

## Recent Advances in Studies of Host-Specific Toxins — with Special Reference to *Alternaria* Toxins\* —

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### 植物病原菌의 寄主選擇性毒素에 대한 最近의 研究動向 — *Alternaria* 毒素을 中心으로 —

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#### INTRODUCTION

The toxin concept in plant pathology has changed greatly during the past two decades since researchers directed their attention to host-specific toxin (host-selective toxin, HST). The term "host-specific toxin" was coined in 1964 by Pringle and Scheffer(35). A little later, Nishimura and Scheffer (27) and Yoder and Scheffer (44) added two important requisites for HST. Now, it is most likely reasonable and persuasive that the following four conditions must be satisfied at least before calling a candidate toxin a HST: a) Correlation between toxin productivity and pathogenicity of the fungus. All strains of the fungus that produce HST are pathogenic. All strain that fail to produce the HST are non-pathogenic to the specific host. b) Correlation between toxin sensitivity and susceptibility to the fungus in plants. Plants that are susceptible to the fungus are sensitive to its toxin. c) Toxin is released on germination at the site of initial invasion (27). d) Toxin is involved in initial colonization of the fungus (44). Toxin can induce the susceptibility to

fungal invasion only in host cells. A serious need for such HST study was shown in the statement by Wood at the 1971 Long Ashton Symposium on Fungal Pathogenicity and the Plant's Response: The microorganism X (but not others) produce substance Y which damages plant or plant group A but not others, and only A is parasitized (41). Until now, about fourteen examples of such HST were reported mainly with the so-called "saprophytic pathogens" such as *Alternaria* and *Helminthosporium* (Table 1). At present, it is no doubt that HST is the primary determinant for pathogenicity and the host-recognition factor. Because pathological and epidemiological studies with HSTs have accumulated many lines of the evidence that HSTs are integral factors in plant pathogenesis and can act as reliable surrogates for the pathogens that produce them (30,31,32).

This paper comprises an overview of some limited facets of HSTs from *Alternaria* pathogens. Previous reviews (29,32,39) and chapters (28,30,31) have dealt with *Alternaria* toxins. Research advances in HST problems also have been critically discussed by other reviewers (1,2,4,20,36,45).

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Table 1. Demonstration of host-specific toxins

Date	Disease name	Pathogen (Previous name)	Toxin	Susceptible plant
1933	Black spot	<i>Alternaria alternata</i> Japanese pear pathotype ( <i>A. kikuchiana</i> )	AK-toxin	Japanese pear cv. Nijisseiki
1947	Victoria blight	<i>Helminthosporium</i> <i>victoriae</i>	HV-toxin	Oat cv. Victoria
1961	Milo	<i>Periconia circinata</i>	PC-toxin	Grain sorghum
1965	Northern leaf spot	<i>Helminthosporium</i> <i>carbonum</i>	HC-toxin	Corn
1966	Leaf blotch	<i>Alternaria alternata</i> apple pathotype ( <i>A. mali</i> )	AM-toxin	Apple cv. Starking
1966	Brown spot	<i>Alternaria alternata</i> tangerine pathotype ( <i>A. citri</i> )	ACT-toxin	Dancy tangerine, Emperor mandarin
1970	Leaf blight	<i>Helminthosporium</i> <i>maydis</i> race T	HMT-toxin	Corn Texas cyto- plasma
1971	Eye spot	<i>Helminthosporium</i> <i>sacchari</i>	HS-toxin	Sugarcane
1973	Yellow leaf blight	<i>Phyllosticta maydis</i>	PM-toxin	Corn Texas cyto- plasma
1975	Target leaf spot	<i>Corynespora cassicola</i>		Tomato cv. Ife
1976	Stem canker	<i>Alternaria alternata</i> tomato pathotype ( <i>A. a. f.sp. lycopersici</i> )	AL-toxin	Tomato cv. First cv. Earlypak 7
1979	Brown spot	<i>Alternaria alternata</i> rough lemon pathotype ( <i>A. citri</i> )	ACR-toxin	Rough lemon
1979	Black spot	<i>Alternaria alternata</i> strawberry pathotype	AF-toxin	Strawberry
1980	Brown spot	<i>Alternaria alternata</i> tobacco pathotype ( <i>A. longipes</i> )	AT-toxin	Tobacco

### STRUCTURAL ASPECT OF HST

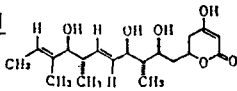
Recent advances in analytical instruments, isolation and bioassay techniques for natural products chemistry have resulted in a kind of "quantum leap" in our knowledge of chemical aspects of HSTs. During the last five years the structures of most HSTs known to date have been reasonably elucidated with well documentations (2,20,32). More recently, new structures have been compiled in a growing toxin list (Fig. 1).

With ACR-toxin from rough lemon pathotype of

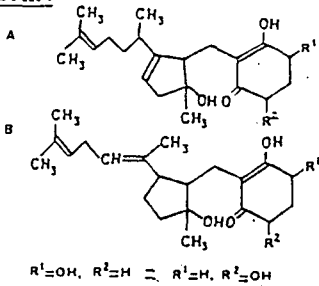
*A. alternata*, Nakatsuka *et al.* (24) purified the major toxin and determined its chemical structure to be a 4-hydroxy-5,6-dihydro-2-pyrone derivative (designated as ACR-toxin I). Independently, Gardner *et al.* (3) also came to the same structural conclusion with their major toxin (ACRL-toxin I). Furthermore, they characterized other five minor  $\alpha$ -pyrone analogues having less toxicity than ACRL-toxin I (16).

With HSTs from tangerine pathotype of *A. alternata*, Kono and Gardner group (17) most recently proposed the structures of major toxins and named ACTG-toxin A and B. However, an open

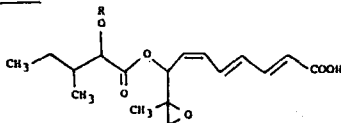
**ACR-TOXIN**



**ACTG-TOXIN**

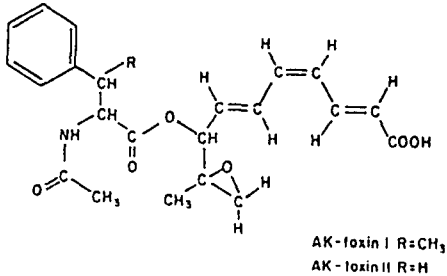


**AF-TOXIN**

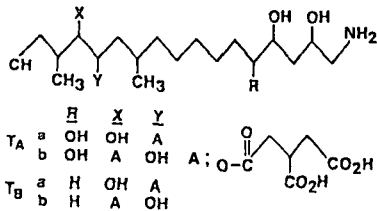


- AF-toxin I :  $R=COCH(OH)(CH_3)_2OH$
- AF-toxin II :  $R=H$
- AF-toxin III :  $R=COCH(OH)CH(CH_3)_2$

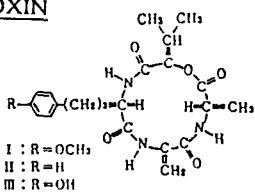
**AK-TOXIN**



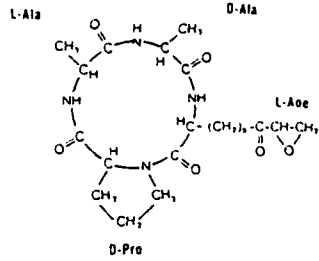
**AL-TOXIN**



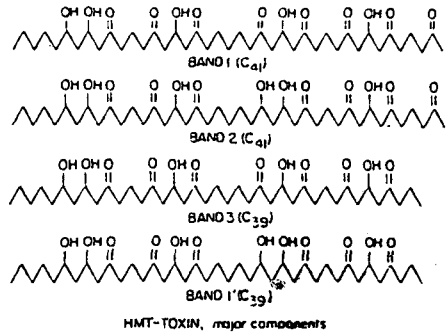
**AM-TOXIN**



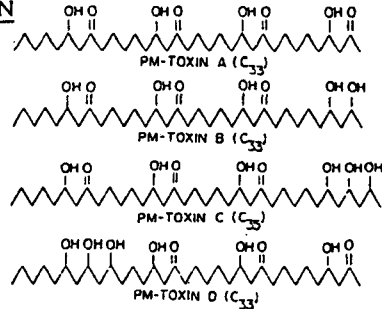
**HC-TOXIN**



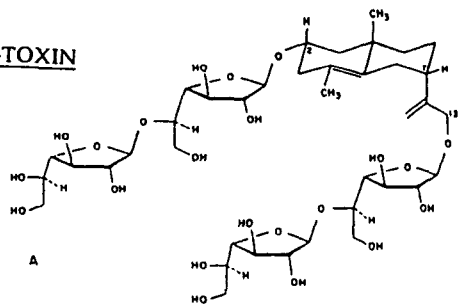
**HMT-TOXIN**



**PM-TOXIN**



**HS-TOXIN**



**HV-TOXIN**

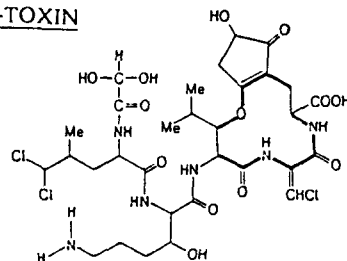


Fig. 1. Structures of host-specific toxins (HSTs) elucidated until 1986.

question whether their toxins are identical with our ACT-toxins is still remained.

Nakatsuka *et al.* (23,25) elucidated in 1985 the structures of AF-toxins I, II and III from strawberry pathotype of *A. alternata*. The toxins have in common a 9, 10-epoxy-9-methyl-dec-(2E, 4E, 6Z)-trienoic acid in structure, while AK-toxin has a different configuration of the same acid (2E, 4Z, 6E)(22). There is a very interesting relation between the structures of these HSTs and the host specificity that each HST determined. Several isomers of AF-toxins also were detectable in culture filtrates or in the course of toxin isolation. Could they be called as multiple toxins in a pathological sense? This reminds us the importance of "release toxin on germination" (27).

In 1985 summer, Macko's group (40) presented the structure of HV-toxin (victorin C) from *Helminthosporium victoriae* affecting oats. It is a great success in the plant toxin field about 40 years after Meehan and Murphy's first report of toxin involvement in Victoria blight disease of oats. The toxin appears very unique structurally with the presence of 3 chlorine atoms in the molecule.

### MODE OF ACTION OF HST

The *Alternaria* HSTs mentioned above are now

becoming available in pure state and useful for precise studies at the molecular level of their act and role in pathogenesis.

Generally speaking, there are at least two ways in mode-of-action studies of HSTs. One is biochemical and physiological approach, and the other is pathological one. Both approaches, of course, should not be understood separately. However, much attention has been paid so far only on mechanism of physiological and biochemical action of HST, and unfortunately, little attention has been paid on their pathological significance.

Table 2 gives a brief summary, without entering into details, on the primary action sites for *Alternaria* HSTs suggested to date. ACR-toxins (13), and AT-toxin (11) appear to have initial effects on mitochondria in susceptible cells. ACT-toxin (1) and AF-toxin (21) and AK-toxin (34) have effects on plasma membrane function, while AM-toxin (3) affects chloroplasts in addition to plasma membranes. AL-toxin is very unique. According to Gilchrist (4,5), it may have the target enzyme, aspartate carbamoyltransferase. It may act as a potent synergist for the regulatory inhibition by uridine monophosphate. Thus, the primary action sites of HST in susceptible genotypes greatly vary with host species involving in combination of host and pathogen site.

Table 2. A tentative list of the primary action sites of *Alternaria alternata* HSTs

HST	Plant	Ultrastructural change			
		Plasma membrane	Chloroplast	Mitochondrion	Ion loss
ACR-toxin I	Rough lemon	--	--	+	+
ACT-toxin A	Dancy tangerine	+	--	--	+
ACT-toxin B	Japanese pear	+	--	--	+
AF-toxin I	Strawberry	+	--	--	+
	Japanese pear	+	--	--	+
AK-toxin I	Japanese pear	+	--	--	+
AL-toxin	Tomato	--	--	--	--
AM-toxin I	Apple	+	+	--	+
	Japanese pear	+	+	--	+
AT-toxin	Tobacco	--	--	+	--

### PATHOLOGICAL ROLE OF HST

From the pathological viewpoint, HSTs appear to play, in common, the same key role as an initiation factor for successful plant infection, though they are diverse in chemical category as well as in physiological primary effect on respective host. Fig. 2 shows our basic model for illustrating the role of HST in pathogenesis. The model has been constructed, based on experimental results with several combinations of Japanese pear and AK-toxin, of apple and AM-toxin, of citrus plants and ACR- & ACT-toxins, and of strawberry and AF-toxin (7, 42, unpublished).

Plant cells, susceptible, resistant or nonhost, commonly possess general and potential defense mechanisms against attempted fungal invasion. The defense mechanisms appear to be triggered by the inducer or activator released from germinating spores, regardless of their pathogenicity. It takes at least several hours for the completion in the induction of defense reaction.

On the other hand, susceptible cells carry HST-

specific binding sites or HST receptors, but resistant and nonhost cells lack such receptors. Pathogenic spores release HST on germination, and the released toxin affects instantaneously susceptible cells but not resistant and nonhost cells at all. Hence, due to the presence of a trace amount of HST, the induction of defense reaction has to be abolished only in susceptible genotypes but not in resistant and nonhost ones. "Release toxin" from germinating spores acts as a telepathogenic factor, prior but not posterior to penetration. HST is capable of predisposing the susceptible condition for fungal invasion selecting the toxin-sensitive cells, where general and potential defense mechanisms may be suppressed through several steps of toxin action.

A goal of the mode-of-action study is to elucidate the chains of events leading from the toxin binding on primary site to the suppression of defense, the induction of accessibility, and the eventual cell death. Recently, we (6, 33) could partially characterized the nature of some components involved in the sequence of events triggered by AK-toxin by careful use of certain counteractive reagents against toxin action. Studies showed

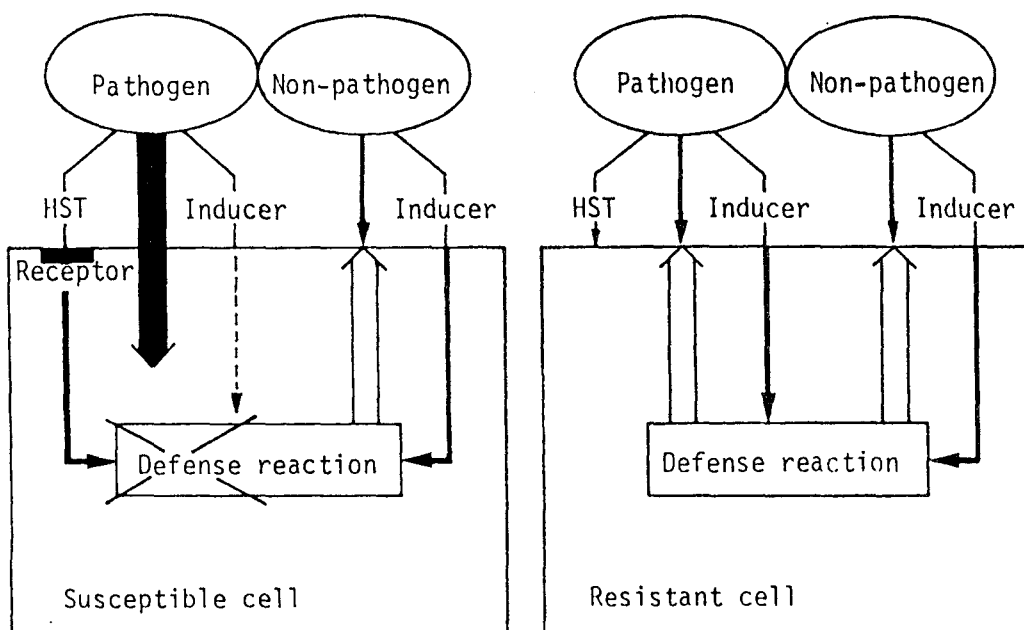


Fig. 2. A basic model for illustrating a telepathogenic role of host-specific toxin in interactions between plant and fungal pathogen.

that AK-toxin have pleiotropic effects on susceptible cells after specific binding to the primary site. A branched series of events may amplified with time just like a cascade structure (Fig. 3).

Toxin action may begin to start as follows:  
 a) AK-toxin, released from virulent spores during germination, may bind to a hypothetical toxin receptor or specific sensitive site carrying sulfhydryl radical in susceptible pear cells. b) A signal of toxin recognition at the receptor site then may be transmitted to an oxygen-dependent process. This process will complete within 30 min after toxin exposure. Via the oxygen-dependent process, a channel may be switched on to suppress the inducing resistance in pear tissues as indicated by dotted

line in the Fig. 3. This channel is now a black box, but the very important target for pathologic role study of toxin in the near future. c) The oxygen-dependent process may induce a modulation in permeability, and electrolyte loss will occur. d) The modulation may be taken over by an additional process leading to veinlet necrosis. This process consists of at least two stages. The first one probably induce *de novo* synthesis of protein within 5 hr after toxin exposure. The second may associate with copper- and iron-containing protein within 10 hr after toxin exposure. e) Eventually veinlet necrosis become visible 12-18 hr after toxin exposure. Thus, the accessibility of the pear cell to the invader appears to be induced through

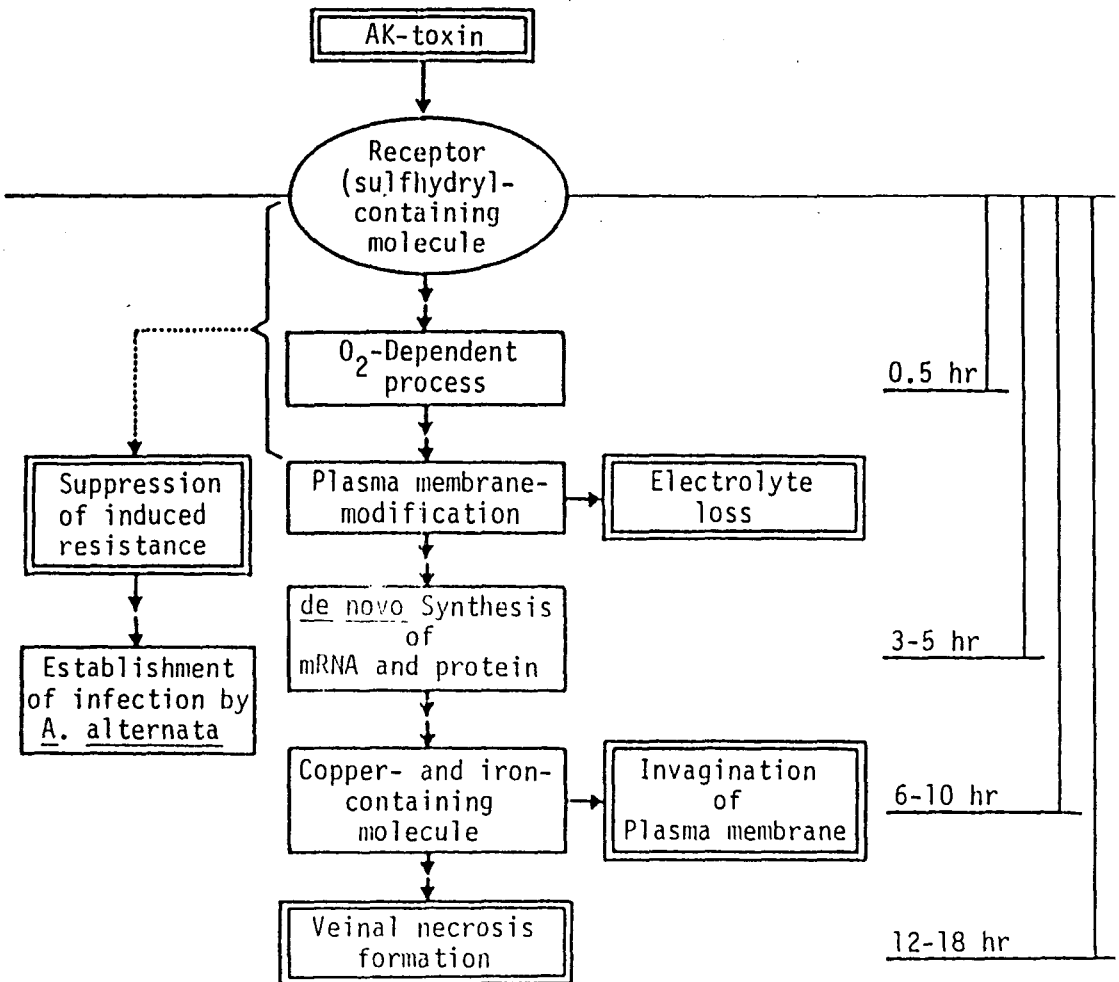


Fig. 3. A scheme for the mechanism of action of AK-toxin in susceptible pear cells.

fferent process branched from very early stages of the process of toxin-induced leaf necrosis. The key role of HST in pathogenesis is not the killing of host cells, but definitely the inducing such accessibility.

With respect to this point, evidence supporting the same conclusion has come more recently from a study of light effect on the action process of AM-toxin of apple leaf blotch disease. When AM-toxin-treated leaf tissues of susceptible apple cv. 'Golden Delicious' at a concentration of  $10^{-8}$  M were covered with or without aluminum foil and were kept under daylight-colored fluorescent light at 2300 lux, necrosis occurred only on the foil-covered area of the tissues (37). This result indicates that light suppresses a stage in the action process of AM-toxin-induced necrosis. A time-course study suggests that its critical period should be between 3-8 hr after toxin treatment. Yellow and near red lights had an inhibitory effect on the AM-toxin action, and red, green, blue and near UV lights had no effect (38). However, active light had affected neither on the loss of electrolytes from AM-toxin-treated leaves nor on the infection by pathogenic spores and saprophytic spores with a trace amount of AM-toxin (37). Now, we can say again that the host-selective induction by HST of the susceptible condition to fungal invasion and initial colonization of the pathogen are thoroughly independent events from toxin-induced necrosis and cell death themselves. The process of host recognition in fungal parasitism appears to be achieved without occurrence of necrotic cell death.

The use of chemically defined samples of HSTs may lead to opening another new door toward mode-of-action studies relating to host specificity at the molecular basis. Action of AF-toxin I and fungal infection on strawberry leaves were markedly protected by pre-treating the leaves with a toxoid (AF-toxin II) (26). A similar protection of toxin action was already reported with HS-toxin and its analogues from *Helminthosporium sacchari* causing eye spot disease of sugarcane leaves (19). These agonist-antagonist-competition studies strongly suggest not only the probable existence of toxin

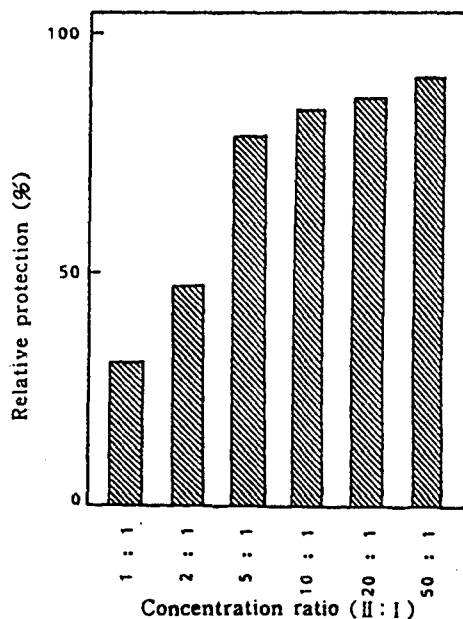


Fig. 4. Protection by a toxoid (AF-toxin II) of the formation of AF-toxin I-induced vein necrosis on susceptible strawberry leaves. Detached leaves were exposed to AF-toxin II ( $2.6 \times 10^{-5}$  M) for 18 hr, and then treated with AF-toxin I solutions adjusted at 1, 1/2, 1/5, 1/10, 1/20 and 1/50 of AF-toxin II ( $2.6 \times 10^{-5}$  M) to give 1:1, 2:1, 5:1, 10:1, 20:1 and 50:1 ratio.

receptor or binding site in susceptible cells in basic research field, but also a new strategy for disease control without employing antifungal agents or fungicides in applied field.

#### AGRICULTURAL USE OF HST

HST can be effectively employed for the quantitative analysis of a genetic background for disease susceptibility. A recent study with black spot disease of strawberry revealed that the susceptibility to the pathogen and the sensitivity to AF-toxin I are both inherited as a single locus with two alleles expressing incomplete dominance when heterozygous (43). Susceptible cv. Morioka-16 was found to be susceptible heterozygote, while resistant cv. Hokowase recessive homozygote.

Another practical contribution to agriculture come from the application of HST to a conventional

breeding program as a selection agent for disease resistance. Cultivar First and its relatives have very good taste and commercially high quality. People like this cultivar very much. However, the cultivar became seriously affected from tomato pathotype of *Alternaria alternata* as the cultivar was exclusively used for intensive cultivation in greenhouses in Japan during last decade. Nishimura's group at Nagoya University planned to detect a single gene mutant for the disease reaction, without losing the other superior characteristics (8, 9, 10). They found that cv. Mie-First carry a single dominant gene pair for the susceptibility to the stem canker pathogen and also the sensitivity to AL-toxin produced by the pathogen. By treating many seeds of the cultivar with AL-toxin solution, a very few seeds, that were expected to be slightly tolerant against the toxin, were found alive, rescued and raised to their maturity. Two plants seemed to be heterozygous mutant in toxin sensitivity. After selfing, 179 progenies in  $S_1$  were obtained, and were found to separate: 45 toxin-sensitive, 95 toxin-tolerant and 39 toxin-insensitive (9, 10). This segregation ratio fits susceptibility-dominant homozygote SS: heterozygote Ss: recessive homozygote ss, 1 : 2 : 1. Cultivar characteristics of the recessive homozygote was proved to be identical with those of the superior parent cv. Mie-First except the immune response against the *Alternaria* stem canker disease, and was named the cultivar "AL-First" after AL-toxin (10). This is the first success worldwide at commercial level in breeding disease-immune crop using HST.

### CONCLUSION

Although only a few, limited topics were shortly introduced and discussed, it is clear that HST studies in both basic and applied fields should be truly exciting, interesting and challenging. New pathological approaches armed with molecular biology and genetic engineering (18) in addition to the present research activities might again result in a "quantum leap" in our understanding for the

molecular basis of host-parasite interactions.

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