AT4G27300	S-locus protein kinase		2.2/0.032	–	–	–		
LRR-RLKs								
AT1G17750	LRR transmembrane protein kinase		2.8/0.030	–	–	–		
AT1G29750	LRR transmembrane protein kinase	RKF1	–	2.4/0.025	–	–		
AT1G35710	LRR transmembrane protein kinase		2.2/0.024	–	–	–		
AT1G51820	LRR protein kinase		–	6.6/0.035	–	–		
AT1G51890	LRR protein kinase		–	6.9/0.040	–	–		
AT1G53430	LRR protein kinase		–	2.9/0.025	–	3.5/0.019		
AT1G56120	LRR protein kinase		2.2/0.014	2.9/0.028	4/0.006	5.8/0.018		
AT1G69270	LRR protein kinase	RPK1	2.7/0.012	–	–	–		
AT1G74360	LRR protein kinase		2/0.047	7/0.019	3.3/0.014	6.3/0.011		
AT2G02220	LRR protein kinase		–	5.4/0.029	4.9/0.009	13.6/0.012		
AT2G19190	Light/senescence-responsive protein kinase	SIRK/FRK	–	7.1/0.034	–	–		
AT3G13380	LRR protein kinase	BRL3	2.2/0.049	–	–	2.7/0.024		
AT3G28450	LRR protein kinase		–	2/0.028	–	–		
AT4G39270	LRR transmembrane protein kinase		–	4.2/0.020	–	–		
AT5G01950	LRR transmembrane protein kinase		2.2/0.025	–	3.4/0.007	–		
AT5G25930	LRR protein kinase		–	9/0.020	2/0.007	7/0.038		
Other RLKs								
AT1G16090	Wall-associated kinase-related	WAKL7	4.4/0.010	19.5/0.019	–	–		
AT1G79670	Wall-associated kinase	RFO1/WAKL	–	2.2/0.027	3.7/0.048	–		
AT3G22060	Receptor protein kinase-related		2.1/0.020	4.2/0.020	4/0.015	21.4/0.008		
AT4G18250	Receptor Ser/Thr kinase		–	9.9/0.050	3.3/0.040	–		
Disease Resistance-Like Genes								
AT1G11310	Seven transmembrane MLO family protein 2	MLO2	3.3/0.036	–	4.8/0.026	–		
AT1G61560	Seven transmembrane MLO family protein 6	MLO6	14/0.028	13.2/0.023	15.5/0.005	–		
AT2G39200	Seven transmembrane MLO family protein 12	MLO12	2.3/0.024	6.6/0.025	6.5/0.007	77/0.009		
AT1G22900	Disease resistance-responsive family protein		–	3.6/0.023	–	–		
AT1G55210	Disease resistance response		–	4.6/0.027	–	–		
AT1G57630	Disease resistance protein (TIR class)		–	6.1/0.019	2.9/0.019	9.4/0.013		
AT1G63350	Disease resistance protein (CC-NBS-LRR class)		–	2.4/0.038	–	–		
AT1G66090	Disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS class)		2.5/0.033	–	3.1/0.019	7.9/0.035		
AT1G72920	Disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS class)		2.5/0.031	–	–	–		
AT2G32140	Disease resistance protein (TIR class)		2.1/0.006	–	–	–		
AT3G04220	Disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS-LRR class)		–	2.6/0.033	–	–		
AT3G05370	Disease resistance family protein		2/0.040	–	2.3/0.011	–		
AT3G48090	Disease resistance protein EDS1	EDS1	2.8/0.016	–	3.3/0.019	–		
AT5G22690	Disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS-LRR class)		2.5/0.040	–	3.3/0.007	–		
AT5G41740	Disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS-LRR class)		–	3/0.026	2.2/0.026	–		

(Continued)

Table 1. (continued).

Initiative	Description	Name	NLP _{Pp}		flg22	
			1 h	4 h	1 h	4 h
Pathogenesis/Defense-Related Genes						
AT1G02360	Chitinase		10.8/0.024	15.2/0.019	20.9/0.019	18.8/0.005
AT2G43570	Chitinase		–	14.6/0.025	–	–
AT2G43590	Chitinase		6.8/0.045	21.9/0.021	7/0.025	–
AT3G47540	Chitinase		2.2/0.044	–	–	–
AT3G54420	Class IV chitinase (CHIV)	At EP3	–	5.6/0.013	–	23.5/0.002
AT4G01700	Chitinase		4.5/0.010	5/0.013	7.9/0.020	24.8/0.019
AT3G21230	4-Coumarate-CoA ligase/synthase	4CL	–	5/0.042	2.2/0.010	8.6/0.046
AT3G21240	4-Coumarate-CoA ligase/synthase 2	4CL2	–	2.6/0.036	3.2/0.030	–
AT1G65690	Harpin-induced protein-related/HIN1-related	HIN1-like	6.8/0.028	13.8/0.020	9.7/0.027	–
AT2G35980	Harpin-induced family protein (YLS9)/HIN1 family protein	HIN1	6.5/0.006	105/0.019	–	–
AT2G37040	Phe ammonia lyase 1	PAL1	–	3.9/0.038	–	6.5/0.013
AT1G08020	Cinnamoyl-CoA reductase	CCR2	3.4/0.017	–	6/0.007	–
AT5G14700	Cinnamoyl-CoA reductase-related		–	2.8/0.012	5.3/0.005	–
AT1G33960	Avirulence-responsive protein	AIG1	–	6.4/0.044	–	–
AT3G28930	avrRpt2-induced AIG2 protein	AIG2	–	3/0.021	–	–
AT4G39030	Enhanced disease susceptibility 5, SA-induction deficient 1	EDS5/SID1	–	4.4/0.029	–	–
AT1G74710	Isochorismate synthase/mutase	ICS (SID2)	–	5.4/0.028	–	–
AT3G26830	Cytochrome P450 CYP71B15	PAD3	–	45.8/0.025	–	–
AT5G05730	Anthranilate synthase, α -subunit, component I-1	ASA1	–	4/0.029	–	–
AT3G54640	Trp synthase, α -subunit	TSA1	–	3/0.038	–	–
AT4G39950	Cytochrome P450 79B2, putative	CYP79B2	–	4.9/0.045	–	–
AT3G45640	MAPK	MPK3	2.1/0.031	–	3.6/0.007	–
AT1G01560	MAPK	MPK11	3.8/0.012	–	5.6/0.004	–
AT2G26560	Patatin	PLP2	12.8/0.048	–	21.9/0.040	–
AT3G49120	Peroxidase	Perox34	2/0.037	3/0.020	–	2.1/0.036
AT4G11850	Phospholipase D γ 1	PLD γ	2.8/0.020	2.5/0.022	4.1/0.026	–
AT5G06860	Polygalacturonase inhibiting protein 1	PGIP1	–	2.9/0.029	–	5.7/0.013
AT4G12500	Protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transfer protein		–	6.6/0.046	–	144/0.037
AT3G22600	Protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transfer protein		5.6/0.024	60.8/0.013	–	2.4/0.045
AT5G47910	Respiratory burst oxidase protein D/NADPH oxidase	RbohD	2.4/0.008	2.4/0.020	2/0.024	–
AT1G64060	Respiratory burst oxidase protein F/NADPH oxidase	RbohF	–	2.1/0.031	–	–
AT3G06300	Oxidoreductase, 2OG-Fe(II) oxygenase		–	2.1/0.024	–	2.9/0.025
AT3G08710	Thioredoxin		2.3/0.023	–	2.4/0.012	–
AT1G62300	WRKY family transcription factor 6	WRKY6	4.5/0.016	5.3/0.022	6.7/0.015	5.7/0.008
AT1G08040	WRKY family transcription factor 40	WRKY40	2.8/0.046	4.5/0.022	3.4/0.007	–
AT2G23320	WRKY family transcription factor 15	WRKY15	2/0.032	3.2/0.026	3/0.005	5.2/0.046
AT2G24570	WRKY family transcription factor 17	WRKY17	3.7/0.015	3.6/0.019	8.5/0.026	20.6/0.015
AT2G38470	WRKY family transcription factor 33	WRKY33	2.4/0.017	5.3/0.020	2.6/0.007	–
AT2G46400	WRKY family transcription factor 46	WRKY46	–	3.6/0.038	–	4.3/0.040
AT4G18170	WRKY family transcription factor 28	WRKY28	2.7/0.050	6.8/0.032	6.3/0.044	7.7/0.020
AT4G24240	WRKY family transcription factor 7	WRKY7	–	2.3/0.020	3.5/0.009	13.8/0.029
AT4G31800	WRKY family transcription factor 18	WRKY18	–	2.6/0.042	–	–
AT5G24110	WRKY family transcription factor 30	WRKY30	–	13/0.026	–	–
AT5G46350	WRKY family transcription factor 8	WRKY8	–	9.5/0.019	–	6.1/0.0003
AT5G49520	WRKY family transcription factor 48	WRKY48	–	2.6/0.045	–	12.1/0.012
Hormone Signaling						
AT2G37040	Phe ammonia lyase 1	PAL1	–	3.9/0.038	–	6.5/0.013
AT4G39030	Enhanced disease susceptibility 5, SA induction deficient 1	EDS5/SID1	–	4.4/0.029	–	–
AT1G74710	Isochorismate synthase/mutase (ICS; EDS16)	ICS/SID2	–	5.4/0.028	–	–
AT1G01480	1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase 2	ACC1, ACS2	2.8/0.005	–	4.4/0.006	–

(Continued)

Table 1. (continued).

Arabidopsis Genome Initiative	Description	Name	NLP _{Pp}		flg22	
			1 h	4 h	1 h	4 h
AT1G05010	1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase (ACO)	EAT1	–	2.1/0.025	–	–
AT4G26200	1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase 7	ACS7	11.2/0.044	–	–	–
AT4G11280	1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase 6	ACS6	–	5.8/0.028	–	2.8/0.013
AT1G05710	Ethylene-responsive protein	–	–	3.7/0.025	–	3.4/0.042
AT1G09740	Ethylene-responsive protein	–	–	2.5/0.020	–	–
AT5G47230	Ethylene-responsive element binding factor 5	ERF5	2.4/0.03	3/0.038	3.3/0.022	–
AT5G54510	Auxin-responsive GH3 protein	DFL-1	–	4.6/0.027	–	4.2/0.025

Average relative values from three independent experiments of NLP_{Pp} and flg22-treated samples compared with respective control samples and adjusted P values derived from one-way ANOVA analysis combined with a Benjamini and Hochberg false discovery rate calculation are given. Expression changes of less than twofold between treatment and control are indicated (–).

Arabidopsis is affected by the presence of NLP_{Ps} (NLP from *Phytophthora sojae*), surface-sterilized seeds were germinated on solid half-strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium supplemented with increasing concentrations of the purified recombinant protein. As shown in Figure 3, seedling root growth and vigor were significantly reduced at NLP_{Ps} concentrations of 0.1 µg/mL (4 nM). Germination and growth were completely inhibited at concentrations of 100 µg/mL or greater (Figure 3A), and root necrosis and macroscopic cell death could be observed similar to that reported recently on Nep1-treated seedlings (Bae et al., 2006). By contrast, seedling germination and development on half-strength MS supplemented with heat-denatured NLP_{Ps} was normal relative to that observed on half-strength MS alone (Figure 3C). The previous description of a naturally occurring flg22-insensitive *Arabidopsis* ecotype (Gomez-Gomez and Boller, 2000) prompted us to compare the responses of 17 different *Arabidopsis* ecotypes when germinated and grown in the presence of 2.0 µg/mL NLP_{Ps}. Each of the 17 ecotypes exhibited reduced growth and vigor. None of the selected subspecies appeared to be more or less sensitive toward 2.0 µg/mL NLP_{Ps} on a comparative basis (Figure 3B). Altogether, NLP_{Ps} negatively affects *Arabidopsis* seedling growth and development similar to flg22, but no evidence for genetic variation in this response was found among the *Arabidopsis* ecotypes tested.

The Physiological and Molecular Basis of NLP-Induced Plant Cell Death

Incompatible plant-pathogen interactions are often associated with HR PCD, while cell death in compatible interactions is a consequence of successful infection of host plants by necrotizing pathogens that commonly use toxins to kill their hosts (Greenberg and Yao, 2004). Although NLPs from various sources were shown to trigger cell death in dicot plants, the molecular basis of this response has not been fully explored. To further characterize NLP_{Pp}-induced cell death, we tested whether active plant metabolism is required for this type of cell death to occur. For this purpose, we chose to work on tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) because this offered the opportunity to compare NLP_{Pp}-induced cell death with that caused by another oomycete-derived, cell

death-inducing elicitor, the elicitin β-megaspermin (Baillieul et al., 2003). As shown in Figure 4, the coinfiltration of leaves with elicitor and inhibitors of DNA transcription (α-amanitin) or protein biosynthesis (cycloheximide) completely abolished lesion formation caused by either elicitor. Likewise, LaCl₃, a nonspecific Ca²⁺ channel inhibitor, blocked NLP_{Pp} and β-megaspermin-induced cell death. Taken together, our findings suggest that NLP_{Pp}-induced cell death requires active host cellular metabolism.

Toxin-induced plant cell death and AVR/R protein-mediated cell death each have been described to be light dependent (Asai et al., 2000; Chivasa et al., 2005; Manning and Ciuffetti, 2005; Chandra-Shekara et al., 2006). We therefore investigated whether NLP_{Pp}-induced lesion formation would be affected by light. In initial experiments, infiltrations into tobacco leaves were performed in daylight, and plants were then transferred to darkness. Under these conditions, the NLP_{Pp} lesions were indistinguishable from those observed on plants kept in light (data not shown). Subsequently, we performed infiltrations in the dark, which resulted in weaker and delayed lesion development. Pre-conditioning the plants in darkness was necessary to eliminate lesion development entirely. Thus, when plants were kept in the dark for 30 min before infiltration of NLP_{Pp}, then infiltrated in darkness and kept there for 24 h, no lesion formation could be observed (Figure 5). Likewise, β-megaspermin-induced cell death was completely abolished under these conditions. The light dependence of NLP_{Pp}-mediated lesion development was also tested in *Arabidopsis*. As shown in Figure 5, NLP_{Pp}-induced cell death was also light dependent in this species as was HR PCD in response to infection by avirulent *P. syringae* pv *tomato* strain DC3000/AvrRpm1. Thus, at least one step in NLP_{Pp}-induced cell death in plants appears to depend on light.

Caspases (Cys-containing Asp-specific proteases) are Cys proteases that represent a core execution switch for animal PCD (Evan et al., 1995). Plants appear to lack caspase genes homologous to those found in animals or yeast, but caspase-like activities in plants have been inferred from inhibitor studies or enzymatic assays (Lam and del Pozo, 2000; Greenberg and Yao, 2004; Lam, 2004). We have made use of several types of caspase-specific peptide inhibitors (Ac-YVAD-CHO for caspase-1,

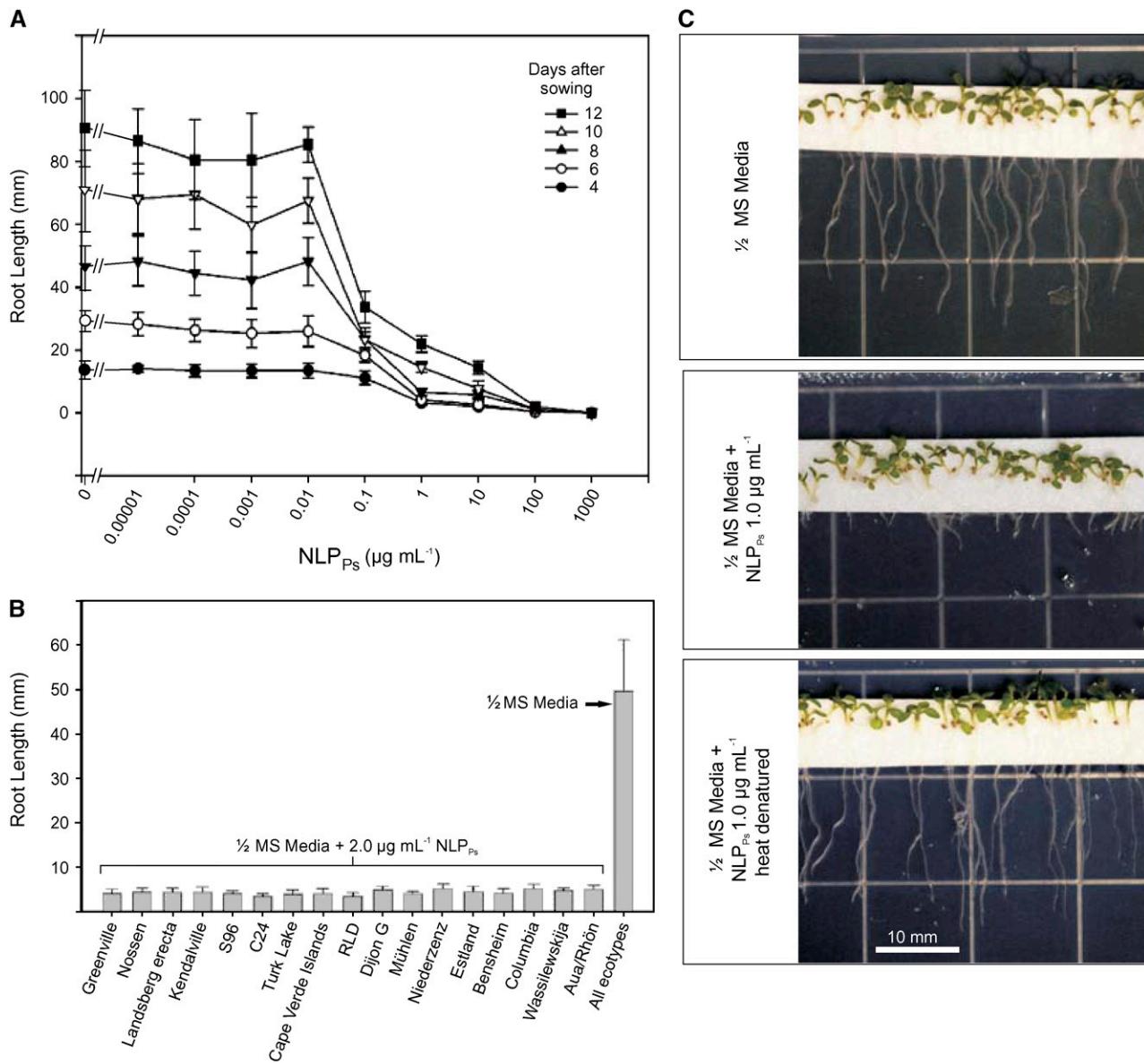


Figure 3. Germination of *Arabidopsis* Seedlings in the Presence of NLP_{Ps}.

(A) Seeds of *Arabidopsis* ecotype Col-0 were sown in sterile media containing a range of concentrations of NLP_{Ps}, and root lengths were measured at intervals as indicated. Shown are average values and SD from measurements of 10 to 20 plants (per treatment) from a representative experiment. The experiment was performed three times with similar results.

(B) Seeds of 17 *Arabidopsis* ecotypes were sown in sterile media, with and without added NLP_{Ps}, and root lengths were measured after 8 d. Shown are average values and SD from measurements of 10 to 20 plants (per ecotype) from a representative experiment. The experiment was performed three times with similar results.

(C) Seeds of *Arabidopsis* ecotype Col-0 were sown in sterile half-strength MS medium alone (top panel), on half-strength MS medium supplemented with 1.0 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ NLP_{Ps} (middle panel), or on half-strength MS medium containing 1.0 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ heat-denatured NLP_{Ps} (bottom panel). Photographs were taken 5 d after sowing.

Ac-DEVD-CHO for caspase-3, and zVAD-fmk for pan-caspases) to study a possible involvement of caspase-like proteases in NLP-induced cell death in tobacco plants (Hatsugai et al., 2004). Coinfiltration of either inhibitor with NLP_{Pp} resulted in occurrence of lesions that were indistinguishable from those evoked by

NLP_{Pp} alone (Figure 6A). Thus, caspase-like activity sensitive to inhibitors of animal PCD appears not to be involved in NLP-mediated cell death. Similar results were obtained using Ac-VEID-FMK, an inhibitor of caspases-6 and -8 (data not shown). In control experiments, tobacco HR PCD triggered by infection with

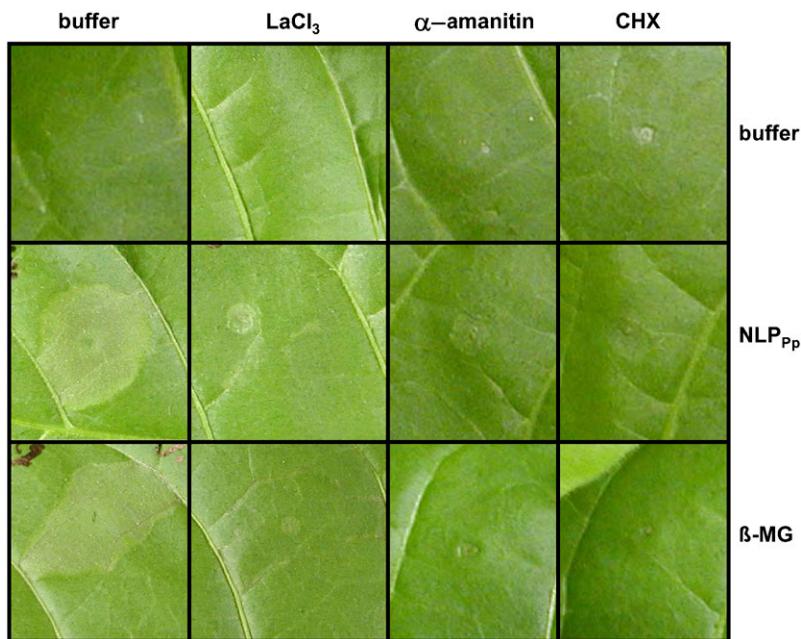


Figure 4. NLP-Induced Cell Death Requires Active Plant Metabolism.

Four-week-old tobacco plants were infiltrated either with the calcium channel blocker LaCl_3 (1 mM), with the DNA transcription inhibitor α -amanitin (100 μM), or the protein translation inhibitor cycloheximide (CHX; 100 μM) alone, in combination with buffer as control, or 1 μM NLP_{Pp} or 50 nM β -megaspermin (β -MG), respectively. PCD symptoms shown here were obtained after 2 d.

P. syringae pv *phaseolicola* was abolished by caspase inhibitors, as reported previously (del Pozo and Lam, 1998).

Mammalian Bax Inhibitor-1 (BI-1) is a known suppressor of apoptotic cell death in animal and yeast cells (Xu and Reed, 1998). Homologs of *BI-1* isolated from various plant species have been shown to act mechanistically similar to their animal counterparts (Lam, 2004). Recently, Watanabe and Lam (2006) reported the isolation of two *Arabidopsis* mutant lines that carried a T-DNA insertion in the At *BI-1* gene (*atbi-1-1* and *atbi-1-2*). Gene inactivation resulted in accelerated progression of cell death upon treatment with the fungal toxin FB1. Administration of NLP_{Pp} caused lesion formation on the wild type and on both *atbi-1* alleles tested (Figure 6B). The kinetics of lesion development and symptom severity were similar in wild-type and mutant lines, suggesting that BI-1 activity does not substantially contribute to the containment of NLP-induced lesions in *Arabidopsis*.

HR PCD in plants infected with avirulent pathogens requires SA. Likewise, FB1-induced cell death in *Arabidopsis* was shown to be dependent on SA (Asai et al., 2000). NLP_{Pp} -induced lesions, however, still developed in SA-deficient *nahG* *Arabidopsis* plants (Table 2), suggesting no SA requirement for this response. This is surprising because NLP_{Pp} -mediated expression of the *PR-1* gene was previously reported to be SA dependent (Fellbrich et al., 2002). Mutant plants impaired in NDR1 and PAD4 activity also developed wild-type-like lesions. Moreover, unlike FB1-induced cell death (Asai et al., 2000), NLP_{Pp} -triggered necrosis was observed on *coi1* and *ein2* genotypes, suggesting that

neither JA nor ethylene contributes to this phenotype. Kinetics of symptom development were indistinguishable from those observed on wild-type plants (data not shown).

SGT1b is a component of Skp1-Cullin-F-box protein ubiquitin ligases that target *Arabidopsis* regulatory proteins for degradation. Loss of *AtSgt1b* is associated with impaired plant cultivar-specific immunity (Azevedo et al., 2002). Moreover, lack of *Sgt1* in *Nicotiana benthamiana* resulted in inhibition of INF1 elicitation-mediated cell death (Pearl et al., 2002). NLP_{Pp} -induced lesion formation, however, was not compromised in *sgt1b-1* plants or in *sgt1a-1* plants (Table 2), suggesting that it is either independent of SGT1 or that individual SGT1 isoforms may compensate for each other. The latter scenario is not testable because double knockout lines for both, *Atsgt1a* and *Atsgt1b*, are not viable (Hubert et al., 2003).

Two isoforms of *Arabidopsis* HSP90 (HSP90.1 and HSP90.2) are reported to compromise HR PCD in plant cultivar-specific immunity (Hubert et al., 2003; Takahashi et al., 2003). We tested two independent mutant alleles of each gene for impaired responsiveness to NLP_{Pp} . As shown in Table 2, we observed a partial reduction in NLP_{Pp} -mediated lesion formation on various HSP90 mutant alleles. Thus, HSP90 chaperone activity contributes to NLP_{Pp} -induced cell death. Plant cytosolic HSP90 also interacts with another chaperone-like protein, RAR1, which has been shown to play a critical role for the function of the *Arabidopsis* resistance proteins RPM1 and RPS2 (Hubert et al., 2003; Takahashi et al., 2003). However, *rar1* mutants did not exhibit altered NLP_{Pp} sensitivity (Table 2).

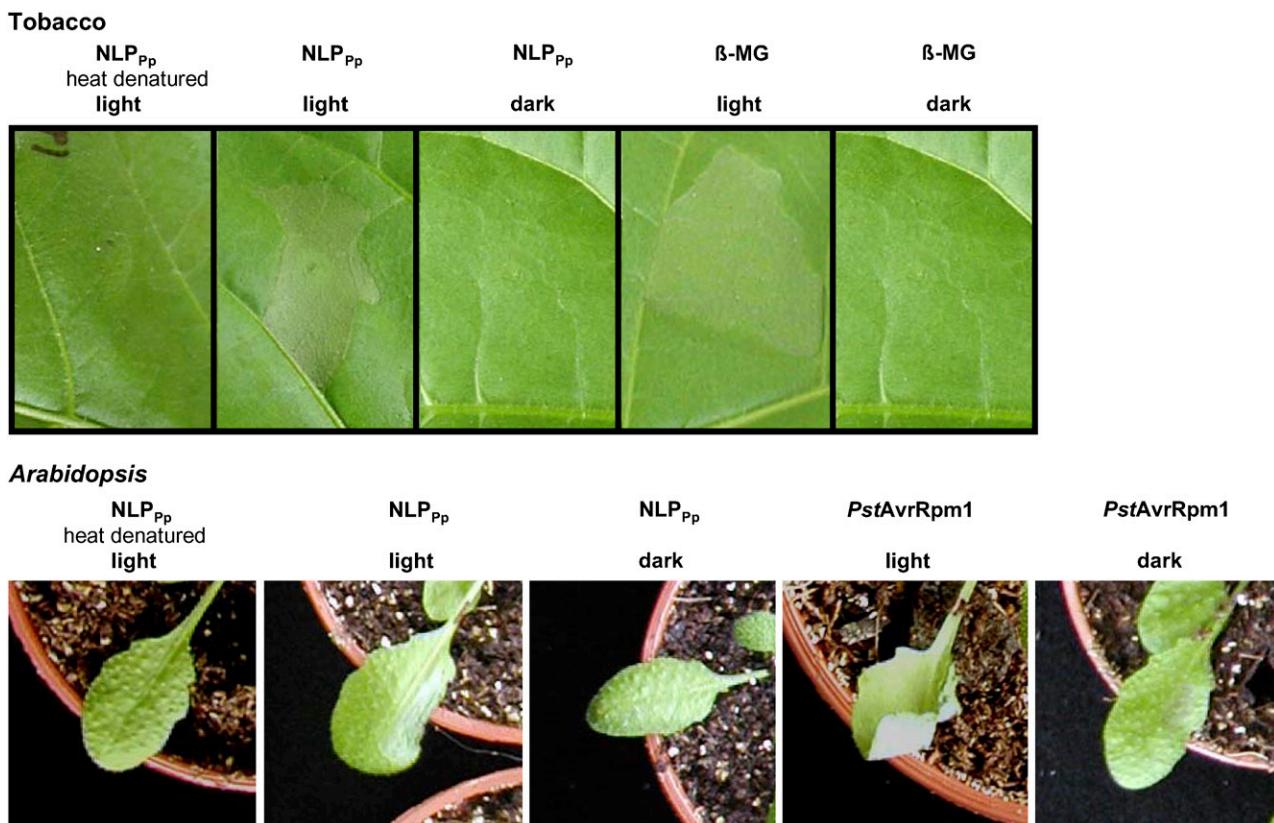


Figure 5. Light Dependence of NLP_{Pp} -Induced Cell Death.

Five-week-old tobacco (top panel) or *Arabidopsis* plants (bottom panel) were treated with 1 μM NLP_{Pp} , 1 μM heat-denatured NLP_{Pp} , 50 nM β -megaspermin (β -MG), or 5×10^6 colony-forming units/mL *P. syringae* pv *tomato* strain DC3000/AvrRpm1 (*PstAvrRpm1*) under normal light conditions or 30 min upon transfer into the dark as indicated. PCD symptoms shown here were obtained after 2 d.

Sensitivity to NLP Is Restricted to Dicotyledonous Plant Cells

The apparent universal sensitivity of dicot plants to NLPs contrasts with the apparent insensitivity of monocot plants (Pemberton and Salmond, 2004; Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006). Such an activity spectrum is unprecedented among known elicitors, including PAMPs, but is similar to that reported for host nonselective toxins, such as fusicoccin or FB1. It is also known that an NLP gene from *Vibrio pommerensis* maps to a genomic region that is indispensable for bacterial virulence and hemolysis of animal erythrocytes, perhaps pointing to an even larger range of cell types that are susceptible to NLPs (Jores et al., 2003). In contrast with PAMPs that bind to plant plasma membrane protein receptors, toxins may interact with host membranes in different ways. For example, CryA-type bacterial toxins (*Bacillus thuringiensis* toxin) act as membrane-disrupting cytolysins on insect or nematode cells upon docking to specific glycolipid plasma membrane constituents (Griffiths et al., 2005). To explore the interaction of NLP with phospholipid bilayers in greater detail, we tested living and synthetic membrane systems for susceptibility to this protein. In the first set of experiments, we attempted to clarify if NLP sensitivity is indeed restricted to dicot plant cells or, alternatively,

whether NLP treatment would destabilize phospholipid membrane systems in general but would leave monocot membranes intact due to some unknown counteractive measure. NLP concentrations similar to or higher than those reported to cause cell death in dicot cells were used. As shown in Table 3, addition of NLP to monolayers of human fibroblasts (line GM5756) or African green monkey kidney-derived COS-7 cells did not significantly increase cell mortality. This effect could be observed independent of the culture media that were used to grow these cell layers. A possible cell type-specific NLP sensitivity of animal cells was tested by supplementing sheep erythrocytes for up to 24 h with 1 μM NLP_{Pp} . However, at no time point did hemolysis caused by NLP_{Pp} exceed that observed in control treatments (Table 3). Moreover, a possible Ca^{2+} requirement for NLP-induced erythrocyte death similar to that described for some bacterial cytolysins could not be demonstrated. Similarly, membranes of lower eukaryotes proved insensitive to NLP, as both *Pichia pastoris* cells and spheroplasts derived thereof survived treatment with this protein (Table 3). Likewise, the moss *Physcomitrella patens* was tested for NLP sensitivity. Moss cultures were grown either on solid medium or in liquid culture supplemented with 2 μM NLP_{Pp} or with heat-inactivated NLP_{Pp} as control. Under no circumstance was viability of the culture (Table 3) affected by

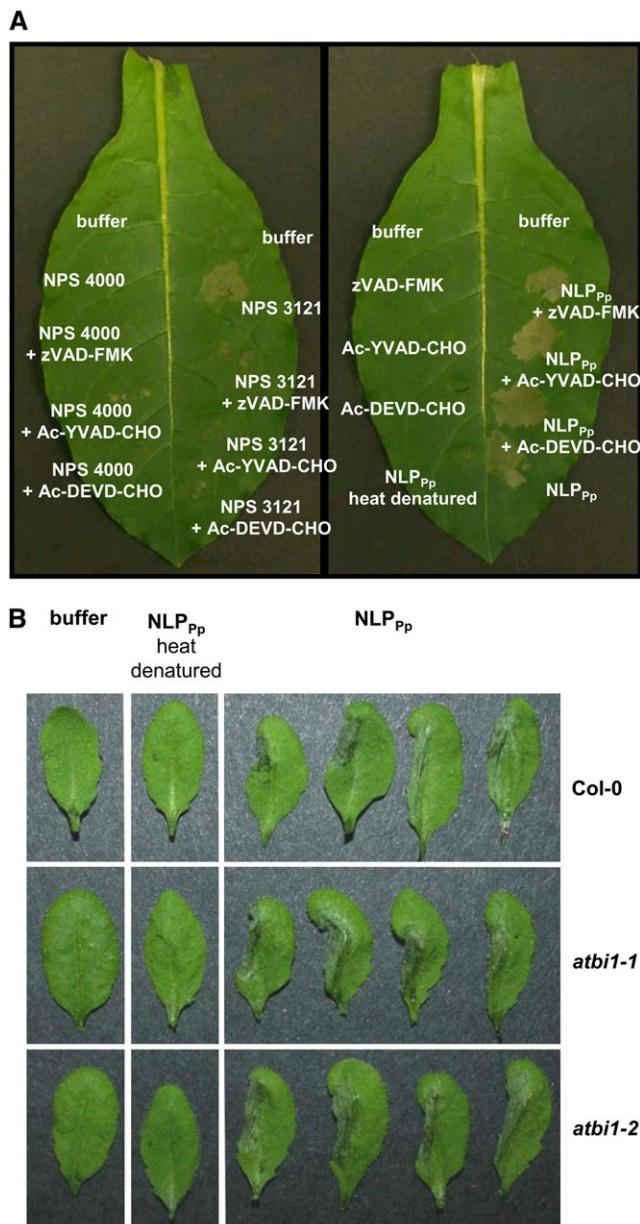


Figure 6. NLP-Induced PCD Is Independent of Caspase and Bax Inhibitor Activity.

(A) Tobacco leaves were infiltrated with 4 μ M NLP_{Pp} or *P. syringae* pv *phaseolicola* strains NPS4000 (PCD-noninducing strain) or NSP3121 (PCD-inducing strain) in the presence or absence of 100 μ M of the caspase inhibitors Ac-YVAD-CHO, Ac-DEVD-CHO, or zVAD-FMK. Plants were kept at room temperature under continuous illumination. **(B)** Five-week-old *Arabidopsis* Col-0, atbi1-1, or atbi1-2 mutant plants were treated with 4 μ M NLP_{Pp}, 4 μ M heat-denatured NLP_{Pp}, or buffer as control. Photographs in **(A)** and **(B)** were taken 24 h after infiltration.

NLP treatment nor was spore germination rate and differentiation affected (data not shown).

Experiments that demonstrated the insensitivity of monocots to NLPs were invariably performed by infiltration of the protein into leaf tissues or by droplet or spray application. To exclude the possibility that application conditions accounted for the virtual NLP insensitivity of monocot plant cells and to explore whether NLP sensitivity required an intact plant cell wall, monocot and dicot plant cell cultures and protoplasts were tested. As shown before, cell suspensions derived from the dicot plants *Arabidopsis* or parsley (*Petroselinum crispum*) were sensitive to NLP, whereas cell cultures of maize (*Zea mays*) proved insensitive to NLP treatment (Table 3). Strikingly, a similar result was obtained from experiments performed with protoplasts derived from *Arabidopsis*, parsley, or maize (Table 3, Figure 7), indicating that monocot plant cells are indeed fully insensitive to NLPs and that NLP sensitivity of dicot plant cells does not require the presence of the cell wall.

NLP Interacts with a Target Site That Is Unique to the Extracytoplasmic Side of Dicot Plant Plasma Membranes

Triggers of plant immune responses, such as PAMPs or endogenous elicitors, are recognized through binding to plant plasma membrane receptors (Nürnberg et al., 2004; Zipfel and Felix, 2005). The supposed NLP_{Pp} affinity constant is \sim 10 nM, as deduced from the EC₅₀ = 8.5 nM for NLP_{Pp}-induced phytoalexin production in parsley (Fellbrich et al., 2002). However, receptor-ligand interaction studies or chemical cross-linking assays performed with various radioactively labeled NLP_{Pp} preparations

Table 2. Mutational Analysis of NLP-Induced Cell Death

Arabidopsis Genotype	Cell Death Index
Col-0	1.64 \pm 0.10
Ler-0	1.86 \pm 0.14
nahG	1.77 \pm 0.08
ndr1-1	1.81 \pm 0.16
pad4-1	1.61 \pm 0.17
coi1-1	1.33 \pm 0.12
ein2-1	1.53 \pm 0.17
sgt1a-1	1.83 \pm 0.23
sgt1b-1	1.44 \pm 0.20
rar1-10	1.83 \pm 0.16
Col-0	2.00 \pm 0.00
hsp90.1-1 (SALK 075596)	0.85 \pm 0.05
hsp90.1-2 (SALK 007614)	0.89 \pm 0.16
hsp90.2-3 (lra2-3)	1.00 \pm 0.27
hsp90.2-5 (SALK 058553)	1.11 \pm 0.08

Five-week-old *Arabidopsis* Col-0 wild type or mutant plants were infiltrated with 1 μ M NLP_{Pp} or GST as control (Fellbrich et al., 2002). PCD symptom development was scored 24 h after treatment and cell death indices calculated as described in Methods. Data shown in the lower part of the table represent experiments that were conducted independently of those shown in the top part. Therefore, a new set of controls (Col-0) is provided. Cell death indices were calculated as described in Materials. GST control treatments did not result in cell death. Thus, no average and SD values are given.

Table 3. Sensitivity to NLP Is Restricted to Dicotyledonous Plant Cells

Cell Type	NLP Concentration	Survivors Relative to Control (%) (\pm SD)
COS-7		
(DMEM)	1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	57.5 \pm 0.5
(Quantum 333)	1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	85.5 \pm 6.5
Human fibroblasts (GM5756)		
(DMEM)	1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	85.5 \pm 7.5
(Quantum 333)	1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	120.5 \pm 17.5
Sheep erythrocytes (PBS)		
- Ca ²⁺	1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	102.3 \pm 4.7
2 μ M NLP _{Pya}	97.7 \pm 2.9	
Sheep erythrocytes (PBS)		
+ Ca ²⁺	1 μ M NLP _{Ps}	98.4 \pm 5.7
2 μ M NLP _{Pya}	96.4 \pm 12.1	
<i>P. pastoris</i> spheroplasts		
1 μ M NLP _{Ps}	86.2 \pm 9.5	
2 μ M NLP _{Pya}	52.0 \pm 4.3	
<i>P. patens</i>		
2 μ M NLP _{Pp}	100.7 \pm 11.8	
Maize cell culture		
0.1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	112.3 \pm 2.6	
1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	91.1 \pm 2.8	
Arabidopsis cell culture		
1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	40.3 \pm 4.6	
Parsley cell culture		
1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	7.2 \pm 0.8	
Maize protoplasts		
0.1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	88.3 \pm 11.8	
Arabidopsis protoplasts		
1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	89.7 \pm 8.4	
0.1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	102.2 \pm 15.7	
	1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	97.2 \pm 7.5
	0.1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	5.7 \pm 2.4
Parsley protoplasts		
1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	3.1 \pm 1.6	
0.1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	4.2 \pm 0.9	
	1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	1.0 \pm 0.9
	0.1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	4.4 \pm 0.8
	1 μ M NLP _{Pp}	2.2 \pm 1.0
	0.1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	2.2 \pm 0.9
	1 μ M NLP _{Pya}	0.6 \pm 0.6

Various cell types were treated with different NLP preparations at the concentrations indicated. Cell death rates were determined at times and using protocols described in Methods. Values represent average values \pm SD.

failed to detect a high-affinity binding site on parsley microsomal membranes (data not shown). Therefore, other scenarios of signal perception may apply in the case of NLPs. As some cytolytic toxins that cause inflammatory responses and PCD in animal cells were shown to bind to lipid components of host membranes (Parker and Feil, 2005), we tested whether NLP_{Pp} displayed affinity to lipid membranes in vitro. Silica beads coated with a single phospholipid bilayer (TRANSIL) were incubated with NLP_{Pp}, subsequently collected by centrifugation, and analyzed by SDS-PAGE (Figure 8A). The majority of NLP_{Pp} was found to be lipid associated, whereas the supernatant was depleted of the protein. Variations in the phospholipid composition (ratio between the two major phospholipid species in eukaryotic membranes, 1,2-diacyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine/POPC and 1,2-diacyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine/POPE) had no apparent impact on the phase distribution of NLP_{Pp}. Importantly, BSA, a major lipid and fatty acid carrier protein of the blood circulatory system, bound very little to TRANSIL beads, suggesting that NLPs display a marked affinity to lipid membranes.

Ionophores, such as amphotericin B, have been shown to trigger the activation of plant defense-associated responses in

various systems in a non-receptor-mediated manner (Jabs et al., 1997). To test whether NLP_{Pp} exerts ionophore activity that may cause activation of plant defense, including PCD, we added the protein to synthetic bilayer liposomes that were loaded with the cation-sensitive fluorescent dye Sodium Green. As shown in Figure 8B, no NLP_{Pp}-mediated Na⁺ influx and subsequent fluorescence emission was observed, suggesting that the protein itself did not form cation-conducting pores in the membrane. Moreover, no membrane collapse similar to that evoked by 0.1% Triton X-100 was observed (data not shown), suggesting that the protein does not randomly disrupt phospholipid bilayers. Importantly, the bacterial effector protein HrpZ_{Psph} from *P. syringae* pv *phaseolicola* mediated ion pore formation as shown previously (Lee et al., 2001). HrpZ_{Psph} and related bacterial effectors form ion-conducting pores not only in artificial membranes but also in biological membranes, such as the plasma membrane of *Xenopus laevis* oocytes (our unpublished data; Racape et al., 2005). However, NLP_{Pya} proved insufficient to generate any ion currents in this system (Figure 8C), suggesting that it did not directly affect membrane integrity through intrinsic ionophore activity.

NLPs are secretory proteins with a likely exposure to the apoplastic side of the plant plasma membrane during infection.

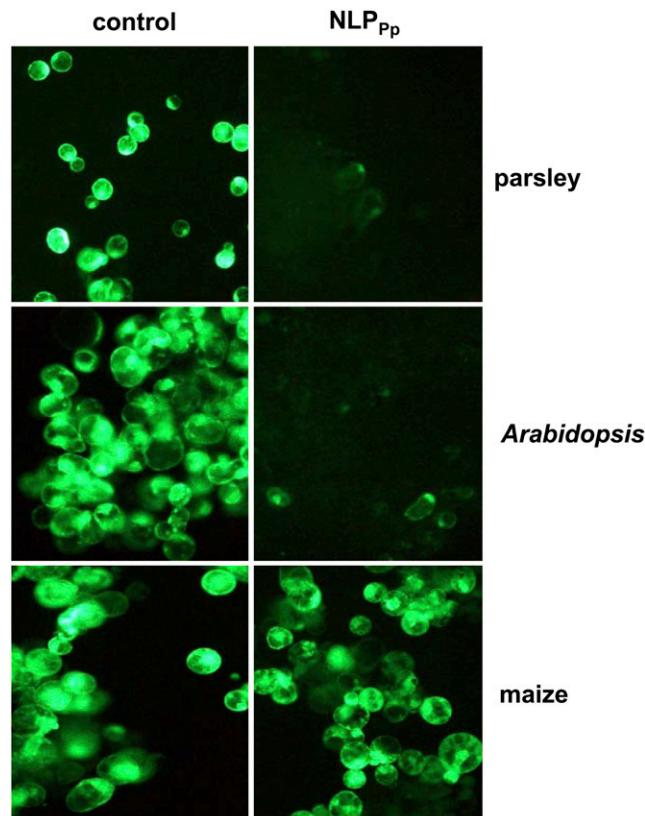


Figure 7. NLP-Induced Cell Death in Dicot Plants Does Not Require Intact Plant Cell Walls.

Parsley, Arabidopsis, or maize protoplasts (5×10^5 /mL) prepared from cultured cells were treated with 1 μ M NLP_{Pp} for 24 h, and viability staining was performed as described in Methods.

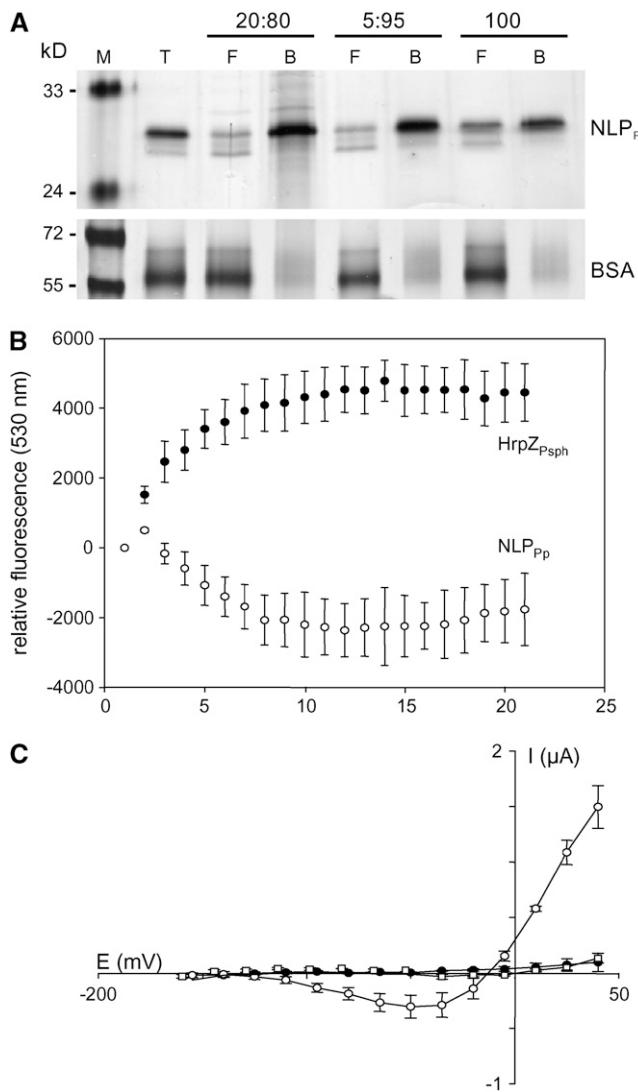


Figure 8. NLPs Possess Binding Affinity to Phospholipid Bilayers but Do Not Show Pore-Forming Activity on Artificial and Biological Membranes.

(A) TRANSIL beads coated with POPE/POPC (20:80), POPE/POPC (5:95), or POPC alone were incubated for 1 h with 1 μ M NLP_{Pp} (total protein [Σ]). After separation of lipid-bound (B) from free unbound material (F), proteins were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and silver staining.

(B) Na⁺ influx into Sodium Green-filled liposomes. Sodium-mediated fluorescence was measured without protein and in the presence of 1 μ M NLP_{Pp} (open symbols) or 1 μ M HrpZ_{Psp} (closed symbols). Fluorescence values obtained without protein were subtracted from values obtained in the presence of either protein. Values given represent the means \pm SD from assays performed in triplicate.

(C) Two-electrode voltage clamp measurements on *X. laevis* oocytes. The current/voltage plots obtained before and after the application of 1 μ M NLP_{Pp} (open squares and closed circles, respectively) or 1 μ M HrpZ_{Psp} (open circles) are shown. Steady state currents were measured following 4-s pulses. The results presented are representative of those obtained in three experiments \pm SD.

Thus, interaction of NLPs at the extracytoplasmic side rather than the cytoplasmic side of the host plasma membrane can be predicted to occur. To test a possible side-specific activity of NLPs at the plant plasma membrane, three independent experimental systems were used to express the protein with (+SP) or without (-SP) a signal peptide. As shown in Figure 9, transient biolistic cotransformation of *Arabidopsis* leaves with the NLP_{Pp}(-SP) gene and the reporter gene β -glucuronidase (GUS) resulted in detectable GUS activity. By contrast, no GUS activity could be observed in experiments when NLP_{Pp}(+SP) was expressed. This finding indicates that NLP_{Pp}(+SP)-induced cell death occurred prior to GUS expression. In a similar experimental setup, cobombardment of soybean leaves with the same cassette or of sugar beet (*Beta vulgaris*) leaves with a NLP_{Pp}(-SP)/*Renilla reniformis* luciferase cassette yielded significant reporter enzyme activity, while luciferase activity remained at control levels upon expression of NLP_{Pp}(+SP) fused to a plant signal peptide (see Supplemental Figure 3 online). In summary, delivery to the apoplastic side of the plant cell surface is a requirement for NLP-induced cell death. Altogether, our findings suggest that NLP sensitivity is not a consequence of nonspecific membrane disruption but requires a specific target site that is unique to the extracytoplasmic side of dicot plant cell membranes.

DISCUSSION

Taxonomic Distribution and Activity Pattern of NLPs Favor a Role as Nonself Recognition Determinants in Plant Immunity

We have retrieved a total of 44 NLP-encoding genes representing 22 microbial species from public databases (Figure 1; see Supplemental Figure 1 online). NLP sequences are distinguished by an unusually wide distribution across microbial taxa (bacteria, fungi, and oomycetes) but are absent from the genomes of plants and animals. It is thus reasonable to assume that NLPs support a microbial lifestyle. More than 70% of the NLP sequences currently known originate from plant pathogenic microorganisms that rely on hemibiotrophic or necrotrophic nutrition, suggesting that these proteins may facilitate various forms of heterotrophic growth in plants in particular. Recently, whole-genome sequencing was completed for the two oomycete phytopathogens *P. sojae* and *Phytophthora ramorum* (<http://www.jgi.doe.gov>) as well as for the two fungal plant pathogens *Magnaporthe grisea* and *Fusarium graminearum* (*Gibberella zeae*). Comparative genomic analyses revealed that the *Phytophthora* NLP families are much larger in size (50 to 60 loci in each species) than those in fungi (four loci in each species), perhaps pointing to a special role for these proteins in oomycete plant pathogens. While the reason for the evolutionary expansion and diversification of the NLP family in *Phytophthora* species is yet to be resolved, it is apparent that NLPs represent a molecular pattern that is common in organisms of this genus.

The taxonomic distribution pattern of NLP raises concerns regarding the physiological role of these proteins during infection. The cytolytic activities of NLPs, their contribution to fungal

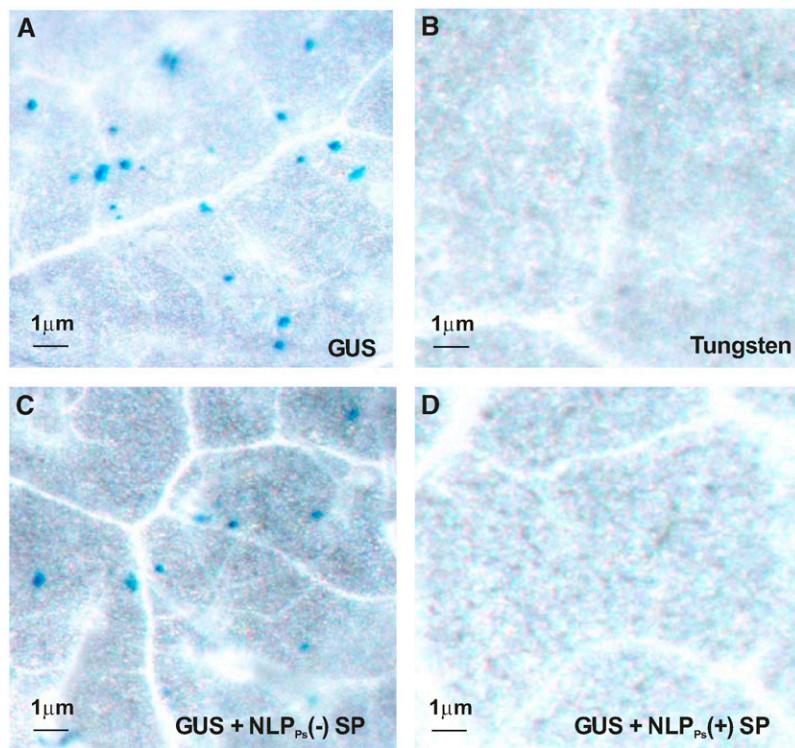


Figure 9. NLP-Induced PCD Requires Delivery to and Recognition at the Extracytoplasmic Side of Dicotyledonous Plant Cells.

Activity of NLP_{Ps} in *Arabidopsis* leaves as determined by a cobombardment and transient expression assay. The photographs show *Arabidopsis* leaves after bombardment with tungsten beads and histochemical staining for GUS activity, performed as described in Methods. The tungsten beads were treated as follows: (A), coated with pFF19G containing a GUS expression cassette; (B), uncoated tungsten beads alone; (C), coated with pFF19G (GUS) plus a pFF19 construct encoding NLP_{Ps} lacking a signal peptide [$NLP_{Ps}(-)SP$]; (D), coated with pFF19G (GUS) plus a pFF19 construct encoding NLP_{Ps} , including the complete open reading frame with the native signal peptide [$NLP_{Ps}(+)SP$].

and bacterial virulence, and induced NLP_{Ps} transcript and protein accumulation during transition from biotrophic to necrotrophic growth seem to support a role as toxin-like effectors during plant infection (Pemberton and Salmond, 2004; Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006). Moreover, conditional expression of the NLP_{Ps} gene in *Arabidopsis* resulted in rapid wilting and cell death (E. Huitema and S. Kamoun, unpublished data), and transformation of an avirulent *E. carotovora* strain that lacked NLP_{Ec} with NLP_{Ps} rescued virulence on potato tubers (M. Pirhonen, unpublished data), which indicates that the protein is toxic to plant cells. Our current finding that highly conserved NLP sequences occur predominantly in organisms that live at least partially heterotrophically also supports an important physiological role of these proteins. It is thus conceivable that NLPs may contribute to a heterotrophic lifestyle by either directly killing the host and/or by facilitating access to nutrient sources through breaking down biological membranes. Moreover, several studies, including our recent work, have now shown that NLP sensitivity is restricted to dicot plant cells in a non-species-specific manner. Such a relatively wide activity spectrum is another feature that is characteristic of toxins. Likewise, the ability to trigger defense responses in a large number of plant species also distinguishes NLPs from other stimuli, such as PAMPs, AVR effectors, or

endogenous elicitors. In most cases, these signals exert plant immune-stimulating activities in only a limited number of plant species or plant cultivars.

However, the broad taxonomic distribution of NLPs, in particular their occurrence in both prokaryotic and eukaryotic species, is quite unusual for known microbial phytotoxins. The production of phytotoxins is often restricted to a narrow range of microbial species (van't Slot and Knogge, 2002; Wolpert et al., 2002); therefore, NLPs seem to represent an unprecedented case. Thus, alternative molecular functions of NLPs may be considered. Several publications reported that NLP activity is heat-labile and is not restricted to a certain domain of the protein, suggesting that NLPs may possess enzymatic activity (Veit et al., 2001; Fellbrich et al., 2002; Qutob et al., 2002). Database analyses with intact or partial NLP sequences, however, did not yield any meaningful alignment with enzyme-encoding nucleotide sequences (data not shown). Moreover, heat labile and tertiary structure-dependent activities are also characteristics of proteinaceous toxins that are known to possess cytolytic activities on animal cells (Parker and Feil, 2005). Taken together, we propose that NLPs are virulence-promoting microbial effectors that exhibit toxin-like characteristics, but we admit that a classification of NLPs as genuine toxins requires a detailed

understanding of their molecular mode of action and the identification of host cell targets.

NLPs Trigger a Complex Immune Response in *Arabidopsis*

A broad taxonomic distribution and a wide variety of sensitive plant species are appropriate characteristics of nonself recognition determinants in plant-pathogen interactions. In this report, we have comprehensively characterized the immune response of one particular plant, *Arabidopsis*, to NLP_{Pp}. Results from this study and from previous work allow us to conclude that NLPs evoke a complex immune response. This response includes MAPK activation, production of NO, ethylene, camalexin, and callose, and extensive reprogramming of the transcriptome. Cell death and tissue necrosis terminates this massive defense response. The effects of NLPs resemble those triggered by the genuine PAMP flg22, with the exception that flg22 does not induce necrosis formation. In particular, very early responses, such as the production of NO and posttranslational activation of MAPK activity, are indistinguishable upon stimulation with NLPs or flg22. This is important because these responses occur at time points (within 30 min after stimulation) that clearly precede the onset of NLP-induced necrosis, suggesting that cell death may not be the cause for the induction of plant defense responses. The most compelling evidence that immediate and early plant responses to NLP and flg22 are comparable originates from whole-genome array-based transcriptome analyses. Large qualitative and quantitative overlaps were found in gene sets whose expression was altered upon application of either elicitor (Figures 2D and 2E). Gene sets whose expression is upregulated by either stimulus could be grouped into very similar functional categories. Intriguingly, genes implicated in pathogen recognition, such as receptor-like kinases, resistance signaling (disease resistance proteins, WRKY transcription factors, and hormone biosynthesis), and plant defense execution (PR proteins) were found to be coexpressed, suggesting that both signals are perceived as equivalent determinants of microbial nonself by the plant and similarly trigger activation of the plant surveillance system.

Overall, the microarray data indicate that NLPs and flagellin have a similar potential to trigger vital plant immune responses and may thus play similar roles in plant-microbe interactions, insofar as activation of plant defense is concerned. This view is further supported by experiments that showed that phytopathogenic bacteria-derived virulence factors suppress plant defense gene expression triggered by NLP_{Pp} or flg22, respectively, and thereby intercept with plant immunity (He et al., 2006).

Several recent studies have addressed the impact of pathogen-derived toxins on the plant transcriptome or on plant defense gene expression. For example, a comprehensive array experiment conducted on *Arabidopsis* plants treated with the cell death-inducing AAL toxin reported upregulation of oxidative stress and ethylene-responsive genes (Gechev et al., 2004), some of which were found to be upregulated in our experiment as well. Moreover, WRKY18 transcript accumulation in *Arabidopsis* in response to foliar application of Nep1 was reported (Keates et al., 2003). This finding was confirmed in our experiments, as was the accumulation of transcripts encoding ACS in *Arabidopsis* plants that were treated with *Verticillium dahliae* NLP_{Vd} (Wang et al., 2004).

A prime difference between flg22 and NLP is the ability of the latter to cause cell death. Thus, some of the genes that were exclusively found to be expressed in NLP-treated plants may found the basis for this particular plant response. We compared the transcriptome response of NLP_{Pp} with that caused by flg22 as well as with that caused by another cell death-inducing agent, FB1. Interestingly, among the 320 genes that were specifically induced by FB1, but not by flg22, we found no genes for which expression was also triggered by NLP_{Pp}. Thus, different cell death-inducing agents appear to have rather different effects on the *Arabidopsis* transcriptome. Another promising experimental approach lies in searching for NLP-insensitive *Arabidopsis* mutants. This strategy may take advantage of NLP-based inhibition of seedling vigor and root growth. Such a strategy has been pursued to identify *Arabidopsis* mutants impaired in toxin FB1 sensitivity (Stone et al., 2000) as well as the flagellin receptor FLS2 (Gomez-Gomez and Boller, 2000).

In the past, NLPs have been synonymously called elicitors, PAMPs, and toxins since they share properties with each of these classes of molecules. Classifying a particular molecule as an elicitor, PAMP, or a toxin can become a nebulous exercise due to the overlapping definitions (van't Slot and Knogge, 2002; Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006). Individual pathogen-secreted effectors may also play multiple roles that simultaneously place them in different categories. The categories and terms themselves are somewhat arbitrary and have been extemporaneously defined. Nonetheless, the vocabulary is entrenched and does provide a common set of terms for the conceptualization of certain molecules. Identifying a molecule as an elicitor, PAMP, or a toxin when it is appropriate may also be more informative than simply evading the issue and referring to it as an effector. In our view, NLPs constitute toxin-like molecules that likely act as positive virulence factors during attempted infection but may also act as elicitors that mediate activation of the plant immune system. In contrast with PAMPs, which are defined as constitutive and evolutionarily conserved building blocks of microbial surfaces that directly bind to plant pattern recognition receptors, NLPs are considered to be part of the inducible microbial weaponry whose mode of interaction with plant cells remains to be elucidated.

NLPs Induce a Distinct Type of PCD

Both the HR (resistance-associated) and susceptible (disease-associated) cell death exhibit apoptotic features, such as DNA laddering, chromatin condensation, and terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick end labeling. Thus, both types of cell death are likely to share common mechanistic elements (Greenberg and Yao, 2004). Interestingly, NLP_{Pya}- or NLP_{Vd}-induced plant cell death is accompanied by fragmentation of nuclear DNA (Veit et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2004) that resembles that caused by the cytolytic phytotoxin, thaxtomin A from *Streptomyces scabiei* (Duval et al., 2005). We found that NLP-induced PCD is light dependent and requires active plant metabolism. These characteristics are shared by AVR effector-mediated HR PCD and by PCD triggered by oomycete-derived elicitors. Interestingly, FB1 or *Pyrenopeziza tritici-repentis* ToxA toxin-induced PCD has also been reported to depend on

light (Chivasa et al., 2005; Manning and Ciuffetti, 2005), and thaxtomin-induced PCD requires plant transcriptional and translational activities (Duval et al., 2005). However, unlike PCD responses triggered by AVR effectors or the toxin FB1, NLP-induced PCD does not show any requirement for the plant defense-associated hormones SA, JA, or ethylene (Asai et al., 2000; Pieterse and Van Loon, 2004). Even more surprisingly, NLP-induced cell death proved to be independent of SGT1/SGT1b activity. Functionality of SGT1/SGT1b was proposed to be crucial to any type of HR PCD in response to AVR effectors or the elicitor INF1 (Azevedo et al., 2002; Peart et al., 2002). Likewise, no evidence that would support a role of caspase or BAX/BI activity in NLP-induced PCD was obtained. However, partial inhibition of NLP-induced PCD in *HSP90.1* or *HSP90.2* knockout plants that is qualitatively similar to that reported for *AvrRpt2* or *AvrRpm1*-induced PCD in *Arabidopsis* (Hubert et al., 2003; Takahashi et al., 2003) suggests that chaperone activity promotes NLP PCD. This is also in agreement with reports on elicitor INF1-induced cell death in *N. benthamiana* that was shown to be dependent on HSP90 and HSP70 activity (Kanzaki et al., 2003). In summary, NLP-induced cell death exhibits features that are both shared with and distinct from other known types of PCD. A major distinction between AVR effector and NLP-induced PCD is the apparent lack of requirement for SGT1b and SA. Importantly, NLP_{Pp}-induced *PR1* gene expression in *Arabidopsis* was previously shown to require SA (Fellbrich et al., 2002), suggesting that different signal transduction pathways exist for activation of different facets of plant defense. This concept of different signaling cascades is also in agreement with our data that show that NLP_{Pp}-induced phytoalexin production, but not PCD in parsley, is dependent on an NLP_{Pp}-induced oxidative burst (Fellbrich et al., 2002). A similarly complex scenario was reported from tobacco cells that were treated with the elicitor INF1. In this system, separate signaling pathways mediating PCD, *PR* gene expression, and ROS production were described (Sasabe et al., 2000). Likewise, Pep-13-induced HR, but not *PR* gene expression, requires SA in potato (Halim et al., 2004).

Recently, fusaric acid (FA)-induced PCD in *Arabidopsis* was reported to require 100-fold higher concentrations than those used to trigger defense-associated responses, such as camalexin production (Bouizgarne et al., 2006). This surprising finding indicates that sublethal FA doses are sufficient to trigger innate immune responses but not PCD. In addition, FA-induced PCD appears to constitute a disease symptom (likely due to the cytolytic activity of FA) rather than a typical defense response. Strikingly, many bacteria-derived toxins that exert cytolytic activity on animal cells are known to trigger innate immune responses at sublethal doses (Srivastava et al., 2005; Ratner et al., 2006). Although this aspect of NLP activity deserves attention and needs to be re-explored in more detail, our findings argue against such a mode of action. NLP_{Pp} concentrations required for NLP-induced PCD and phytoalexin production in cultured parsley cells were found to be comparable (Fellbrich et al., 2002). Likewise, NLP_{Vd} concentrations required to induce PCD and phytoalexin production in cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*) differed slightly but were in the same order of magnitude (Wang et al., 2004). NLP-induced PCD may thus constitute an element of the

plant innate surveillance system that is deliberately activated by necrotrophic pathogens that strive to kill their hosts.

Activity of NLPs on Dicot Cells Is Plasma Membrane Side Specific

We have demonstrated that sensitivity to NLPs is restricted to dicot plants and cannot be found in other plant families or in animal cells. Thus, the previously reported NLP stability of monocot membranes is not a peculiarity of these systems. These findings suggest a dicot-specific perception system or target for NLPs. As we failed to identify a proteinaceous plant NLP_{Pp} binding site by classical biochemical methods that have previously proved successful in identifying the PAMP binding site in other plant systems (Nürnberg et al., 2004), we addressed the question whether there were any specific requirements for recognition of NLPs. We could show that NLP perception was independent of the cell wall. Moreover, NLPs may not possess intrinsic ionophore activity that has previously been reported to activate individual plant defense responses (Jabs et al., 1997). Most importantly, NLP-induced cell death occurred only when the protein was targeted to the apoplastic side of dicot cells, indicating that there is plasma membrane side specificity. Despite that NLPs appear to possess a general affinity toward phospholipid bilayers, specific components that are unique to the apoplastic surface of dicot plasma membranes appear to provide a target for NLP. A prevailing theory is that PAMPs or endogenous elicitors are supposed to act through plasma membrane receptors (Gomez-Gomez and Boller, 2000; Nürnberg et al., 2004; Zipfel and Felix, 2005; Zipfel et al., 2006). In contrast with these signals that are selectively perceived by a limited number of plant species, NLPs are apparently recognized by all dicot plants. Thus, perception or target sites that are conserved among all dicots are likely to mediate NLP recognition. Such a wide activity/recognition spectrum is reminiscent of toxin action. It is thus conceivable that NLPs may bind to their virulence targets and subsequently activate a plant immune response.

Our understanding of PCD in plant cells is incomplete, but evidence to date indicates that there are multiple pathways and host cellular targets that may initiate this process. Host-selective toxins, such as the ToxA protein from *P. tritici-repentis* and the host nonselective, sphingoid-like natural product FB1 from *Fusarium moniliforme*, both appear to trigger defense responses and PCD but via different routes. ToxA must be internalized by the cell to activate PCD, while FB1 works on the outside by depleting extracellular ATP (Chivasa et al., 2005; Manning and Ciuffetti, 2005). Fusicoccin is a nonselective toxin that binds to a complex of the membrane H⁺-ATPase associated with a 14-3-3 protein (Wurtele et al., 2003), stimulates the membrane H⁺-ATPase, and causes stomatal opening and wilting but does not rapidly activate PCD. The host-selective peptide toxin victorin is known to bind to the P-protein component of the mitochondrial matrix-located Gly decarboxylase complex, but recently it has been demonstrated that the toxin interacts with a cell surface mediator and triggers defense responses and PCD well before binding to the P-protein (Wolpert et al., 2002; Tada et al., 2005). Proteinaceous toxins produced by *Alternaria* spp are

host selective and cause rapid necrosis and host cell death in susceptible plants (Quayyum et al., 2003; Oka et al., 2005). Overall, these chosen examples serve to illustrate the variety of known toxins and the apparent diversity in their mechanism of action and spectrum of activity. The phenomenon of toxin-induced innate immune responses is also known from animal cells. Multiple bacteria-derived proteinaceous toxins have been shown to target specific cell surface structures prior to exerting cytolytic activities (Parker and Feil, 2005). For example, the Cry family of *B. thuringiensis* insecticidal proteins requires membrane glycolipid receptors for toxin action (Griffiths et al., 2005). Importantly, toxin-induced MAPK pathways and large alterations in the host transcriptome precede PCD and are accounted for as toxin-induced defense (Huffman et al., 2004).

The examples are also useful for comparison. Reflecting on the effects of NLPs upon plant cells and their contribution to pathogen virulence, it is clear that these proteins can be considered toxins. This may be the most parsimonious interpretation of NLP activity, but it is a view that is likely to be incomplete on its own. Dual roles for molecules as both elicitors and toxins are well known in plant pathogens. The emergence of the so-called guard hypothesis to account for many gene-for-gene interactions (Chisholm et al., 2006) also belies earlier and simpler theories and provides a warning that parsimony in nature can follow unexpected paths.

Crucial for our understanding of NLPs is to learn more about the mechanism of action and mode of perception by the plant immune system. Evidence presented here, and in previous work, has demonstrated that NLPs have a natural affinity for lipid bilayers and that their activity and specificity do not require the presence of a cell wall. The necessity for signal peptides for activity of ectopically expressed NLPs is another important finding. Together, these results point to a target site-of-action on the outer surface of dicotyledonous plant cell plasma membranes. The identity of this target and the nature of its interaction with NLPs are outstanding questions. Other important aspects of NLP action on plants, such as the genetic determination of the cell death response as well as the elucidation of the precise virulence-associated function of these proteins, need to be addressed. Answers to these questions are necessary to clarify the role of NLPs in pathogen-host interactions and will lead to a better and more sophisticated understanding of toxin action in plants.

METHODS

All *Arabidopsis thaliana* materials used were in the Col-0 background if not otherwise indicated. *Arabidopsis* and tobacco plants (*Nicotiana tabacum* cv Samsun NN) were grown on soil (Fellbrich et al., 2002). Soybean seeds of *Glycine max* cv Harosoy (Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada) were planted in 10-cm pots containing soil-less mix (Pro-Mix BX; Premier Horticulture). Plants were grown for ~2 weeks in a controlled growth chamber with supplementary light to give a 16-h photoperiod with 22°C day and 20°C night temperatures. Sugar beet (*Beta vulgaris*) plants (genotype 6B2840; KWS SAAT) were grown as described (Schmidt et al., 2004). *Arabidopsis* Col-0 *nahG* (Syngenta), *coi1-1*, *ndr1-1*, *pad4-1*, *sgt1a*, *sgt1b*, Ler-0 *rar1-10* (Jane Parker and Paul Schulze-Lefert, MPIZ Köln, Germany), *ein2-1* (ABRC), *hsp90.1-1*, *hsp90.1-2*, *hsp90.2-5* (SALK collection), and *hsp90.2-3* (Jeff Dangl, Chapel Hill, NC) were obtained from

the sources indicated. Dark-grown cell cultures of parsley (*Petroselinum crispum*), *Arabidopsis* Ler-0, and maize (*Zea mays*) were maintained and protoplasts prepared thereof as described (Hart et al., 1993; Nürnberg et al., 1994; Dettmer et al., 2006). *Physcomitrella patens* cultures were grown in modified Knop medium containing 250 mg/L KH₂PO₄, 250 mg/L MgSO₄ × 7H₂O, 250 mg/L KCl, 1 g/L Ca(NO₃)₂ × 4H₂O, and 12.5 mg/L FeSO₄ × 7H₂O, pH 5.8 as liquid culture or on modified Knop medium solidified with 8 g/L agar. Cultures were grown in a light chamber (25°C, 70 μE m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity) in a 16-h-light/8-h-dark cycle. Human fibroblasts (line GM5756; Dodt et al., 1995) and COS-7 cells were grown as monolayers on Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 4.5 g/L glucose, 10% fetal calf serum, 1 mg/mL genitican, and 2 mM glutamine or on Quantum 333 medium (PAA Laboratories) at 37°C under a 5 to 8.5% CO₂ atmosphere. Sheep erythrocytes (Fiebig-Nährstofftechnik) and *Pichia pastoris* spheroplasts (Invitrogen) were prepared and stored according to the supplier's instructions. *Pseudomonas syringae* pv *tomato* strain DC3000/AvrRpm1 and *P. syringae* pv *phaseolicola* strains NPS4000 or NSP3121 were grown as described (del Pozo and Lam, 1998; Hubert et al., 2003).

Elicitor Preparation

Recombinant NLP_{Pp} or NLP_{Pya} were produced as described (Veit et al., 2001; Fellbrich et al., 2002). Recombinant NLP_{Ps} was produced in *Escherichia coli* strain BL21(DE3) transformed with pET28a-PsojNIP (Qutob et al., 2002). One hundred microliters of an overnight culture were transferred into Luria-Bertani medium containing 50 μg/mL kanamycin, grown at 37°C to an OD₆₀₀ = 0.5, supplemented with 1 mM isopropyl-D-thiogalactoside, and cultivated overnight at 37°C under constant agitation. Bacterial pellets were harvested by centrifugation (10,000g, 15 min, 4°C) and resuspended in Bugbuster protein extraction reagent (Novagen) at a final concentration of 0.2 g/mL. Suspensions supplemented with 25 units/mL Benzonase Nuclease (Novagen) were kept at room temperature for 20 min, and inclusion bodies (IBs) were recovered by centrifugation (16,000g, 15 min, 4°C). Lysozyme (200 μg/mL) was added to pellets redissolved in the same volume of extraction buffer for 5 min. After addition of 6 volumes of 1/10 diluted extraction buffer, IBs were harvested by centrifugation as before, washed repeatedly, and stored in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0. For solubilization and refolding, IBs were resuspended in extraction buffer supplemented with 1% SDS and kept at room temperature for 90 min. Supernatants collected by centrifugation (16,000g, 15 min, 4°C) were dialyzed at 15°C successively against 0.8%, 0.6%, 0.4%, 0.2%, and 0.1% SDS, and, finally, against 10 mM Tris, pH 8.0, and stored at 4°C prior to use. Protein concentrations were determined using Bradford reagent, and concentrated stock solutions were prepared. Heat inactivation of NLP was achieved by incubation at 95°C for 15 min. Recombinant HrpZ_{Psp} was prepared, and flg22 was chemically synthesized as described (Lee et al., 2001; Fellbrich et al., 2002). Purified β-megaspermin was a kind gift of Serge Kauffmann (Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique).

Arabidopsis Growth Inhibition Assays

Half-strength MS medium with 10 g/L sucrose was prepared, the pH was adjusted to 5.7, and agar was added to 0.8% (w/v). The medium was autoclaved and allowed to cool to 50°C. Aliquots were decanted into 50 mL conical tubes and mixed with recombinant NLP stock solutions (0.1 to 1.0 mL, previously filter sterilized). This medium was poured into square Petri dishes. Sterile filter paper strips (Whatman No. 1) were placed across the solid agar plates near one edge. Seeds were surface sterilized, suspended (2000 to 3000 seeds/mL) in half-strength MS medium with sucrose and 0.15% agar, and dispensed with a pipette onto the filter strips. The plates were propped up in a nearly vertical position with the filter

strips and seeds along the top edge, in a controlled environment (25°C, 70 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light intensity, 16-h-light/8-h-dark cycle).

Elicitation of Plant Defense Responses

NLPs dissolved in water were infiltrated abaxially into leaf tissue using needless 1-mL plastic syringes (Roth). Routinely, infiltrations were performed on 5-week-old *Arabidopsis* or 4-week-old tobacco plants. Leaves were harvested at indicated time points to monitor symptom development. Bacterial infection assays were performed as described (del Pozo and Lam, 1998; Hubert et al., 2003). NO synthesis in *Arabidopsis* cell suspensions and camalexin production in plants were quantified as described (Glawischnig et al., 2004; Zeidler et al., 2004). Samples were analyzed by reverse phase HPLC (LiChroCART 250-4, RP-18, 5 μm ; Merck) (1 mL·min⁻¹; methanol/H₂O [1:1] for 2 min, followed by a 10 min linear gradient to 100% methanol, followed by 3 min at 100% methanol). The peak at 10.6 min was identified as camalexin by comparison with authentic standard with respect to retention time and UV spectrum (photodiode array detector; Dionex) and quantified using a Shimadzu F-10AXL fluorescence detector (318-nm excitation; 370-nm emission) and by UV absorption at 318 nm. For MAPK activity assays, infiltrated plant material was harvested and used for total protein extraction in 25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.8, 75 mM NaCl, 15 mM EGTA, 15 mM glycero-phosphate, 15 mM 4-nitrophenylpyrophosphate, 10 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM NaF, 0.5 mM Na₃VO₄, 0.5 mM PMSF, 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ leupeptin, 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ aprotinin, and 0.1% Tween 20. Proteins were collected by centrifugation (23,000g, 10 min, 4°C), subjected to SDS-PAGE (20 μg protein/lane), and electrophoretically transferred (100 V, 1 h, 25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3, 0.192 M glycine, and 20% methanol) to nitrocellulose membranes (Porablot NCL; Macherey-Nagel). After blocking in 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20, and 5% dry milk (room temperature, 1 h), membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C with a 1:1000 dilution of Phospho-p44/42 MAP kinase antibody (Cell Signaling Technology) followed by an incubation with a 1:10,000 dilution of blotting grade affinity-purified goat-anti-rabbit IgG(H+L)-HRP conjugate (Bio-Rad). Immunodetection was performed using the ECL Plus chemiluminescence detection kit (GE Healthcare).

Plasmid Construction

To excise the signal peptide-encoding region from the NLP_{Pp}-coding sequence, a new translation start codon was introduced into the coding sequence of the NLP_{Pp} gene in pGEX-5x-NLP_{Pp} (Fellbrich et al., 2002). A 236-bp PCR product was amplified using primers 5'-GAAGGTCGTGG-GATCCCGCCATGGACGTG-3' and 5'-TGACTGCCGTATCCGGAGC-CCTTGCA-3'. *Bam*H-I/*Kpn*I-digested PCR fragments were ligated into pGEX-5x-NLP_{Pp} linearized with the same restrictionases yielding pGEX-ATG-NLP_{Pp}. A 662-bp *Xba*I-*Nco*I fragment from pGEX-ATG-NLP_{Pp} was fused to the 35S promoter-encoding sequence in pSH9 (Holtorf et al., 1995). The signal peptide-encoding sequence of the barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) α -amylase gene was amplified from pLys13 using the primers 5'-TACCGGGATCCCCCTCGAGGTGACGA-3' and 5'-TATGAATTG-GACGCCAACCCGGCGAGAAGC-3'. A 122-bp *Bam*H-I-*Eco*RI fragment of the PCR product was ligated into linearized pGEX-5x-NLP_{Pp}. A 734-bp *Xba*I-*Nco*I fragment of the resulting plasmid was fused to the 35S promoter-encoding sequence in pSH9 (Holtorf et al., 1995) (pGEX-SP-NLP_{Pp}). The identity of all constructs was confirmed by DNA sequencing.

Phylogenetic Analysis

Protein sequences deposited to GenBank were searched using the Conserved Domain Database to find matches to the NPP1 domain (pfam05630). This tool relies on the reverse position-specific BLAST algorithm to identify

conserved domains in protein sequences (Marchler-Bauer et al., 2005). A total of 65 protein sequence hits to the NPP1 domain were returned. After correction for redundancy, 44 protein sequences containing an NPP1 domain were identified. These nonredundant sequences were further analyzed for phylogenetic and molecular evolutionary relationships using computer software (MEGA version 3.1; Kumar et al., 2004). Sequences were aligned using ClustalW, and an unrooted phylogram was made using the neighbor-joining method. A bootstrap consensus tree was drawn with branch values from 1000 replicates.

Cell Viability Assays

Plant cell and protoplast viability assays ($5 \times 10^5/\text{mL}$) were performed as described (Veit et al., 2001; Fellbrich et al., 2002). Methods for the determination of *P. patens* viability (increase in culture dry weight over a 3-week growth period), spore germination rate, and differentiation are available at <http://www.plant-biotech.net/> under the topic Moss Methods. Sheep erythrocytes were centrifuged (600g, 5 min, room temperature), washed three times in TBS (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.2, and 140 mM NaCl), and resuspended at 1% (v/v) in TBS. NLP solutions were added to 1 mL erythrocytes (3×10^7) supplemented with or without 10 mM CaCl₂. Cells were smoothly agitated (37°C, 100 rpm), samples were collected after 1, 6, and 24 h, and cells harvested by centrifugation (600g, 10 min, room temperature). Hemoglobin release was monitored by quantifying absorbance of the supernatant at 542 nm. No hemolysis (blank) and full hemolysis controls comprised erythrocytes resuspended in TBS or in TBS and 0.5% SDS. Results are given as percentage of viable cells relative to the value of the blank control, set arbitrarily at 100%. *P. pastoris* spheroplasts were resuspended in CaS medium or CaSMd medium (Invitrogen) at a density of OD₆₀₀ = 1.0 (5×10^7 cells/mL). NLP solutions were added to 1 mL of spheroplasts, and suspensions were incubated at room temperature for 1 or 24 h. At these time points, 200 μL samples were subjected to quantification of absorbance at 600 nm. No lysis (blank) and full lysis controls comprised spheroplasts resuspended in CaS medium supplemented with 20 mM Tris HCl, pH 8.9, 1 mM GSH, 1 mM GSSG, and 1 mM EDTA or in CaS medium containing 10% SDS. Results are given as percentage of viable cells relative to the value of the blank control, set arbitrarily at 100%. For viability tests, fibroblast or COS-7 cells were separated from confluent growth plates by incubation in 0.05% trypsin/EDTA dissolved in Ca²⁺/Mg²⁺-free Hank's buffer (PAA Laboratories) and subsequently dissolved in fresh DMEM or Quantum 333 media. Fibroblasts ($6 \times 10^5/\text{mL}$) or COS-7 ($2 \times 10^5/\text{mL}$) were supplemented with NLP and kept for 28 h at 37°C under 5 to 8.5% CO₂ atmosphere. Prior to trypan blue viability staining, cells were trypsinized as before and counted as described (Dodd et al., 1995). The cell death index of intact *Arabidopsis* plants was determined on the basis of visual examination of lesion size 24 h after treatment (0, no lesions; 1, speckled lesions at inoculation sites; 2, confluent lesions at inoculation sites). Cell index values represent average numbers ($\pm \text{SD}$) obtained from 12 infiltrated leaves from each of two independent experiments.

Microarray Experiments

Microarray experiments performed on *Arabidopsis* Col-0 plants infiltrated with 1 μM NLP_{Pp} or 1 μM flg22 were part of the AtGenExpress Initiative (<http://www.arabidopsis.org/info/expression/AtGenExpress.jsp>). Details for plant cultivation, infiltration, RNA preparation, array design, and data sets can be found in the AtGenExpress section at The Arabidopsis Information Resource (http://www.arabidopsis.org/servlets/TairObject?type=expression_set&id=1008080727). Affymetrix ATH1 high-density oligonucleotide gene arrays were used for triplicate hybridizations of each biological sample. Global analysis of temporal gene expression was performed by subjecting the absolute expression values for scaling using

Affymetrix MAS5.0 software. Scaled mean values of expression were imported into Genespring software (version 7.2; Agilent Technologies) using a gcRMA (Schmid et al., 2005) plug-in normalization tool prior to data analysis. Means of three replicate values for each data set were analyzed for stimulus-induced differential gene expression. Data sets with expression levels below 50 were excluded from comparative analyses (noise level of expression cutoff). Genes were considered as up- or downregulated if their mean expression levels deviated more than twofold from that of the nonelicited control samples. Statistical significance of gene expression was tested using a one-way ANOVA test combined with a Benjamini and Hochberg false discovery rate multiple correction algorithm (Genespring 7.2) with an adjusted P value < 0.05 set as cutoff.

Biolistic Transformations

Detached soybean leaves were surface-sterilized (40 s in 20% sodium hypochloride containing a few drops of surfactant Tween 20 and 1 to 3 s in 70% ethanol, followed by three rinses in sterile distilled water) prior to aseptic transfer adaxial side down on solid (0.8% [w/v] agar) MS induction media, pH 5.8 (Gibco) containing 0.1 mg/L α -naphthalene acetic acid, 1.0 mg/L benzyladenine, 100 mL B5 media, 750 mg/L CaCl₂, and 30 g/L sucrose. Two-week-old *Arabidopsis* Col-0 seedlings were transferred to fill a 3-cm-diameter circle at the center of a 60-mm Petri plate overlaid with a sheet of filter paper (Whatman No. 1) premoistened with 1.0 mL sterile water. All tissue samples were preincubated at 25°C, under fluorescent light (4000 lx), 24 h prior to biolistic transformation. Conditions for microprojectile transformation of leaves were as previously described, using expression vector pFF19 containing the GUS reporter gene (Qutob et al., 2002). Bombardments were performed with at least three independent DNA preparations with three sequential replica shots per DNA preparation. Histochemical localization of GUS expression was assayed as described (Qutob et al., 2002) with the modification that, following overnight incubation at 37°C, chlorophyll was cleared from leaf tissue with several washes in 70% (v/v) ethanol prior to examination by light microscopy. Biolistic transient expression assays with sugar beet leaves and luciferase activity measurements were performed as described (Schmidt et al., 2004) using the Bluescript derivate d35S:luc encoding the *Renilla reniformis* luciferase gene fused to a 35S promoter as a reporter for gene expression. Bombardments were performed with two independent DNA preparations with six sequential replica shots per DNA preparation.

Biochemical and Cell Physiological Assays

Phospholipid binding assays using lipid-coated silica beads (TRANSIL; Nimbus Biotechnology) were performed as described (Lee et al., 2001). Liposomes filled with the cation-sensitive fluorescent dye Sodium Green (Invitrogen) were obtained from Novosom. Ion pore formation experiments and patch-clamp analyses using *Xenopus laevis* oocytes were performed as described (Racape et al., 2005).

Supplemental Data

The following materials are available in the online version of this article.

Supplemental Figure 1. Alignment of 44 Different NLP Protein Sequences Using ClustalW.

Supplemental Figure 2. Taxonomic Distribution Pattern of NLP Sequences in Prokaryotes and Eukaryotes.

Supplemental Figure 3. NLP-Induced PCD Requires Delivery to and Recognition at the Extracytoplasmic Side of Dicotyledonous Plant Cells.

Supplemental Table 1. List of Genes That Are Significantly Induced upon NLP_{Pp} Treatment (1 h).

Supplemental Table 2. List of Genes That Are Significantly Induced upon NLP_{Pp} Treatment (4 h).

Supplemental Table 3. List of Genes That Are Significantly Induced upon flg22 Treatment (1 h).

Supplemental Table 4. List of Genes That Are Significantly Induced upon flg22 Treatment (4 h).

Supplemental Table 5. List of Genes That Are Coordinately and Significantly Induced upon Both NLP_{Pp} and flg22 Treatment (1 and 4 h).

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Bacteria-derived Peptidoglycans Constitute Pathogen-associated Molecular Patterns Triggering Innate Immunity in *Arabidopsis**[§]

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Pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP)-triggered immunity constitutes the primary plant immune response that has evolved to recognize invariant structures of microbial surfaces. Here we show that Gram-positive bacteria-derived peptidoglycan (PGN) constitutes a novel PAMP of immune responses in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Treatment with PGN from *Staphylococcus aureus* results in the activation of plant responses, such as medium alkalinization, elevation of cytoplasmic calcium concentrations, nitric oxide, and camalexin production and the post-translational induction of MAPK activities. Microarray analysis performed with RNA prepared from PGN-treated *Arabidopsis* leaves revealed enhanced transcript levels for 236 genes, many of which are also altered upon administration of flagellin. Comparison of cellular responses after treatment with bacteria-derived PGN and structurally related fungal chitin indicated that both PAMPs are perceived via different perception systems. PGN-mediated immune stimulation in *Arabidopsis* is based upon recognition of the PGN sugar backbone, while muramyl dipeptide, which is inactive in this plant, triggers immunity-associated responses in animals. PGN adds to the list of PAMPs that induce innate immune programs in both plants and animals. However, we propose that PGN perception systems arose independently in both lineages and are the result of convergent evolution.

The innate immune system is a host defense mechanism that is evolutionarily conserved from insects to human and is mainly involved in the recognition and control of the early stage of infection in all animals (1). Over the last decade, it has become increasingly evident that also plants have acquired the ability to recognize “non self” via sensitive perception systems for components of microorganisms called pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs)² (2–4). As classically defined,

PAMPs are highly characteristic of potentially infectious microbes, but are not present in the host. In addition, such patterns are often vital for microbial survival and are therefore not subject to mutational variation. PAMPs that trigger innate immune responses in various vertebrate and non-vertebrate organisms include lipopolysaccharides (LPS) from Gram-negative bacteria, eubacterial flagellin, viral, and bacterial nucleic acids, fungal cell wall-derived glucans, chitins, mannans, or proteins and peptidoglycans (PGN) from Gram-positive bacteria (5–8).

Peptidoglycan (PGN) is an essential and unique component of the bacterial envelope that provides rigidity and structure to the bacterial cell. Virtually all bacteria contain a layer of PGN, but the amount, location, and specific composition vary. PGN is a polymer of alternating *N*-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) and *N*-acetyl-muramic acid (MurNAc) residues in β -1–4 linkage which are cross-linked by short peptides (9, 10). The glycan chains display little variation among different bacterial species while the peptide subunit and the interpeptide bridge reveal species specific differences. PGN from *Staphylococcus aureus* belongs to the L-lysine (Lys)-type, which is primarily found in Gram-positive bacteria whereas meso-diaminopimelate (Dap)-type PGN is typical for many Gram-negative bacteria.

As PGNs are located on most bacterial surfaces they constitute excellent targets for recognition by the innate immune system. Indeed, PGN is known for a long time to promote an innate immune response in vertebrates and insects (11–13), and a breakdown product of PGN, muramyl dipeptide (MurNAc-L-Ala-D-Glu; MDP) was found to be the minimal chemical structure required for PAMP activity in mammals (14). PGN is perceived in animals via various pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), including scavenger receptors, nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain-containing proteins (NODs), a family of peptidoglycan recognition proteins (PGRPs), PGN-lytic enzymes and Toll-like receptor TLR2 (15–19).

Remarkable similarities have been uncovered in the molecular mode of PAMP perception in animals and plants (2, 20, 21). Perception of flagellin in *Arabidopsis* was shown to be depend-

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‡ The abbreviations used are: PAMP, pathogen-associated molecular pattern; EFR, EF-Tu receptor; Flg22, 22 amino acid fragment of flagellin; FLS2, flagellin-sensing 2; GUS, β -glucuronidase; LPS, lipopolysaccharides; LRR,

leucine-rich repeat; MAPK/MPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MDP, muramyl dipeptide; NLP_{PP}, Nep1 (necrosis and ethylene-inducing peptide 1)-like protein; NOD, nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain; PGN, peptidoglycan; PR-1, pathogenesis-related 1; RLK, receptor-like kinase; TLR, toll-like receptor; MBP, myelin basic protein.

ent on FLS2, a plasma membrane-located receptor-like kinase protein with extracellular leucine-rich repeats (LRR-RLKs) (22). The extracytoplasmic LRR-domain of FLS2 thereby resembles the structure of the extracytoplasmic domain of human TLR5, which also recognizes bacterial flagellin as a PAMP (23). Generally, transmembrane LRR proteins appear to be a common element in PAMP perception in animal and plant systems. In mammals, 11 TLRs have been identified so far and a second plant LRR-RLK, EFR, was described to recognize the bacterial elongation factor Tu (EF-Tu) (24, 25). Interestingly, the LRR-containing cytoplasmic PGN receptors NOD1 and NOD2 in mammals (26) are structurally similar to the cytoplasmic LRR-containing pathogen resistance proteins in plants that mediate plant cultivar-specific, effector-triggered immunity (ETI) (2, 4).

Here we present evidence that PGNs mediate the activation of innate defense responses in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* in addition to their well established role as a PAMP in vertebrates and insects. Treatment with PGN from the phytopathogenic Gram-positive bacterium *S. aureus* (27) results in the activation of plant defense responses such as medium alkalization, elevation of cytoplasmic calcium concentrations, NO production, the activation of MAPKs, the accumulation of camalexin and the induction of various defense-related genes. Interestingly, even though a comparison of the defense responses triggered by PGN and the structurally closely related glycan chitin showed a strong overlap, our results indicate that PGN and chitin engage different perception systems. Moreover, we identify the PGN glycan backbone as the PAMP-active part in PGN. This is in contrast to mammals in which MDP was shown to be the minimal structural requirement for PAMP activity (14).

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials—Flg22 peptide and hydrolyzed chitin fragments were described previously (25). MDP, muramic acid, the pentapeptide Ala-D- γ -Glu-Lys-D-Ala-D-Ala, lipoteichoic acid from *S. aureus*, PGN from *Bacillus subtilis* and *Streptomyces* ssp. and LPS from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Escherichia coli* were obtained from Sigma and dissolved in water at a concentration of 10 mg/ml. PGN from *E. coli* was purchased from InvivoGen (San Diego, CA). LPS from *Burkholderia cepacia* was prepared as described (28). The lipopeptides Pam₃Cys, Pam₂Cys, and PamCys were a kind gift from emc microcollections (Tübingen, Germany).

Plant Growth Conditions—*PR-1:GUS* transgenic (29), pMAQ2 aequorin-transgenic (30, 31), or wild type *A. thaliana* Columbia-0 (Col-0) plants were grown on soil for 5–6 weeks as described (32). Dark grown cell cultures of *Arabidopsis* Ler were maintained as described (33) and were used for experiments 5–6 days after subculture.

Peptidoglycan Preparation—PGN from *S. aureus* SA113 (ATCC 35556) and sortase deletion mutant (SA113 Δ srtA)³ was purified as described earlier (34, 35). Briefly, cells from stationary phase cultures were harvested by centrifugation at 3,000 \times g for 30 min, boiled with 5% SDS for 30 min and broken with

glass beads. Insoluble polymeric PGN was harvested by centrifugation at 30,000 \times g for 30 min and washed several times with lukewarm water to remove SDS. Broken cell walls were suspended in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.2, and treated with 10 μ g/ml DNase and 50 μ g/ml RNase A for 2 h and subsequently with 100 μ g/ml trypsin for 16 h at 37 °C. To remove wall teichoic acid, the PGN preparations were incubated with 48% hydrofluoric acid (HFA) for 48 h at 4 °C. PGN was harvested by centrifugation at 30,000 \times g for 30 min and washed several times with water for complete removal of HFA. Further treatment of PGN included 8 M LiCl, 100 mM EDTA and acetone to remove residual protein and LPS contamination. PGN was finally washed several times with water and lyophilized. HPLC and mass spectrometry analysis of soluble PGN was carried out as described (34), with following modifications. Purified PGN (1 mg/ml) was suspended in 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 6.8, and digested with mutanolysin (50 μ g/ml), lysostaphin (10 μ g/ml), or both for 16 h at 37 °C. Digestion was terminated by boiling the samples at 90 °C for 10 min followed by centrifugation. Desalting of soluble muropeptides was performed by reverse phase HPLC using a ReproSil-Pur ODS-3 column (5 μ m; 250 \times 20 mm; Dr. Maisch). Muropeptides were eluted in a step gradient at a flow rate of 10 ml/min starting from water for 10 min to 100% methanol for the next 20 min. Muropeptides were detected at 210 nm. PGN peaks were collected and concentrated in a rotary evaporator to remove excess methanol. Finally, PGN preparations were lyophilized and stored at –20 °C.

Histochemical GUS Detection—For the histochemical detection of β -glucuronidase (GUS) enzyme activity whole leaves of *PR-1:GUS* transgenic *Arabidopsis* (29) were placed in 1 ml of 50 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7, 0.5 mM potassium ferrocyanide, 0.5 mM potassium ferricyanide, 10 mM EDTA, pH 8, 0.1% Triton X-100, and 0.5 mg/ml 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl- β -D-glucuronide (X-gluc, X-Gluc-DIRECT). After vacuum infiltration, the leaves were incubated at 37 °C overnight, and chlorophyll was subsequently removed by several washings in 70% ethanol.

Medium Alkalization, NO, and Camalexin Detection—Medium alkalization in *A. thaliana* Ler cell suspensions was measured in 2-ml aliquots as described (25). Nitric oxide synthesis in cell cultures was analyzed as described (36). Camalexin production in plants was quantified by reverse phase HPLC (LiChroCART 250–4, RP-18, 5 μ m, Merck; 1 ml/min; MeOH/H₂O (1:1) for 2 min, followed by a 10 min linear gradient to 100% MeOH, followed by 3 min 100% MeOH) (37). The peak at 12 min was identified as camalexin by comparison with an authentic standard with respect to retention time and UV spectrum (photodiode array detector, Dionex) and quantified using a Shimadzu F-10AXL fluorescence detector (318 nm excitation, 370 nm emission) and by UV absorption at 318 nm.

Calcium Measurements—Cytosolic calcium concentrations were measured by calcium-induced aequorin luminescence using transgenic *Arabidopsis* pMAQ2 plants expressing cytosolic apoaequorin under the control of the CaMV 35S promoter (30, 31). Mature leaves of 5-week-old plants were cut into 1-mm strips and floated on 100 μ l of water supplemented with 10 μ M coelenterazine (native coelenterazine, 5 mM stock in methanol,

³ G. Thumm and F. Götz, unpublished data.

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Invitrogen) in a 96-well plate (4 strips/well, $n > 3$). For aequorin reconstitution plates were incubated in the dark for at least 4 h. Luminescence was measured in a Luminoskan Ascent 2.1 luminometer (Labsystems) and recorded in integration intervals of 10 s. After 60 s recording, PAMPs were applied by addition of 50 μ l of a 3-fold concentrated solution in water and measurements continued for the indicated time. Controls were performed by addition of an equal volume of water. Remaining aequorin was discharged by automatic injection of 1 volume of 2 M CaCl_2 /20% ethanol and luminescence was recorded for another 8–10 min until values were within 1% of the highest discharge value. Relative luminescence values were calculated and converted into actual Ca^{2+} concentrations as described (38).

MAPK Activity Assay—After elicitor treatment, leaves were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and MAP kinase activity was determined by in-gel kinase assays using myelin basic protein (MBP, Sigma) as substrate as described previously (39).

RNA Isolation and Reverse Transcription-PCR—Total RNA from leaves was isolated using the Tri Reagent method according to the manufacturer's recommendations (Sigma). First-strand cDNA was synthesized from 1 μg of total RNA using RevertAidTM M-MuLV Reverse Transcriptase (Fermentas). RT-PCR was performed as described previously (40) using gene-specific primers (supplemental Table S1). Except for *EF1a*, which was amplified with 25 PCR cycles, all other PCRs were performed with 30 cycles.

Microarray Experiments—Microarray experiments were performed on *A. thaliana* Col-0 plants infiltrated with 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ PGN or water as a control. Affymetrix ATH1 high density oligonucleotide gene arrays were used for triplicate hybridizations of each biological sample. Global analysis of temporal gene expression was performed by subjecting the absolute expression values for scaling using the Affymetrix MAS5.0 software. Scaled mean values of expression were imported into Genespring software (version 7.2, Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany) using a gcRMA (41) plug-in normalization tool prior to data analysis. Means of three replicate values for each data set were analyzed for stimulus-induced differential gene expression. Data sets with expression levels below 50 were excluded from comparative analyses (noise level of expression cut-off). Genes were considered as up- or down-regulated if their mean expression levels deviated more than 2-fold from that of the non-elicited control samples.

RESULTS

Staphylococcal PGN Acts as a PAMP in *Arabidopsis*—Despite the well established role of PGN as a PAMP in animal innate immunity, surprisingly little is known about PGN perception in plants. We thus inquired about the ability of plants to recognize and respond to PGN from the Gram-positive bacterium *S. aureus*, that is found as root-associated bacterium in the rhizosphere of many plants and was recently shown to be pathogenic on *A. thaliana* (27, 42, 43). A typical and well characterized plant response to pathogen infection or treatment with PAMPs is the induction of genes encoding pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins (44), such as PR-1. To facilitate the detection of gene induction, we used a transgenic *PR-1:GUS* reporter line,

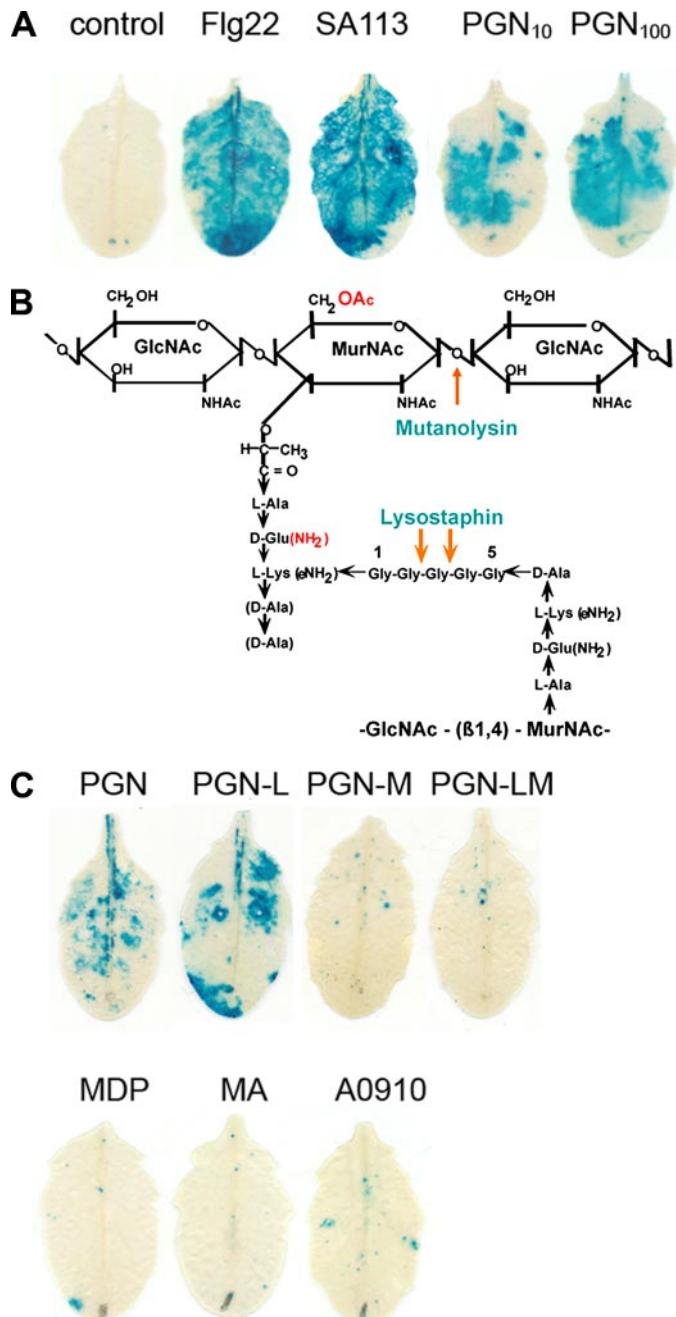


FIGURE 1. *S. aureus* PGN is perceived in *A. thaliana* plants. *A*, leaves from 5-week-old *PR1:GUS* transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants were infiltrated with 1 μM Flg22, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ heat-killed *S. aureus* SA113 cells, 10 or 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ PGN or water as a control and stained for GUS activity after 24 h. *B*, structure of *S. aureus* PGN, highlighting differences to PGNs from other Gram-positive bacteria (red) and cleavage sites for the enzymes mutanolysin and lysostaphin. *C*, leaves were treated with 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of undigested PGN, lysostaphin-digested PGN (PGN-L), mutanolysin-digested PGN (PGN-M), double-digested PGN (PGN-LM), muramyl dipeptide (MDP), muramic acid (MA), or the pentapeptide Ala-D- γ -Glu-Lys-D-Ala-D-Ala (A0910) as described in *A*.

in which the *PR-1* promoter is fused to the β -glucuronidase gene from *E. coli* (29, 45). As shown in Fig. 1*A*, treatment with heat-killed *S. aureus* cells or purified PGN resulted in a strong *PR-1:GUS* expression, similar to that observed with the elicitor-active 22 amino acid fragment from bacterial flagellin (Flg22) (46). We have consistently found *PR-1* gene expression with all PGN preparations tested. Quantitative differences in *PR-1* gene

PGN perception in vertebrates in which already MDP displays strong immunogenic activity (14).

PGN Triggers Early Plant Immune Responses—Medium alkalization, occurring as a consequence of altered ion fluxes across the plasma membrane, is one of the earliest marker responses observed in elicitor-treated plant cells (47). In tobacco cells, addition of lyophilized *Micrococcus lysodeikticus* cells as well as *M. lysodeikticus* PGN induced a strong and rapid increase in extracellular pH (48). Here, we compared PGN-induced changes in extracellular pH in *Arabidopsis* cell suspension cultures with that induced by Flg22 (Fig. 2A). Flg22 treatment resulted in a rapid but transient increase in extracellular pH, reaching a maximum at about 30–40 min. In comparison, PGN induced a somewhat slower but more persistent increase in extracellular pH starting after a lag phase of about 15 min. Similar responses were obtained with commercially available PGN from the Gram-positive bacteria *B. subtilis* and *Streptomyces* ssp. (supplemental Fig. S1) and the Gram-negative bacterium *E. coli* (supplemental Fig. S2). Medium alkalization was dose-dependent with saturating concentrations of 100–200 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ PGN (Fig. 2B). As a concentration of 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ PGN triggered nearly maximal responses in medium alkalinization assays (see also Fig. 5D) all further experiments were conducted with this PGN concentration.

Post-translational activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) activity is commonly associated with plant immunity (49). PGN or Flg22 were infiltrated into *Arabidopsis* leaves, and MAPK activity was subsequently analyzed in an in-gel kinase assay using MBP as artificial substrate. As shown in Fig. 2C, hypoosmotic stress because of water infiltration in the control samples caused a rapid, but transient activation of two MAPK species of 44 and 46 kDa, respectively. However, PGN treatment resulted in a much stronger response, which closely resembled that obtained with Flg22, most likely representing activation of MPK3 and MPK6 (50). Another hallmark of immune responses in animals and plants is the production of nitric oxide (NO) (36). Treatment of *Arabidopsis* cells with Flg22 or PGN resulted in a significant increase in NO production within 30 min (Fig. 2D). Calcium is a key second messenger in signal transduction pathways to external stimuli in various organisms (51, 52). We used *Arabidopsis* plants expressing cytoplasmic aequorin (31) to monitor changes of cytoplasmic

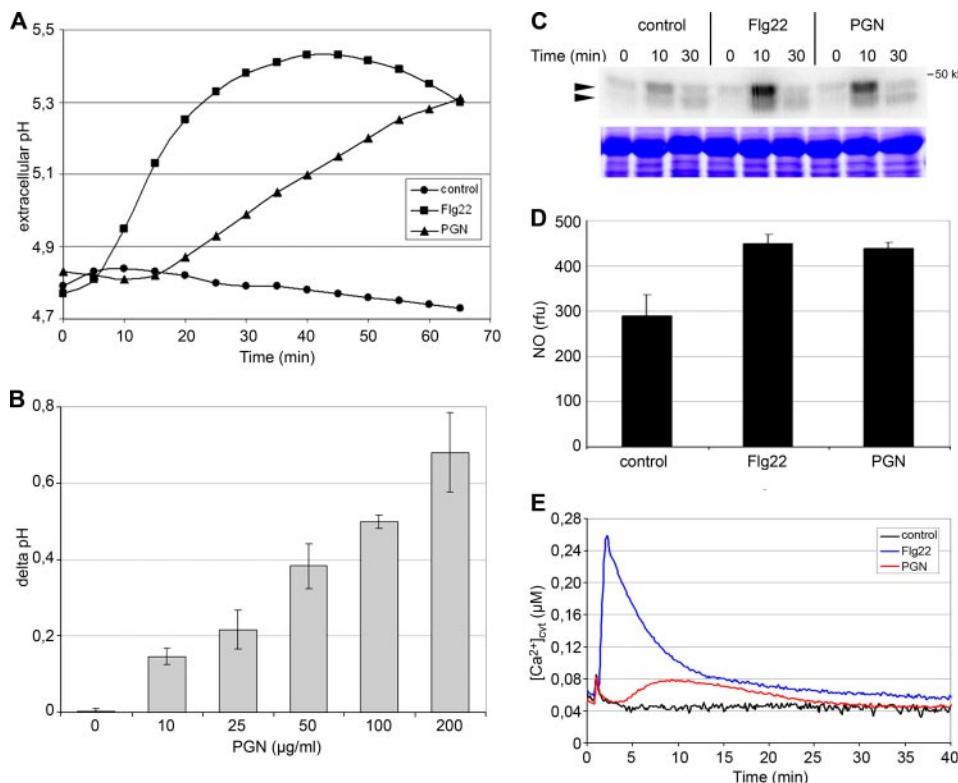


FIGURE 2. PGN triggers early defense responses. *A*, extracellular pH was monitored over a time course in 6-day-old *A. thaliana* Ler cell suspension cultures treated with 100 nm Flg22 (squares), 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ purified and undigested PGN (triangles) or water as a control (circles). *B*, cell cultures were treated with the indicated PGN concentrations and the extracellular pH was measured at 0 and 60 min to obtain the delta pH. *C*, leaves of 5-week-old *Arabidopsis* plants were infiltrated with 1 μM Flg22, 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ PGN or water as a control. At indicated times, leaves were harvested, and MAP kinase activity was analyzed using an in-gel kinase assay with myelin basic protein as a substrate (*upper panel*). The positions of MAPK activities are indicated by arrowheads. Equal protein loading was confirmed by staining a duplicate gel with Coomassie Brilliant Blue (*lower panel*). *D*, cell cultures were treated with 1 μM Flg22, 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ PGN, or water (control), and NO production was measured as described under “Experimental Procedures.” NO production is given as relative fluorescence units. *E*, leaves of 5-week-old aequorin-transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants were cut into strips and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ was measured in a luminometer after addition of 1 μM Flg22, 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ PGN, or water as a control described under “Experimental Procedures.”

expression have only been observed upon infiltration into leaves of different PGN preparations, but not in assays using cultured cells (see below). Thus, these differences are most likely due to variations in the applicability of PGN into different biological samples. We next wanted to investigate which part of PGN is responsible for the induction of *PR-1:GUS*. Purified PGN was digested with either lysostaphin, an enzyme that specifically cleaves pentaglycin interpeptide bridges in staphylococcal PGN, or with mutanolysin, which hydrolyzes glycosidic linkages between disaccharide units of PGN (Fig. 1B). After HPLC purification, soluble muropeptides were infiltrated into *Arabidopsis* leaves, and GUS activity was detected after 24 h. Whereas lysostaphin-digested PGN was able to trigger *PR-1:GUS* expression, no induction was observed with mutanolysin- or mutanolysin/lysostaphin-digested PGN (Fig. 1C). Furthermore, treatment with smaller synthetic PGN components such as MDP, muramic acid or the pentapeptide Alan-D- γ -Glu-Lys-D-Ala-D-Ala did not result in any *PR-1:GUS* induction. Taken together, these results indicate that not the protein part of PGN is perceived by *Arabidopsis*. Rather, sugar chains longer than the disaccharide are recognized, which is in contrast to

100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ PGN triggered nearly maximal responses in medium alkalinization assays (see also Fig. 5D) all further experiments were conducted with this PGN concentration.

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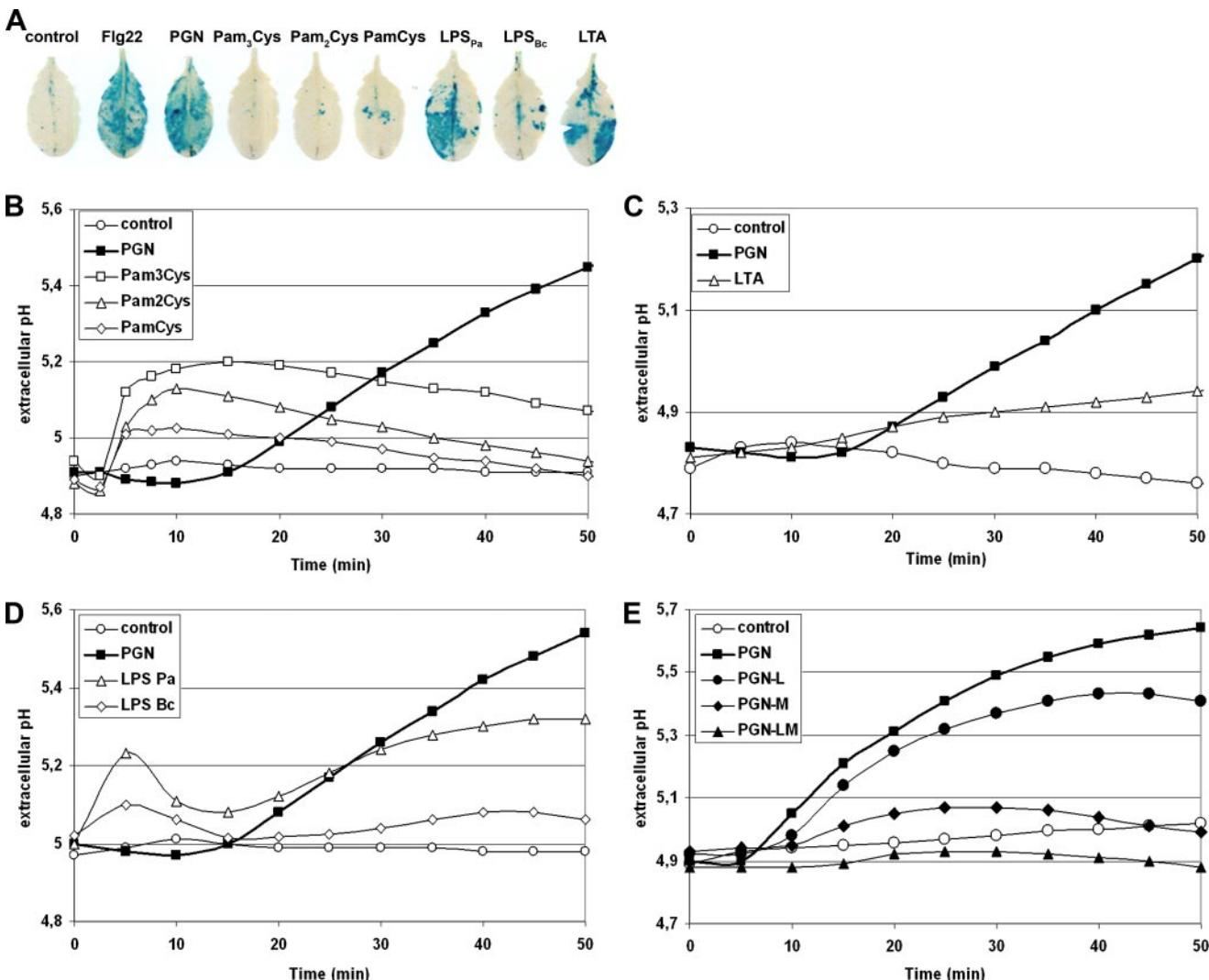


FIGURE 3. PGN elicitation differs from perception of other bacterial cell wall components. *A*, *PR-1:GUS* transgenic *Arabidopsis* leaves were infiltrated with water as control, 1 μ M Flg22, or each 100 μ g/ml purified PGN, the lipopeptides Pam₃Cys, Pam₂Cys, or PamCys, lipopolysaccharides from *P. aeruginosa* (LPS_{Pa}) or *B. cepacea* (LPS_{Bc}) and lipoteichoic acid (LTA) and stained for GUS activity after 24 h. *B–D*, extracellular pH in *Arabidopsis* cell cultures treated with each 100 μ g/ml of lipopeptides (*B*), lipopolysaccharides (*C*), or lipoteichoic acid (*D*). *E*, *Arabidopsis* cell cultures were treated with each 100 μ g/ml of undigested PGN, staphylococcal nuclease-digested PGN (PGN-L), mutanolysin-digested PGN (PGN-M), or double-digested PGN (PGN-LM), and extracellular pH was measured over a time course. All experiments were repeated once with similar results.

Ca^{2+} levels *in vivo* after PAMP treatment. Luminometry of *Arabidopsis* leaf strips treated with Flg22 revealed a strong and rapid increase in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ starting after a 30–40 s lag phase and peaking after ~2–3 min, which was followed by a plateau phase of elevated $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ (Fig. 2*E*). Likewise, PGN treatment also resulted in a significant elevation of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$; however, as observed for medium alkalinization, increase of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ occurred more slowly, reaching almost the same $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ as the flg22-induced plateau phase at about 10 min before a gradual decrease to basal levels (Fig. 2*E*).

As undigested PGN is a very complex molecule, we wanted to rule out that cell wall components tightly associated with PGN act as PAMPs in addition to or instead of PGN. For example, lipopeptides and lipoteichoic acid are ligands for TLR-mediated immunity in animals (6). Lipoteichoic acid, LPS and highly abundant proteins such as flagellin or EF-Tu have also been shown to trigger immune responses in *Arabidopsis* (25, 36, 53). We therefore tested the synthetic lipopeptide analogs

Pam₃Cys, Pam₂Cys, and PamCys (54), LPS preparations from *P. aeruginosa* and *B. cepacea* and lipoteichoic acid from *S. aureus* in medium alkalinization assays. All tested compounds induced a weak pH shift in *Arabidopsis* cell cultures but with completely different kinetics to that observed with PGN (Fig. 3, *B–D*). Moreover, the lipopeptides Pam₃Cys, Pam₂Cys, and PamCys did not trigger *PR-1:GUS* reporter gene expression (Fig. 3*A*). Furthermore, no protein or LPS contamination was detected in PGN preparations using SDS-PAGE followed by silver staining, and proteinase K-digested PGN still induced *PR-1:GUS* expression (data not shown). In addition, PGN preparations from the *S. aureus* sortase mutant $\Delta srtA$ still induced *PR-1* expression (data not shown). These mutant bacteria are defective in covalently tethering surface proteins to PGN (55), indicating that *PR-1:GUS* induction was not due to contaminations of PGN preparations with PGN-associated proteins. To rule out that the PGN-induced pH shift was merely a consequence of mechanical stimulation due to the insolubility of

PGN, we also treated cells with a suspension of ground glass pasteur pipettes. This treatment, however, did not induce any medium alkalinization (data not shown). Furthermore, we measured medium alkalinization after treatment of cell cultures with HPLC-purified lysostaphin-, mutanolysin- or mutanolysin/lysostaphin-digested PGN. Similar to the PR-1:GUS assay (Fig. 1C), only lysostaphin-digested PGN displayed strong PAMP activity while only a marginal pH shift was induced with mutanolysin- or mutanolysin/lysostaphin-digested PGN (Fig. 3E). However, as the response to lysostaphin-digested PGN was somewhat weaker than to undigested PGN, it seems that the sugar backbone accounts for the majority, but not necessarily all, of the PAMP-activity. Altogether, these data indicate that PGN and not putative proteinaceous or other contaminants such as lipopeptides are responsible for the induction of the observed cellular responses.

Inducible *PR-1:GUS* expression (Fig. 1B) suggested that PGN treatment may have an impact on plant gene expression patterns. To get a comprehensive overview on PGN-induced changes in the *Arabidopsis* transcriptome we performed microarray analyses using plant material harvested 4 h after either PGN or water treatment. For comparative analysis, microarray data for the 4-h time point after Flg22 treatment were obtained from *AtGenExpress* experiments (56). For each treatment *versus* control condition, genes with an altered expression were assigned based on a one-way analysis of variance test combined with a Benjamini and Hochberg false discovery rate algorithm (cutoff of 0.05). Of the ~23,750 expressed genes represented on the Affymetrix ATH1 full genome array (57), expression of 236 genes (1%) was found to be induced more than 2-fold after PGN treatment (supplemental Table S2). Intriguingly, we observed a strong overlap of genes with altered expression when comparing PGN and Flg22 treatment (Table 1 and Fig. 4). Gene induction for randomly chosen genes was confirmed by RT-PCR analysis and all tested PGN-induced genes showed a similar expression profile after Flg22 treatment (Fig. 4).

A detailed analysis of PGN-induced genes (Table 1 and supplemental Table S2) revealed a considerable number of up-regulated genes that can be classified as being involved in signal perception, such as receptor-like kinases (18 genes) or disease resistance-like proteins (5 genes), and signal transduction, such as protein kinases (17 genes) and phosphatases (1 gene). Moreover, genes coding for typical defense-related proteins were responsive to both PGN and Flg22 treatment including chitinases (5 genes), protease inhibitors (5 genes), peroxidases (1 gene), phenylalanine ammonia lyase 1 (PAL1), and a HIN1-family protein. We also found numerous up-regulated genes with a putative function in protein degradation (U-box or F-box-domain-containing proteins, 5 genes) and transcriptional regulation (WRKY transcription factors, AP2 domain-containing transcription factors, 16 genes).

PGN Induces Phytoalexin Production without Causing Cell Death—While medium alkalinization, NO production, and MAPK activation are early responses observed after various PAMP treatments, the production of the antimicrobial phytoalexin camalexin (58) occurs at later stages and was shown to be induced after infection with *P. syringae* (59) or upon treatment

with the necrotizing *phytophthora parasitica* toxin NLP_{PP} (56) and heat-killed yeast cells (60). No significant increase in camalexin levels could be detected in *Arabidopsis* leaves after Flg22 treatment. However, both PGN and NLP_{PP} triggered a strong production of this phytoalexin, reaching up to 155 µg/g dry weight after 4 days of PGN treatment (Fig. 5B). In contrast to NLP_{PP}, which triggers cell death (32, 56), infiltration of PGN and Flg22 did not result in any macroscopic tissue damage for up to 5 days (Fig. 5A and data not shown).

PGN and Chitin Do Not Engage the Same Perception System—Elicitor activity of PGN depends on an intact glycan backbone (Figs. 1C and 3E), which consists of alternating N-acetylglucosamine and N-acetylmuramic acid residues. This carbohydrate backbone resembles the unbranched β-1-4-linked N-acetyl-glucosamine chains of chitin. Chitin is a major component of fungal cell walls and has been shown to act as PAMP in many plant species. In *Arabidopsis*, chitin was shown to induce typical PAMP responses such as the activation of MAPK cascades (61) and alterations in protein phosphorylation (62) or gene transcription (63, 64). We compared both elicitors with respect to *PR-1* expression by using both the *PR-1:GUS* reporter line and RT-PCR analysis, but we could not observe any chitin-induced *PR-1* expression in concentrations up to 100 µg/ml (Fig. 6, A and B). Interestingly, chitin strongly induced a transient expression of *At2g39530* and *At1g51850*, whereas inducible gene expression after PGN and Flg22 treatment was prolonged and still detectable after 24 h. Furthermore, we measured medium alkalinization after PGN or chitin treatment. As shown in Fig. 6C, chitin induced a very rapid and transient pH shift similar to that observed after Flg22 addition (Fig. 2A), but clearly distinguishable from the delayed and prolonged response triggered by PGN. The difference in PGN and chitin induced defense responses suggested that both elicitors were recognized by different perception systems. To corroborate this finding, we investigated whether chitin and PGN are perceived by different perception systems using the alkalinization assay. *Arabidopsis* cell cultures treated for 70 min with 100 µg/ml PGN did not show a significant further increase in extracellular pH when treated with a second dose of 1 mg/ml PGN, indicating saturation of these cells for PGN. However, these cells still responded to subsequent treatment with 100 µg/ml chitin, strongly suggesting that PGN and chitin are perceived via different receptors.

DISCUSSION

PGN from both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria is highly immunogenic in mammals and *Drosophila* (17). Although Gram-positive bacteria have so far not been regarded as important plant pathogens, members of the species *Streptomyces* are known for a long time to cause economically important diseases such as potato scab (65). *Streptomyces* spp. are not host specific and can also infect *Arabidopsis* (66). Similarly, Gram-positive *S. aureus* causes typical bacterial disease symptoms in *in vitro* and soil-grown *Arabidopsis* plants such as water-soaked lesions and chlorosis eventually leading to plant death both upon leaf and root inoculation (27). Here we show that *Arabidopsis* is able to respond to PGN as a PAMP from both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. Typical plant immunity-associated responses were triggered such as medium alkalinization, increase in [Ca²⁺]_{cyt}, NO production, camalexin

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TABLE 1
PGN or Flg22-induced genes with known or putative roles in plant innate immune responses

Average relative values from three independent experiments of PGN and Flg22-treated samples were compared to water control samples and adjusted *p* values derived from one-way analysis of variance combined with a Benjamini and Hochberg false discovery rate calculation are given. *p* values greater than the threshold of 0.05 are indicated by >0.05.

AGI number	Gene description	Name	PGN		Flg22	
			Fold change	<i>p</i> value	Fold change	<i>p</i> value
			4 h		4 h	
RLKs						
AT1G07390	Leucine-rich repeat family protein		2.4	0.017	2.8	0.039
AT1G09970	Leucine-rich repeat transmembrane protein kinase		2.6	0.009	3.7	0.022
AT1G51790	Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase		3.3	0.009	14	0.011
AT1G51800	Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase		6.8	0.007	60.3	0.023
AT1G51820	Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase		8.8	0.011	83.9	>0.05
AT1G51850	Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase		15.5	0.007	260	>0.05 ^a
AT1G51890	Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase		5.6	0.011	64.2	>0.05
AT1G53430	Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase		2.1	0.017	3.5	0.019
AT2G02220	Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase		2.3	0.011	13.6	0.012
AT2G19190	Light/senescence-responsive LRR protein kinase	FRK1	4.9	0.011	196.1	>0.05
AT3G02880	Leucine-rich repeat transmembrane protein kinase		2.5	0.017	4.3	0.011
AT4G08850	Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase		2.2	0.017	5.8	0.026
AT2G37710	Lectin protein kinase		2.1	0.027	4.5	0.016
AT5G35370	Lectin protein kinase		2.1	0.019	2.8	0.025
AT1G61360	S-locus lectin protein kinase		3.5	0.016	6.9	0.010
AT1G61380	S-locus lectin protein kinase		3.1	0.017	5.8	0.012
AT4G21390	S-locus lectin protein kinase		3.7	0.035	12.5	>0.05 ^a
AT3G22060	Receptor protein kinase-related		5.3	0.018	21.4	0.008
Other protein kinases						
AT1G18390	Protein kinase family protein		3.9	0.007	10.9	0.010
AT1G25390	Protein kinase family protein		2.2	0.011	4.7	0.012
AT1G28390	Protein kinase family protein		3.7	0.022	6.1	0.021
AT1G51620	Protein kinase family protein		4.6	0.027	34.8	0.031
AT2G01450	Mitogen-activated protein kinase (MPK17)	MPK17	2.4	0.015	3.5	0.019
AT2G28930	Protein kinase APK1b	APK1b	2	0.017	3.2	0.022
AT2G39660	Protein kinase family protein	BIK1	2.8	0.031	5.6	0.004
AT3G46280	Protein kinase related		15.9	0.007	264.4	0.024
AT4G11330	Mitogen-activated protein kinase (MPK5)	MPK5	2.4	0.045	2.5	>0.05 ^a
AT4G23190	Protein kinase family protein		3.4	0.009	7.3	>0.05
AT4G23210	Protein kinase family protein		3.4	0.007	9.1	0.012
AT4G23220	Protein kinase family protein		2.1	0.007	4.7	0.028
AT4G23300	Protein kinase family protein		2.9	0.010	5.6	0.026
AT5G20050	Protein kinase family protein		3.1	0.013	10.2	0.012
AT5G24430	Calcium-dependent protein kinase, CDPK		2.5	0.039	6.5	0.010
AT5G39020	Protein kinase family protein		2.1	0.019	3.9	0.023
AT5G61560	Protein kinase family protein		3	0.017	22.1	0.009
Protein phosphatases						
AT2G40180	Protein phosphatase 2C	PP2C5	6.3	0.019	9	>0.05
Disease resistance-like genes						
AT3G45290	Seven transmembrane MLO family protein 3 (MLO3)	MLO3	2.9	0.035	7.4	0.011
AT2G39200	Seven transmembrane MLO family protein 12 (MLO12)	MLO12	19	0.007	77.4	0.009
AT1G65390	Disease resistance protein (TIR class)	ATPP2-A5	8.8	0.013	51.95	0.005
AT4G09420	Disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS class)		3.5	0.018	6.5	0.037
AT5G44910	TIR domain-containing protein		6.5	0.011	38.7	>0.05
Pathogenesis/defense-related genes						
AT1G02360	Chitinase		2.9	0.011	18.8	0.005
AT2G43620	Chitinase		4.2	0.007	5.1	0.026
AT2G43590	Chitinase		5.1	0.033	2.9	>0.05 ^a
AT3G54420	Class IV chitinase (CHIV)	AtEP3	3.7	0.028	23.5	0.002
AT4G01700	Chitinase		4.3	0.010	24.8	0.019
AT2G35980	Harpin-induced protein (YLS9) / HIN1 family protein	HIN1	2.7	0.043	6.8	>0.05
AT2G37040	Phenylalanine ammonia-lyase 1 (PAL1)	PAL1	3	0.049	6.5	0.013
AT3G02840	Immediate-early fungal elicitor family protein		3.2	0.014	9.7	>0.05 ^a
AT5G64120	Peroxidase		7.5	0.010	25.4	0.003
AT2G38870	Protease inhibitor		3.2	0.011	6.3	0.010
AT4G12470	Protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transfer protein (LTP)		3.7	0.007	6.1	0.039
AT4G12480	Protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transfer protein (LTP)	PEARL1 1	3.9	0.011	9.9	0.031
AT4G12500	Protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transfer protein (LTP)		46.1	0.028	144.3	0.037
AT4G22470	Protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transfer protein (LTP)		11.5	0.011	18.9	0.023
Protein degradation						
AT1G66160	U-box domain-containing protein		4.4	0.007	8.7	0.013
AT2G35930	U-box domain-containing protein		7.5	0.011	63.1	0.039
AT3G52450	U-box domain-containing protein		21.2	0.010	154.8	>0.05 ^a
AT1G15670	Kelch repeat-containing F-box family protein		3.8	0.035	19.1	0.024
AT5G43190	F-box family protein (FBX6)	FBX6	2.2	0.033	3.6	0.035
Transcription factors						
AT1G62300	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 6	2.5	0.011	5.7	0.008
AT1G80840	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 40	2.2	0.018	8.2	>0.05 ^a
AT2G23320	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY15	2.3	0.019	5.2	0.046

TABLE 1—continued

AGI number	Gene description	Name	PGN		Flg22	
			Fold change	p value	Fold change	p value
AT2G24570	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 17	2.5	0.011	20.6	0.015
AT2G38470	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 33	2.8	0.023	7	>0.05 ^a
AT4G01720	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 47	4.1	0.016	10.7	0.007
AT4G18170	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 28	3.6	0.009	7.7	0.020
AT4G23810	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 53	3.2	0.011	5.9	>0.05
AT4G24240	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 7	3.9	0.019	13.8	0.029
AT4G31550	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 11	2.8	0.019	6.8	0.004
AT5G49520	WRKY family transcription factor	WRKY 48	5.3	0.019	12.1	0.012
AT3G23250	Myb family transcription factor	MYB15	5.1	0.028	26.7	0.008
AT1G64380	AP2 domain-containing transcription factor, ERF-family		2.6	0.029	3.7	0.013
AT1G68840	AP2 domain-containing protein	RAV2	4.2	0.013	18	0.006
AT3G50260	AP2 domain-containing transcription factor, ERF-family	CEJ1	2.1	0.025	5.4	0.036
AT5G44210	Ethylene-responsive element-binding factor 9 (ERF9)	ERF9	3.8	0.038	6.2	0.005
AT5G61890	AP2 domain-containing transcription factor, ERF family		5	0.047	11.8	0.018
Others						
AT2G39530	Integral membrane protein		3.5	0.019	288.1	>0.05
AT4G15610	Integral membrane family protein		2.7	0.019	8.6	0.009

^a Genes with a significant induction after 1 h of Flg22 treatment (56).

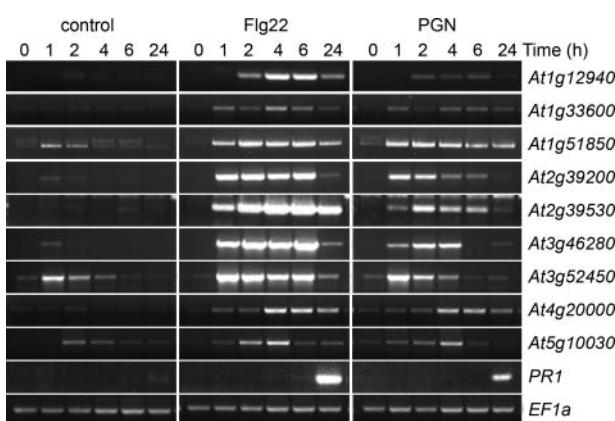


FIGURE 4. PGN activates expression of various genes. *Arabidopsis* leaves were infiltrated with 1 μ M Flg22, 100 μ g/ml PGN, or water as a control. Leaves were harvested at the indicated time points and total RNA was isolated and subjected to RT-PCR with specific primers for PGN-induced genes. Equal cDNA amounts were controlled by amplification of the constitutively expressed *EF1a* gene.

accumulation, MAPK activation and extensive reprogramming of the transcriptome (Figs. 2–5). Immune responses were triggered with PGN concentrations of about 100 μ g/ml, which is in accordance to the amounts that are necessary to stimulate immune responses in mammals and *Drosophila* (16, 67). Although responses to Flg22 were often stronger than those to PGN, the effects of both elicitors were quantitatively similar. In particular, early cellular responses such as medium alkalinization, NO production and MAPK activation were basically indistinguishable upon stimulation with PGN or Flg22 (Fig. 2). More evidence that responses to PGN and Flg22 are comparable is the large overlap of alterations in gene expression observed by microarray analysis (Fig. 4 and Table 1). Importantly, genes encoding proteins implicated in pathogen recognition, such as receptor-like kinases and resistance proteins, resistance signaling like WRKY transcription factors and plant defense execution like PR-proteins were found to be co-induced, suggesting that both signals are perceived as equivalent determinants of microbial non-self by the plant and similarly trigger activation of the plant surveillance system. Altogether, PGN, as a constitutive surface component of many bacterial cells, must be

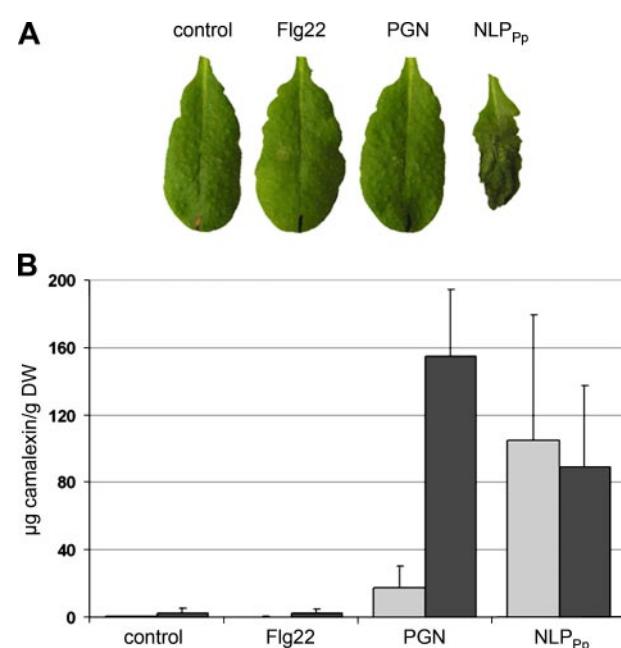


FIGURE 5. PGN induces camalexin production, but no cell death. *A*, *Arabidopsis* leaves were infiltrated with 1 μ M Flg22, 100 μ g/ml PGN, 2 μ M NLP_{Pp} or water as a control and pictures were taken 2 days after infiltration. *B*, camalexin accumulation in six independent leaves was determined at 2 days (gray bars) or 4 days (black bars).

added to the list of PAMPs with immunogenic activity in both plants and animals.

PGN, flagellin, and chitin act as PAMPs inducing largely overlapping response patterns. However, defense responses were not identical as has been proposed for the two proteineaceous elicitors flagellin and EF-Tu (24). PGN treatment resulted for instance in camalexin production whereas application of Flg22 did not (Fig. 5B). Additionally, the pH shift induced by chitin closely resembled that induced by Flg22 (compare Figs. 2A and 6C), but chitin treatment did not result in any *PR-1* transcription (Fig. 6, *A* and *B*). Comparison of the microarray data indicated a strong overlap of PGN- and Flg22-responsive genes; however, Flg22 induced approximately three times as many genes as PGN ((56) and supplemental Table S2). Moreover, only 133 of a total of 1168 chitin-induced genes (63)

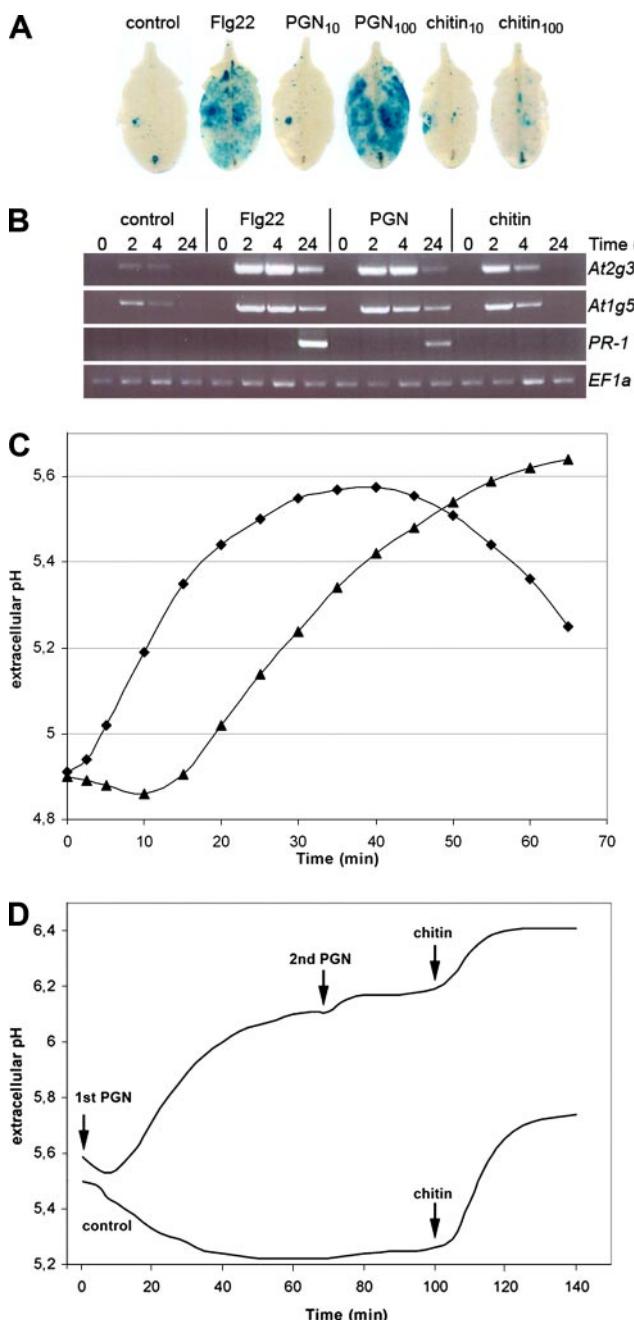


FIGURE 6. PGN and chitin do not engage the same perception system. *A*, *PR-1:GUS* transgenic *Arabidopsis* leaves were infiltrated with 1 μM Flg22, 10 or 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ PGN, 10 or 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ chitin or water as a control and stained for GUS activity after 24 h. *B*, leaves infiltrated with 1 μM Flg22, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ PGN, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ chitin, or water were harvested at indicated time points and used for RT-PCR analysis with specific primers for *At2g39530*, *At1g51850*, or *PR-1*. Equal cDNA amounts were controlled by amplification of the constitutively expressed *EF1a* gene. *C*, *Arabidopsis* cell cultures were treated with 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ PGN (triangles) or 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ chitin (diamonds) and extracellular pH was measured over a time course. *D*, cell cultures were treated with 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ PGN (1st PGN) and after 70 min with 1 mg/ml PGN (2nd PGN) to reach saturation. Control cells were left untreated. After 100 min 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ chitin was added to both samples, and the pH was measured for further 40 min.

also showed enhanced transcription after PGN treatment. Likewise, NLP_{Pp}- and Flg22-induced gene expression is only identical for 50% of the induced genes (56), and NLP_{Pp} induces a strong cell death response that is not observed after application of Flg22, PGN, or chitin (Fig. 5 and data not shown). Such

differences in PAMP perception have also been described in animals. Differential responses to various TLR ligands was partially attributed to a selective usage of certain adaptor molecules linked to TLRs followed by differential activation of transcription factors (8, 68). It can be assumed that each PAMP triggers specific sets of both individual as well as generic cellular responses with putative cross-talk of the signaling pathways. Another explanation for the observed differences in PAMP-induced downstream responses could be that some late defense-related responses such as *PR-1* induction or camalexin production require a certain threshold of preceding events. Hence, strength, kinetics, and duration of the induction would be important for triggering those late cellular responses. We could for instance observe that PGN triggered a sustained pH shift, whereas the response to Flg22 was stronger and faster, but more transient (Fig. 2A) and thus possibly not lasting long enough to induce camalexin production (Fig. 5). Moreover, different PAMP perception systems might rely on different classes of receptor molecules, each possibly initiating a specific subset of downstream responses. Intriguingly, proteinaceous PAMPs such as flagellin and EF-Tu not only induce nearly identical plant responses but are also perceived by the same kind of receptors, the two LRR-RLKs FLS2 and EFR (22, 24). The identity of the corresponding PGN receptor(s) and its nature are outstanding questions and will be the focus of future research.

In animal systems, it has been shown that compounds that are associated with PGN, such as lipoteichoic acid or lipopeptides, also possess immunostimulatory activity (6). For *S. aureus* it has been shown that lipoproteins play a major role in promoting immune responses in various human cell lines, whereas lipoteichoic acid has, if at all, only a minor role (69, 70). However, we could rule out such PGN contaminations by performing a number of experimental controls: (i) Medium alkalinization assays in *Arabidopsis* cell cultures indicated that although lipoteichoic acid, lipopolysaccharides, or lipopeptides induced weak pH shifts, this response showed differences in kinetics compared with PGN (Fig. 3, *B–D*). (ii) *PR-1:GUS* expression assays revealed LPS and lipopeptides as rather weak inducers of defense gene expression in *Arabidopsis* (Fig. 3*A*). (iii) Lysostaphin-digested, HPLC-purified PGN retained PAMP-activity (Fig. 3*E*). (iv) PGN-associated PAMP activity was not lost after heating or protease-digestion, and (v) PGN preparations of *S. aureus* sortase mutants, which lack PGN-associated proteins, were still able to induce *PR-1* gene expression (data not shown). Altogether, these data indicate that the observed responses in *Arabidopsis* must be attributed to the recognition of PGN rather than to factors associated with PGN.

Interestingly, cellular responses in *Arabidopsis* were only induced by whole PGN preparations or PGN that was digested with lysostaphin which creates long PGN glycan chains that are no longer interconnected by peptide stems. In contrast, smaller PGN constituents such as purified fragments after mutanolysin or mutanolysin/lysostaphin digestion, MDP, muramic acid or the cross-linking pentapeptide remained inactive (Figs. 1 and 3*E*). Our data suggest that *Arabidopsis* has evolved a perception system for the glycan part of PGN, which is highly conserved among all bacteria, rather than for the peptide crosslink, in which the amino acid composition can vary between bacterial

species. This is in contrast to mammals in which MDP as a natural partial structure of PGN was reported to be the minimal structure with immunostimulatory activity (14). However, we could not observe any PAMP activity for MDP in *Arabidopsis* when used to induce medium alkalinization or *PR-1:GUS* expression (Fig. 1C and data not shown). Apparently, plants and animals have different structural requirements for PGN recognition. Interestingly, *Drosophila* is also not responsive to MDP (12) although PGN triggers strong immune responses in this insect (71). Rather, the minimal structure required to stimulate *Drosophila* innate immunity is a muropeptide dimer, and monomers (GlcNAc-MurNAc-dipeptide) were completely inactive and even had an inhibitory effect (67). Moreover, tracheal cytotoxin (TCT), a tetrapeptide containing PGN fragment, was a strong inducer of mouse NOD1 whereas human NOD1 required a tripeptide for efficient sensing of PGN (72), again indicating that PGN detection systems are host-specific. Apparently, even though PGN is recognized in plants, insects, and mammals, the different lineages have evolved perception systems for distinct regions of this complex PAMP. This has also been demonstrated for flagellin, the protein subunit that builds up bacterial flagella: whereas the *Arabidopsis* flagellin receptor FLS2 recognizes the very conserved peptide Flg22, which is part of the so called Spike region of bacterial flagellin, a more central hypervariable peptide in the D1 region acts as PAMP in mammals (7, 73, 74). Moreover, in mammals lipid A as the invariable part of LPS is the most potent stimulator of innate immunity (75, 76), whereas *Arabidopsis* perceives LPS via both the lipid A part as well as synthetic oligorhamnans, which are commonly found in the highly variable O-antigen of LPS (36, 77).

We suggest a model in which PGN was chosen as non-self determinant both in plants and animals because of its characteristics as a typical PAMP: it is widely found in bacteria, structurally stable, displayed on the cell surface and not found in eukaryotic cells. However, our results indicate that plants respond differently to PGN than animals. Therefore, despite obvious conceptual similarities in plant and animal innate immunity, PAMP perception systems in both kingdoms are most likely the result of independent, convergent evolution (3, 7, 20).

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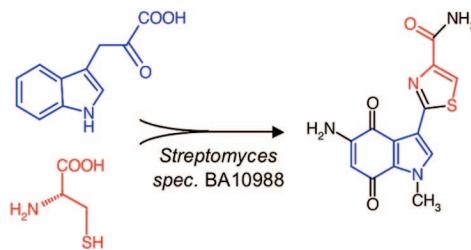
Biosynthetic Origin of BE-10988 in *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988

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The biosynthetic origin of the tumor-inhibitory derivative, BE-10988, was studied in *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988 by retrobiosynthetic NMR analysis using [^{13}C] U -glucose as a precursor. The isotopologue compositions of the indole moieties of BE-10988 and tryptophan were virtually identical. This indicates that tryptophan or a closely related metabolite served as a biosynthetic precursor of BE-10988 in analogy to the biosynthetic pathway of camalexin, a structurally related phytoalexin in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Labeling experiments with [$^{13}\text{C}_8\text{N}^{15}$]indole, L-[$^{2}\text{H}_5$]tryptophan, or L-[$^{13}\text{C}_3\text{N}^{15}$]cysteine confirmed this hypothesis. However, transfer of the label from [$^{2}\text{H}_5$]indole pyruvic acid, but not from the known camalexin precursor, [$^{2}\text{H}_5$]indole-3-acetaldoxime, showed that plants and bacteria have evolved independent mechanisms of tryptophan modification in the biosynthesis of thiazolylindole derivatives.

Introduction

Plants, as well as actinomycetes, contribute substantially to the enormous structural variety of natural products. However, structurally related secondary metabolites are rather rarely found among these two evolutionarily very distantly related groups of organisms.¹ In order to understand the mechanisms of ecologically driven convergent evolution of metabolism between organisms from different kingdoms, the biosynthetic origins of additional structural metabolite classes have to be comparatively analyzed.

3-Thiazol-2'-ylindole (camalexin, **10**) is the characteristic phytoalexin of the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Its biosynthesis is induced by a great variety of plant pathogens.

While some fungi developed resistance by degradation of camalexin, other pathogens, as well as a human breast cancer cell line, are growth inhibited by the compound.² The biosynthesis of camalexin (**10**) has been studied in some detail. The nitrogen and sulfur atoms, as well as C-4' and C-5' of the thiazole ring, are derived from cysteine (**7**), while the remaining atoms are introduced from tryptophan (**2**). A number of cytochrome P450-catalyzed steps are involved in the biosynthesis of camalexin. Tryptophan (**2**) is converted to indole-3-acetaldoxime (IAOx, **3**) by CYP79B2 and CYP79B3^{3–5} and then dehydrated to indole-3-acetonitrile (IAN, **8**) by CYP71A13.⁶ Dihydrocamalexin acid (**9**), synthesized from IAN (**8**) and

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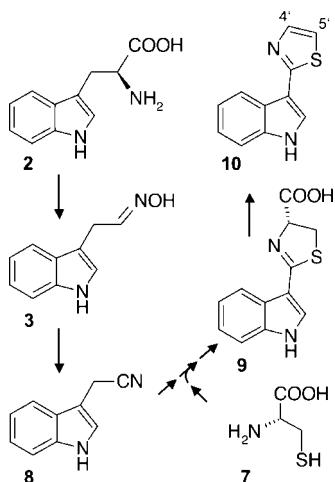
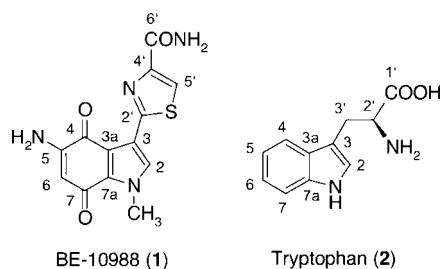
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SCHEME 1. Biosynthesis of Camalexin (10)^{3–8}**SCHEME 2. BE-10988 (1) and Tryptophan (2): Designation of Carbon Atoms**

cysteine (7) by a yet unidentified mechanism, is finally decarboxylated to camalexin (10) by CYP71B15 (PAD3)⁷ (Scheme 1).

Streptomyces species synthesize a wide range of secondary metabolites including compounds with thiazole moieties.^{9,10} A bioactive thiazolylindole derivative has been identified from the culture broth of the *Streptomyces* strain BA 10988 and termed BE-10988 (1) (Scheme 2).^{11,12} It exhibited increased DNA-topoisomerase complex formation and inhibited the growth of murine leukemia cell lines. A number of examples show that in bacteria thiazole rings can be formed from cysteine (7) by a nonribosomal peptide synthetase.¹³ By analogy, an origin of the thiazole ring of BE-10988 (1) from cysteine (7) appeared plausible. For the biosynthetic origin of the indoloquinone moiety of BE-10988 two possible pathways can be envisaged (i) from tryptophan, similarly to camalexin (10) (Scheme 3C), or (ii) via a pathway analogous to that of the mitomycin antibiotics.¹⁴ In such a “mitomycin-like” pathway, the secondary metabolite synthesis would branch off from early shikimate pathway intermediates (Scheme 3B).

Retrobiosynthetic NMR analysis using common carbon sources in ¹³C-labeled form, such as [U-¹³C₆]glucose, has been

shown to be a relatively fail-safe method for the determination of the biosynthetic history of a target metabolite (for a recent review, see Eisenreich and Bacher¹⁵). It allows elimination of predicted pathways by comparison of isotopologue profiles in the target compound and other metabolic products (typically amino acids) from the same experiment. In this study, we show by labeling experiments that BE-10988 (1), like camalexin (10), is synthesized from cysteine (7) and tryptophan (2). However, different mechanisms of tryptophan modification have evolved in the plant and the bacterial system, as BE-10988 (1) is not synthesized via IAOx (3).

Results and Discussion

Incorporation of [U-¹³C₆]Glucose into BE-10988 and Tryptophan. *Streptomyces* sp. BA10988 was grown in medium containing 0.475% glucose and 0.025% [U-¹³C₆]glucose (w/v). BE-10988 (1) (5.5 mg) were isolated from 10 L of culture medium. Tryptophan (2) was isolated after alkaline hydrolysis of protein. Both compounds were analyzed by quantitative NMR spectroscopy. The ¹³C NMR signals displayed intense ¹³C-coupling satellites indicating the presence of multiply labeled isotopologues at significant abundance (Table 1, Table 2, Figure 1, Scheme 3).

As a prerequisite for biosynthetic studies by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy, all ¹³C NMR signals of the target molecules must be unequivocally assigned. The published assignments of BE-10988 (1)¹² were confirmed by a detailed analysis of the ¹³C/¹³C coupling constants that were observed in the ¹³C NMR spectrum of the ¹³C-enriched sample (Table 1).

The isotopologue composition of tryptophan (2) shows the same qualitative pattern as in tryptophan from plants after incorporation of [U-¹³C₆]glucose.¹⁶ Characteristic abundant isotopologues include [3a,7a-¹³C₂]-, [4,5,6-¹³C₃]-, and [2,3-¹³C₂]Trp (Scheme 3C, Table 2). The profile is consistent with biosynthesis via the shikimic acid pathway, which is also active in *Streptomyces* strains.¹⁷ Accordingly, the indole ring of tryptophan (2) is derived from erythrose 4-phosphate (C-4, C-5, C-6, C-7), phosphoenolpyruvate (C-3a, C-7a), and ribose 5-phosphate (C-2, C-3).

The isotopologue composition of BE-10988 (1) labeled with 5% [U-¹³C₆]glucose was also determined by NMR spectroscopy (Table 1, Scheme 3A, Figure 1) and was compared with predictions of the pattern via two hypothetical pathways (Scheme 3B,C). The structural and possible evolutionary relation of BE-10988 (1) and mitomycins (Scheme 3D), antibiotics of actinomycete origin, suggested a similar biosynthetic origin for BE-10988 (1) (Scheme 3B). In this hypothetical pathway, 3-amino-5-hydroxybenzoic acid (12), which is derived from the shikimate pathway, serves as a precursor. A qualitative pattern for this intermediate can be predicted according to the origin of the shikimate intermediate from erythrose 4-phosphate and phosphoenolpyruvate,¹⁷ confirmed by the observed isotopologue pattern of tryptophan (Scheme 3C, Table 2). The side chain at C-3, as well as C-2/C-3 of the indoloquinone ring in 1, could be derived from a sugar or amino sugar.¹⁴ Following this hypothetical route, the isotopologue composition of BE-10988 can be predicted, as shown in Scheme 3B. Alternatively, the isotopologue profile of BE-10988 was predicted from tryptophan

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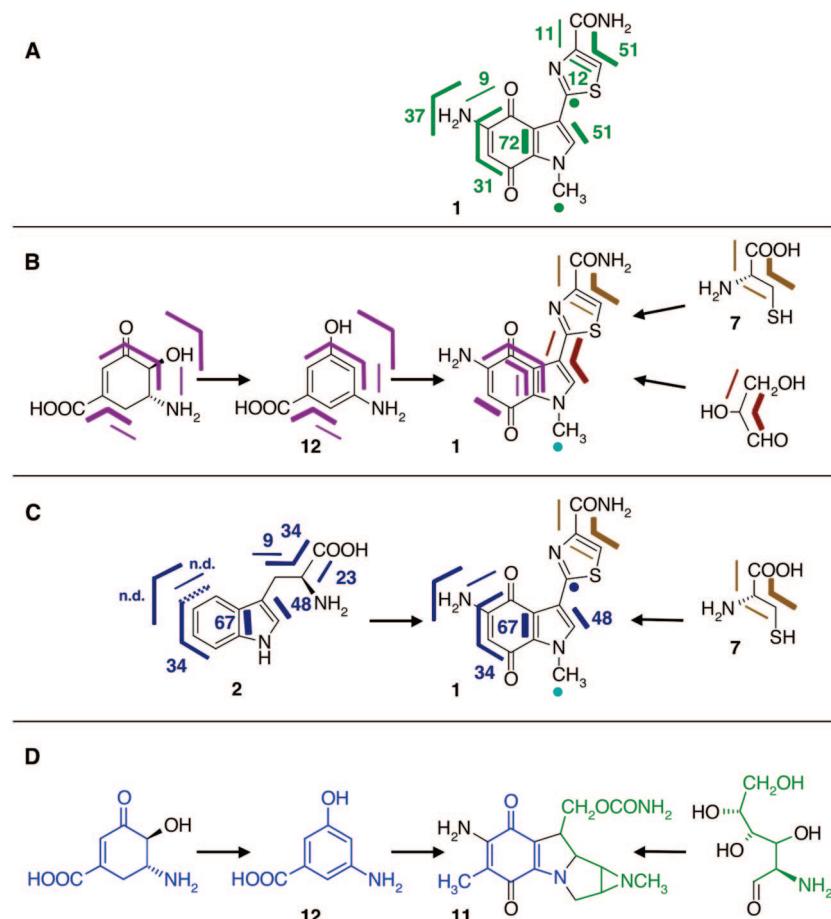
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SCHEME 3. Retrobiosynthetic Analysis of BE-10988 Biosynthesis

TABLE 1. ^{13}C NMR Data of BE-10988 from the Experiment with [$\text{U-}^{13}\text{C}_6$]Glucose

position	δ , ppm	J_{cc} (Hz)	% $^{13}\text{C}^{13}\text{C}^a$
4	179.9	48.0 (5), 3.3 (6 or 7)	74.5 (5, 5 and 6, 5 and 6 and 7)
7	178.1	63.9 (6)	36.9 (4 and 5 and 6)
5'	162.8	74.1 (4'), 7.8 (6')	49.4 (4' and 6'), 12.8 (4')
2'	159.3	61.5 (3)	<3 (3)
5	151.3	67.3 (6), 48.3 (4), 3.3 (7)	67.0 (6 and 4), 8.9 (6)
4'	150.1	73.9 (5'), 64.1 (6')	48.3 (5' and 6'), 10.2 (6'), 9.3 (5')
7a	131.9	57.5 (3a)	70.6 (3a)
2	130.4	67.7 (3)	51.2 (3)
6'	124.0	63.7 (4'), 8.6 (5')	53.7 (4' and 5'), 12.9 (4')
3a	117.4	57.7 (7a)	73.8 (7a)
3	116.7	67.5 (2)	51.7 (2)
6	98.7	67.0 (5), 4.3 (4)	37.3 (5 and 4), 30.4 (4 and 5 and 7)

^a Fractions of ^{13}C -coupled satellite signals in the overall signal intensity of the indexed atom. Coupled atoms are given in parentheses.

as a precursor via a pathway resembling camalexin (**10**) biosynthesis (Scheme 3C). Tryptophan is also synthesized via the shikimic acid pathway,¹⁷ but the topology of the shikimic acid precursor relative to the product **1** differs, resulting in highly specific isotopologue patterns of **1** by the two predictions.

Scheme 3 shows a comparison of the observed labeling pattern (**A**) of BE-10988 (**1**), isolated from [$\text{U-}^{13}\text{C}_6$]glucose-containing cultures, with predicted labeling patterns (**B**, **C**) via two different hypothetical pathways: **A**, observed pattern; **B**, prediction via a pathway similar to mitomycin¹⁴ biosynthesis; **C**, prediction via a pathway similar to camalexin biosynthesis from tryptophan (**2**) and cysteine (**7**). The colored bars indicate multiple ^{13}C -labeled isotopologues connecting ^{13}C atoms in a

TABLE 2. ^{13}C NMR Data of Tryptophan from the Experiment with [$\text{U-}^{13}\text{C}_6$]Glucose

position	δ , ppm	J_{cc} (Hz)	% $^{13}\text{C}^{13}\text{C}^a$
1'	182.8	53.3 (2')	55.6 (2')
7a	136.0	53.7 (3a)	69.5 (3a)
3a	127.1	53.7 (7a)	65.1 (7a)
2	124.2	69.8(3)	46.4 (3)
6	121.6	nd (multiplet)	nd (multiplet)
4	118.9	nd (higher order)	nd (higher order)
5	118.7	nd (higher order)	nd (higher order)
7	111.6	58 (6), 2 (4 or 5)	33.9 (4 and 5 and 6)
3	110.5	69.9 (2)	50.2 (2)
2'	56.4	53.5 (1'), 33.6 (3')	33.9 (1' and 3'), 23.8 (1'), 8.8 (3')
3'	30.2	33.4 (2')	39.6 (2')

^a Fractions of ^{13}C -coupled satellite signals in the overall signal intensity of the indexed atom. Coupled atoms are given in parentheses.

given molecule and the thickness of the bars is scaled to the relative abundances of the indexed isotopologues. The numbers indicate relative abundances of multiple ^{13}C -labeled isotopologues as determined from the intensities of the ^{13}C -coupled satellite pairs in the ^{13}C NMR spectra of BE-10988 (**1**) (Table 1, Figure 1) and tryptophan (**2**) (Table 2). Single ^{13}C -labeled isotopologues in excess (as determined from the overall NMR intensities) are indicated by closed circles. The predictions are based on the observed patterns in tryptophan (Table 2) and established metabolic pathways.^{17,18} For comparison, the biosynthetic pathway of mitomycin¹⁴ (**11**) is shown schematically under **D**. For the biosynthesis of camalexin, see Scheme 1.

The observed labeling pattern of BE-10988 (Scheme 3A) was in good agreement with the prediction via tryptophan (**2**) but

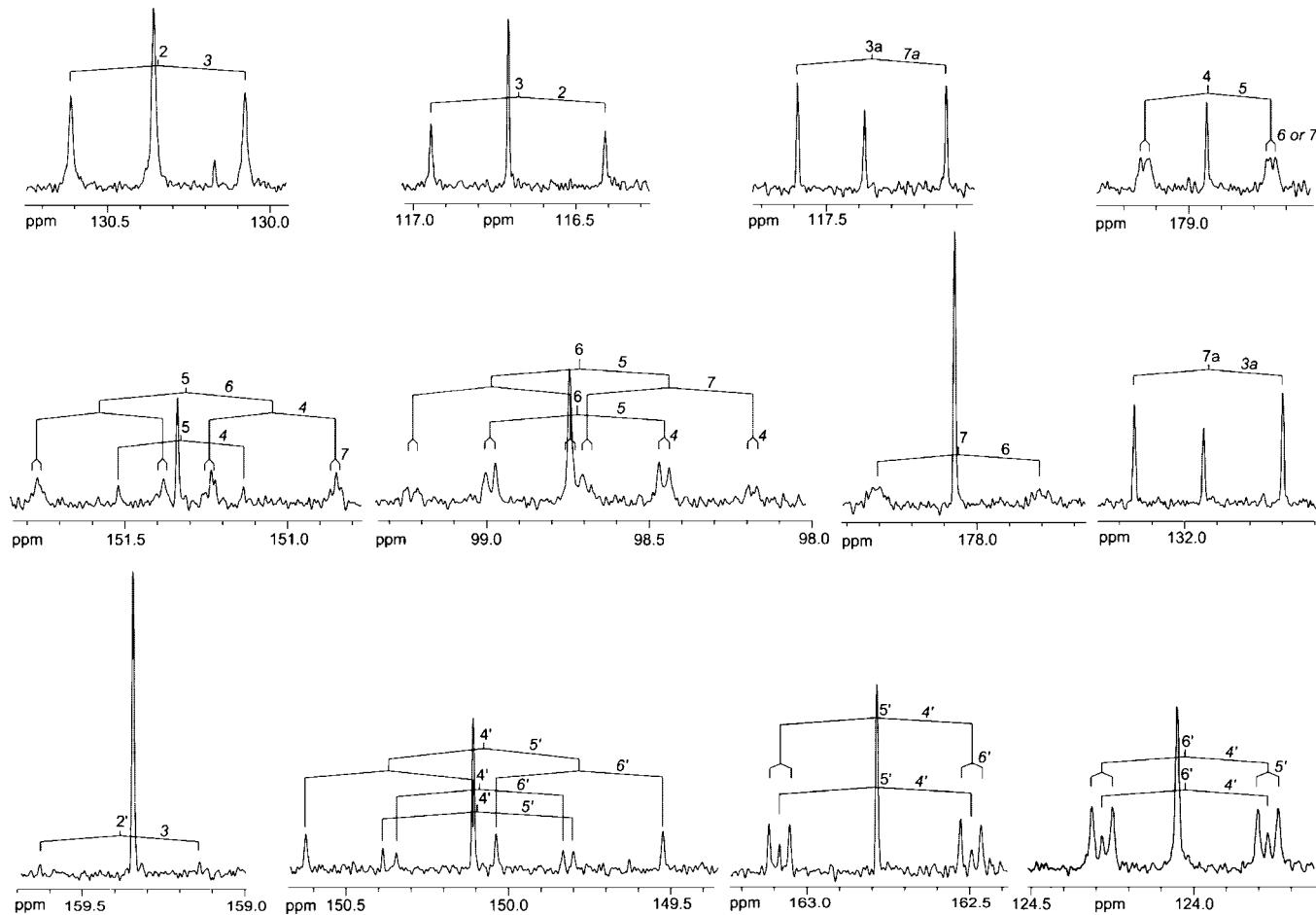
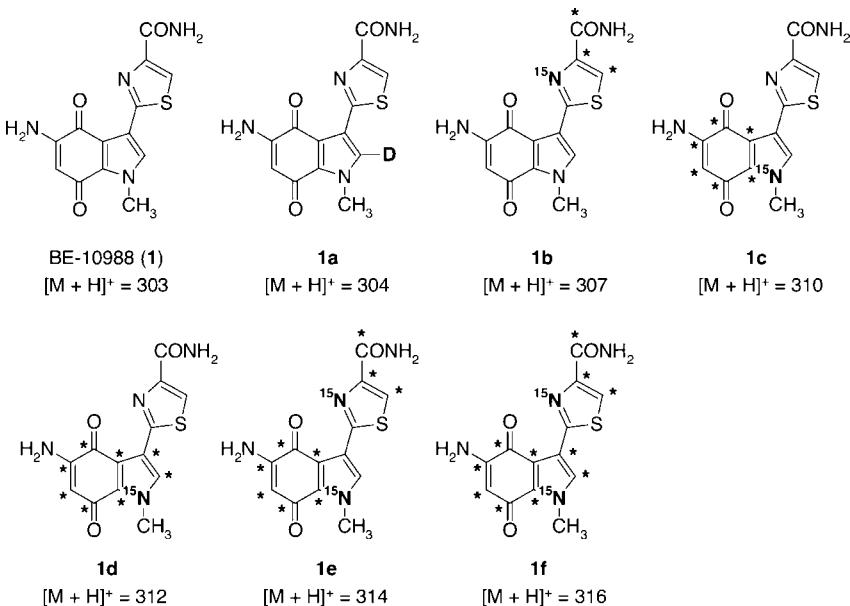


FIGURE 1. ^{13}C NMR Signals of BE-10988 Isolated from Cultures Grown with $[\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{Glucose}$. Coupling patterns are indicated.

SCHEME 4. BE-10988 (1) and Labeled Analogue ($*$ = ^{13}C)



clearly at odds with the prediction via the mitomycin (**11**) pathway (Scheme 3B). Specifically, $[3,2'-^{13}\text{C}_2]$ -, $[2,3,2'-^{13}\text{C}_3]$ -, and $[3\text{a},4,7\text{a}-^{13}\text{C}_3]$ -isotopologues were not detected in BE-10988, while a $[4,5,6-^{13}\text{C}_3]$ -isotopologue was observed at high abundance.

Biosynthesis from Tryptophan and Cysteine: Incorporation of Specific Precursors. In order to confirm that BE-10988

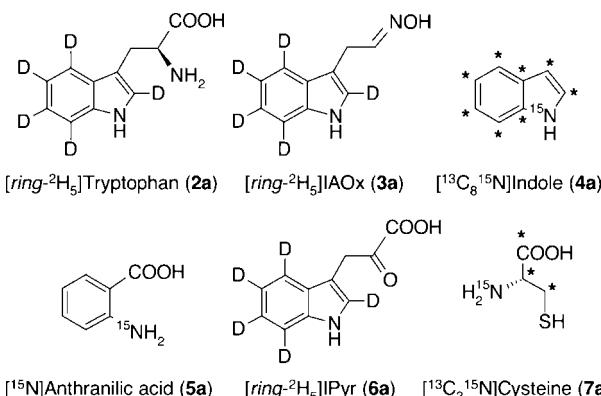
(**1**) (Scheme 4) is synthesized from L-cysteine (**7**) and L-tryptophan (**2**), L-[*ring*- $^2\text{H}_5$]tryptophan (**2a**), $[\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}_3^{15}\text{N}]$ indole (**4a**), and L-[$^{13}\text{C}_3^{15}\text{N}$]cysteine (**7a**) were applied as specific biosynthetic precursors in labeling experiments (Schemes 4 and 5). For this purpose, 30 mL of minimal medium, supplemented with a specific precursor, was inoculated with 0.75 mL of a

TABLE 3. Calculated Incorporation Rates of Specific Precursors into BE-10988 According to the LC-ESIMS Spectra; Labeled Product (1a–f) According to Scheme 4

precursor (50 μ M, if not otherwise stated)	relative abundance (%)						
	1	1a	1b	1c	1d	1e	1f
[2 H ₅]Trp (2a) ^a	36.7	63.3	0	0	0	0	0
[2 H ₅]Trp (2a) ^a + [<u-<sup>13C, ¹⁵N>]ind (4a)^a</u-<sup>	9.7	50.5	0	1.8	38.0	0	0
[2 H ₅]IAOx (3a)	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
[2 H ₅]IAOx (3a) + [<u-<sup>13C, ¹⁵N>]ind (4a)</u-<sup>	57.6	(3.3)	0	28.5	10.6	0	0
[¹⁵ N]anthranilate (5a)	58.9	41.1 ^b	0	0	0	0	0
5a + 4a	42.7	32.5 ^b	0	11.9	12.9	0	0
[2 H ₅]IPyr (6a)	71.4	28.6	0	0	0	0	0
[2 H ₅]IPyr (6a) + [<u-<sup>13C, ¹⁵N>]ind (4a)</u-<sup>	32.0	14.4	0	11.2	42.4	0	0
[U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Cys (7a)	67.3	0	32.7	0	0	0	0
7a + 4a	29.4	0	8.1	10.5	35.8	4.7	11.5
[U- ¹³ C, ¹⁵ N]Cys (7a) ^a	48.7	0	51.3	0	0	0	0

^a 200 μ M instead of 50 μ M. ^b [1-¹⁵N-BE-10988 + H]⁺; ind: indole.**TABLE 4.** Incorporation Rates into BE-10988 According to the HR-LC-ESIMS Spectra

precursor (50 μ M, if not otherwise stated)	relative abundance (%)						
	1	1a	1b	1c	1d	1e	1f
[2 H ₅]Trp (2a) ^a	47.5	52.5	0	0	0	0	0
[2 H ₅]Trp (2a) ^a + [<u-<sup>13C, ¹⁵N>]ind (4a)^a</u-<sup>	9.8	57.3	0	1.0	31.9	0	0
[2 H ₅]Trp (2a) ^a + [<u-<sup>13C, ¹⁵N>]ind (4a)</u-<sup>	19.0	79.0	0	0.8	1.2	0	0
[2 H ₅]IPyr (6a) + [<u-<sup>13C, ¹⁵N>]ind (4a)</u-<sup>	33.3	12.4	0	10.4	43.9	0	0

^a 200 μ M instead of 50 μ M; ind: indole.**SCHEME 5.** Compounds Fed to BE-10988 (**1**) for MS Analysis (* = ¹³C)

stationary culture of *Streptomyces* sp. BA 10988 and cultured under aerobic conditions for 2 days. BE-10988 (**1**) was isolated from the broth, and the isotopic composition was analyzed by LC-MS. Efficient incorporation of the label from L-cysteine, indole, and L-tryptophan was observed (Table 3).

After application of [ring-²H₅]tryptophan (**2a**), [(*m* + 1) + H]⁺ (**1a**), but not [(*m* + 2) + H]⁺ was significantly enriched (Table 3, Table 4). In accordance with these data, we propose that deuterium at C-6 is exchanged when oxygen at C-7 is introduced or as a result of an intermediate quinol tautomerization. Generally, tryptophan (**2**) is expected to be synthesized from indole-3-glycerol phosphate by a tryptophan synthase complex without release of intermediately formed indole (**4**).¹⁹ However, [13C₈, ¹⁵N>]indole (**4a**) is efficiently incorporated into BE-10988 [(*m* + 9) + H]⁺ (**1d**). Similarly, high incorporation rates of indole were observed into camalexin (**10**).³ It is therefore suggested that the concerned tryptophan synthase complexes are either highly accessible for indole (**4**) or tryptophan synthase β functions efficiently independently of alpha subunits. In addition, detection of the [(*m* + 7) + H]⁺ (**1c**), which was observed when [13C₈, ¹⁵N>]indole (**4a**) was applied suggests that

externally applied indole is partially degraded and an intermediate, such as anthranilic acid (**5**), re-enters the tryptophan biosynthetic pathway.

[U-¹³C₃, ¹⁵N]cysteine (**7a**) incorporation is in accordance with an origin of the thiazole ring from cysteine (**7**), thus excluding C-2, as it has been demonstrated for other thiazole compounds from bacteria.¹³ Enrichment of [(*m* + 13) + H]⁺ (**1f**) after double labeling with **4a** and **7a** confirmed that both precursors give rise to different parts of the heterocycle, i.e., the indoloquinone and the thiazole moiety (excluded C-2, included the amide carbon, Figure 2).

Evidence for the incorporation of the side chain C-3' of tryptophan into BE-10988 (**1**) was obtained by labeling a 10 mL culture for 2 days with [³-¹⁴C]tryptophan. BE-10988 was isolated, purified by HPLC, and subsequently separated by TLC. Co-chromatography of an abundant radioactive metabolite with BE-10988 was observed (Figure 2D). These data confirm that tryptophan (**2**) is a precursor of **1** and suggest that C-2' of **1** derives from **2**.

Indole 3-Acetaldoxime Is Not a Biosynthetic Intermediate.

During the biosynthesis of camalexin (**10**), tryptophan (**2**) is converted to indole-3-acetaldoxime (IAOx, **3**) by a cytochrome P450 reaction. In addition, it was shown for *Nocardia uniformis* that oxime synthesizing P450 enzymes can be present in actinomycetes.²⁰ Therefore, IAOx (**3**) was tested as a potential precursor of BE-10988 (**1**). As indolocarbazoles from actinomycetes are synthesized via indole-3-pyruvic acid (IPyr, **6**) or 7-chloroindole-3-pyruvic acid,^{21,22} IPyr (**6**) was also analyzed as an alternative precursor.

BA 10988 cultures were grown in the presence of [²H₅]IAOx (**3a**) or [²H₅]IPyr (**6a**), and isolated BE-10988 was analyzed

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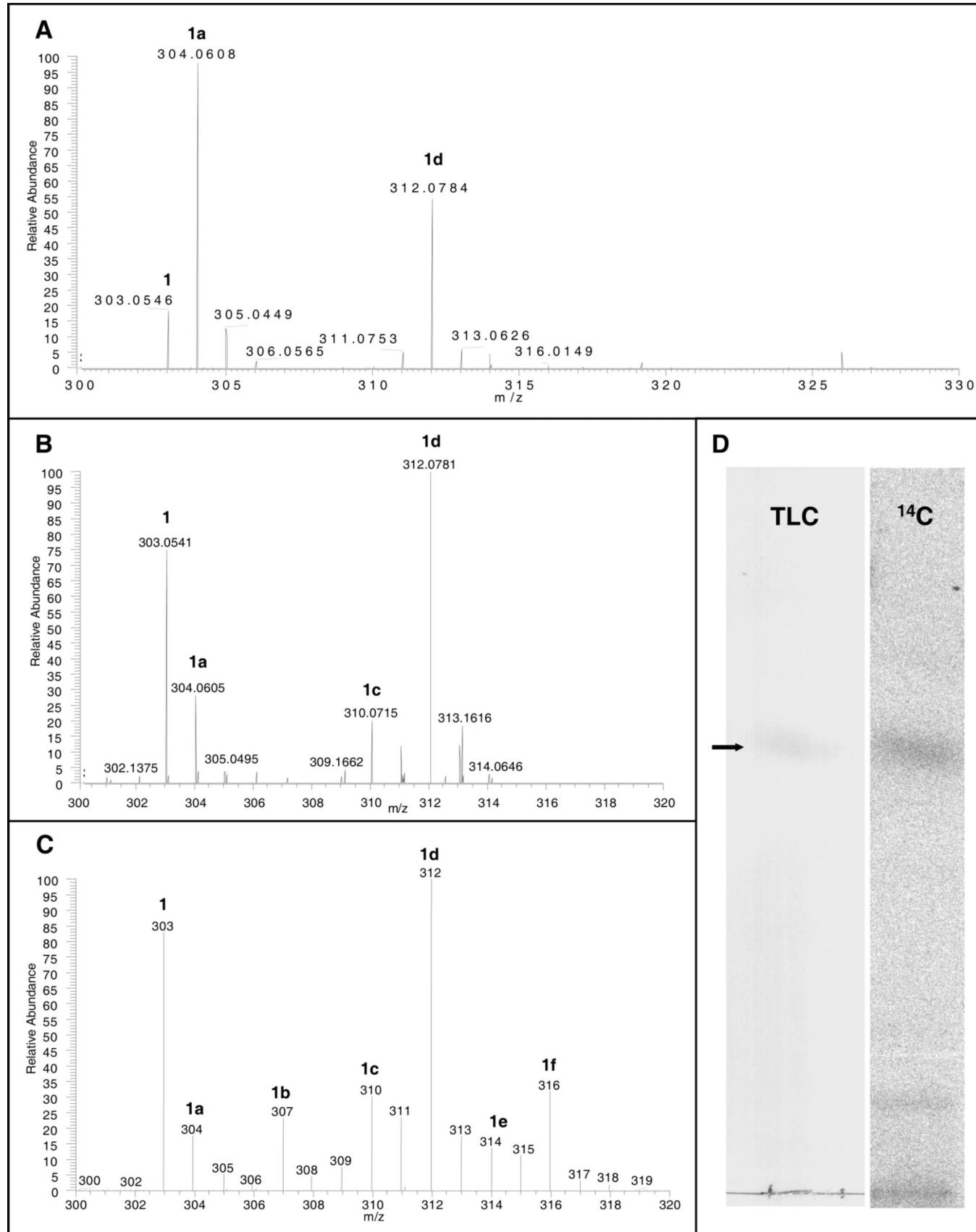


FIGURE 2. Incorporation of specific precursors. **A, B:** HR-LC-ESIMS spectrum of BE-10988 isolated after feeding (**A**) 200 μM [$^2\text{H}_5$]Trp (**2a**)/200 μM [$\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}_8,^{15}\text{N}$]indole (**4a**) or (**B**) 50 μM [$\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}_8,^{15}\text{N}$]indole (**4a**)/50 μM [$^2\text{H}_5$]IPyr (**6a**). At the displayed magnification, **1a** is not separated from the signal derived from naturally abundant $^{13}\text{C}_1$ -BE-10988 isotopologues. **C:** ESIMS spectra of BE-10988 isolated after feeding 50 μM [$\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}_8,^{15}\text{N}$]indole (**4a**)/50 μM [$\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}_3,^{15}\text{N}$]cysteine (**7a**). Here: **1a** signal derived from natural abundance $^{13}\text{C}_1$ -BE-10988 isotopologues. **D:** TLC separation (left) of HPLC-purified BE-10988 labeled with [$3'-^{14}\text{C}$]tryptophan (marked with arrow) and autoradiogram thereof (right).

TABLE 5. Incorporation Rates of Specific Precursors into BE-10988 (1) and Tryptophan (2) According to HR-LC-ESIMS Data^a

precursor	product	labeled product (rel abundance) (%)
50 μM [² H ₅]IPyr (6a)	BE-10988 (1)	26.0
50 μM [² H ₅]IPyr (6a)	tryptophan (2)	27.8
50 μM [² H ₅]Trp (2a)	BE-10988 (1)	29.8
50 μM [² H ₅]Trp (2a)	tryptophan (2)	66.4

^a The percentage of total labeled isotopologues is given, taking into account natural abundance isotopologues.

for enrichment of **1a** (Table 3). No incorporation was observed after feeding of 50 μM **3a**. In contrast, 50 μM [²H₅]IPyr (**6a**) labeling resulted in approximately 29% incorporation (Table 3). After feeding of **6a** and **4a**, 12% deuterium incorporation (**1a**) was detected by HR-LC-ESIMS (Table 4). These data indicate that, unlike in camalexin (**10**) biosynthesis, not IAOx (**3**), but rather IPyr (**6**), can serve as a biosynthetic intermediate in the BE-10988 pathway.

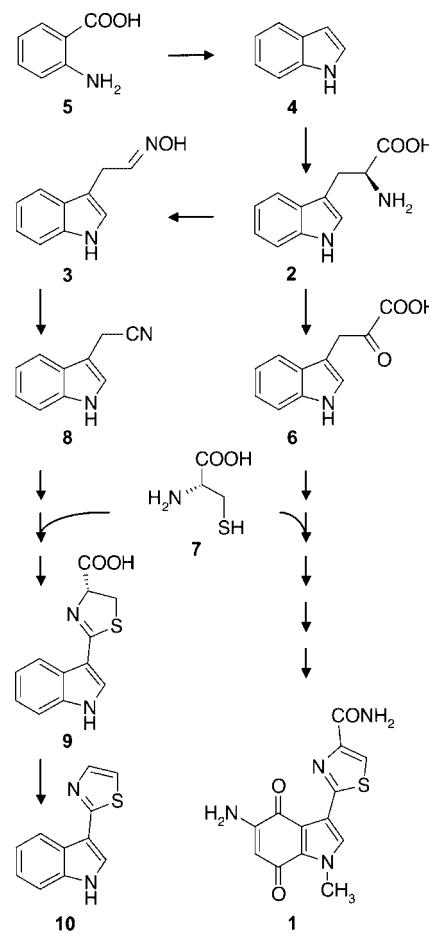
However, the results could also reflect that the applied labeled IPyr (**6a**) was transaminated to labeled tryptophan (**2a**) prior to conversion into **1a** via unknown mechanisms. To further analyze the role of IPyr in the pathway, we have grown the culture in the presence of 50 μM ²H-labeled tryptophan (**2a**) or IPyr (**6a**), respectively. BE-10988 (**1**) was isolated from the culture medium and tryptophan (**2**) was isolated from the protein hydrolysate. Incorporation of label into **1** and **2** was determined by HR-LC-ESIMS. Both **2a** and **6a** yielded labeled BE-10988 (**1**) and tryptophan (**2**) (Table 5). The incorporation values show that label from IPyr (**6a**) is transferred to BE-10988 (**1**) and tryptophan (**2**) at similar rates, whereas label from exogenous tryptophan (**2a**) was transferred more efficiently (by a factor of 2.4) to protein-derived tryptophan than to BE-10988. The incorporation experiment with **6a** demonstrates that **6** can be converted into BE-10988 (**1**) as well as into tryptophan (**2**) yielding apparent isotopic equilibrium between **1**, **2**, and **6**. On the other hand, the higher incorporation rate of labeled tryptophan into protein as compared to BE-10988 suggests that IPyr (**6**) is an intermediate in the biosynthetic pathway of BE-10988.

In the biosynthesis of the indolic antibiotic rebeccamycin, synthesized by the actinomycete *Lechevalieria aerocolonigenes*, tryptophan (**2**) is oxidized to IPyr (**6**) by the amino acid oxidase RebO.^{21,22} A RebO homologue might also be involved in the biosynthesis of BE-10988 (**1**). Identification and functional analysis of this proposed specific amino acid oxidase in *Streptomyces* sp. BA 10988 will finally prove a functional role of IPyr (**6**) as intermediate of BE-10988 (**1**).

Conclusions

Both thiazolylindoles, the *Arabidopsis* defense compound camalexin (**10**) and the bacterial derivative BE-10988 (**1**), are synthesized from cysteine (**7**) and tryptophan (**2**) (Scheme 6). Our data show that in each case, the side chain of the tryptophan precursor is shortened to one carbon prior to the assembly of the complex heterocycles in **1** and **10**. However, the early steps in the biosynthesis of **1** and **10** are different. In camalexin (**10**) biosynthesis, the carboxylic group of tryptophan is eliminated in the first step yielding IAOx (**3**). Our data exclude IAOx as a precursor of BE-10988 (**1**) but rather suggest that IPyr (**6**) serves as an early intermediate in the bacterial pathway.

In the biosynthesis of camalexin (**10**), tryptophan (**2**) modification is carried out by cytochrome P450 enzymes of the plant-specific families 71 and 79. Possibly also in the *Streptomyces*

SCHEME 6. Biosynthetic Pathway of BE-10988 and Camalexin: Comparison of the Biosynthetic Pathway of Camalexin (**10**) (Left,^{3,6–8}) and the Proposed Pathway for BE-10988 (**1**) (Right, This Study)

system, cytochrome P450s have been recruited to modify the indolic precursors and might have convergently evolved structural similarities with the *Arabidopsis* enzymes. For the formation of the thiazolylindole heterocycle in *Streptomyces*, we propose the contribution of a nonribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS). No apparent NRPS genes are present in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome and the plant enzyme catalyzing the reaction of the indolic precursor with cysteine (**7**) or a cysteine derivative remains to be identified. It will be interesting to learn whether analogous reactions have evolved in the two kingdoms. As demonstrated for the biosynthesis of vitamin B₆,²³ corresponding enzymes, although unrelated concerning their primary sequence, could share similarities in their 3D-structures and mechanisms as a consequence of their common biological function.

Experimental Section

Chemicals. Labeled precursors, commercially available: L-[*ring*-²H₅]tryptophan (**2a**), [U-¹³C₈¹⁵N]indole (**4a**), [¹⁵N]anthranilate (**5a**), L-[U-¹³C₃¹⁵N]cysteine (**7a**), [U-¹³C₆]glucose, and [3'-¹⁴C]tryptophan (58.1 mCi mmol⁻¹).

[*ring*-²H₅]IAOx (**3a**) was synthesized from (**2a**) essentially as described by Hofmann et al.²⁴ with the following modifications: 10 mg of L-[*ring*-²H₅]tryptophan (**2a**) as educt, reaction volume 2 mL, [²H₅]IAOx was purified by TLC (chloroform/methanol, 9:1). Total yield: 25% [²H₅]IAOx (**3a**). UV_{max}: 280 nm. ESI-MS [M + H]⁺: 180.

[*ring*-²H₅]Indole-3-pyruvate (**6a**) was synthesized enzymatically from (**2a**) by modifying the protocol of Cooney and Nonhebel.²⁵ 10 mg of L-[*ring*-²H₅]tryptophan (**2a**) was oxidized with 2.5 U of amino acid oxidase and 2.5 U of catalase in 5 mL of 0.25 mM KP_i, pH 7 for 2 h at 25 °C, acidified with 1.15 mL of 2 M citric acid, and extracted 3 times with 2.4 mL of ethyl acetate. [²H₅]IPyr (**6a**) was purified by preparative HPLC: 250–10, RP-18, 5 μm; 7 mL min⁻¹; 0.3% HCOOH in H₂O/acetonitrile (4:1) for 2 min, followed by a 14 min linear gradient to 0.3% HCOOH in H₂O/acetonitrile (2:3). Fractions containing **6a** were collected, acetonitrile was removed under reduced pressure, and the remaining H₂O phase was extracted twice with 1 volume of ethyl acetate. Yield: 20%. Product identity and purity (>95%) were confirmed by HPLC (250–4, RP-18, 5 μm; 1 mL min⁻¹; 0.3% HCOOH in H₂O/acetonitrile (9:1) for 2 min, followed by a 11.5 min linear gradient to 0.3% HCOOH in H₂O/acetonitrile (2:3), *t*_R = 13.2 min, OD_{max} = 327 nm, both identical to IPyr (**6**) standard. ESI-MS: [M + H]⁺ 209.

Culture Conditions and Product Isolation. *Streptomyces* strain BA 10988¹¹ was kindly provided by Dr. Saeki, Banyu Inc., Japan, and grown in liquid dYT medium or on solid mannitol soya flour medium.²⁶ For production of BE-10988, the minimal medium described by Hopwood²⁷ was modified as follows: (NH₄)₂SO₄ (0.1%), K₂HPO₄ (0.05%), MgSO₄ × 7H₂O (0.02%), FeSO₄ × 7H₂O (0.001%) in H₂O at pH 7; addition of 1% glucose in labeling experiments with specific precursors or alternatively 0.475% glucose and 0.025% [U-¹³C₆]glucose (retrobiosynthetic analysis).

Feeding of [U-¹³C₆]Glucose and Isolation of BE-10988 and Tryptophan. *Streptomyces* BA 10988 was precultured for 48 h in liquid dYT medium (5 mL) at 28 °C. The preculture was used to inoculate 50 mL of production medium, incubated for 48 h on a rotary shaker at 28 °C and 200 rpm. This second preculture was used to inoculate 1 L of production medium. A total of 10 flasks (total culture volume: 10 L) were incubated on a rotary shaker at 28 °C and 200 rpm for 100 h. BE-10988 (**1**) was isolated by extracting each culture (1 L) three times with ethyl acetate (300 mL). The extract was then dried over sodium sulfate. After evaporation of the ethyl acetate, BE-10988 (**1**) was purified by preparative HPLC (250–10 column, RP-18e, 10 μm) at a flow rate of 5 mL min⁻¹ with 25% acetonitrile for 2 min, followed by a 7 min linear gradient from 25% to 100% acetonitrile. BE-10988 (**1**) was eluted after 6.6 min. After removal of the acetonitrile under reduced pressure, the remaining aqueous phase was extracted three times with 1/3 of its volume of ethyl acetate. The solvent was evaporated, and the combined residues were dissolved in deuterated DMSO. Tryptophan (**2**) was isolated after alkaline hydrolysis of bacterial pellet as described by Eisenreich and Bacher.²⁸

Labeling Experiments with Specific Precursors. Thirty milliliters of production medium containing the specific precursor (Scheme 5) was inoculated with 0.75 mL of preculture and incubated for 48 h on a rotary shaker at 28 °C and 200 rpm. Then the culture was extracted with ethyl acetate (2 × 15 mL). After evaporation of the ethyl acetate, BE-10988 (**1**) was isolated by preparative TLC (chloroform/methanol, 9:1).

Instrumentation and Labeling Analysis. LC-ESIMS. For LC-MS analysis, 10 μL of sample was separated on a RP18 column (150 × 2 mm, 4 μm particle size). The mobile phase consisted of water containing 1 mM ammonium acetate and 0.1% HCOOH (A)

and acetonitrile + 0.1% HCOOH (B). Samples were separated using a gradient program as follows: (flow rate of 300 μL min⁻¹) 90% A isocratic for 3 min, linear gradient to 50% A over 12 min, and to 100% B for another 1 min. After 100% B isocratic for 6 min, the system was returned to its initial conditions (100% A) within 1 min and was equilibrated for 6 min before the next run was started. The HPLC system was coupled with a TSQ Quantum Ultra AM equipped with an APCI ion source (Ion Max) operating in positive mode (mass range of 150–650 mu). Nitrogen was employed as both the sheath (40 arbitrary units) and auxiliary (5 arbitrary units) gas and argon served as the collision gas with a pressure of 1.5 mTorr. The capillary temperature for the TSQ was set to 200 °C. The vaporizer temperature was set to 450 °C.

HR-LC-ESIMS. The ESI-FT-MS spectra were obtained with an LTQ-Orbitrap spectrometer. The spectrometer was operated in positive mode (1 spectrum s⁻¹; mass range: 50–1000) with nominal mass resolving power of 60000 at *m/z* 400 with a scan rate of 1 Hz) with automatic gain control to provide high-accuracy mass measurements within 2 ppm deviation using one internal standard; polydimethylcyclosiloxane- [(CH₃)₂SiO]₆: *m/z* = 445.120025.

The spectrometer was equipped with a UV detector at 254 nm, flow manager, and autosampler (injection volume 1 μL). Nitrogen was used as sheath gas (5 arbitrary units), and helium served as the collision gas. The separations were performed by using a C18 column (3 μm, 0.3 × 150 mm) with a H₂O (+ 0.1% HCOOH) (A)/acetonitrile (+0.1% HCOOH) (B) gradient (flow rate 4 μL min⁻¹). Samples were analyzed by using a gradient program as follows: 90% A isocratic for 2 min, linear gradient to 100% B over 8 min; after 100% B isocratic for 10 min, the system returned to its initial condition (90% A) within 1 min and was equilibrated for 6 min.

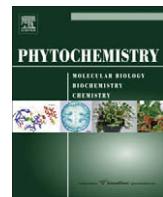
Calculation of Incorporation Rates. The peak ratios of all significant isotope [M + H]⁺ ions were determined from the area of the corresponding ion trace at *m/z* = 303, 304, 307, 310, 312, 314, and 316. In the case of labeling experiments except with *ring*-deuterated samples, the ion at *m/z* = 304 was not included, since it occurs due to the natural abundance of ¹³C and does not represent a species arising from the labeled precursor. In the case of feeding experiments with *ring*-deuterated samples, the area of the ion at *m/z* = 304 was diminished by a value that represents 16.6% of the corresponding area of the ion at *m/z* = 303 in order to take into account the natural abundance of isotopes in BE-10988. Finally, the ratios of the remaining areas were recalculated to yield 100% for all unlabeled and labeled species together. BE-10988 (**1**): LC-HR-ESIMS: *m/z* = 303.0540 [M + H]⁺, calcd 303.0546 for C₁₃H₁₁N₄O₃S. **1a**: LC-HR-ESIMS: *m/z* = 304.0605 [M + H]⁺, calcd 304.0609 for C₁₃H₁₀²HN₄O₃S. **1c**: LC-HR-ESIMS: *m/z* = 310.0721 [M + H]⁺, calcd 310.0718 for C₇¹³C₆H₁₁N₃¹⁵NO₃S. **1d**: LC-HR-ESIMS: *m/z* = 312.0778 [M + H]⁺, calcd 312.0785 for C₅¹³C₈H₁₁N₃¹⁵NO₃S.

Incorporation of Radioactivity. ¹⁴C incorporation into BE-10988 was analyzed after TLC (chloroform/methanol, 9:1) separation on a phosphoimager.

NMR spectroscopy. NMR spectra were recorded at 27 °C using a DRX 500 spectrometer. BE-10988 was measured in deuterated DMSO as solvent; tryptophan was measured in 0.1 M NaOD.

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Inducible expression of a Nep1-like protein serves as a model trigger system of camalexin biosynthesis

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ABSTRACT

Camalexin, the major *Arabidopsis* phytoalexin, is synthesized in response to a great variety of pathogens. Specific pathogen-associated molecular patterns, such as Nep1-like proteins from oomycetes act as signals triggering the transcriptional activation of the camalexin biosynthetic genes. PaNIE, a Nep1-like protein from *Pythium aphanidermatum* was expressed in *Arabidopsis* under the control of an ethanol-inducible promoter. This system was developed as a tool to study the regulation of camalexin biosynthesis. It allowed induction of camalexin preceded by strong transcriptional activation of the tryptophan and camalexin biosynthetic genes. In flowers and green siliques PaNIE expression elicited only minor camalexin formation, indicating low capability for phytoalexin synthesis in reproductive organs in contrast to leaf and stem tissue.

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1. Introduction

In *Arabidopsis* the phytoalexin camalexin is synthesized *de novo* in response to a great variety of pathogens (Glawischnig, 2007). Infection triggers a complex signalling cascade resulting in strong transcriptional upregulation of the camalexin biosynthetic genes *CYP71A13* and *CYP71B15* (Nafisi et al., 2007; Schuhegger et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 1999). In this signalling cascade a number of MAP kinases are involved: MPK3, MPK6 (Ren et al., 2008), and MPK4, which physically interacts with WRKY33, a transcriptional activator of *CYP71A13* and *CYP71B15* (Qiu et al., 2008). Camalexin is synthesized from tryptophan via *CYP79B2/B3* (Glawischnig et al., 2004). As the cellular tryptophan pool is only in the micromolar range (Müller and Weiler, 2000) camalexin formation is coupled with high induction of the tryptophan biosynthetic genes, such as *ASA1* and *TSA* (Schuhegger et al., 2007; Zhao and Last, 1996).

Phytoalexins are typically synthesized locally in proximity to the site of pathogen infection (Kuc, 1995). Therefore, the amplitude of the camalexin response strongly depends on the spatial distribution of the growing pathogens. Microorganisms can actively interact with the defence mechanisms of the plant and the kinetic of camalexin induction in response to pathogen application, either by spraying or infiltration, might vary dependent on the growth phase and metabolic state. Some pathogens actively degrade

camalexin (Pedras and Khan, 2000). These problems are avoided by triggering camalexin formation with heavy metals, such as silver nitrate (Tsuiji et al., 1993). However, the response to this abiotic treatment is not identical with a response to pathogen infection. In addition, after silver nitrate spraying spots of cells undergoing hypersensitive response are observed which are surrounded by healthy tissue. The consequence is that gene expression and metabolites are analyzed as a patchwork of healthy and dying cells.

Nep1-like proteins (NLP), comprise a family of microbial virulence factors, which are phylogenetically widely distributed (Gijzen and Nürnberg, 2006; Pemberton and Salmond, 2004). Their mechanism of action has been investigated in detail with NLP_{Pp}, NLP_{Ps}, and PaNIE (NLP_{Pya}) identified in the oomycetes *Phytophthora parasitica*, *Phytophthora sojae*, and *Pythium aphanidermatum*, respectively (Qutob et al., 2006; Veit et al., 2001). In addition to their role as toxin-like virulence factors, NLPs are efficient triggers of plant innate immune responses. A signalling cascade is induced, which involves reactive oxygen intermediates and ethylene synthesis and results in callose deposition and programmed cell death. As a component of these defence reactions high concentrations of camalexin are induced, which are observed after 8 h in response to infiltration with NLP_{Ps} or PaNIE (Qutob et al., 2006).

Here, we investigated the induction of camalexin biosynthesis in plants, which heterologously express PaNIE under the control of an ethanol inducible promoter. In vegetative tissue this system allows simple and reproducible camalexin expression upon pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP) treatment. Reproductive organs showed low competence for camalexin synthesis.

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2. Results and discussion

2.1. Inducible expression of PaNie (NLP_{Pya}) in Arabidopsis

The elicitor PaNie from *P. aphanidermatum* triggers programmed cell death and a multitude of defence responses, including camalexin formation in *Arabidopsis* leaves within a few hours (Qutob et al., 2006; Veit et al., 2001). PaNie has been applied by infiltration of *Arabidopsis* leaves. This induction has to be technically performed with great care to allow reproducible results and it has to be ensured that the protein has not been degraded. In order to avoid such problems, PaNie was expressed as a transgene in *Arabidopsis* under the control of the ethanol inducible promoter AlcA (Maizel and Weigel, 2004; Roslan et al., 2001).

The first 21 amino acids at the N-terminus of PaNie presumably constitute an export targeting sequence. Transgenic lines for expression of three different proteins were generated: (i) native PaNie (PaNie_L), (ii) PaNie without N-terminal targeting sequence ($\text{PaNie}_{\text{Del}}$), and (iii) PaNie with the oomycete-derived targeting sequence replaced by the extensin export targeting sequence from carrot (*Daucus carota*) (Chen and Varner, 1985) (PaNie_{Dc}). The plants were monitored for symptoms of cell death 40 h after ethanol treatment. While plants, which carry the native or N-terminally

truncated PaNie remained phenotypically wildtype (Fig. 1C and D), a number of lines expressing PaNie with the plant export targeting sequence developed severe symptoms (Fig. 1A). These results implied that the oomycete export signal is not correctly transmitted in the plant and a plant-derived targeting sequence is a prerequisite for protein export.

2.2. Camalexin biosynthesis in response to PaNie_{Dc} expression

In Alc:: PaNie_{Dc} plants camalexin formation was observed in rosette leaves 6 h after spraying with ethanol (Fig. 2). With three independent batches of plants, 24 h after spraying with 2% ethanol, camalexin concentrations in μg per g fr. wt of 16.1 ± 4.0 , 15.9 ± 1.6 , and 8.2 ± 4.3 were obtained (Fig. 2, Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2). These values exceeded levels obtained in response to silver nitrate spraying, ranging at 5.3 ± 1.7 / $3.7 \pm 1.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ fr. wt (Glawischning et al., 2004; Nafisi et al., 2007) or infiltration with PaNie protein (Qutob et al., 2006; dry weight data provided therein equals $3.6 \pm 1.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ fr. wt (unpublished)). After 24 h no significant degradation of accumulated camalexin was observed (Supplementary Fig. S2).

Glucosinolates are mainly involved in defence against herbivores but show also activity against pathogens (Halkier and

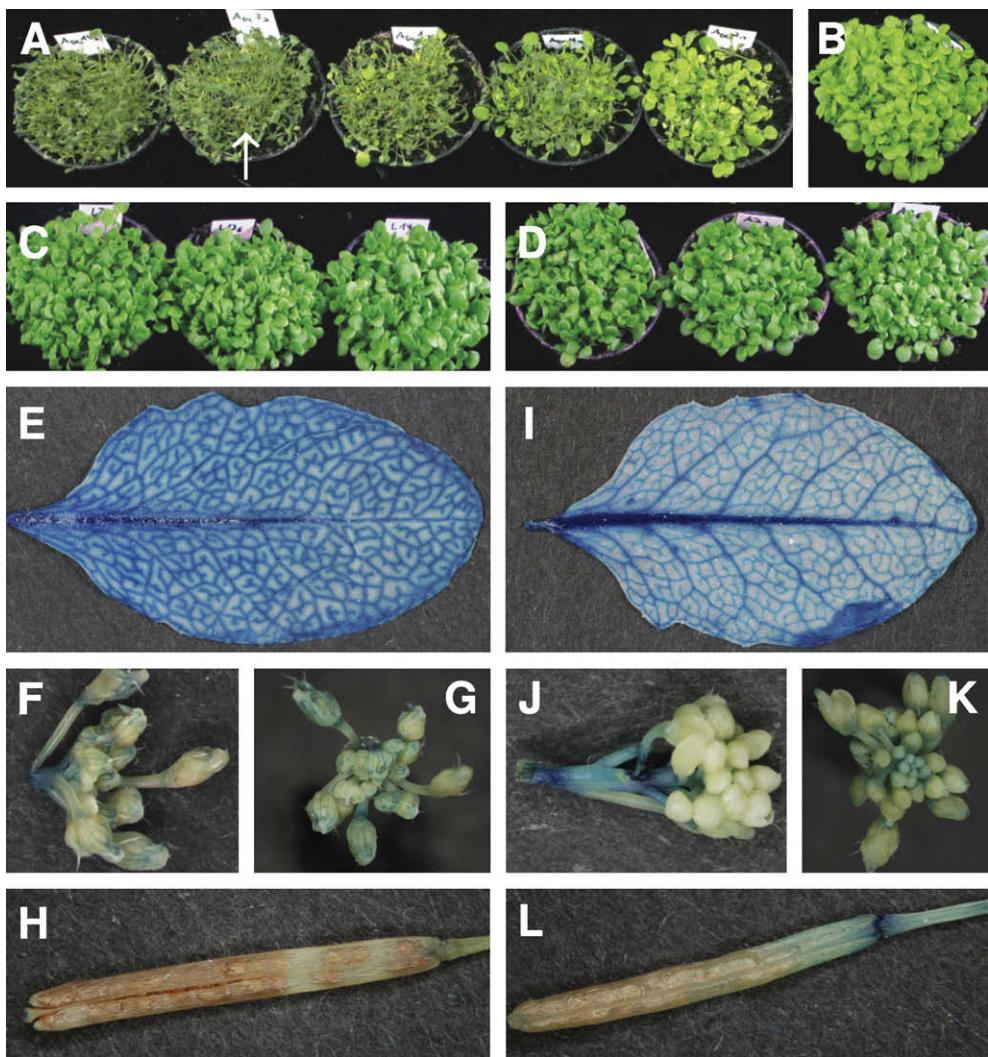


Fig. 1. Phenotype of Alc:: PaNie_{Dc} plants and tissue specificity of camalexin biosynthetic gene expression. A: Seedling phenotype of Alc:: PaNie_{Dc} lines 40 h after ethanol induction. Severe symptoms were observed. An arrow denotes a single insertion line selected for further studies. Col-0 (B), Alc:: $\text{PaNie}_{\text{Del}}$ (C), or Alc:: PaNie_L (D) lines 40 h after ethanol spraying did not develop symptoms. Activity of *CYP79B2p:GUS* (E, F, G, H) or *CYP71B15p:GUS* (I, J, K, L) in Alc:: PaNie_{Dc} background 8 h after induction. E, I: rosette leaves; F, G, J, K: inflorescence; H, L: siliques. Low GUS activity in reproductive organs was observed.

Gershenson, 2006; Tierens et al., 2001). Therefore, also a potential effect of *PaNie_{Dc}* expression on glucosinolate composition was investigated, which was largely unchanged after ethanol spraying (Supplementary Fig. S3).

The transcriptional activation of tryptophan and camalexin biosynthetic genes in rosette leaves was analyzed by quantitative RT-PCR (Fig. 3). Strong transient activation, up to 400-fold, was observed and the time course of this induction matched between the different genes analyzed (Fig. 3). The tryptophan biosynthetic genes *ASA1* and *TSA* were induced more than 50-fold within 6 h after induction. The kinetics of *ASA1* and *TSA* induction suggests that camalexin biosynthetic genes are highly co-regulated with the tryptophan biosynthetic genes. This is in accordance with the analysis of published array data on the response of the Col-0 transcriptome to pathogen infection, using programs such as expression angler (Toufighi et al., 2005). This observed co-regulation suggests that in response to pathogen infection, camalexin is a major sink for tryptophan. Here, in response to *PaNie* we observed a camalexin synthesis rate between 6 and 8 h of $1.75 \pm 0.96 \mu\text{g h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1}$ (fr. wt).

2.3. Which tissues are capable of synthesizing camalexin?

It is well established that camalexin formation can be triggered in rosette leaves (Glawischnig, 2007). Root pathogens, such as *Pythium sylvaticum* or *Plasmodiophora brassicae*, also induce camalexin biosynthesis (Bednarek et al., 2005; Siemens et al., 2008).

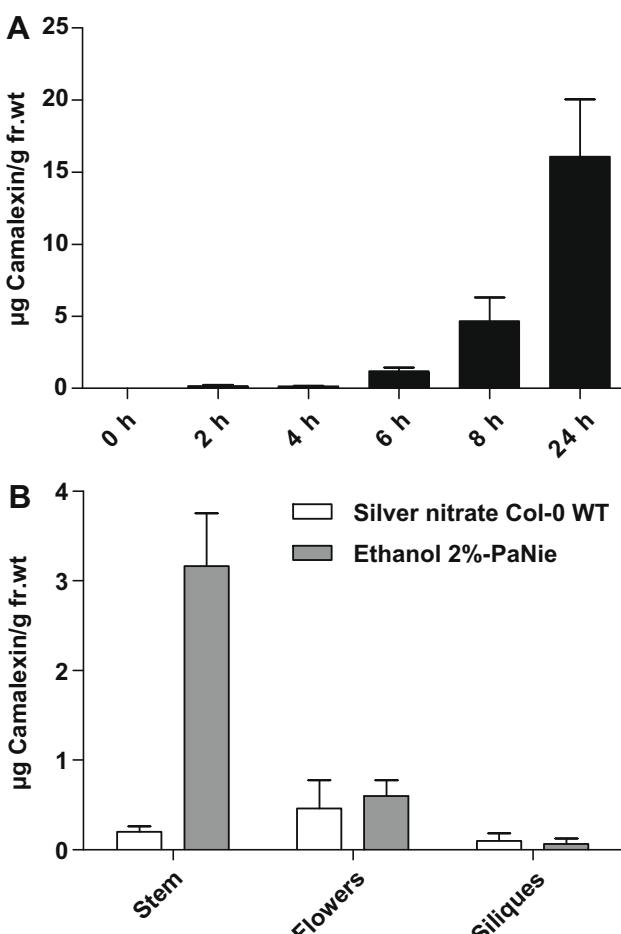


Fig. 2. Induction of camalexin synthesis. A: Camalexin formation in rosette leaves of Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}* plants induced with ethanol. B: Camalexin formation in stem, flower, and siliques of Col-0 plants 24 h after silver nitrate spraying or Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}* plants 24 h after induction with ethanol.

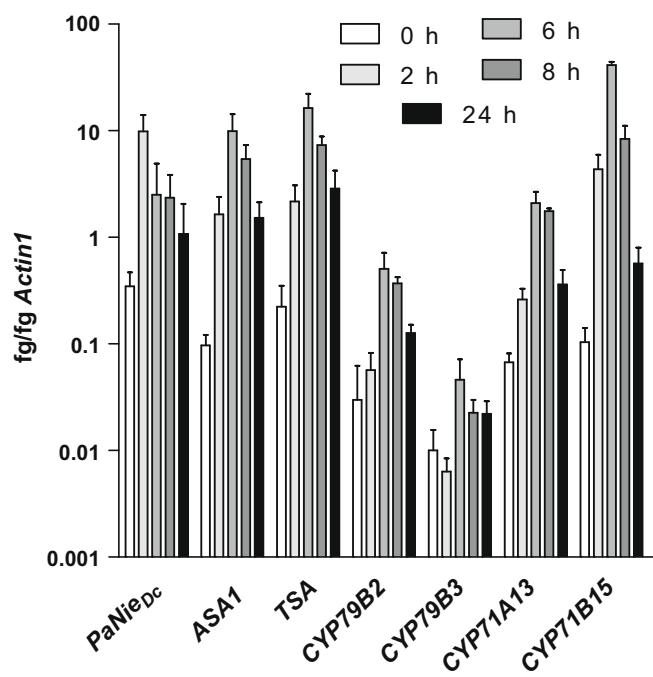


Fig. 3. Induction of tryptophan and camalexin biosynthetic genes in rosette leaves of Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}* plants. The same plant material as in Fig. 2A was analyzed. Transcript concentrations relative to *Actin1* in response to ethanol spraying were determined by quantitative RT-PCR ($n = 3$).

In order to analyze, which mature tissues are capable of synthesizing camalexin, stem tissue, flowers, and siliques were harvested from 10-week-old Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}* plants, induced with ethanol for 24 h, and analyzed for camalexin concentration (Fig. 2). The camalexin concentration in stem tissue was approx. 20% to 40% in comparison to leaves. In flowers and siliques respectively, only ~4–7% and 0.4–0.8% of the camalexin concentration present in leaves was detected. To analyze whether this effect is due to low induction of the *PaNie_{Dc}* transgene in flowers and siliques *PaNie_{Dc}* transcript levels were quantified. In response to ethanol spraying after 2 h *PaNie_{Dc}* was induced in flowers and siliques, to ~1.1 and 0.2 fg per fg *Actin1*, respectively. Despite lower levels of transgene expression in stem (~0.4 fg per fg *Actin1*) in comparison to flowers, induction of the camalexin biosynthetic genes was much more efficient. This suggests that *PaNie_{Dc}* levels are not the limiting factor for camalexin synthesis in flowers of induced Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}* plants. It cannot be ruled out that in siliques *PaNie_{Dc}* expression is below a threshold necessary for triggering camalexin synthesis.

Transcript concentrations of tryptophan and camalexin biosynthetic genes were monitored in stem tissue, flowers, and siliques 0, 2, and 6 h after ethanol spraying (Fig. 4). Transcript levels after induction correlated with the observed camalexin concentration (Fig. 2). Induction of the camalexin biosynthetic genes in flowers and siliques was minor, consistent with the low concentration of observed end product. In conclusion, flowers and siliques show low competence to transmit the PAMP signal into induction of phytalexin synthesis.

Alc::*PaNie_{Dc}* plants were crossed with plants expressing GUS under the control of the *CYP71B15* or *CYP79B2* promoter (Glawischnig et al., 2004; Mikkelsen et al., 2000; Schuhegger et al., 2006). GUS expression in response to ethanol spraying in these crosses allowed analyzing the spatial distribution of competence for camalexin biosynthesis in more detail. Rosette leaves were evenly competent for camalexin synthesis. This contrasts our observation in flowers and green siliques, where both silver nitrate application and *PaNie* expression trigger the synthesis of only minor amounts

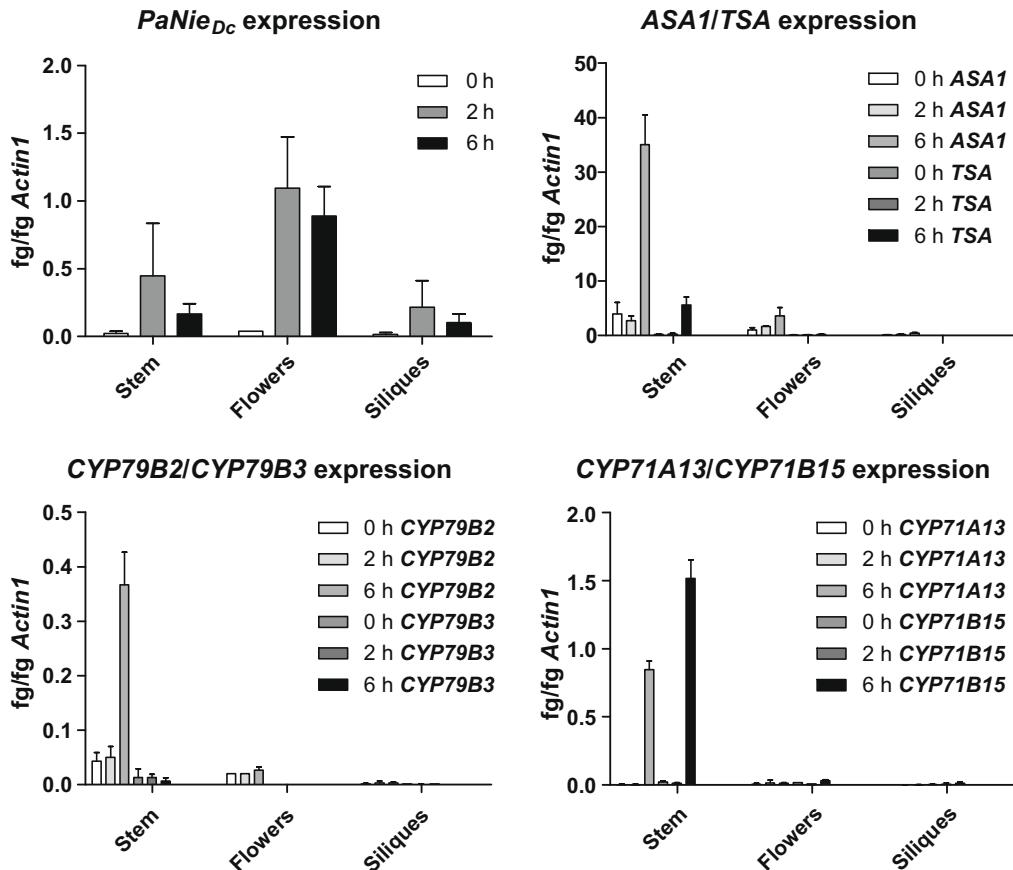


Fig. 4. Induction of tryptophan and camalexin biosynthetic genes in stem, flower, and siliques tissue of Alc::PaNie_{Dc} plants induced with ethanol. Transcript concentrations relative to *Actin1* were determined by quantitative RT-PCR ($n = 3$).

of camalexin (Fig. 2). Similarly, *CYP79B2p::GUS* and *CYP71B15p::GUS* expression was low in induced flowers and siliques (Fig. 1).

Probably components of the camalexin-linked signalling cascade, which remain to be elucidated, are low expressed in reproductive organs. One has to keep in mind that camalexin is also toxic for the plant (Rogers et al., 1996). While loss of some leaf tissue during defence against pathogens is tolerated, camalexin synthesis in flowers or seeds might impair reproductive fitness. Therefore, it would be not a useful defence strategy against infection of these organs. High concentrations of glucosinolates are accumulated in flowers, siliques, and particularly in seeds (Brown et al., 2003; Petersen et al., 2002). In contrast to camalexin, glucosinolates are converted to biologically active degradation products primarily when they come into contact with myrosinases after tissue disruption (Halkier and Gershenson, 2006). Possibly, in flowers and siliques glucosinolates are therefore advantageous as defence molecules and lack of the phytoalexin is compensated by high concentrations of phytoanticipins (VanEtten et al., 1994).

3. Conclusion

The quantity of camalexin synthesis in response to pathogen infection depends on the metabolic state and the mode of application of the microorganism. Here, we developed a system that allows very simple handling and reproducible time-dependent induction of the camalexin biosynthetic genes. It can be provided as a helpful tool for the analysis of camalexin signalling, e.g. to be used in genetic screens. Candidate components of the signalling cascade triggering camalexin biosynthesis can be evaluated by

crossing corresponding mutants with Alc::PaNie_{Dc} plants. The reproducibility of the system will facilitate the detection of alterations on transcript, protein, and metabolite levels.

4. Experimental

4.1. Generation of *PaNie* expressing plants

For construction of full length *PaNie*, or *PaNie* lacking N-terminal 21 amino acids leader peptide was cloned into pBJ36_AlcA (http://www.weigelworld.org/resources/plasmids/Alc/pBJ36_AlcA) via *Xba*I/*Bam*H. The leader of the extensin gene (Dc) of *Daucus carota* (Chen and Varner, 1985) was amplified from carrot DNA using the primer pair tactctcgagatggaaattgttaggg/ttaccatggcagctgtggttcgaaagcc (5' to 3' orientation). *PaNie* was amplified as described previously (Veit et al., 2001) and then cloned into pBJ36_AlcA, containing the leader of the extensin gene (Dc) via *Bam*H. This construct was cloned into pMLBART_AlcR (http://www.weigelworld.org/resources/plasmids/Alc/pMLBART_AlcR) via *Not*I.

4.2. Plant growth conditions and reporter gene analysis

Alc::PaNie_{Dc} plants were crossed with *CYP79B2p::GUS* and *CYP71B15p::GUS* plants (Mikkelsen et al., 2000; Schuhegger et al., 2006). Plants were grown in soil mixed with sand (3:1) in a growth chamber at 12 h light, 21 °C, 80–100 μmol of photons per m² per s and 40% relative humidity. GUS staining was performed as described previously (Glawischnig et al., 2004; Schuhegger et al., 2006).

4.3. Camalexin induction and analysis

The rosette leaves of 6-week-old plants or flowers, siliques, and stems of 10-week-old plants were sprayed with 5 mM AgNO₃ or 2% ethanol and incubated under a plastic hood. Spraying with ethanol concentrations $\geq 3\%$ resulted in a slight reduction of camalexin yield (Supplementary Fig. S1). Camalexin extraction and analysis was performed as described previously (Glawischnig et al., 2004). For each measurement 3–6 plants were used as biological replicates. Glucosinolate extraction was performed according to Petersen et al. (2001).

4.4. RNA extraction and quantitative real time PCR

For RNA extraction from leaves, flowers and stems (50–100 mg), NucleoSpin®RNA Plant-Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions. Siliques material (100 mg) was homogenized with RNA extraction buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 25 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 75 mM NaCl, 1% SDS), extracted with phenol/CHCl₃/isoamylalcohol (50:24:1), phenol/CHCl₃/isoamylalcohol (25:24:1) and CHCl₃/isoamylalcohol (24:1). RNA was precipitated with 0.25 vol 10 M LiCl, washed with 70% EtOH, dissolved in 200 µl DEPC-treated H₂O, precipitated with 2.5 vol EtOH/0.1 vol 3 M NaOAc pH 5.2, washed with 3 M NaOAc and 70% EtOH, and dissolved in 50 ml DEPC-treated H₂O.

Total RNA (0.5 µg) was used for cDNA synthesis according to the manufacturer's instructions (TaqMan, Roche, Mannheim, Germany). Quantitative real time PCR experiments were performed with a LightCycler instrument using the LightCycler® FastStart DNA Master^{PLUS}SYBRGreen I-Kit (*PaNie_{Dc}*, *ASA1*, *TSA*, *CYP79B2*, *CYP79B3*, *CYP71B15*) or the LightCycler® FastStart DNA Master SYBRGreen I-Kit (*Actin1*, *CYP71A13*) (Roche, Mannheim, Germany). Expression of the genes of interest was normalized to *Actin1*. For primer sequences see Supplementary Table ST 1. The annealing temperatures were as follows: *Actin1* (52 °C), *PaNie_{Dc}* (54 °C), *ASA1* (54 °C), *TSA* (54 °C), *CYP79B2* (60 °C), *CYP79B3* (58 °C), *CYP71A13* (55 °C) and *CYP71B15* (54 °C). For *PaNie_{Dc}* 0.2 µl DMSO, for *ASA1* 0.5 µl DMSO, for *CYP71A13* and *Actin1* 1.2 µl MgCl₂ (25 mM) were added to the reaction. For each measurement RNA preparations from three different plants were used as replicates.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.phytochem.2008.12.010.

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