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Essential Role of Superoxide Dismutase on the Pathogenicity of *Erwinia chrysanthemi* Strain 3937

Renata Santos,^{1*} Thierry Franza,^{2*} Marie-Lyne Laporte,² Christele Sauvage,² Danièle Touati,¹ and Dominique Expert²

¹Laboratoire de Génétique Moléculaire des Réponses Adaptatives, Institut Jacques Monod, CNRS-Universités Paris 6 et 7, 2 place Jussieu 75251 Paris Cedex 05, France; ²Laboratoire de Pathologie Végétale, UMR 217 INRA/INA P-G/Université Paris 6, 16 rue Claude Bernard 75231 Paris Cedex 05, France

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The sodA gene from Erwinia chrysanthemi strain 3937 was cloned by functional complementation of an Escherichia coli sodA sodB mutant and sequenced. We identified a 639bp open reading frame, which encodes a protein that is 85% identical to the E. coli manganese-containing superoxide dismutase MnSOD. Promoter elements of this gene were identified by transcriptional mapping experiments. We constructed an E. chrysanthemi \(\Delta sodA \) mutant by reverse genetics. The $\triangle sodA$ mutation resulted in the absence of a cytoplasmic SOD, which displays the same characteristics as those of MnSOD. The \(\Delta sodA \) mutant was more sensitive to paraquat than the wild-type strain. This mutant could macerate potato tubers, similar to the wild-type strain. In contrast, when inoculated on African violets, the mutant produced, at most, only small necrotic lesions. If the inoculum was supplemented with the superoxide anion-scavenging metalloporphyrin MnTMPyP or purified SOD and catalase, the $\triangle sodA$ mutant was able to macerate the inoculated zone. Generation of superoxide anion by African violet leaves inoculated with E. chrysanthemi was demonstrated with nitroblue tetrazolium as an indicator. Therefore, at the onset of infection, E. chrysanthemi cells encounter an oxidative environment and require active protective systems against oxidative damages such as MnSOD to overcome these types of conditions.

In response to an attack by microbial pathogens, plant cells produce active oxygen species (AOS), which include superoxide anion (O₂⁻), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), and the hydroxyl radical (OH•). This production of AOS is termed the "oxidative burst." During incompatible interactions, i.e., those involving bacteria that cause a hypersensitive response, there are two phases of AOS production. Phase I is rapid, transient, and nonspecific, whereas the second phase occurs later and yields a much higher concentration of AOS. This specific, biphasic response is believed to be an important component of

Corresponding author: T. Franza; Telehone: +33 1 44 08 72 30; Fax: +33 1 44 08 16 31; E-mail: franza@inapg.inra.fr

the plant host defense system (Lamb and Dixon 1997; Van Camp et al. 1998). Furthermore, these reactive oxygen species are involved in the induction of plant immunity (Alvarez et al. 1998; Levine et al. 1994). In contrast, in disease situations (compatible interactions), only phase I occurs. Little is known about the role of AOS produced during pathogenesis (compatible interactions). Is the level of this AOS production too low to be bacteriostatic or bactericidal? Or are the virulent pathogens able to resist this phase of AOS production? A partial answer to these questions now comes from the study of the pathogenicity of Erwinia chrysanthemi. This enterobacterium causes soft-rot diseases on a wide range of plants. E. chrysanthemi strain 3937 produces and secretes an array of pectinolytic enzymes that degrade plant cell walls and allow bacterial cells to disseminate throughout the plant (Barras et al. 1994; Hugouvieux-Cotte-Pattat et al. 1996). A few years ago, Favey et al. (1995) demonstrated that E. chrysanthemi 3937 requires a functional flavohaemoglobin for the successful infection of African violets. This finding remained obscure until it was shown that the flavohaemoglobin of Escherichia coli is able to oxidize NO to the less toxic nitrate molecule (Gardner et al. 1998, Hausladen et al 1998). Recently, El Hassouni and collaborators (1999) reported that the peptide methionine sulfoxide reductase, which repairs oxidized proteins, is required for full virulence of E. chrysanthemi strain 3937. This result suggests that during pathogenesis, the bacterium has to cope with damages caused by oxidative stress. Thus, the ability to survive in an oxidative environment may be important for pathogenicity of this bacterium. The first line of defense against oxidative stress is mediated by protective enzymes such as superoxide dismutases (SODs), which are metalloproteins that dismutate O₂⁻ to H₂O₂ (Fridovich 1995). There are three general classes of SODs in bacteria, which differ in their metal cofactors (Touati 2000). The manganese-(MnSOD) and iron-containing (FeSOD) enzymes are cytoplasmic, whereas the copper-zinc (Cu,ZnSOD) enzyme is periplasmic. The contribution of SODs to pathogenicity has been well documented for animal pathogens. Secreted FeSODs are virulence factors for the bacterial species Nocardia asteroides and Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Andersen et al. 1991; Beaman and Beaman 1990). Similarly, the cytoplasmic FeSOD mutants of Shigella flexneri and Bordetella per-

^{*}Both authors contributed equally to this work.

tussis were shown to be less pathogenic than the wild-type strains (Franzon et al. 1990; Khelef et al. 1996). Deficiency of MnSOD (sodA mutant) resulted in severe attenuation of Yersinia enterocolitica virulence in the mouse-infection model (Roggenkamp et al. 1997). The periplasmic Cu,ZnSOD also contributes to virulence of Salmonella typhimurium and Haemophilus ducreyi (Farrant et al. 1997; San Mateo et al. 1998). For phytopathogenic bacteria, the role of SOD in virulence remains unclear. Kim and collaborators (1999) showed that mutants of Pseudomonas syringae pv. syringae B728a altered in the MnSOD and FeSOD enzymes caused bacterial brown spot disease on bean pods or leaves to the same extent as the wild-type strain, although the mutants were more sensitive to the O₂-generating compound paraquat than was the wild-type strain. Smith et al. (1996) cloned a sod gene encoding the major SOD activity of Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris, the metal cofactor of which is Mn. Attempts to construct a SOD-deficient mutant, however, remained unsuccessful. Interestingly, these authors used transcriptional fusions and observed that the sod gene was induced in planta within 3 h postinoculation, with similar kinetics during compatible and incompatible interactions (Hugouvieux et al. 1998; Smith et al. 1996). These data suggest that SOD activity may be involved in bacterial protection against oxidative stress occurring at the onset of infection. We investigated the role of SOD in the pathogenicity of E. chrysanthemi strain 3937 on its host plant Saintpaulia ionantha (African violet).

RESULTS

Cloning of the E. chrysanthemi sodA homolog.

The E. chrysanthemi sodA-like gene was isolated by complementation of the sodA sodB mutant strain QC1726 of E. coli. A genomic library from strain 3937 of E. chrysanthemi constructed in the mobilizable cosmid pAL2917 was introduced by conjugation into strain QC1726. Transconjugants were plated on selective minimal glucose medium containing streptomycin (Sm), chloramphenicol (Cm), tetracycline (Tc), and 10⁻⁹ M O₂-generating compound paraquat. Because the E. coli mutant lacks cytoplasmic SOD activity, it cannot grow on this medium (Carlioz and Touati 1986). After 4 days, large colonies were apparent, and 30 of them were purified twice on the same selective medium. The cosmids of these transconjugants were purified and further analyzed. Five cosmids, differing by their restriction map, complement the E. coli strain QC1726. A 4.8-kb PstI fragment was present in all of the selected cosmids. In a Southern blot experiment, the 4.8-kb PstI fragment from each cosmid hybridized with a radiolabeled DNA probe containing a part of the E. chrysanthemi sodA gene obtained by polymerase chain reaction (PCR; see Materials and Methods). Thus, this fragment was cloned into the pBluescript vector, and the recombinant plasmid pRS101 was introduced by transformation into the E. coli strain QC1726. The transformants were able to grow on minimal medium agar plates containing paraquat. A 3.5-kb EcoRV fragment from pRS101 was then subcloned into the pBluescript vector, giving rise to pRS101.2. Plasmid pRS101.2 was still able to complement the sodA sodB mutant.

Sequence analysis of the *E. chrysanthemi sodA* locus.

The nucleotide composition of a stretch of 1,860 bp of pRS101.2 was determined by sequencing (Fig. 1). Computer

analysis revealed an open reading frame (ORF) of 639 nucleotides, extending from position 729 to 1,367 and showing 70% identity with the E. coli gene sodA encoding the MnSOD enzyme. This ORF encodes a 213 amino acid protein displaying 85% identity (88.5% similarity) with the E. coli MnSOD enzyme. A putative promoter was identified 66 nucleotides upstream from the beginning of this ORF. For confirmation, we performed primer extension on RNA isolated from a cell culture grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium reaching an optical density (OD) at 600 nm of 1.5 (see below). The extension reaction product showed that transcription of the sodA gene started at nt 670 (A residue), confirming that the anticipated promoter was functional (Fig. 2). The 40-nt sequence encompassing this promoter region is 95% identical to the sequence of the E. coli sodA promoter, where we found one putative binding site for the transcription repressor of iron-regulated genes, Fur. This sequence matches the 5'-GATAATGATAAT-CATTATC-3' consensus sequence at 13 out of 19 nucleotide positions and overlaps the -35 element (Figs. 1 and 2). There are three potential ATG start codons for the E. chrysanthemi sodA ORF. The fact that only the third ATG of the E. chrysanthemi sodA gene is preceded by a putative Shine-Dalgarno sequence, GGAGA, suggests that the translation of this gene starts from this position and gives rise to a polypeptide with a theoretical pI and molecular mass of 6.06 and 23,214 Daltons, respectively. At the 3' untranslated region of the sodA gene, an inverted repeat (position 1,536 to 1,572) may form a 15-bp hairpin that could act as a transcription terminator that is consistent with the size of approximately 900 nucleotides from the sodA RNA identified by Northern experiments (data not shown). No ORF was detected downstream of the sodA gene.

Construction of an *E. chrysanthemi \Delta sodA* gene and \Delta sodA mutant.

We constructed a \(\Delta sodA \) gene lacking 345 nucleotides from position 801 to 1,145. The 5' end of the sodA gene was amplified by PCR with primers S10 and S11, complementary to position 49 to 68 and 781 to 799, respectively (Fig. 3). Primer S12 (position 1,146 to 1,165) and the M13 reverse primer from the polylinker of pRS101.2 were used to amplify the 3' end of the sodA gene (Fig. 3). Primers S11 and S12 carried a BamHI site at their 5' extremity. Both PCR products were cloned into vector pCR2.1-TOPO (Invitrogen, Groningen, The Netherlands), giving rise to plasmids pCRS10-11 and pCRS12-13, respectively. These plasmids were sequenced, and no mutation was found. Plasmids pCRS10-11 and pCRS12-13 were hydrolyzed with EcoRI-BamHI and BamHI-PstI, respectively. The corresponding restriction fragments were purified and ligated together into the pUC18 vector hydrolyzed with EcoRI and PstI. The resulting plasmid, pUCΔsod, thus contains a unique BamHI site at the junction of the two PCR fragments. This site was used to insert the kanamycin (Km) resistance cassette from plasmid pUC4K. The recombinant plasmid was named "pK Δ sod." We then attempted to introduce the Δ sodA gene disrupted by the cassette coding for Km resistance into the genomic sodA locus by reverse genetics. Three independent recombinant clones were isolated (see below). The presence of a disrupted and deleted sodA gene in these clones was confirmed by Southern blot hybridization experiments (data not shown). SOD activities of cell extracts from stationary

phase culture of the wild-type strain and three *AsodA* mutants were analyzed by native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (Fig. 4). *E. chrysanthemi* wild-type extracts showed two bands with SOD activity (Fig. 4). These activities

were not detected in the cell extracts from the three mutants, suggesting that they are different oligomers from the same enzyme. The E chrysanthemi SOD activities were not inhibited by H_2O_2 , suggesting that they are the result of a

1	TTTTTCCGGGTTGAAAGCGCCGCCGGCGAGCGATGGACGGAC	60
61	CGGGGTGGAACAATTGGAGGAAATCGGCAAACCGGTGTCGCCGCTGCCGTTCACCCAGCA	120
121	CTTCTCGCTGTCCCGTCTGGAACAGGCGTTGCAGGCGATGAAAAGCGTACAGCAGGCAG	180
181	CGCGCTGACCGGTTCAACCCACGCTGCGGCCTGGCTGTCGCCAGAAGGGGAACTGTTGGG	240
241	CGGCTGCGAAGATGTGGGCCCATGTGGCGCTGGACAAACTGCTGGGAACGCGGGCGCG	300
301	ACAGCCCTGGCAGCAGGGGGGGGCGCTGGTATCCAGCCGCGCCAGCTATGAAATGGTGCA	360
361	GAAATCCGCCATGTGCGGGTAGAAATCCTGTTTGCGGTTTCAGCCGCCACCTCGCTGGC	420
421	GGTAGAAGTGGCCGCGCTGCAATCTGACGCTGGTCGGTTTCTGCCGTCCCGGTCGCGC	480
481	CACCGTTTATACCCACCCGCAGCGGTTGCGGGCATGATGGTCAGGCCAGGCATAGCTTAG	540
541	ACCGATTTGTTGTTAGCTGGGGCGATTACGGCATAAACGCTTGTAATCTTGGAATAAAGC	600
601	ACGCCGACAAACCGCCCCGTGCCACGAATAATCA TTTTCA AGATCATTTAATTAAC TATA	660
661	AT GAACCTAATGCTTACGCGGCGCTAACACGCAACGGTGCCGCTCAATACTAATTGCGCA	720
	L -	
721	CGACAACAATGGGAGATGCTAAACATGAGTTATTCACTGCCATCCCTGCCTTATGCTTATG	780
	MEMLN M SYSLPSLPYAYD	
781	ACGCACTGGAGCCGCACTTCGACAAGCAAACGATGGAAATCCATCACTCCAAACACCATC	840
	A L E P H F D K Q T M E I H H S K H H Q	
	*	
841	AGGCTTACGTCAATAACGCTAATGCAGCGCTGGAGTCCCTGCCTG	900
	AYVNNANAALESLPEFAGLS	
901	CCGCCGAAGAGCTGATCACCAAACTGGATCAACTGCCGGCCG	960
	AEELITKLDQLPADKKGPLR	
		4000
961	GTAACAACGCCGGCGGCCACCCCAACCACGCTGTTCTGGAAAGGCCTGAAACTGGGTA	1020
	N N A G G H A N H S L F W K G L K L G T	
		4000
1021	CCACGCTGACAGGCGAACTGAAAGCCGCCATTGAGCGCGATTTCGGCAGCGTTGACGCAT	1080
	TLTGELKAAIERDFGSVDAF	
1001	MON 2 CO 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	1110
1081	TCAAGGAAAAATTCGAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGTTTCGGCTCCGGCTGGGCATGGCTGG	1140
	K E K F E Q A A A T R F G S G W A W L V	
4444	T1 0T01 1 0 T01 00 00 1 1 0T00 0T00 0T0	1000
1141	TACTGAAAGATGACGGCAAACTGGCTGTCGTTTCCACCCCCAACCAGGACAGCCCGCTGA	1200
	L K D D G K L A V V S T P N Q D S P L M	
1001	·	1260
1201	TGGGCGAAGCGATTTCCGGCGCGTCCGGCTACCCGATCGTCGCACTGGACGTATGGGAAC	1260
	G E A I S G A S G Y P I V A L D V W E H	
1061	2 00 0000 000 0000 00 000 000 000 000 0	1200
1261	ACGCTTACTACCTGCAATACCAGAACCGTCGCCCGGACTACATTAAAGCGTTCTGGTTCG	1320
	AYYLQYQNRRPDYIKAFWFV	
1201		1200
1321	TCGTAAACTGGGACGAAGCGGCTAAACGTTTTGCTGAAGCCAAAAAATAAGTAAAAGGTA	1380
	V N W D E A A K R F A E A K K *	
1 2 0 1		1 4 4 0
1381	AAAATTAATTTCTATACCCTAAATAATTCGAGTTGCAGGAAGGCGGCGACACAGCGAATC	1440
1441	CCCAGGAGCTTACTCAGGTAAGTAACTGGGGTGAGCGAGGAAAGCCAACGCACCTGCAAC	1500
1501	TTGAAGTATGACGGGTATAAATCAGAAATTAACGCG ACAAACCCGGAATAACA TT TGTTA	1560
1561	TACCGGGTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTCCGGATTATCACTACGAAAAGCAGTATAAAGTTTT	1620
1621	ACTATGGTGCGCCGATAGATTCTGCATGTTCTTGTCATAGCCTGCACACAGCCGCCAGTA	1680
1681	TGGCAATTTCACACTCACCGTAAACCAGTTATTAATCACCTTACTTCATCACTCAGCCTA	1740
1741	ATTAATGATGGAAGAAAAAAATGGCTATAAAACTCGAAAATATCAAAGTTGGCAGGAAGT	1800
1801	TAGGATTAGGGTTTTCCTTAATCCTACTGCTGACCGTCATTATTGCTGCAGGAATTCGAT	1860

Fig. 1. Nucleotide sequence of the *sodA* gene. Promoter elements –35 and –10 are in bold. A putative Fur binding site overlapping the –35 promoter element is denoted with a line above. The transcription initiation site identified by the primer extension experiment is indicated by an arrow. The potential traduction start is indicated by a bold methionine residue with its putative Shine-Dalgarno sequence underlined. The boundaries of the polymerase chain reaction-deleted region of the *sodA* gene are indicated by asterisks. A putative transcription terminator is indicated by bold and italic nucleotides. The nucleotide sequence of the *sodA* region has been deposited to the EMBL database as accession no. AJ278262.

MnSOD enzyme (Fig. 4), which is consistent with the sequence relatedness of the cloned gene.

Growth characteristics of the *E. chrysanthemi* $\Delta sodA$ mutant.

Because O₂⁻ inactivates the enzyme dihydroxyl-acid dehydratase, which contains a 4Fe-4S cluster and catalyzes the penultimate step in the biosynthesis of branched chain aminoacids (Flint et al. 1993), we checked the growth of the $\Delta sodA$ mutant in minimal glucose medium. This mutant was unable to grow in this type of medium unless the branched amino acids were added to it. In liquid LB medium, the growth of the △sodA mutant during the exponential phase was slower than that of the wild-type strain. In the same medium containing paraquat at a final concentration of 5 µM, the growth of the wild-type strain was not altered, whereas the growth of the mutant was first reduced and finally stopped (Fig. 5). The addition of Mn(III) tetrakis (1-methyl-4-pyridyl) porphyrin (MnTMPyP) at a concentration of 25 µM, however, partially restored the growth of the $\triangle sodA$ mutant in the presence of 5 μM paraquat (Fig. 5). This metalloporphyrin can be internalized and scavenge intracellular O₂⁻ (Faulkner et al. 1994). No difference was observed between the strain 3937 and its •sodA derivative with a lower concentration of paraquat. We also analyzed the growth of this mutant in intercellular fluids isolated from African violet leaves. In this medium, which mimics the environmental conditions encountered during pathogenesis (Neema et al. 1993), no significant difference between

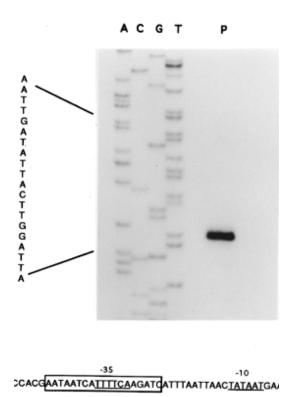


Fig. 2. Identification of the transcriptional start site of the *sodA* gene. Lanes A, C, G, and T are sequencing ladders. Lane P is the primer extension reaction (see text). Promoter elements –35 and –10 of the *sodA* gene are underlined, whereas the putative Fur binding site is boxed. The transcriptional start point is indicated by an arrow.

the growth of the wild-type strain and its $\Delta sodA$ derivative was observed (Fig. 5).

Pathogenicity of the $\triangle sodA$ mutant.

We first examined the behavior of the $\triangle sodA$ mutant after inoculation on potato tubers. No difference was observed in the symptoms and kinetics of maceration between the wildtype strain and its $\triangle sodA$ derivative. When pathogenicity was assayed on potted S. ionantha, the wild-type strain fully macerated the inoculated leaves and, after 1 week, symptoms spread over the other aerial parts of the plant (Fig. 6). In contrast, the mutant gave 50% negative responses (i.e., no visible symptom at the inoculation site). For the other 50% of the inoculated plants, a small, brown necrotic lesion appeared after 24 h at the inoculation site (Fig. 6). This symptom remained confined at the inoculation site for the next few days. Similar data were obtained when the inoculum of the mutant was amended with the branched chain amino acids, indicating that the lack of pathogenicity was not the result of auxotrophy. Indeed, a twofold increase in viable counts (colony-forming units) relative to the initial inoculum was detected after 2 days in the leaves inoculated with the \(\Delta sodA \) mutant. Within the same time period, the population of the wild-type strain increased tenfold. The addition of the metalloporphyrin MnTMPyP to the inoculum at a concentration of 25 µM, however, partially restored the ability of the $\Delta sodA$ mutant to macerate Saintpaulia spp. leaves. With this SOD mimic, the mu-

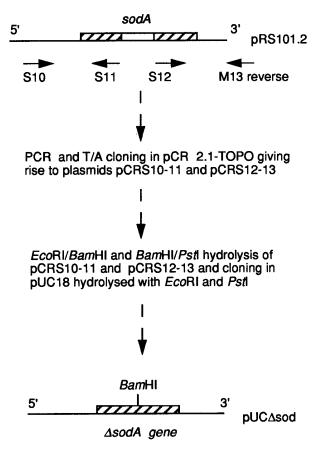


Fig. 3. Strategy used for constructing a *AsodA* gene by polymerase chain reaction. Primers S11 and S12 contain a *Bam*HI site at their 5' end. Additional details appear in text.

tant was able to macerate the inoculated area. Within a few days, the macerated tissue dried out with the peripheral tissues, becoming chlorotic (Fig. 6). Because this compound can be internalized by the bacteria, we investigated whether a mixture of purified SOD and catalase added to the inoculum could rescue the mutant. Similar data, i.e., maceration of the inoculated zone, were obtained with these enzymes, which are known to detoxify the $\rm O_2^-$ and $\rm H_2O_2$ (Fig. 6). These results indicate that the $\Delta sodA$ mutant is subject to oxidative damages during infection and the lack of pathogenicity results from the absence of a functional superoxide dismutase.

Superoxide production during the *E. chrysanthemi–S. ionantha* interaction.

Because the presence of O_2^- scavengers restore the capacity of the $\triangle sodA$ mutant to macerate African violet leaves, a superoxide burst is likely to occur during the *E. chrysanthemi–S. ionantha* interaction. African violet leaves were thus inoculated with the wild-type strain and checked every 30 min for the production of O_2^- with nitroblue tetrazolium as an indicator. A blue formazan precipitate, surrounding the inoculated area, was detected 3 h postinoculation. No coloration could be visualized for shorter times or in leaves infiltrated only with the inoculation buffer (Fig. 7). Thus, when infecting their host, *E. chrysanthemi* cells encounter oxidative conditions to which they have to adapt.

DISCUSSION

This work aimed to elucidate whether SOD activity was involved in the pathogenicity of *E. chrysanthemi* strain 3937 on African violets. We isolated and cloned an *E. chrysanthemi sodA*-like gene by complementing a *sodA sodB* mutant of *E. coli*. A *∆sodA* mutant of *E. chrysanthemi* was constructed by reverse genetics. The SOD activity detected in wild-type cell extracts was lacking in those of the *∆sodA* mutant. *E. chrysanthemi* 3937 thus seems to possess only one cytoplasmic SOD

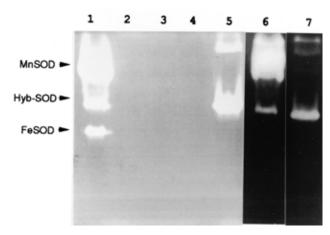
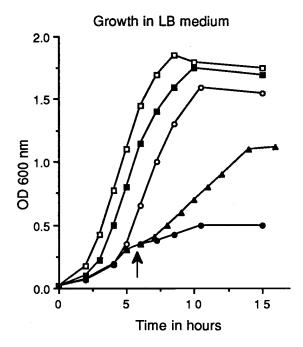


Fig. 4. Superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity in crude extracts of *Erwinia chrysanthemi* 3937 and its ΔsodA derivatives. Detection was performed on nondenaturating polyacrylamide gels stained for SOD activity (see text). Lane 1: *Escherichia coli* DH5α; lanes 2–4: ΔsodA derivatives of *E. chrysanthemi* 3937; lane 5: *E. chrysanthemi* 3937; lane 6: *E. coli* DH5α with 8 mM H₂O₂ treatment; lane 7: *E. chrysanthemi* 3937 with 8 mM H₂O₂ treatment. The *E. coli* manganese-containing SOD, hybrid SOD, and iron-containing SOD are indicated by an arrow.

enzyme, which is encoded by the *sodA* gene. This mutant is auxotrophic for the branched chain amino acids and more sensitive to paraquat than the wild-type strain. Paraquat sensitivity could be reduced when the \(\Delta sodA \) mutant was supple-



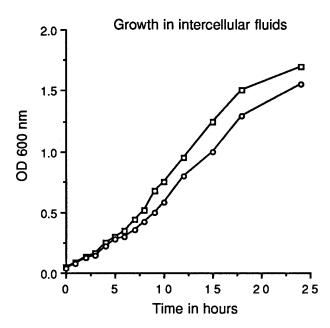


Fig. 5. Growth characteristics of the *Erwinia chrysanthemi AsodA* mutant. Strains were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium or in intercellular fluids. Bacterial growth of the wild-type strain (squares) and its $\Delta sodA$ derivative (circles and triangles) was monitored by measuring optical density (OD) at 600 nm. Paraquat was added to the LB medium when OD600 was at 0.2. The O2⁻scavenging metalloporphyrin MnTMPyP was added at the time indicated. Open symbols: no addition; solid symbols: paraquat at 5 μ M solid triangles: paraquat at 5 μ M plus subsequent addition of 25 μ M MnTMPyP. Fivefold-concentrated intercellular fluids from African violet leaves were supplemented with 0.2% glucose to assess bacterial growth. Experiments were performed in duplicate. Results from one representative experiment are shown.

mented with the intracellular O₂⁻-scavenging metalloporphyrin MnTMPyP. This mutant was able to macerate potato tubers as well as the wild-type strain, indicating that it was not impaired in pectinolytic functions. When tested on potted

African violets, however, the $\Delta sodA$ mutant caused, at most, only small necrotic lesions at the inoculation site, whereas the parental strain gave systemic maceration symptoms. The addition of the SOD mimic MnTMPyP or the mixture of



Fig. 6. Symptoms caused by *Erwinia chrysanthemi* strain 3937 and its ΔsodA derivative on *Saintpaulia ionantha* leaves 6 days postinoculation. Top left: wild-type strain. Bottom left: ΔsodA mutant. Top right: ΔsodA mutant amended with 30 units of purified superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase per ml. Bottom right: ΔsodA mutant supplemented with 25 μM SOD mimic compound MnTMPyP.

purified SOD and catalase to the inoculum restored the capacity of the mutant to macerate the inoculated area, indicating that a superoxide burst occurs at the onset of infection. Indeed, superoxide production could be detected in African violets leaves at 3 h postinoculation around the area infiltrated with E. chrysanthemi strain 3937. This plantgenerated superoxide is unable to cross the bacterial membrane and probably is converted into H₂O₂. It is thus possible that in the presence of H₂O₂ produced by the plant, the higher intracellular concentration of O₂[−] in the ∆sodA mutant leads to the production of the highly toxic free radical OH during the Haber-Weiss reaction catalyzed by iron (Halliwell and Gutteridge 1985). Indeed, when this mutant was inoculated only with purified catalase, it was able to macerate the inoculated zone (data not shown). Together these data indicate that bacteria encounter an oxidative environment at the onset of African violet infection. These oxidative conditions could exacerbate the deleterious effects of the high concentration of endogenous O₂⁻ present in the $\triangle sodA$ mutant. The production of a maceration symptom by the $\triangle sodA$ mutant in the presence of different O_2 scavengers used in this work relies on the ability to partially block oxidative damages caused by the release of plant AOS. Therefore, in E. chrysanthemi, the sodA-encoded function seems to be of prime importance during the first steps of pathogenesis on African violets. The E. chrysanthemi HmpX function, which can metabolize NO, also is critical for pathogenicity on African violet (Favey et al. 1995). The molecule NO, which is an important redox signal involved in plant defense (Delledone et al. 1998; Durner and Klessig 1999; Durner et al. 1998), can interact with O₂⁻ to form peroxynitrite, a highly toxic and antimicrobial compound. In the presence of NO produced by the plant, the $\Delta sodA$ mutant could accumulate peroxynitrite. Furthermore, an E. chrysanthemi fur null mutant, which accumulates iron because of the lack of the transcriptional repressor Fur, also displayed a reduced pathogenicity on African violets (Expert 1999; Franza et al. 1999). This could be the result of the accumulation of iron into the cell, which is toxic from catalyzing the production of OH and feryl radicals during oxidative stress (Nunoshiba et al. 1999; Touati 2000; Touati et al. 1995). In conclusion, during pathogenesis on its host, E. chrysanthemi strain 3937 encounters an oxidative environment that is strong enough to exert antibacterial activity. Under these circumstances, this pathogen may require functions involved in detoxification of active oxygen species and iron homeostasis in order to survive and cause disease.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and media.

The bacterial strains, cosmids, and plasmids used in this work are described in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. Nutrientrich medium was LB (Miller 1972). M9 (Miller 1972) containing 2 g of glucose per liter as a carbon source was used as minimal medium. Amino acids were added at a final concentration of 40 µg per ml. When necessary, the following antibiotics (Sigma, St Louis, MO, U.S.A.) were used per ml: 50 µg of ampicillin (Ap), 30 µg of Cm, 30 µg of Km, 100 µg of Sm, or 25 µg of Tc. For recombinant plasmid selection, 250 of isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside and 40 μg of X-gal (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) per ml (each) were added. Methyl viologen (paraquat; Sigma) was added at a final concentration of 10^{-9} M or 5 μM in minimal and rich medium, respectively. Amino acid utilization was monitored on M9 agar plates after 4 days of aerobic growth at 30°C. For genetic marker exchange by homologous recombination, minimal-low phosphate medium was used (Franza et al. 1999). Intercellular fluids from S. ionantha were concentrated fivefold and supplemented with 0.2% glucose for growth assay experiments (Neema et al. 1993).

Mating and transformation methods.

The *E. chrysanthemi* genomic library constructed in cosmid pLA2917 was propagated in the ED8767 strain of *E. coli* (Franza et al. 1999). Triparental matings with helper plasmid pRK2013 were performed as described previously (Franza et al. 1991). Transconjugants were selected on M9 agar plates containing Sm, Cm, Tc, and 10⁻⁹ M O₂⁻-generating compound paraquat. *E. coli* cells were transformed by the CaCl₂ procedure, and *E. chrysanthemi* bacteria were electroporated as described by Sambrook et al. (1989).

DNA methods.

Cosmid and plasmid DNAs were isolated by the alkaline-lysis method. Additional DNA manipulations (cloning and electrophoresis) were carried out as described by Sambrook et al. (1989). DNA–DNA hybridization analysis was performed by the Denhardt method described by Sambrook et al. (1989). All cloning experiments were performed in the DH5 α strain of *E. coli*. Restriction fragments were isolated from Trisborate-EDTA agarose gels with the QIAquick extraction kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). DNA sequencing was performed on a double-strand plasmid by the dideoxynucleotide chain termination method with Sequenase version 2.0 and $[\alpha$ - 35 S]

Table 1. Bacterial strains used in this study

Strain	Characteristics	Source or reference
Erwinia chrysanthemi		
3937	Wild-type strain.	Our collection
3937 <i>∆sodA</i>	AsodA with the kanamycin resistance gene from pUC4K inserted at the polymerase chain reaction-constructed BamHI site (Km ^r).	This study
Escherichia coli		
DH5α	supE44 ΔlacU169 (φ80lacZΔM15) hsdR17 recA1 endA1 gyrA96 thi relA1	Sambrook et al. 1989
ED8767	supE44 supF58 hsdS3 (r _B ⁻ m _B ⁻) recA56 galK2 galT22 metB1	Sambrook et al. 1989
QC1726	$F^-\Delta(argF-lac)$ U169 $rpsL$ $\Delta sodA$ $sodB$::MudPR3 (Sm ^r and Cm ^r)	Touati et al. 1995

dATP (Nycomed Amersham, Little Chalfont, Buckinghamshire, U.K.). When necessary, dimethyl sulfoxide (Sigma) was added in the annealing mixture (5% final concentration). Data were analyzed with the UW GCG software package, provided by Bisance (Dessen et al. 1990). The *E. chrysanthemi sodA* gene sequence has been submitted to the EMBL database as accession no. AJ278262.

PCR amplification of an E. chrysanthemi sodA fragment.

Degenerate primers KHH3 (5'-CCAYCAYGACAAGCAYC-3') and DVWEH (5'-TARTANGCRTGYTCCCANACRTC-3') (Santos et al. 1999), designed according to the conserved amino acid regions of SOD proteins, were used to amplify a fragment of approximately 400 bp from *E. chrysanthemi* 3937 genomic DNA. The sequence of the amplified 444-bp fragment was very similar to the *E. coli sodA* sequence. PCR with degenerate primers KHH3 and DVWEH was performed as described by Santos et al. (1999). Additional PCR was performed in a DNA thermocycler with denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 50°C for 1 min, and an extension at 72°C for 1 min, which was followed by an extension reaction at 72°C for 10 min. When necessary, PCR products were cloned into pCR2.1-TOPO according to the manufacturer's instructions.

RNA isolation and primer extension.

RNAs were isolated from late exponential cultures of *E. chrysanthemi* cells grown in LB medium according to Babst et al. (1996). Primer extension was performed as described by Uzan et al. (1988) with primer 5'-GCAGGGATGGCAGTGA-ATAA-3' complementary to positions 749 to 768. The same primer was used to sequence plasmid pRS101. Sequence and

primer extension reactions were loaded and run onto a 6% sequencing gel. Extension from this primer yielded one cDNA that comigrated with a T residue (Fig. 2).

Construction of a $\triangle sodA$ mutant.

The cassette from transposon Tn903, which confers resistance to Km, was inserted in the BamHI site of the E. chrysanthemi AsodA gene cloned in pUC18, generating plasmid pK∆sod (Fig. 3). This plasmid was introduced into E. chrysanthemi strain 3937 by electroporation. Transformants were purified once on LB agar plates containing Ap and Km. Overnight cultures in LB with Ap and Km were 20-fold diluted in low phosphate medium supplemented with glucose and all of the amino acids in order to promote plasmid destabilization with exchange recombination of the disrupted DNA insert into the E. chrysanthemi chromosome. After 24 h of growth without shaking, the culture was further diluted 20-fold in the same minimal medium. After three passages, the cells were plated on LB agar plates containing Km. Individual colonies were then streaked on plates containing Km plus Ap and Km only. Three Km^RAp^S clones were isolated. One of these ΔsodA Km^R mutants was used in all of the experiments described in this work.

Preparation of cell lysates and visualization of SOD activity.

Stationary phase cultures of cells from *E. chrysanthemi* or its $\Delta sodA$ -derivative mutants were harvested by centrifugation and washed in 0.5 ml of 50 mM potassium phosphate and 10 mM MgCl₂. Cells were disrupted by sonication, and 20 to 40 μ g of proteins were loaded and run onto nondenaturing 10% polyacrylamide gels. SOD activity was visualized by nitroblue tetrazolium negative staining (Beauchamp and

Table 2. Cosmids and plasmids used in this study

Plasmids or cosmids	Characteristics ^a	Source or reference
Cosmids		
pLA2917	21-kb mobilizable cosmid Tc ^r and Km ^r .	Allen and Hanson 1985
pCS3	30-kb Sau3A fragment of genomic DNA from <i>Erwinia chrysanthemi</i> cloned in the <i>Bgl</i> II site of the Km ^r gene from pLA2917, SOD ⁺ , and Tc ^r .	This study
Plasmids	•	
pRK2013	Mobilization helper plasmid; Km ^r .	Figurski and Helinski 1979
pUC18	2.7-kb vector; Ap ^r .	Sambrook et al. 1989
pSK ⁺	2.96-kb pBluescript vector derived from pUC19; Apr.	Stratagene (La Jolla, CA, U.S.A.)
pUC4K	pUC-derived plasmid containing the kanamycin resistance gene from the transposon Tn903; Apr and Kmr.	Nycomed Amersham (Little Chalfont, Buckinghamshire, U.K.)
pCR2.1-TOPO	3.9-kb ColE1 vector for direct T/A cloning of PCR products; Ap ^r and Km ^r .	Invitrogen (Groningen, The Netherlands)
pRS101	4.8 kb <i>PstI</i> fragment from pCS3 cloned in pSK ⁺ ; Ap ^r and SOD ⁺ .	This study
pRS101.2	3.5-kb <i>Eco</i> RV fragment from pRS101 cloned in pSK ⁺ ; Ap ^r and SOD ⁺ .	This study
pCRS10-11	750-pb fragment from the 5' part of the <i>E. chrysanthemi</i> sodA gene amplified with primers S10 and S11 and cloned in pCR2.1-TOPO; Ap ^r and Km ^r .	This study
pCRS12-13	700-pb fragment from the 3' part of the <i>E. chrysanthemi</i> sodA gene amplified with primers S12 and M13 reverse and cloned in pCR2.1 TOPO; Apr and Kmr.	This study
pUC∆sod	EcoRI–BamHI fragment from pCRS10-11 and BamHI– PstI fragment from pCRS12-13 cloned in pUC18 hy- drolyzed with EcoRI and PstI; Apr.	This study
pKΔsod	pUC Δ sod with the Km resistance gene from pUC4K inserted at the <i>BamHI</i> site of the Δ sodA gene; Ap ^r and Km ^r .	This study

^a SOD, superoxide dismutase; Tc, tetracycline; Km, kanamycin; Ap, ampicillin; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

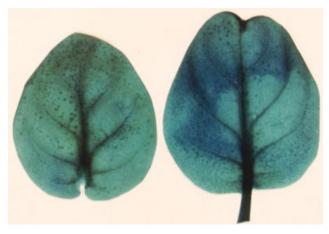


Fig. 7. Generation of superoxide anion during the *Erwinia chrysan-themi–Saintpaulia ionantha* interaction. Left: leaf infiltrated with suspension buffer. Right: leaf inoculated with 100 µl of *E. chrysanthemi* 3937 cell suspension. A blue formazan precipitate, which surrounds the inoculated zone, was visualized after 3 h.

Fridovich 1971). The gel was stained in presence of 8 mM H_2O_2 for SOD activity inhibition.

Pathogenicity assays.

Pathogenicity was tested on potato tubers and potted S. ionantha cv. Blue Rhapsody, as reported by Expert and Toussaint (1985). Twenty plants were tested for each condition. Bacterial cells were plated on LB agar medium and incubated for 24 h at 30°C. Cells were suspended in 9 g of NaCl solution per liter to give an OD₆₀₀ of 0.4. The resulting suspension (3 μl) was used to inoculate potato tubers, whereas 100 μl of inoculum was used for one leaf per African violet plant. When necessary, 40 µg of amino acids per ml, the O₂⁻-scavenging compound (Faulkner et al. 1994), 25 µM Mn(III) tetrakis (1methyl-4-pyridyl) porphyrin (MnTMPyP), or 30 units of purified bovine SOD and catalase per ml (Roche Diagnostics) were added to the bacterial suspension just before inoculation. Plant-growth conditions are the same as those described by Sauvage and Expert (1994). Progression of the symptoms was scored daily for 10 days.

Detection of superoxide production in African violet leaves.

African violet leaves were inoculated with $100~\mu l$ of bacterial suspension or 9 g of NaCl solution per liter. Leaves were cut off every 30 min for 4 h and vacuum infiltrated with 20~mM potassium phosphate buffer containing 0.1% of nitroblue tetrazolium. After 1 h of coloration, leaves were washed overnight in 96% ethanol.

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