

1 **Proteinaceous necrotrophic effectors in fungal**
2 **virulence**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 The host-pathogen interface can be considered as a biological battlefield. Molecules
21 produced by both the pathogen and the host are critical factors determining the outcome of
22 the interaction. Recent studies have revealed that an increasing number of necrotrophic
23 fungal pathogens produce small, proteinaceous effectors which are able to function as
24 virulence factors. These molecules can cause tissue death in host plants that possess dominant
25 sensitivity genes leading to subsequent pathogen colonisation. Such effectors are only found
26 in necrotrophic fungi, yet their roles in virulence are poorly understood. However, several
27 recent key studies of necrotrophic effectors from two wheat pathogens, *Pyrenophora tritici-*
28 *repentis* and *Stagonospora nodorum*, have shed light upon how these effector proteins serve
29 to disable the host from inside-out.

30

31 **Introduction**

32 Necrotrophic fungi were traditionally considered as non-host-specific pathogens that
33 use a large array of cell wall-degrading enzymes and non-specific toxins for pathogenicity
34 (Hammond-Kosack and Rudd 2008). It is now known that some of these necrotrophs possess
35 an arsenal of effectors used to disable susceptible hosts ahead of colonisation. As with the
36 avirulence (Avr) effectors of biotrophic fungal pathogens (reviewed in this issue),
37 necrotrophic effectors share some common properties (Table 1). However, in contrast to the
38 classical gene-for-gene hypothesis, where the interaction of avirulence effectors with host R-
39 gene complexes leads to resistance, necrotrophic effectors function in an 'inverse' manner. An
40 interaction between a necrotrophic effector and the product of a host dominant sensitivity
41 gene leads instead to disease (Figure 1).

42 Necrotrophic effectors are a diverse group of molecules that induce tissue death in
43 host plants possessing the appropriate genotype. They are typically small and can be
44 proteinaceous in nature or secondary metabolites. Examples of metabolite-based effectors
45 include victorin of *Cochliobolus victoriae* and AAL-toxin of *Alternaria alternata*, and these
46 have been extensively reviewed elsewhere (Walton 1996; Wolpert *et al.* 2002). The purpose
47 of this review will focus on discussing recent discoveries of proteinaceous necrotrophic
48 effectors and their roles in virulence.

49 **Effectors of *Pyrenophora tritici f. sp. repentis***

50 *Pyrenophora tritici-repentis* is the causal agent of tan spot (previously called either
51 yellow spot or yellow leaf spot), a devastating disease of wheat. To date, two proteinaceous
52 effectors of this necrotroph have been identified, PtrToxA and PtrToxB encoded by the genes
53 *PtrToxA* and *PtrToxB*.

54 PtrToxA was the first effector to be isolated and is the best characterised. The
55 PtrToxA protein is the product of a single copy gene, which is present in approximately 80%
56 of a worldwide collection of isolates (Friesen *et al.* 2006). PtrToxA is a small (13.2 kDa),
57 secreted protein that causes necrosis in sensitive wheat genotypes (Ballance *et al.* 1989;
58 Tomas *et al.* 1990; Tuori *et al.* 1995). Ciuffetti and colleagues has demonstrated that the
59 *PtrToxA* gene is both necessary and sufficient for the pathogenicity of *P. tritici-repentis*,
60 since transformation of a non-pathogenic *P. tritici-repentis* isolate with the *PtrToxA* gene is

61 sufficient to render that isolate pathogenic on PtrToxA-sensitive wheat lines (Ciuffetti *et al.*
62 1997).

63 Wheat sensitivity to the PtrToxA effector is conditioned by *Tsn1*, a single gene
64 present on the long arm of chromosome 5B (Anderson *et al.* 1999; Faris *et al.* 1996). The
65 *Tsn1* gene has very recently been cloned, and found to possess nucleotide-binding site (NBS),
66 leucine-rich repeat (LRR) and serine/threonine protein kinase domains, all of which are
67 necessary for PtrToxA sensitivity (Faris *et al.* 2010). Paradoxically, these domains are
68 common features of plant disease resistance (*R*) genes which are involved in defence against
69 biotrophic pathogens (Martin *et al.* 2003).

70 Parallels can be drawn with the victorin effector of *Cochliobolus victoriae*, the causal
71 agent of victoria blight disease of oats (Meehan and Murphy 1946). The *C. victoriae*
72 susceptibility gene has been identified in *Arabidopsis thaliana* as *LOV1*, which like *Tsn1*, has
73 a NBS-LRR structure and mediates responses associated with biotrophic disease resistance
74 (Lorang *et al.* 2007). However, victorin rapidly induces resistance-like physiology in oats,
75 including a respiratory burst and apoptotic-like cell death (Wolpert *et al.* 2002). Yet how can
76 the elicitation of a “resistance” response lead to disease susceptibility? What seems at first to
77 be a contradiction in terms could in fact be accounted for by the lifestyle of the pathogen.
78 Thus an environment that would be unfavourable to biotrophic pathogens (such as
79 programmed cell death generated by the plant host) would actually be favourable to
80 pathogens with a necrotrophic lifestyle. This suggests that *R* genes could paradoxically play a
81 role in disease susceptibility, by serving as targets for necrotrophic effectors, such as
82 PtrToxA.

83 Several recent studies have helped to unravel the mode of action of PtrToxA.
84 Cytological analyses have revealed that PtrToxA is rapidly internalised into the mesophyll
85 cells of sensitive wheat cultivars (Manning and Ciuffetti 2005; Manning *et al.* 2008).
86 However, the protein or proteins with which PtrToxA interacts at the cell membrane remain
87 unidentified. Although *Tsn1* is necessary to mediate PtrToxA recognition, yeast two-hybrid
88 experiments suggest that *Tsn1* does not interact directly with PtrToxA nor does it possess any
89 apparent transmembrane domains (Faris *et al.* 2010).

90 Analysis of the mature PtrToxA protein sequence has demonstrated the presence of an
91 arginyl-glycyl-aspartic (RGD) motif present at the surface of the PtrToxA protein (Zhang *et*

92 *al.* 1997), which is required for ToxA internalisation (Manning and Ciuffetti 2005; Manning
93 *et al.* 2008). This sequence is located on a solvent-exposed loop and is easily accessible for
94 protein-protein interactions (Sarma *et al.* 2005b). In animals, the RGD motif is involved in
95 the binding of extracellular matrix proteins to transmembrane integrin proteins (D'Souza *et*
96 *al.* 1991; Ruoslahti and Pierschbacher 1986). These integrins have been utilised by many
97 mammalian pathogens as adhesion sites and as binding sites for effectors (Isberg and Tran
98 Van Nhieu 1994). Thus, it is it conceivable that PtrToxA internalisation relies on recognition
99 of the RGD motif by a plant integrin-like protein receptor. Indeed, integrin-like proteins have
100 been identified in plants (Baluska *et al.* 2003; Faik *et al.* 1998; Laboure *et al.* 1999; Nagpal
101 and Quatrano 1999; Sun *et al.* 2000; Swatzell *et al.* 1999) and may provide candidates for
102 mediating PtrToxA internalisation.

103 Much of what occurs once PtrToxA is internalised is still unknown. However, there is
104 evidence to suggest that the action of PtrToxA is associated with photosynthetic pathways
105 (Manning *et al.* 2009). For example, once inside the cell, the chloroplast appears to be a
106 target for PtrToxA. *In vitro* experiments suggest that PtrToxA is able to interact with the
107 chloroplast-localised protein called ToxA-binding protein 1 (ToxABP1), homologs of which
108 have been found across several plant species (Manning *et al.* 2007; Sarma *et al.* 2005a).
109 Although the precise function of ToxABP1 is unknown, it has been suggested to play a part
110 in photosystem function and/or thylakoid formation (Keren *et al.* 2005; Wang *et al.* 2004).
111 Indeed, PtrToxA treatment has been demonstrated to induce changes in photosystems I and
112 II, leading to light-dependent accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the
113 chloroplast (Manning *et al.* 2009). The link between PtrToxA and photosynthesis is further
114 supported by the light-dependent nature of PtrToxA-induced necrosis and the tight regulation
115 of *Tsn1* transcription by both the circadian clock and light (Faris *et al.* 2010; Manning and
116 Ciuffetti 2005).

117 Two independent studies have examined the global transcriptional changes induced
118 by PtrToxA on sensitive wheat cultivars (Adhikari *et al.* 2009; Pandelova *et al.* 2009). Both
119 studies illustrate that considerable transcriptional reprogramming occurs following PtrToxA
120 treatment. Numerous defence-related host genes were up-regulated at both early and late time
121 points, including those associated with the phenylpropanoid pathway, lignification and ROS
122 production, as well as genes functioning in signal transduction. Taken together, these studies
123 suggest that PtrToxA disrupts photosynthetic electron transport, leading to ROS

124 accumulation and plant cell death upon light exposure, thus creating an environment in which
125 necrotrophic pathogens may thrive.

126 Another effector from Ptr which has been characterised is PtrToxB. Like PtrToxA,
127 PtrToxB is also a small, secreted protein (6.6 kDa) which causes chlorosis on sensitive wheat
128 genotypes, and is encoded by a multicopy gene, *PtrToxB* (Martinez *et al.* 2001; Orolaza *et al.*
129 1995; Strelkov *et al.* 1999). Although not as prevalent as PtrToxA, PtrToxB has been found
130 to be produced by a number of isolates around the world (Ali and Francl 2003; Friesen and
131 Faris 2005; Lamari *et al.* 2005). Wheat sensitivity is conditioned by the dominant *Tsc2* gene,
132 which has been mapped to the short arm of chromosome 2B (Friesen and Faris 2004;
133 Strelkov *et al.* 1999). Unlike most effectors, PtrToxB homologues have been found across a
134 broad range of plant pathogenic ascomycetes, suggesting that it may have arisen in an early
135 ancestor of the Ascomycota (Andrie *et al.* 2008). However, whether PtrToxB and its
136 homologues play a role in plant-microbe interactions is yet to be elucidated.

137 **Effectors of *Stagonospora nodorum***

138 *Stagonospora nodorum* is the causal agent of stagonospora (previously Septoria)
139 nodorum blotch (SNB) of wheat (Solomon *et al.* 2006). Evidence of necrotrophic effectors
140 produced by *S. nodorum* was first reported by Keller and colleagues (1994) using wheat
141 embryos. Genes encoding effector proteins have only been identified and characterised
142 recently (Friesen *et al.* 2006; Liu *et al.* 2009).

143 *SnToxA* was the first reported necrotrophic effector gene identified in *S. nodorum*
144 (Friesen *et al.* 2006). A BLAST search of the *S. nodorum* genome sequence with *PtrToxA*
145 identified an almost identical gene. Further genome exploration has revealed that *SnToxA* is
146 located within a highly conserved 11 kb genomic region that is present in both organisms.
147 This 'transfercon' was hypothesised to be acquired by *P. tritici-repentis* from *S. nodorum*
148 through lateral gene transfer, a biological process previously thought to be uniquely
149 prokaryotic. This hypothesis is supported by several key pieces of evidence. Firstly, SNB has
150 been known since the 1800s whilst tan spot was described as recently as 1941. Prior to this,
151 *P. tritici-repentis* was described as a saprophyte. Secondly, *ToxA* has only been found in
152 these two organisms to date. Finally, the nucleotide sequence of *SnToxA* exhibits greater
153 diversity in its polypeptide sequence than that of *PtrToxA*. Taken together, this strongly
154 suggests that *ToxA* was acquired by *P. tritici-repentis* prior to 1941 (Friesen *et al.* 2006;

155 Stukenbrock and McDonald 2007). The identification of SnToxA in *S. nodorum* highlights
156 the importance of genome sequencing in effector discovery (Hane *et al.* 2007). SnToxA and
157 PtrToxA possess the same mode of action. Both effectors cause necrosis on wheat carrying
158 *Tsn1* in a light-dependent manner (Friesen *et al.* 2006; Manning and Ciuffetti 2005).

159 The identification of *SnToxA* provided an opportunity to study the role of this gene in
160 fungal virulence, as unlike *P. tritici-repentis*, *S. nodorum* is genetically tractable. Several
161 lines of evidence have been published confirming that SnToxA interacts (directly or
162 indirectly) with *Tsn1*. Firstly, *S. nodorum* strains lacking *SnToxA* were non-pathogenic on
163 *Tsn1* wheat varieties (Friesen *et al.* 2006). Secondly, protein extracts from *SnToxA*-
164 expressing *S. nodorum* strains induced necrosis on *Tsn1* wheat whilst extracts from *SntoxA*
165 lines did not (Friesen *et al.* 2006). Lastly, transformation of an avirulent *ToxA*-deficient
166 wildtype strain of *S. nodorum* with *PtrToxA* allow the fungus to become virulent and cause
167 necrosis on wheat lines harbouring *Tsn1* (Friesen *et al.* 2006).

168 *SnTox3* was the second necrotrophic effector gene identified in *S. nodorum*. SnTox3
169 was first reported as a partially purified protein that causes necrosis on wheat carrying the
170 *Snn3* dominant sensitivity gene which is located on the short arm of chromosome 5 (Friesen
171 *et al.* 2008b; Liu *et al.* 2009). Gene knockout analysis of *SnTox3* indicated it to be a critical
172 component in *S. nodorum* virulence on *Snn3* wheat. The introduction of *SnTox3* into an
173 avirulent *Tox3*-deficient *S. nodorum* wildtype strain allowed it to infect and cause necrosis on
174 *Snn3* wheat varieties. Whilst detailed mechanistic studies have yet to be undertaken, SnTox3
175 appears to be functionally different to SnToxA. SnTox3 is cysteine-rich, a characteristic
176 typically associated with several described biotrophic avirulence effectors (Catanzariti *et al.*
177 2006; Van den Ackerveken *et al.* 1993). Also, unlike *ToxA*, SnTox3 does not require light to
178 induce necrosis on *Snn3* wheat. This suggests a different mode of function compared to
179 SnToxA. Gene expression analysis indicates that *SnTox3* is up-regulated during the early
180 stage of infection coinciding with host penetration (Liu *et al.* 2009). *SnToxA* also showed a
181 similar expression profile during infection (unpublished data).

182 These studies imply that these effectors function to disable host cells during the early
183 stage of infection. Thus, the invading fungus will have a readily accessible nutrient supply
184 during infection (Solomon *et al.* 2003).

185 *S. nodorum* also possesses at least three other proteinaceous necrotrophic effectors.
186 These are SnTox1, SnTox2 and SnTox4. However, genes that code for these proteins have
187 yet to be identified and therefore, the extent of their involvement in fungal virulence cannot
188 be fully gauged (Abeysekara *et al.* 2009; Friesen *et al.* 2007; Liu *et al.* 2004; Reddy *et al.*
189 2008). The wheat genes that confer sensitivity to these effectors are *Snn1*, *Snn2* and *Snn4*,
190 respectively. The use of molecular marker-based quantitative trait locus (QTL) analysis of
191 various wheat mapping populations has led to the identification of major QTLs in wheat
192 chromosome arms 1BS (*Snn1*), 2DS (*Snn2*) and 1AS (*Snn4*) that accounted for up to 58, 47
193 and 41% in disease variations, respectively (Abeysekara *et al.* 2009; Friesen *et al.* 2008a).

194 **Effectors of other necrotrophic fungi**

195 Proteinaceous effectors from other prominent necrotrophic fungi have also been
196 recently identified. *Alternaria brassicae* is a pathogen of the Brassicaceae. Evidence that this
197 pathogen produces necrotrophic effectors was reported by Parada *et al.* (2008). Semi-purified
198 protein fractions were shown to contain a 27.5 kDa protein, Abr-toxin, able to cause necrosis
199 on cabbage and oilseed. It caused no necrosis on the non-brassica, tomato. Co-inoculation of
200 the Abr-toxin and an avirulent isolate of *A. alternata* resulted in infectious symptoms on the
201 host leaf similar to *A. brassicae*. Partial protein sequencing revealed that the Abr-toxin
202 possesses amino acid sequence similarities to the protease trypsin.

203 *Pyrenophora teres* f. sp. *teres* and f. sp. *maculata* cause net-form net blotch and spot-
204 form net blotch of barley, respectively. Using protein chromatographic techniques, Sarpeleh
205 *et al.* (2007) demonstrated that both pathogens produce proteinaceous effectors that are
206 between 20 to 100 kDa. These semi-purified effectors induce strong necrosis on a barley
207 variety that is susceptible to both fungi, but caused a weak reaction in a resistant line of
208 barley. Like ToxA, these effectors require light to cause necrosis on the host plant (Sarpeleh
209 *et al.* 2008). The identity of these effectors from both *P. teres* subspecies is currently
210 unknown.

211 *Corynespora cassiicola*, a serious pathogen of rubber trees, produces a cysteine-rich
212 necrotrophic effector called cassiicolin. The effector is able to cause necrosis on detached
213 rubber tree leaves and other host plants such as tobacco and soy (de Lamotte *et al.* 2007).
214 Although the deduced effector amino acid sequence did not show significant homology with

215 other proteins, structural analysis indicates that the protein structure resembles trypsin-like
216 inhibitors (Barthe *et al.* 2007).

217 The fungus *Rhynchosporium secalis* is the causal agent of barley scald. Several small
218 cysteine-rich proteins designated as Nip1, 2 and 3 were identified in *R. secalis* and these are
219 capable of causing necrosis on a broad range of plants. Nip1 and 3 has been shown to
220 stimulate barley plasma H⁺-ATPase which may be the likely cause of host tissue necrosis
221 (Wevelsiep *et al.* 1991; Wevelsiep *et al.* 1993). Nip1 has recently been shown to bind to a
222 single unidentified receptor that triggers the plant defense response (van't Slot *et al.* 2007). In
223 addition, Nip1 also functions as an avirulence effector on barley varieties that possess the
224 uncloned *Rrs1* gene (Rohe *et al.* 1995). A total of 14 Nip1 forms were identified, three of
225 which are associated with a gain in virulence on *Rrs1* barley (Schurch *et al.* 2004).

226 **Conclusion**

227 Necrotrophic fungi were, up until recently, considered as simplistic pathogens that
228 rely on a plethora of non-host-specific mechanisms to storm the host. Recent seminal
229 discoveries of host-selective necrotrophic effectors have revealed a new level of pathogenic
230 complexity. These breakthroughs highlight that necrotrophic fungi possess the ability to
231 selectively disable their host from within, before an effective defence response can be
232 mounted. The mode of action of these effectors is largely unknown, although studies on
233 ToxA clearly demonstrate that host metabolism is disabled prior to cell death. Hence, host-
234 selective effectors are paramount for these fungi to live a necrotrophic lifestyle.

235

236 **Table 1.** Properties of proteinaceous avirulence and necrotrophic effectors.

237

238 **Fig. 1.** Outcomes of fungal effector/host interactions. A to C depict the host response to a
239 fungal Avr protein. The host will mount a successful defence response against the pathogen if
240 Avr recognition occurs (A). Infection will occur if the pathogen is not recognised due to the
241 absence or altered R (resistance) receptor (B) or Avr effector (C). Necrotrophic effectors
242 function in an inverse manner (D to F). A successful infection will only occur during effector
243 recognition (D). During a non-recognition event, no disease will result due to the absence or
244 altered host sensitivity receptor (E) or fungal effector (F). For simplicity, receptors are
245 illustrated on the cell wall. We acknowledge that some host receptors are located
246 intracellularly.

247

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437

Table 1

Characteristic	Avirulence effector	Necrotrophic effector
Relative small size [#]	Yes	Yes
Secreted	Yes	Yes
Expression <i>in planta</i>	Yes	Yes
Receptor type [^]	Predominantly NBS-LRR	Unknown
Cysteine-rich [*]	Predominantly	Some
Compatible host response	No disease	Disease
Fungal lifestyle	Biotrophic/hemibiotrophic	Necrotrophic
Function/homology	Diverse	Unknown

[#]Under 30 kDa.

[^]NBS-LRR denotes nucleotide-binding site leucine-rich repeat protein.

^{*}Greater than four cysteines per mature polypeptide.

Figure 1

