

B. thuringiensis – identification, biology and uses

Vincent Sanchis-Borja

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B. thuringiensis – identification, biology and uses

Vincent Sanchis-Borja

HuPlant(Cost Action 16110) training School

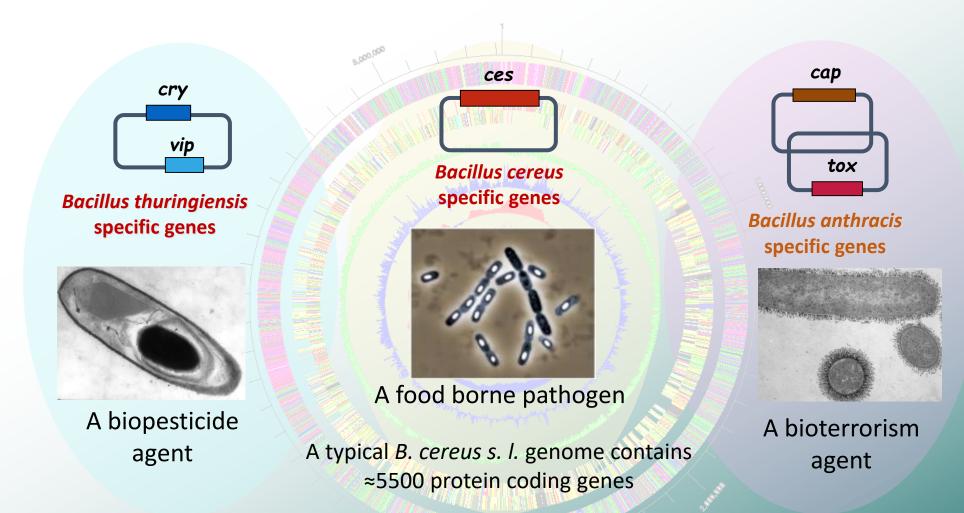






The Bacillus cereus sensu lato group

Gram⁺, sporulating, low GC% (35%) bacteria
Set of common genes represent ~ 75% of the genome (~ 4 Mb)

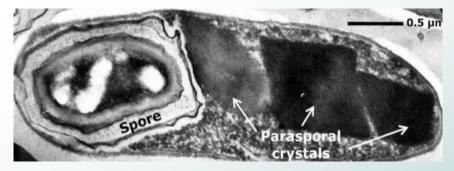


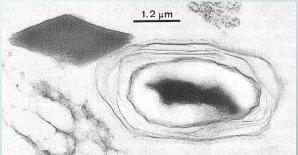
Harbors a diverse range of plasmids that vary in number and in size (2–200kb)

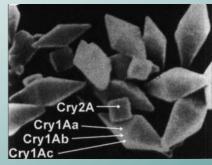
The specific pathogen properties of these bacteria are due to plasmid

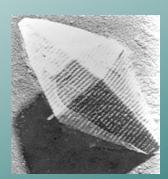
What is *Bacillus thuringiensis*?

- Common soil bacterium
- Present in nature in a variety of forms (strains)
- Characterized by the production of crystal inclusions containing proteins (Cry toxins) that are toxic to insects
- Isolates frequently produce crystals containing multiple Cry proteins.
- Commonly used for commercial agriculture, including organic farming
- Extremely well-known toxin in terms of human health & environmental safety



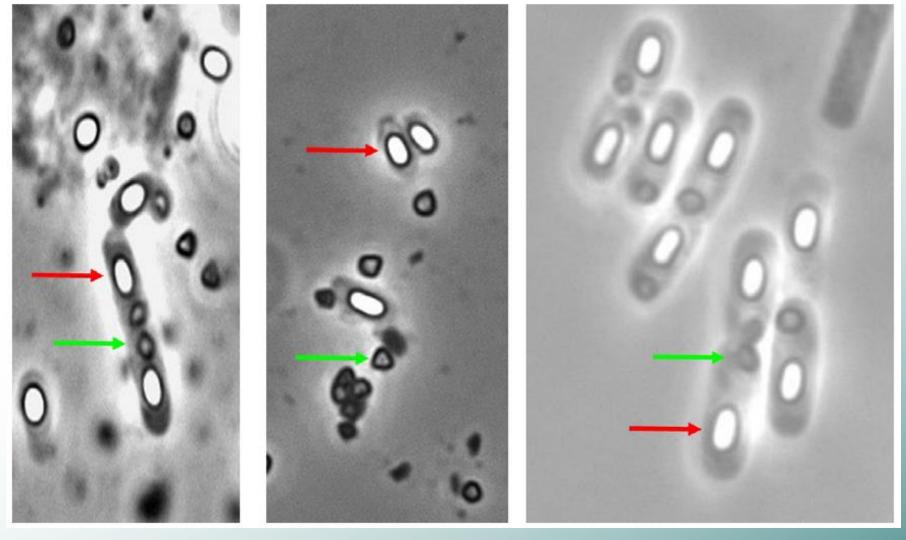






Free spores & crystals in technical powder

Identification of *Bacillus thuringiensis* strains



Photomicrographs of *Bacillus thuringiensis* strains viewed by phase-contrast microscopy showing the parasporal crystals of insecticidal toxins (green arrows) or spores (red arrows)

Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt) historical background

- 1901: Discovered in silkworm by the Japanese bacteriologist Ishiwata "Sottokin".
- 1911 : A new isolation by Berliner on *Ephestia kuehniella* (Zeller) larvae from Thuringe (Germany)
- •1938 : First commercial preparation (Sporéine) by Libec Laboratories in France.
- •1956: development of an industrial process known as submerged fermentation, by the Pacific Yeast Product Company, which allowed production of Bt on a large scale.
- •1960: First commercial use in the United State.
- •1977: Discovery of Bacillus thuringiensis var. israelensis toxic to flies by Goldberg and Margalit
- •1981 : first cloning of a Cry gene
- •1983 : discovery, of Bacillus thuringiensis var. tenebrionis toxic to beetles by Krieg
- •1985 : First insect resistant transgenic plant
- •1990 : strain and cry gene isolation: several tens of thousands of isolates yielding over 250 distinct Cry proteins
- •1995: First Bt transgenic plant commercialised in USA
- •2017: 100 millions hectares of biotech crops with insect resistance Bt genes were planted all over the world, grown by up to 17 million farmers globally in 2017

Insecticidal activity of *Bacillus thuringiensis* strains

- Bt is a highly heteromorphous comprising a very large number of strains distributed in more than 70 serotypes, including various *subspecies: kurstaki, tenebrionis, israelensis...* with various pathogenic activities against insect larvae from different orders

lepidoptera



coleoptera

diptera (mosquitoes)

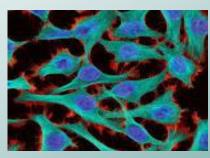




or against nematodes



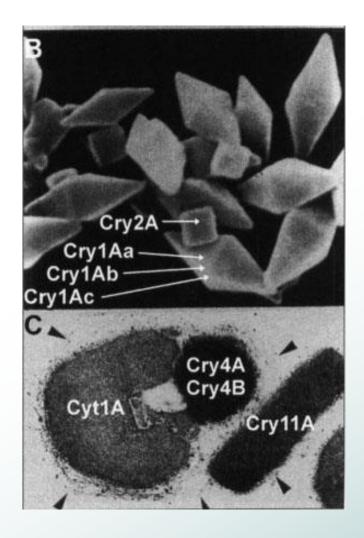
or against cancer cells



or with yet unknown activity

Crystal toxin description

Bt isolates frequently produce crystals containing multiple Cry proteins.



Federici, et al., 1998

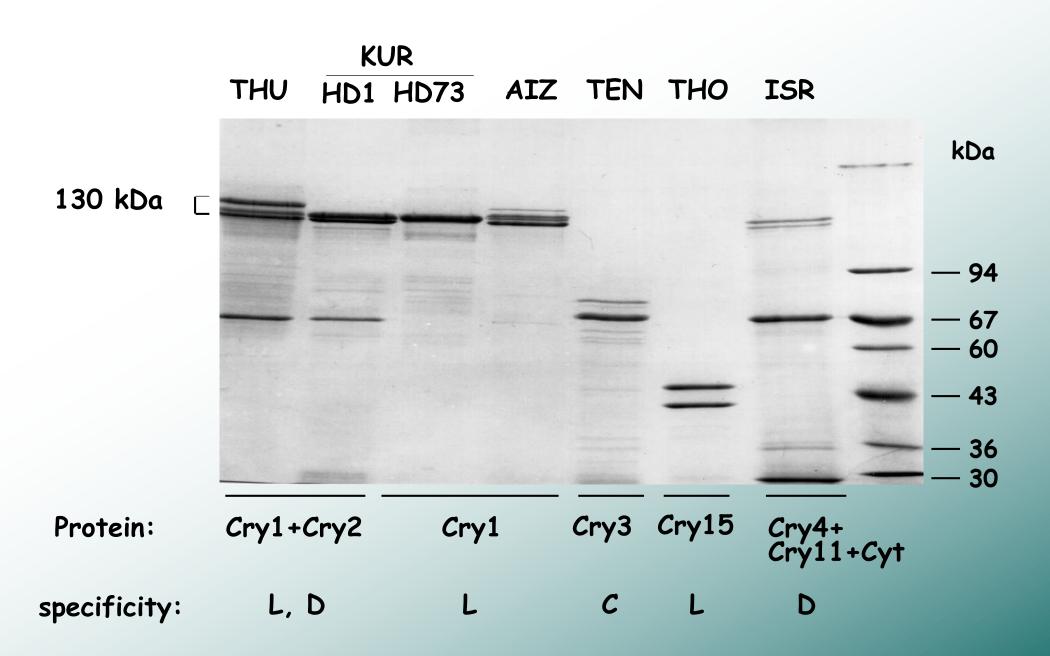
B. thuringiensis subsp. Kurstaki

Bipyramidal crystals of Cry1Aa, Cry1Ab, and Cry1Ac and Cuboidal crystal of Cry2A.

B. thuringiensis subsp. israelensis

Large semispherical inclusion of Cyt1Aa, and Dense spherical body of Cry4Aa and Cry4Ba and. Bar-shaped body of Cry11Aa

Crystal protein content analysis



Crystal toxins classification

	Gene	Crystal shape	Protein size (kDa)	Insecticidal activity	
	<i>cry1</i> (A,B, and a,b,)	Cry2A → Cry1Aa → Cry1Ab → Cry1Ac	130-138	Lepidoptera	
	cry2		69-71	Lepidoptera and Diptera	
	cry3		73-74	Coleoptera	
1	Cry4, cry11	Cry11a Cry4a Cry4b Cyt1A	73-134	Diptera	

Hofte and Whiteley, 1989

Classification of the Cry toxins

Bt toxicity is due to the Cry proteins

These Cry toxins consist in a very large protein family. There are classified as follows:

Rank 1: 74 classes: Cry1, 2..., 74

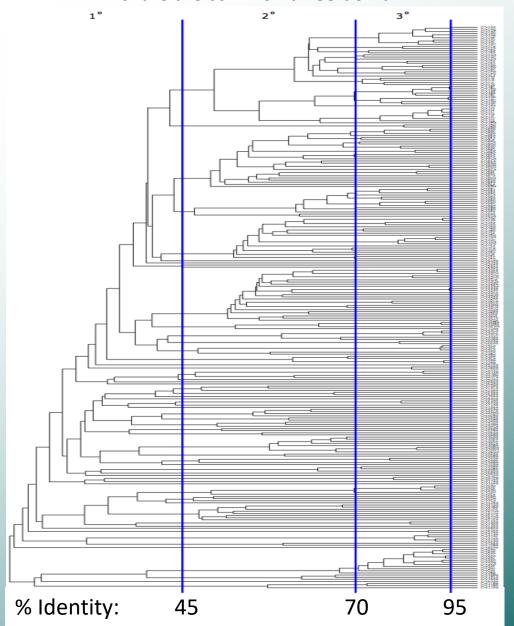
Rank 2: ~ 300 subclasses: Cry1A, B, C...

Rank 3: > 500 alleles: Cry1Aa, b, c, d...

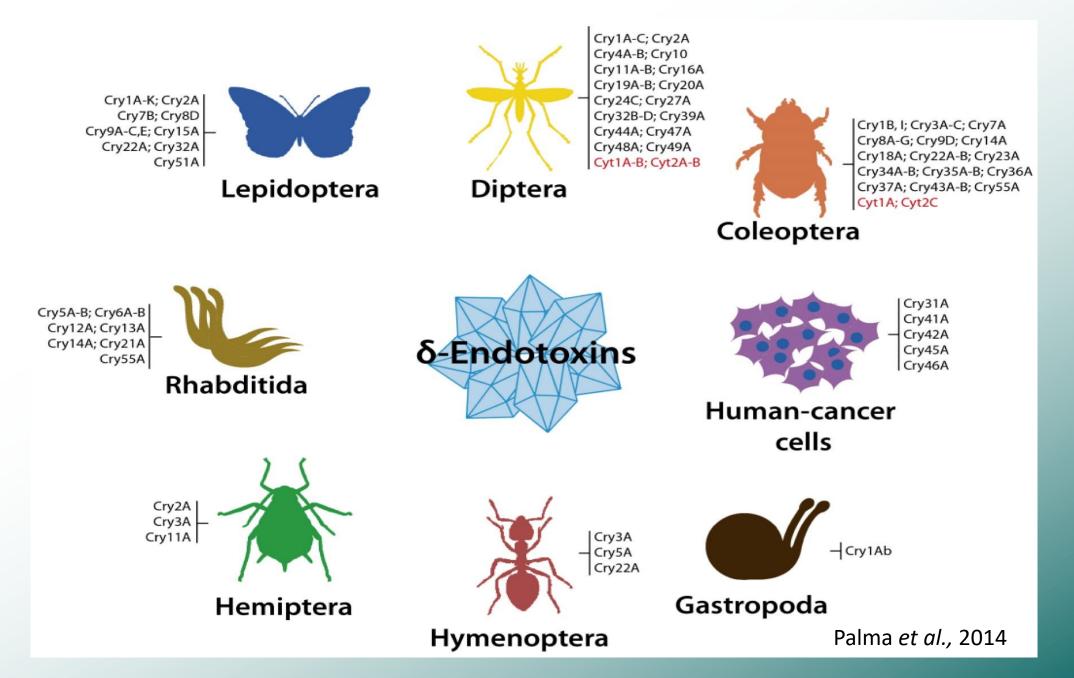
Together, these toxins allow to kill:

- ✓ Various insect larvae (lepidoptera, Cry1, 2...; coleoptera, Cry3, 8...; mosquitoes, Cry4, 11...)
- ✓ Nematodes (Cry5, 6...)
- ✓ Cancer cells (Cry41, 45...)

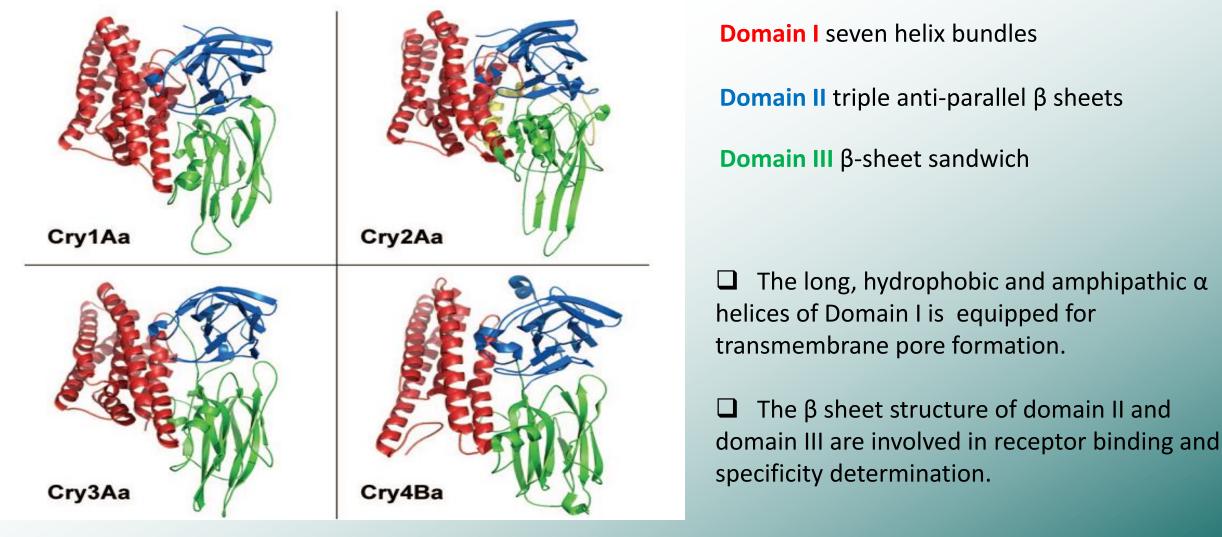
dendrogram describing the relatedness of the toxins which share the common three-domain



Summarized view showing the known host spectrum of Bt Cry toxins

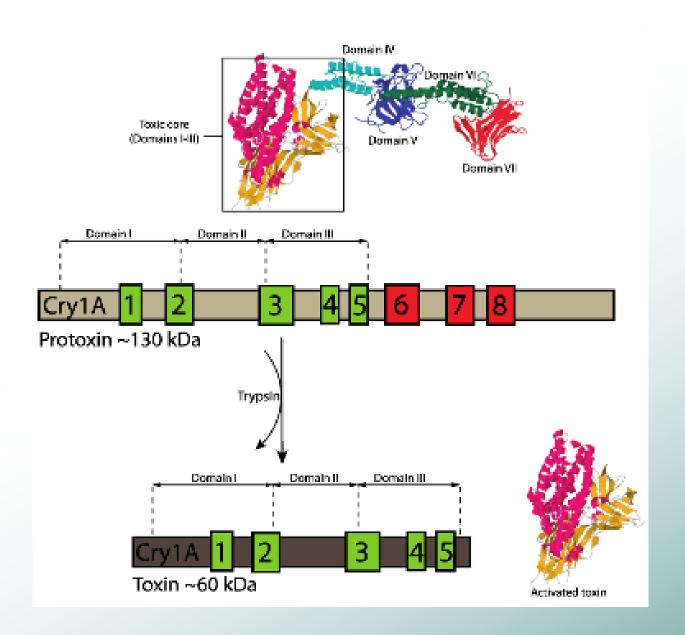


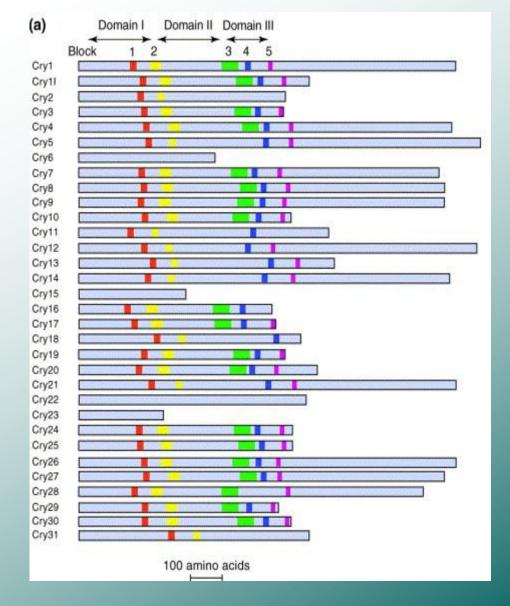
Crystal toxin structure: 3 domains structure



Craig R. Pigott, and David J. Ellar Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev. 2007

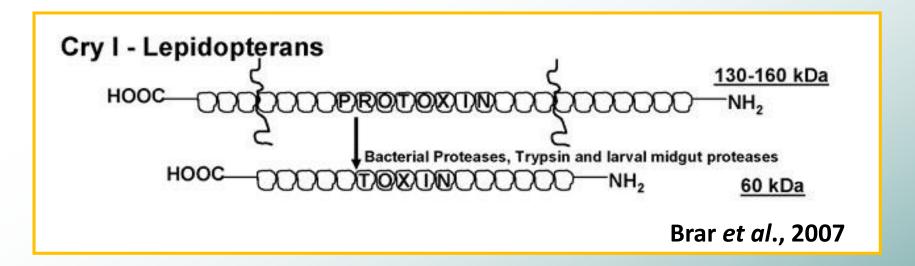
Crystal gene structure: 5 conserved domains





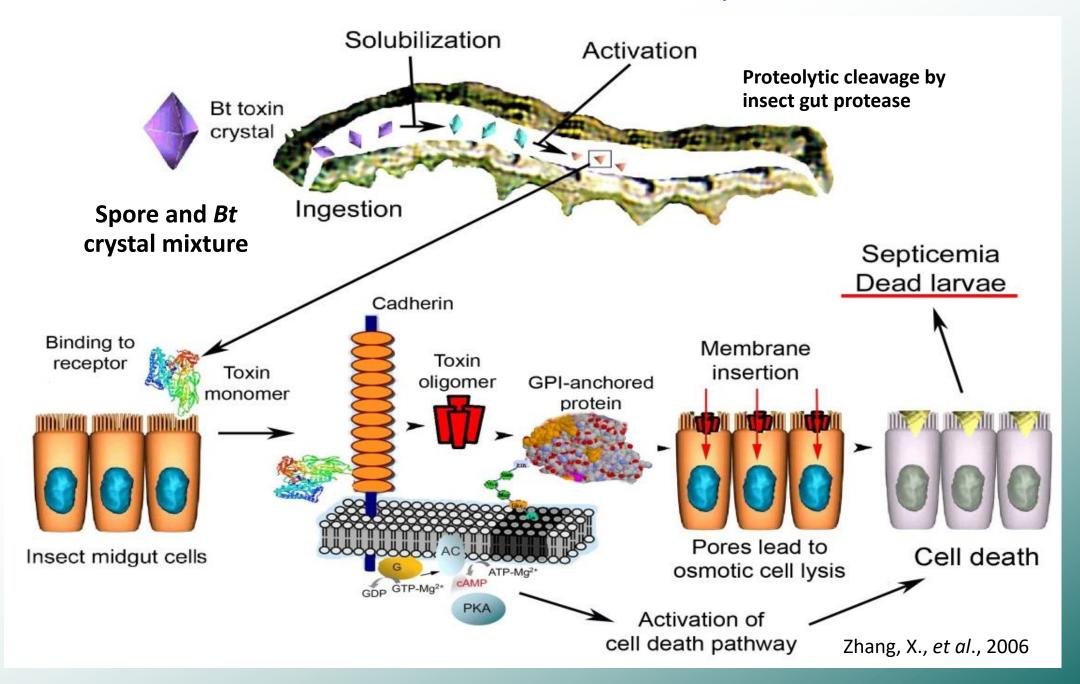
Mode of action of the Cry toxins

- Most Cry toxins are synthesized as inactive protoxins.
- Conversion of the protoxin (e.g., 130 kDa) into the active toxin (e.g., 68 kDa) requires the combination of a slightly alkaline pH (7.5-8) and the action of a specific protease(s) found in the insect gut

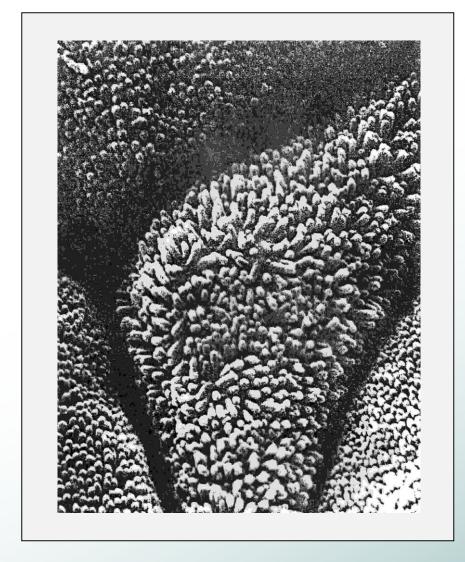


- The active toxin binds to protein receptors on the insect gut epithelial cell membrane
- The toxin forms an ion channel between the cell cytoplasm and the external environment, leading to loss of cellular ATP gut wall to break down, allowing spores and normal gut bacteria to enter the body.
- . The insect dies as spores and gut bacteria proliferate in the body.

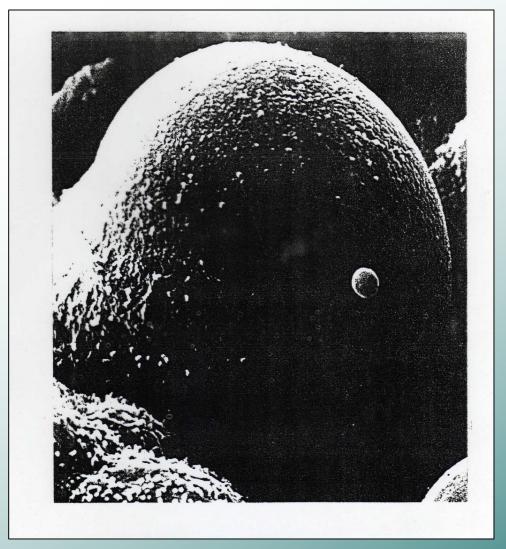
Schematic mode of action of the Cry toxins



Effect of insecticidal toxins on epithelial cells

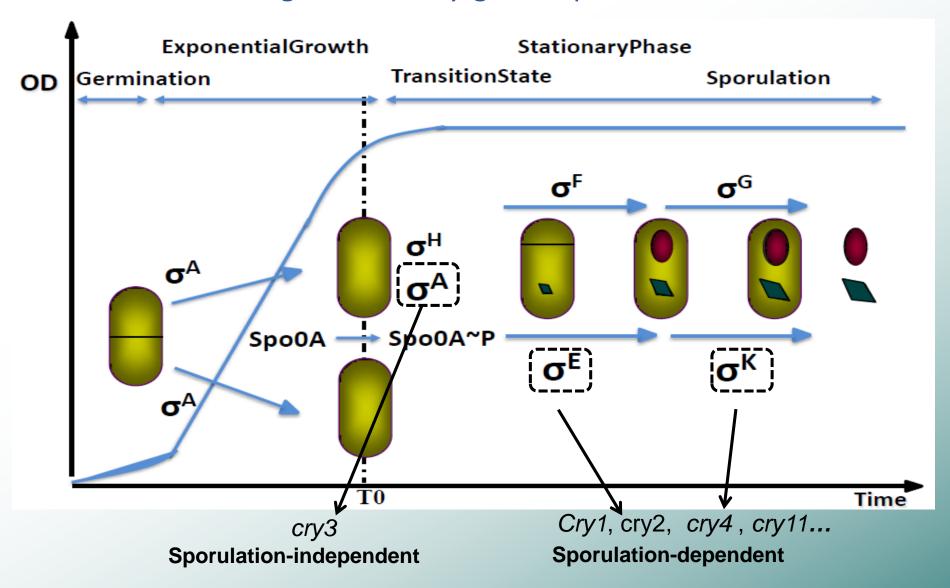


Appical Microvilli (control)



Swelling of cells and lysis (2 hours post intoxication)

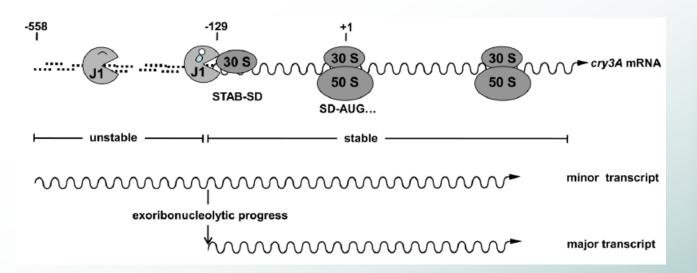
Regulation of cry gene expression



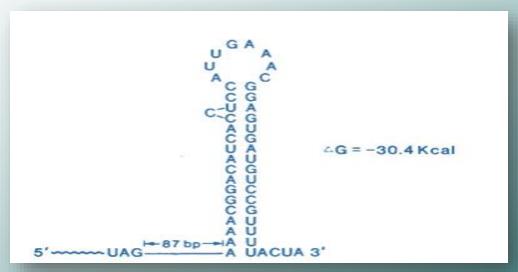
cry1 (lepidopteran), cry4 and cry11 (dipteran) and cry2 (dipteran and lepidopteran) genes are controlled by sporulation sigma factors whereas cry3 (coleopteran) is not

Post-transcriptional regulation

- The half life of general mRNA is about 2-3 min (Nilsson et al., 1984).
- cry1 mRNAs have half lives of about 10 min (Glatron and Rapaport, 1972).
- Terminator of most *cry1* genes contain large inverted repeats which are capable to form stem loop and protect the mRNA from 3' ribonuclease degrading enzymes.
- A Shine Dalgarno sequence (STAB-SD) in the 5' untranslated region acts as a 5' mRNA stabilizer.
- These characteristics increase cry mRNA stability.



The STAB-SD sequence in cry3A mRNA. The 30S ribosomal subunit can bind to the STAB-SD sequence mRNA and block the further 5 '-3 ' exoribonucleolytic progress of RNase J1.

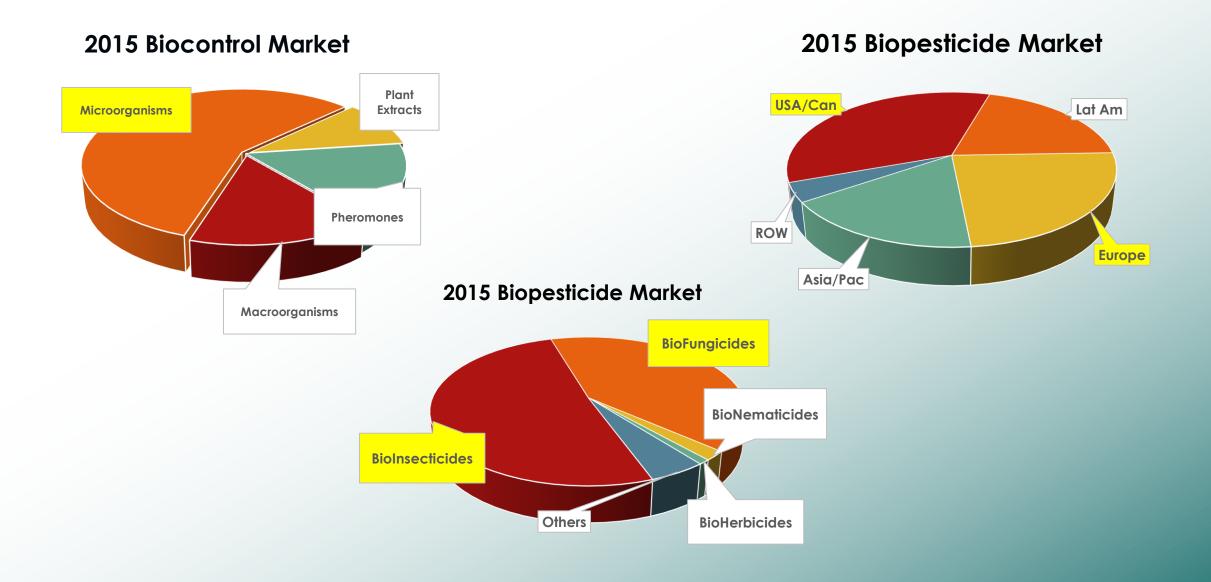


The secondary structure at the 3' end of *cry1Aa* gene mRNA from *B. thuringiensis* subsp. *kurstaki* HD1

Wong and Chang, 1986

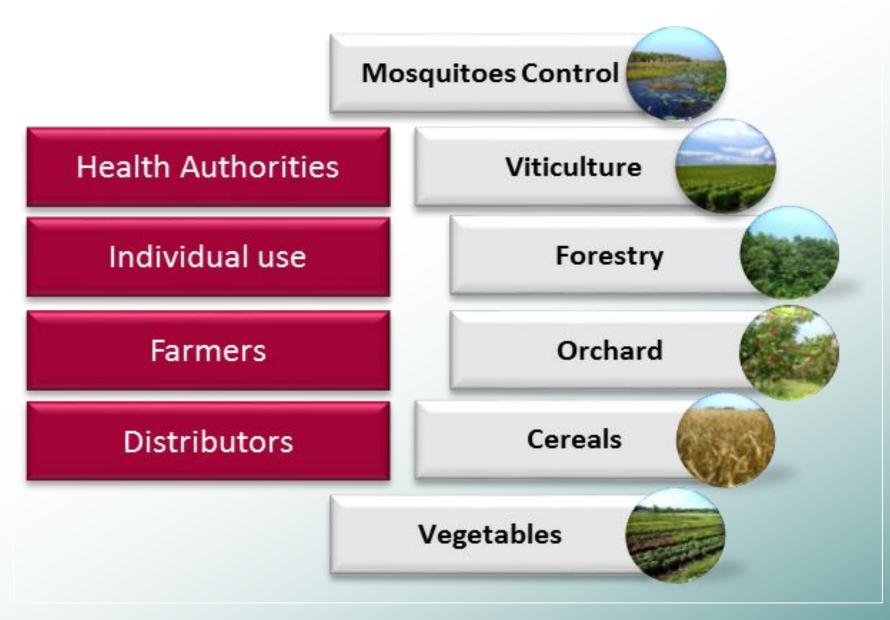
Agaisse and Lereclus 1996

Biocontrol Market stats

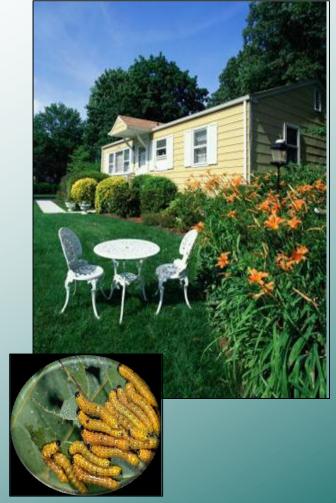


Source: DUNHAM TRIMMER international Bio Intelligence

B. thuringiensis and its uses as a biological control agent



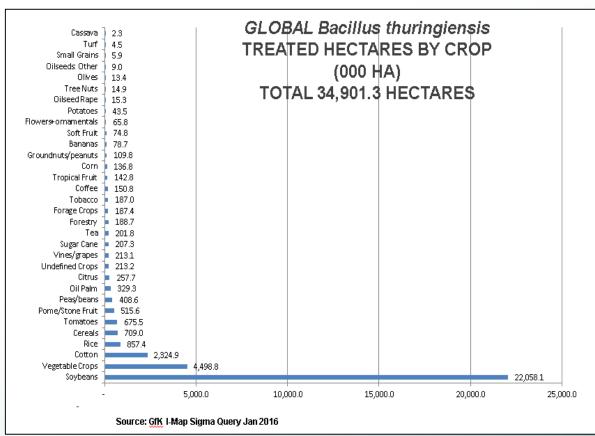
Outdoor residential areas

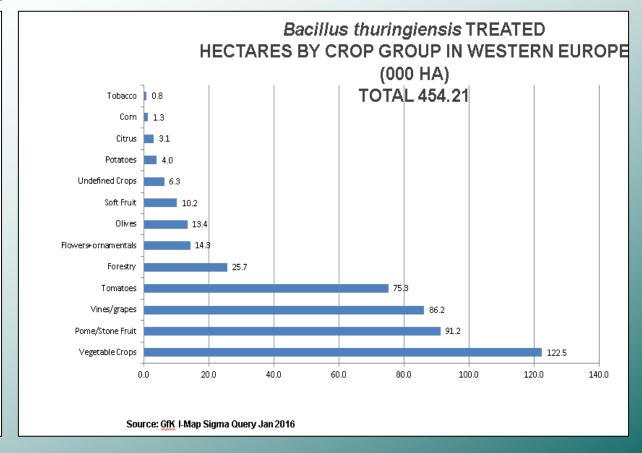


Current market for Bt pesticides



Biocontrol products today hold just 5% to 6% of the total crop protection market of approximately \$50 billion in value worldwide, and 60% of all biopesticides use consists of Bt-based products.





Advantages of Bt Bioinsecticides

- Because for the toxin to be effective it has to be ingested, this limits the susceptibility of none target insects and other animals to this insecticide.
- Highly-specific compared to many synthetic insecticides -> Btk, Bta: Lepidopteran larvae only
- Safe to users, livestock, wildlife mammals have acidic gut
- Highly compatible with Integrated Risk Management (IPM)
- No effect on beneficial insects
- No toxic residues

Limitations of *Bt* Bioinsecticides

- High specificity = narrow spectrum -> ineffective against many key pests (i.e., aphids, mites, thrips, etc)
- B. thuringiensis toxin can only kill a susceptible insect during a specific developmental stage.
- Most effect against young larvae -> Proper timing of sprays is critical L1-L2 best; L3-maybe; L4-L5-too late. No effect on eggs, pupae, adults
- Sensitive to environmental conditions : Solar UV radiation (spray late in day, use sunscreen) Alkaline water (high pH)
- No contact activity -> Must be ingested to be effective Good spray coverage is critical to success
- Insects that attack plant roots are less likely to ingest a *B. thuringiensis* toxin that has been sprayed on the surface of a host plant.

Some desirable features of new genetically engineered and improved Bt products

- Broadened host range or optimized activity on a desired target insect

To maximize market size or to target a selected niche

- Increased persistance

To reduce the need for regular applications

- Improved potency

To achieve the desired effect in a cost effective manner

- Sporulation deficient mutants

To minimize possible unforeseen environmental effects arising from the dissemination of large amounts of viable spores

- Recombinant strains free of non-Bt DNA or antibiotic resistance genes

To facilitate regulatory approval for environmental release and/or registration as a biopesticide

Development of safer and more effective Bt-Based biopesticides

Objectives:

- Design new biopesticides and validate the relevance of these products and their performance, while ensuring better security of use for farmers, consumers and the environment.
- Improve Bt strains used as biopesticides by increasing their efficiency and persistence in the environment while avoiding the spread of viable spores in the environment



ELSEVIER

Journal of Biotechnology 48 (1996) 81-96

Me de Applied and Environmental Microbiology, Sept. 1999, p. 4032–4039 0099-2240/99/\$04.00+0

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Construction of new insecticidal *Bacillus thuringiensis* recombinant strains by using the sporulation non-dependent expression system of *cryIIIA* and a site specific recombination vector

Vincent Sanchisa, Hervé Agaisse, Josette Chaufaux, Didier Lereclusa, Didier Didier Lereclusa, Didier Di

*Unité de Biochimie Microbienne, Institut Pasteur, 28 rue du Dr. Roux, 75724 Paris Cedex 15, France bStation de Recherches de Lutte Biologique, INRA, La Minière, 78285 Guyancourt Cedex, France

Development and Field Performance of a Broad-Spectrum Nonviable Asporogenic Recombinant Strain of *Bacillus thuringiensis* with Greater Potency and UV Resistance

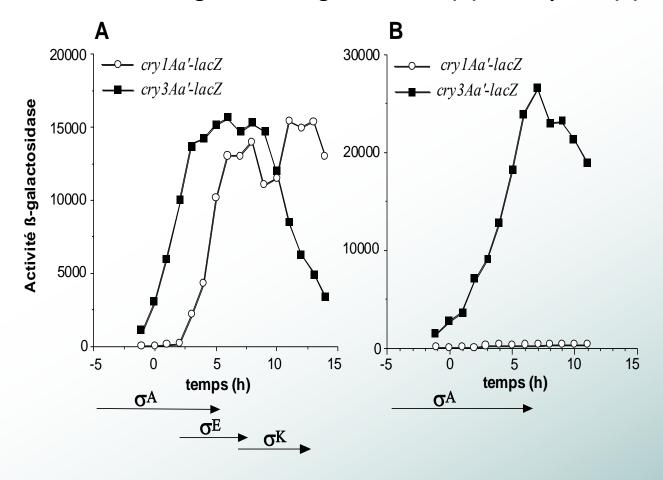
Vol. 65, No. 9

VINCENT SANCHIS, 1,2* MICHEL GOHAR, 3 † JOSETTE CHAUFAUX, 2 OLIVIA ARANTES, 1 ‡ ALAIN MEIER, 4 HERVÉ AGAISSE, 1,2 JANE CAYLEY, 5 AND DIDIER LERECLUS 1,2

Unité de Biochimie Microbienne¹ and Laboratoire des Fermentations, Unité de Physiologie Cellulaire, ⁴ Institut Pasteur, Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, 75724 Paris Cedex 15, Station de Recherches de Lutte Biologique, Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique, La Minière, 78285 Guyancourt, ² and AgrEvo Prodetech, 13367 Marseille Cedex 11, ³ France, and Hoechst Schering AgrEvo GmbH, Hoechst Works, D-65926 Frankfurt am Main, Germany ⁵

Construction of an asporogenic non viable of B. thuringiensis strain

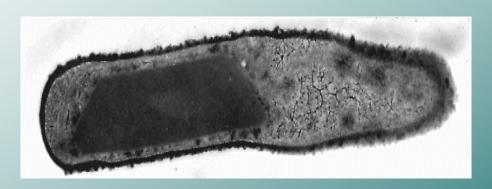
Expression of cry1A'lacZ and cry3A'lacZ transcriptional fusions in two different genetic backgrounds: WT (A) and $\Delta spoOA$ (B)



The transcription of the cry3A gene is independent of the regulatory genes involved in the sporulation process



Longitudinal section of Bt WT producing large amounts of Cry1A at the end of sporulation before cell lysis.



Longitudinal section of a Bt Δ spoOA strain producing large amounts of Cry3A during the stationary phase.

Necessary steps for obtaining insect-resistant transgenic plants

- Introduction of cry genes into plant cells
- => Transformation by Agrobacterium or direct gene transfer in the plant cell (transformation of protoplasts, particle guns)
- Expression of cry genes in the host plant
 - => genes with Eukaryotic structure (synthetic genes)
- Integration of cry genes into the host genome
 - => Stable and transmissible expression to daughter cells of the transgene
- Selection and regeneration of whole plants from genetically modified cells
- => Efficient transfer, use of selection markers, obtaining an entire organism from selected transformants

Construction of a transgenic tobacco transformed with the cry1C gene



On the left, the untransformed control. On the right is tobacco transformed with a cry1C gene modified for expression in plants. In both cases 40 larvae of *S. littoralis* were deposited on the leaves. Damage observed after 72 hours. (Photo: J. Tourneur, INRA)

Commercialized transgenic plants resistant to insects



Cotton: 1st commercialised in 1996

- in *2017*: 14 countries;

18 million hectares IR and 5.2 million hectares IR/HT

77% of the global cotton area

12,8% of the global biotech crop area



Maize: 1st commercialised in 1996

- in 2017: 14 countries

5.3 million hectares IR and 48.1 million hectares stacked IR/HT

28,6 % of the global maize area

28,1 % of the global biotech crop area



Soybean: 1st commercialised in 1996

- in 2017: 9 countries

24.4 million million hectares stacked IR/HT

20 % of the global soybean area

12,8% of the global biotech crop area



Potato: first commercialised in 1996, withdrawn in 2001

Distribution of traits of approved GM events

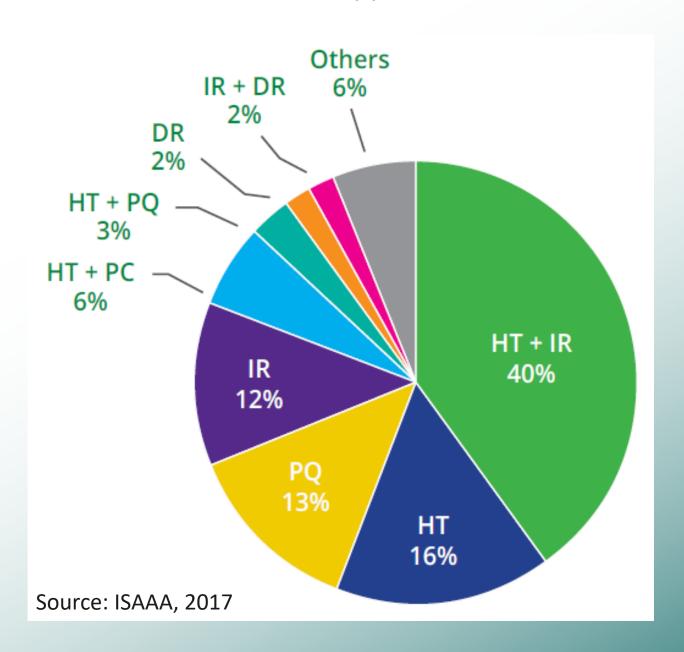
HT - Herbicide Tolerance;

IR - Insect Resistance;

DR - Disease Resistance;

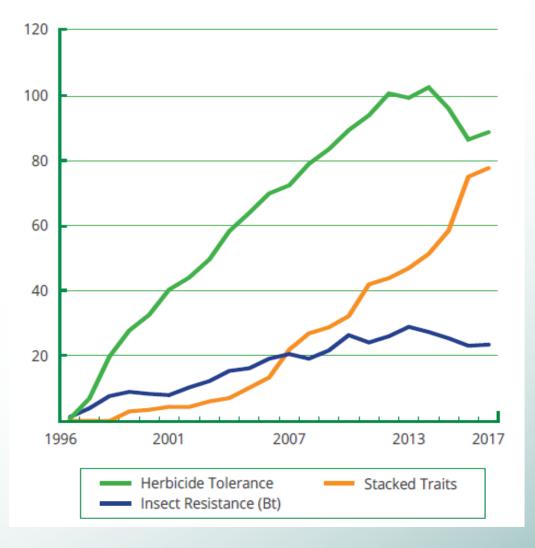
PC -Pollination Control;

PQ - Modified Product Quality:

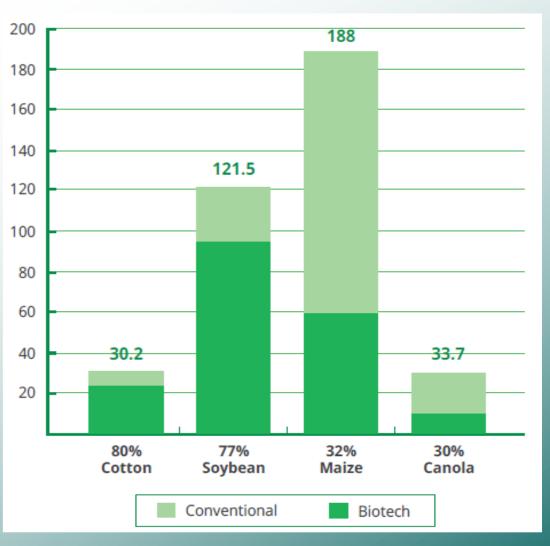


Distribution of biotech crops by crop and by trait (million hectares)

Global Area of Biotech Crops, 1996 to 2017: by Trait (Million Hectares)



Global Adoption Rates (%) for principal biotech crops in 2017



Source: ISAAA, 2017

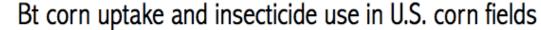
The cultivation of Bt plants is widely spread

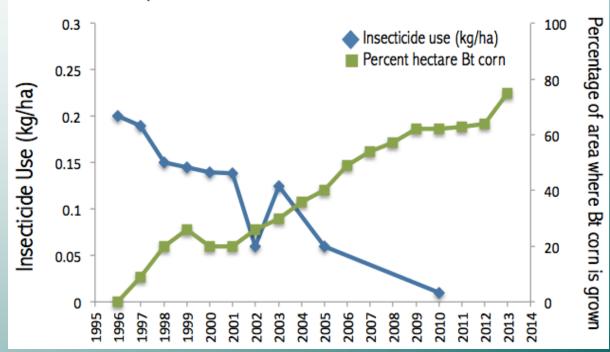
Global Adoption Rates (%) for principal Bt crops in 2017

Bt Plants	% USA	% World
Corn	87	29
Cotton	88	77
Soybean	0*	20

^{*} In the US only Herbicide tolerant soybean is grown

In USA, in the period of 1995-2010, the amount of pesticides used per acre of corn decreased by 99%, while insecticide use on cotton crops reduced approx. 95%.





Global crop protection market in 2017

US\$M	Herbicides	Insecticides	Fungicides	Others	Biotech	Total
North America	5,772	2,287	2,298	442	12,398	23,197
Europe	5,312	1,672	4,412	396	10	11,622
Japan	1,100	1,089	880	62	0	3,131
Australia	562	196	150	22	35	965
Industrial Countries	12,566	5,244	7,740	922	12,443	38,915
Latin America	5,317	3,048	4,054	461	3,664	16,364
Rest of Far East	3,612	2,751	2,648	401	398	9,810
Rest of World	1,692	1,966	1,238	215	676	5,787
Developing Countries	10,441	7,765	7,940	1,077	4,738	31,961
Total	23,007	13,009	15,680	1,999	17,181	70,876

Source: Cropnosis Agrochemical Service, 2017

Managing the risks of insect resistance associated with the use of transgenic Bt crops

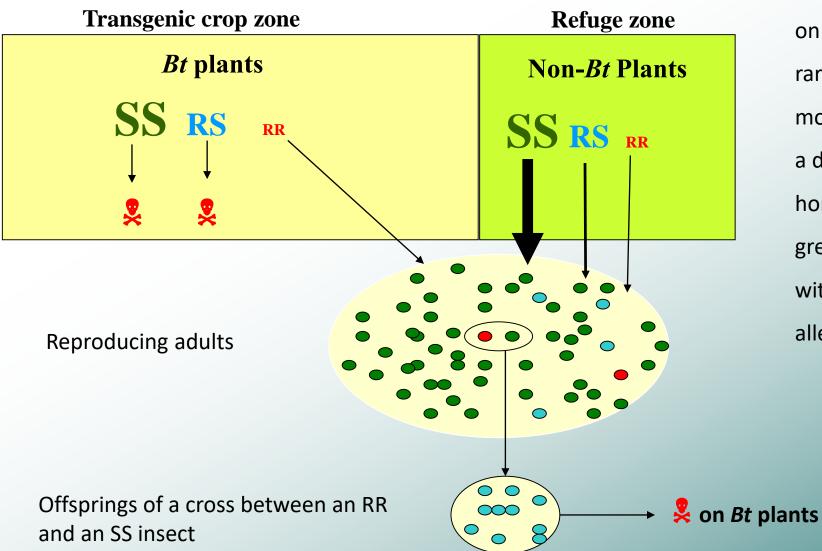
How to cope with insect resistance to Bt toxins?

Several strategies for decreasing the rate at which insects adapt to *Bt* toxins produced in transgenic plants have been proposed and implemented . These strategies include:

- 1) engineering plants to produce Bt toxins only in the tissues that are prone to insect attack;
- 2) using rotations (in which transgenics may be alternated in time with non-transgenics), or mosaics (in which mixtures of transgenic and non-transgenic plants are grown together);
- 3) creating refugia in which a portion of a field may be planted with non-transgenics, or the "high dose-refuge" (HDR) strategy;
- 4) developing resistance monitoring programmes.

Schematic representation of the "high dose-refuge" (HDR) strategy

Mechanism of high-dose/refuge strategy to delay the increase in highly resistant (RR) insects in a pest population



The success of the HDR strategy depends on resistance being a rare and recessive trait and the genetically modified plants producing a dose of toxin sufficient to kill all homozygous susceptible individuals (SSgreen) and all heterozygous individuals with for both resistance and susceptibility alleles (RS-blue)

Thank you for your attention