

Jasmonate and salicylate as global signals for defense gene expression

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Remarkably, only a few low molecular mass signals, including jasmonic acid, ethylene and salicylic acid, upregulate the expression of scores of defense-related genes. Using these regulators, the plant fine-tunes its defense gene expression against aggressors which, in some cases, may be able to disrupt or amplify plant defense signal pathways to their own ends.

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Abbreviations

H₂O₂	hydrogen peroxide
JA	jasmonic acid
MeJA	methyl JA
MeSA	methyl SA
PR	pathogenesis related
ROI	reactive oxygen intermediate
SA	salicylic acid

Introduction

Plants contain many genes encoding defense-related proteins. These include resistance genes involved in gene-for-gene interactions leading to hypersensitive cell death, genes encoding signal transduction proteins, and downstream defense genes, for example, those encoding pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins, enzymes involved in the generation of phytoalexins, the enzymes of oxidative stress protection, tissue repair, and lignification, and others. Many of these genes are upregulated when the plant is attacked by herbivores or pathogens. Just how many inducible defense genes exist in plant genomes is difficult to estimate, because it is likely that some, if not many, of these genes have dual or multiple functions. A good example is the pathogen-inducible class I β -glucanase gene from tobacco [1]. This pathogen-inducible gene can be considered as a defense gene as its product, a β -1,3-glucanase, can disrupt the glucan mycelial wall of many fungi, helping the radicle to penetrate through the endosperm [2].

The picture which is emerging is that many inducible defense genes are regulated by a smaller number of signal pathways depending on the low molecular mass regulators jasmonic acid (JA, [3]), salicylic acid (SA, [4]), ethylene [5], and possibly hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂, [6]). *Arabidopsis* mutants non-responsive to JA, SA, or ethylene have been crucial in dissecting the respective signal transduction pathways. Cross-talk between these pathways appears to be very common and important in the regulation of

defense gene expression. Here, with the goal of trying to assess the relative importance of JA and SA in these processes, we use some of the available information from *Arabidopsis*. The data highlight the importance of both compounds as global regulators of inducible defense gene expression, but leave open the possibility that other small regulators might remain to be discovered.

Small regulators of inducible defense gene expression

Many of the inducible, defense-related genes defined to date are regulated by signal pathways involving one or more of the trio of regulators JA, ethylene and SA. The importance of these regulators in plant defense has been established in a number of experiments. JA is a 12-carbon fatty acid-derivative, which is synthesized via the octadecanoid pathway from the 18-carbon substrate linoleic acid. JA is essential for the defense of tomato against tobacco hornworm larvae [7] and for the defense of *Arabidopsis* against the fly *Bradysia* [8]. It has recently been shown that JA plays a crucial role in protecting *Arabidopsis* from weak fungal pathogens such as *Pythium mastophorum* [9••]. This discovery will likely be followed by other studies assessing the roles of JA in defense against different types of microbial pathogens. Additionally, although we use the term JA throughout this review, JA is unlikely to be a solitary signal *in vivo*; its volatile counterpart methyl jasmonate (MeJA), its octadecanoid precursor oxo-phytodienoic acid, and a newly discovered 16-carbon (hexadecanoid) regulator, dinor-oxo-phytodienoic acid, may all be powerful cellular regulators in plant tissues [10•,11].

Ethylene regulates many different processes in plants and has been implicated in defense responses [5]. Its roles in defense have been evaluated with mutants in the ethylene signal transduction pathway. Ethylene does not appear to play a major role in plants challenged with avirulent bacteria [12]. It was shown, however, that ethylene controls the amplitude and development of disease symptoms after inoculation with virulent bacteria or with fungal pathogens [12,13•,14••]. JA and ethylene co-operate to regulate the expression of many genes, and at least some JA-inducible genes are not inducible in plants unable to produce or sense ethylene [15,16].

SA has been shown to play a central role as a signalling molecule involved in both local defense reactions and in the induction of systemic resistance [4]. SA regulates many pathogenesis-related (PR) genes including those encoding PR1 and most acidic PR proteins [4,17], many of which are antifungal hydrolases targeted to the plant cell wall. Disruption of the SA signal pathway, for example in transgenic plants with reduced SA levels, leads to susceptibility

to viral (tobacco mosaic virus), fungal (*Phytophthora parasitica*, *Cercospora nicotianae*), and bacterial (*Pseudomonas syringae*) pathogens [18]. As mentioned above for JA, the volatile derivative of SA, methyl salicylate (MeSA), is also involved in plant defense. MeSA was shown to function as an airborne signal which activates the expression of defense-related genes in tobacco [19]. It is noteworthy that the gaseous regulator ethylene has volatile counterparts in MeJA and MeSA.

The role of H₂O₂ and related reactive oxygen intermediates (ROIs) in plant defense has recently been reviewed [6]. Although H₂O₂ does not seem to be a primary signal for the activation of defense genes involved in antimicrobial responses in wild-type plants, recent findings demonstrate the role of ROIs, including H₂O₂, in systemic immunity through a signal network of oxidative bursts [20•]. Not all defense-related genes are regulated by SA, JA or ethylene. Cases exist in which inducible defense gene expression appears to be independent of these known low molecular mass regulators. For example a novel, wound-inducible defense gene was recently discovered [21•] whose expression is independent of JA, ethylene, or SA. In addition, infection of tobacco with the pathogenic bacterium *Erwinia carotovora* induces a set of PR genes independently of SA [22•]. Besides JA, ethylene, and SA, therefore, there is the possibility for other endogenous low molecular mass signals in plant defense. We speculate that at least some defense-related genes will turn out to be regulated by low molecular mass signals which have not yet been characterized. JA, ethylene and SA, however, account for the expression of many defense genes and it is of interest to try to estimate their relative contributions to defense gene expression.

In order to assess the relative contributions of JA and SA to inducible defense gene expression in one plant, *Arabidopsis*, we have compiled a list of genes that are upregulated by wounding, pathogens or elicitors, JA or SA [Table 1]. For simplicity, data on ethylene were not included. The genes represented in Table 1 are grouped into six categories starting with those encoding PR proteins. All genes from this category are induced by pathogens or by elicitors of plant defense, whereas only one them, encoding a thionin (small antimicrobial proteins whose mechanism of action is as yet unclear), has been shown to be wound-inducible. The next group comprises genes involved in response to oxidative stress. For instance, the glutathione S transferase *GST1* is known to be upregulated by H₂O₂ [6]. At present, none of these genes is reported to be induced by JA or SA. The next two categories contain genes that are implicated in secondary metabolism. Of these, the first are genes of the aromatic metabolism including several components of the phenylpropanoid pathway. None of them is yet reported to be SA-inducible but many are pathogen-inducible. The second class of genes involved in secondary metabolism belongs to a specialised branch of aromatic metabolism, the tryptophan

pathway, and includes genes potentially involved in the biosynthesis of the phytoalexin camalexin and of the defense molecules glucosinolates. SA does not induce the expression of most of these genes, whereas pathogens do. The next category is a group of genes involved in fatty acid signalling and metabolism, most of them JA-inducible. It has been proposed that JA can act as a metabolic regulator positively controlling its own synthesis and that of its precursors [10,23]. The last category contains genes involved in signal transduction, regulatory roles, or other functions. Some of these genes (*NIM1/NPRI*, *NDR1*) have been shown to be essential for plant defense and are upregulated by pathogens. Two genes involved in ethylene synthesis (*SAM*, *ACC2*) are JA-inducible, indicating that one defense signal can control the production of an other one (see next section).

More data could potentially be included in Table 1; we have not included inducible genes of as yet unassigned functions, the role of JA and SA in defense gene induction has not always been reported, and some published data may have been inadvertently overlooked. Moreover, many defense-related genes from other species [17] may later be found to be upregulated in *Arabidopsis*. We note that different research groups use different methods to induce gene expression and our table does not take into account the quantity or concentration of JA or SA used. In some cases treatment of tissues with massive doses of regulators could have caused artifacts. Interesting patterns can be seen in Table 1. Of the 55 genes listed, 23 are reported to be wound-inducible and 41 are pathogen-inducible (or in a few cases, elicitor-inducible). Nine are reported to be induced by both wounding and pathogens/elicitors. There are 18 genes reported to be JA-inducible and eight reported to be SA inducible, illustrating the global importance of both JA and SA as defense gene regulators. Interestingly, no low molecular mass regulators are yet reported for 31 of the genes indicated, and it is unclear whether these genes will turn out to be JA- or SA-inducible.

In the near future, quantitative methods for the global analysis of gene expression will have a dramatic impact. cDNA microarray technology [24] will extend our knowledge of inducible defense gene expression and will also help in the discovery of new defense-related transcripts. The genes presented in Table 1 could form the basis of a cDNA microarray. Such a chip would give an insight into the relative impact of pathogens, wounding, JA, SA, ethylene, and combinations of these molecules on the dynamics of global defense gene expression.

Pathway cross-talk

There is clearly much cross-talk between signal pathways leading to inducible defense gene expression. The regulators JA, SA, and ethylene control and potentiate each other's activities. Cross-talk may help the plant to prioritize the activation of a particular signal pathway over another. For example, during pathogenesis, the plant might need to

Table 1
Inducible *Arabidopsis* defense-related genes.

Gene	W	JA	P/E	SA	Gene product	Accession*	Reference
Pathogenesis-related proteins							
<i>THI2.1</i>	yes	yes	yes	no	Thionin	L41244	[39,40]
<i>PDF1.2</i>	no	yes	yes	no	Defensin	T04323	[41]
<i>PR1</i>	no	no	yes	yes	PR-1	M90508	[40–42]
<i>BGL2</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	yes	β -1,3-glucanase (PR-2)	M90509	[28,42]
<i>CHIA1</i>	no	yes	yes	n.r.	Class I basic chitinase (PR-3)	M38240	[43]*
<i>CHIA4</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Class IV chitinase (PR-3)	Y14590	[44]
<i>HEL</i>	n.r.	yes	yes	yes	Hevein-like protein (similar to PR-4)	U01880	[45]†
<i>PR5</i>	n.r.	no	yes	yes	Acidic thaumatin-like protein (PR-5)	M90510	[40,42]
<i>TLP1</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	yes	Basic thaumatin-like protein (similar to PR-5)	L34693	[46]
<i>CHIB1</i>	no	yes	yes	no	Class III chitinase (PR-8)	M34107	[47]†
<i>CXc750</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Unknown, small basic protein	X72022	[48]
<i>ELI9</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Hydroxyproline-rich glycoprotein	n.r.	[49]
Oxidative stress							
<i>GST1</i>	yes	no	yes	n.r.	Glutathione S-transferase (oxidative damage protection)	Z26426	[8,50]
<i>GST5</i>	yes	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	Glutathione S-transferase (oxidative damage protection)	D44465	[51]
<i>AP3</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Anionic peroxidase (cell wall strengthening)	n.r.	[49]
<i>AP1</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Ascorbate peroxidase (H ₂ O ₂ metabolism)	D14442	[52]
<i>OZ11</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Unknown (ozone-induced)	U20347	[53]
Aromatic metabolism							
<i>DHS1</i>	yes	yes	yes	n.r.	DAHPh synthase (shikimate pathway)	M74819	[8,54]
<i>CM1</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Chorismate mutase (shikimate pathway)	Z26519	[55]
<i>PAL1</i>	yes	yes	yes	n.r.	Phenylalanine ammonia lyase (phenylpropanoid pathway)	L33677	[8,28]
<i>PAL2</i>	no	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Phenylalanine ammonia lyase (phenylpropanoid pathway)	L33678	[55,56]
<i>C4H</i>	yes	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	Cinnamate 4-hydroxylase (phenylpropanoid pathway)	D78579	[57]
<i>AR2</i>	yes	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	NADPH:Cytochrome P450 reductase (C4H activation)	X66017	[57]
<i>4CL</i>	yes	n.r.	yes	n.r.	4-coumarate:CoA ligase (phenylpropanoid pathway)	U18675	[49,56]
<i>CHS</i>	no	yes	no/yes	n.r.	Chalcone synthase (flavonoid pathway)	M20308	[9••,28,56,58]
<i>TAT</i>	yes	yes	n.r.	n.r.	Tyrosine aminotransferase (tyrosine biosynthesis?)	n.r.	[59*]
<i>ELI5</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Tyrosine decarboxylase (phenolic synthesis)	n.r.	[49]
<i>ELI3</i>	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Aromatic alcohol:NADP ⁺ oxidoreductase (benzyl alcohols)	X67816	[49]

Table 1 continued

Inducible *Arabidopsis* defense-related genes.

Gene	Induction by:				Gene product	Accession*	Reference
	W	JA	P/E	SA			
Tryptophan pathway							
ASA1	yes	n.r.	yes	no	Anthranilate synthase α (camalexin synthesis?)	M92353	[50,60]
ASB	n.r.	n.r.	yes	no	Anthranilate synthase β (camalexin synthesis?)	L22585	[50,61]
PAT1	n.r.	n.r.	yes	no	Phosphorybosylanthranilate transferase (camalexin synthesis?)	U58942	[50]
PAI	n.r.	n.r.	yes	no	Phosphorybosylanthranilate isomerase (camalexin synthesis?)	U18970	[50]
TSA	n.r.	n.r.	yes	no	Tryptophan synthase α (glucosinolate synthesis?)	U18993	[50]
TSB	n.r.	n.r.	yes	no	Tryptophan synthase β (glucosinolate synthesis?)	M23872	[50]
RAR047	n.r.	yes	yes	yes	Sulfotransferase (glucosinolate synthesis?)	Z46823	[62]
Fatty acid signalling and metabolism							
FAD7	yes	yes	n.r.	no	Plastid ω -3 fatty acid desaturase (JA synthesis)	D14007	[63]
LOX1	no	yes	yes	n.r.	Lipoxygenase (JA synthesis?)	L04637	[23]
LOX2	yes	yes	yes	yes	Lipoxygenase (JA synthesis)	L23968	[64] [†]
AOS	yes	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	Allene oxide synthase (JA synthesis)	X92510	[65]
HPL	yes	yes	n.r.	n.r.	Hydroperoxide lyase (aldehyde and oxoacid production)	n.r.	[58]
ACO	yes	yes?	n.r.	n.r.	β -oxidation (JA synthesis?)	n.r.	[59] [*]
CK	yes	no	n.r.	n.r.	Choline kinase (membrane repair?)	n.r.	[59] [*]
Signal, regulatory functions, others							
NIM1/NPR1	n.r.	n.r.	yes	no	Transcription factor inhibitor kB homologue	U87794	[66]
NDRI	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Signal protein in defense responses	AF021346	[67]
WAK1	no	n.r.	yes	yes	Cell wall-associated kinase	L04999	[68]
MEK1	yes	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	MAP kinase kinase	AF000977	[69]
CAM	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Calmodulin-like protein	L12115	[70]
ROF1	yes	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	Rotamase FkBP homologue, calmodulin binding domain	U49453	[71]
SAM	yes	n.r.	yes	n.r.	S-adenosylmethionine synthetase (ethylene synthesis)	M33217	[49,72]
ELI14	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine hydrolase (ethylene synthesis)	M62756	[49]
ACC2	yes	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	ACC synthase (ethylene synthesis)	M95595	[73]
NIT2	n.r.	n.r.	yes	n.r.	Nitrilase (auxin biosynthesis)	U09958	[74]
JR3	yes	yes	n.r.	n.r.	Amino hydrolase (hydrolysis of auxin conjugates?)	Y13577	[59] [*]
VSP	yes	yes	yes	no	Vegetative storage protein	Z18377	[75] [†]
COR1	yes	yes	n.r.	n.r.	Similar to hydrolases, P-loop, ATP/GTP binding site	AF021244	[76]

*GeneBank accession number is listed when available. W, wounding; JA, jasmonic acid; P/E, pathogen or elicitor; SA, salicylic acid; n.r., not reported; PR, pathogenesis-related protein; *BP Thomma and WF Broekaert, personal communication, [†]S Vidal, C Norman, and ET Palva, personal communication.

channel a large amount of energy into the synthesis of pathogen-inducible gene products (PR proteins, etc.), simultaneously suppressing the expression of wound-inducible genes directed against other pests. Consistent with this, the inhibitory effect of SA on JA-regulated gene expression has been previously reported for the induction of proteinase inhibitors in wounded tomatoes [25]. Similarly, genes activated by JA are hyperinducible in transgenic plants expressing a bacterial salicylate hydroxylase gene (*NahG*) and which fail to accumulate wild-type levels of SA during pathogenesis (S Vidal, C Norman, and ET Palva, personal communication). Inhibition of JA-dependent gene expression by SA is not always the case. Application of 2,6-dichloroisonicotinic acid, an SA analogue, increases JA levels and induces JA-responsive genes in rice [26]. The evidence that SA can often inhibit JA-inducible gene expression in plants raises the possibility that the converse might occur. In other words, wounding of a plant might turn on a JA-dependent pathway and inhibit a subsequent SA-dependent induction of defense genes by pathogens. Until more studies with monocots become available, it might be premature to generalize what we know about signal pathway cross-talk for all plants.

Many other examples of cross-talk exist. Ethylene can potentiate the level of expression of many defense genes in different plants. The sensitivity of *Arabidopsis* plants to SA-inducible *PR1* accumulation is enhanced by ethylene [27]. In tobacco, the genes encoding pathogenesis related proteins PR1b and PR5 are synergistically induced by MeJA and ethylene, or by the combination of MeJA and SA [15]. In tomato, ethylene co-operatively stimulates the expression of wound- and JA-inducible proteinase inhibitor genes [16]. These potentiating effects of signals on gene expression, combined with inhibitory cross-talk, may help to fine-tune defense gene expression against specific pathogens. The result is that not all aggressors induce the same defense genes. For example, the *Arabidopsis* chalcone synthase gene *CHS* is not activated by virulent or avirulent *Pseudomonas syringae* strains [28] but its expression is activated by the fungal pathogen *Pythium mastophorum* ([9], see Table 1 where pathogen induced expression of CHS is indicated 'no/yes'). The plant is thus able to distinguish between potential pathogens and direct the expression of inducible defense genes accordingly.

Genetic studies in *Arabidopsis* are extending our knowledge of the genes involved in cross-talk and, in parallel, suggesting the presence of novel defense genes. Genes involved in cross-talk between JA and SA pathways include *NPR1* and *CPR6* [29]. *CPR6* may function with *NPR1* in regulating JA-inducible genes, including *PDF1.2* and *THI2.1*, as well as SA-inducible genes, such as *PR1* and *BGL2*, all of which appear to be involved in defense against oomycetes such as *Peronospora parasitica*. Crosses between *cpr6* and *npr1* resulted in plants which expressed *PR1*, *BGL2* and *PR5* but were susceptible to an avirulent strain of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv *maculicola*, providing

genetic evidence that a set of unidentified antibacterial genes must be regulated via *NPR1* [29].

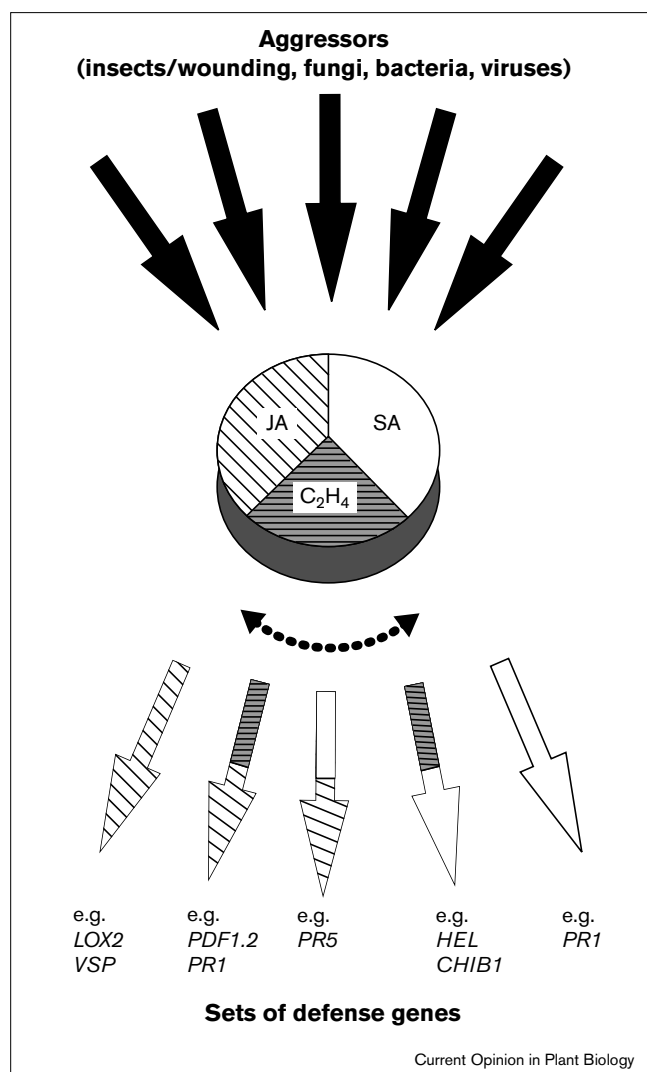
At present the causes and effects of cross-talk between defense gene activation pathways appear to be complex. In conclusion, studies on cross-talk between JA-, SA- and ethylene-dependent signal pathways have highlighted the possibility that the plant fine-tunes its defense by upregulating different sets of overlapping genes against different aggressors, as illustrated in Figure 1.

Signal wars in plant defense?

Why do plants regulate so many of their inducible defense-related genes with such a limited number of signal pathways, depending strongly on JA, SA and ethylene? Why and when during evolution these pathways have appeared is unknown. Heavy dependence on a trio of regulators may leave plants vulnerable to signal interference by pathogens. Pathogens might take advantage from being able to synthesize, mimic, degrade or jam the plants' signals. Such signalling wars are common in biology; a recent example concerns the proteolytic destruction of mitogen-activated protein kinases by a toxin from anthrax [30]. Do signal wars occur in plant defense? It is interesting that some plant-associated microorganisms are capable of producing SA, ethylene, and JA analogues. Some *Pseudomonas syringae* pathovars synthesize the pathogenicity factor coronatine [31], an analogue of the 18-carbon jasmonate family signal 12-oxo-phytodienoic acid [32]. Coronatine, at least to some extent, mimics JA, powerfully inducing a number of JA-inducible proteins [33]. An advantage for the bacteria might be that the induction of a jasmonate pathway could, as a consequence, lead to the inhibition of the SA-dependent pathway and permit the bacteria to resist the plant's defensive gene products. Anyway, the production of coronatine by some bacterial pathogens is a good indication that signal mimicry can occur in plant pathosystems. Similarly, ethylene is produced by a variety of microorganisms [34] including the plant pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* [35]. The implications of ethylene production by plant pathogens are not yet apparent. Since ethylene can potentiate defense gene expression, further work on the biological effects of 'bacterial' ethylene might be fruitful.

Ethylene and JA analogues are not the only defense signals produced by microorganisms. SA is synthesized by some bacteria including several pseudomonads. SA, an iron chelator, can promote iron uptake in some bacteria. Thus, there is a possibility that, early in evolution, plant cells might have used SA as a siderophore. The *P. aeruginosa* SA biosynthetic genes [36] were expressed in root-colonizing *P. fluorescens*, and this modified soil bacterium promoted systemic resistance of tobacco against tobacco necrosis virus [37]. Whether bacteria producing SA gain any (dis)advantage in their ability to stimulate resistance in plants has yet to be established. On the other hand, certain bacterial strains can induce systemic resistance in plants in an SA-independent pathway [38].

Figure 1



Tunable dial model for the regulation of defense gene expression by the three signals jasmonic acid (JA, hatched lines), ethylene (C₂H₄, grey) and salicylic acid (SA, white). Depending on the nature of a particular aggressor the plant is able to fine-tune (dotted arrow) the induction of defense genes either by employing a single signal molecule (single-pattern arrow) or by a combination of these regulators (multi-pattern arrow). Examples found in the literature are shown to illustrate several such cases. The induction of many JA-inducible genes during pathogenesis requires ethylene (e.g. *PDF1.2* [41]) but this is not always the case (e.g. *LOX2*, *VSP*, S Vidal, C Norman, ET Palva, personal communication). The gene encoding the pathogenesis-related protein PR1 is upregulated by SA alone [41] in *Arabidopsis* but is reported to be induced by a combination of ethylene and MeJA in tobacco [15]. In another case *PR5* can be synergistically induced by MeJA and SA in tobacco [15]. SA and ethylene are required for full induction of *HEL* and *CHIB1* (S Vidal, C Norman, ET Palva, personal communication) in *Arabidopsis*. An emerging hypothesis is that, by producing, mimicking or destroying any one of the trio of signals, pathogens and pests could reset the dial and alter the spectrum of genes induced.

In summary, the fact that all three signals (SA, ethylene, JA or their analogues) can be produced in different plant-

associated bacteria is evidence that interkingdom signal interference can exist and may play important roles in plant disease.

Conclusions

It is now clear that, along with SA, JA is a global regulator of many defense genes and is an essential part of the plants' defense against a variety of pathogens and insects. The relative contribution of both signal molecules to inducible defense gene expression depends on the pathogen and the spectrum of genes activated in response to a particular aggressor may reflect this fact. Having placed the control of many inducible defense genes under a few global regulators, plants may be vulnerable to signal disruption by pathogens and insects.

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