Structure, function and evolution of plant disease resistance genes Jeff Ellis*, Peter Dodds and Tony Pryor

Gene-for-gene plant disease resistance involves two basic processes: perception of pathogen attack, followed by responses to limit disease. Perception involves receptors with high degrees of specificity for pathogen strains, which are encoded by disease resistance genes. Large repertoires of distantly related resistance (R) genes with diverse recognitional specificities are found within a single plant species. The generation of R-gene polymorphism involves gene duplication, followed by DNA-sequence divergence by point mutation, and by deletion and duplication of intragenic DNA repeats encoding blocks of leucine-rich elements. Recombination between related genes reassorts this variation to further diversify gene sequences. Pathogen pressure selects functional resistance specificities and results in the maintenance of R-gene diversity. Recent genome-sequence data reveal that the NBS-LRR (i.e. nucleotide-binding siteleucine-rich repeat) class of R genes represents as much as 1% of the Arabidopsis genome. Experimental data have shown that the LRR has a role in determination of specificity. Mutation experiments, in which R-gene signaling has been dissociated from specificity in constitutive signal mutants, have provided the potential for non-specific resistance to be expressed from pathogen-infection-induced promoters in transgenic plants.

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Abbreviations

avr	avirulence
CLV	CLAVATA
Dm3	downy mildew 3
LRR	leucine-rich repeat
NBS	nucleotide-binding site
PK	protein kinase
Prf	Pseudomonas resistance and fenthion sensitivity
Pto	Pseudomonas tomato resistance
R	resistance
RPP5	resistance to Peronospora parasitica 5
RPS2	resistance to Pseudomonas syringae 2
TIR	Toll/interleukin-1-receptor homology region
TMV	tobacco mosaic virus

Introduction

Five classes of gene-for-gene disease resistance (R) genes have been defined according to the structural characteristics of their predicted protein products (see [1,2] for recent reviews published in this series). Data from the genetic analysis of plant-pathogen interactions and more recent, but limited, data from molecular analysis support the model in which the products of R genes act as receptors for the direct or indirect products (i.e. ligands) of pathogen *avirulence (avr)* genes. The receptor-ligand interactions are very specific and mutations that modify or inactivate *avr* genes allow pathogens to avoid recognition. Thus, two pertinent evolutionary questions are what is the molecular basis of R-gene specificity and how do new resistance specificities evolve?

NBS-LRR genes

The majority of R genes cloned so far encode proteins with a nucleotide-binding site (NBS) and a leucine-rich repeat (LRR) region. Several NBS-LRR-containing R genes have been cloned for the first time in the past year [3°-5°,6,7°,8°]. Although extremely divergent in DNA sequence, the gene products of the NBS-LRR class are readily recognised by several distinctive motifs in their amino-terminal half, which are conserved in amino-acid sequence and order, and by carboxy-terminal LRRs [9[•]]. The NBS-LRR class of genes is abundant in plant species. For example, in Arabidopsis, it is estimated that at least 200 different NBS-LRR genes exist comprising up to 1% of the genome [9•]. Two major subclasses exist [1,9•]: one with an amino-terminal Toll/interleukin-1-receptor homology region (TIR) and another without the TIR region. Some surprising observations have come from recent genomic analysis. First, the TIR-NBS-LRR subclass has not been recognised in the grasses in spite of the fact that this subclass is predominant (i.e. comprises 75% of all NBS-LRR genes) in Arabidopsis and is known in at least one gymnosperm [9[•]]. Whether the absence of the TIR class is a feature of all monocots or just grasses is unknown. Second, in Arabidopsis, a number of genes that are predicted to encode only the TIR region were detected [9•]. Further analysis will be needed to confirm the status of these genes.

Two complete haplotypes (i.e. sets of genes in a complex locus) of the *RPP5 (resistance to Peronospora parasitica)* locus containing TIR-NBS-LRR genes in *Arabidopsis* have recently been completely sequenced and analysed [10^{••}]. Nine paralogues (i.e. adjacent related genes that have arisen by duplication) are found in the Landsberg *erecta* (Ler) haplotype and seven paralogues are found in the Columbia ecotype (Col-0). Only one gene in Ler (the *RPP5* resistance specificity) and two in Col-0 are predicted to encode a full-length TIR-NBS-LRR gene. The others contain premature stop codons or retrotransposon insertions. The two haplotypes are distinguished from the genes flanking the locus by their high level of polymorphism. This polymorphism includes the position and sequence of retrotransposon insertions in the two loci.

The Mla locus (which encodes powdery mildew resistance) in barley provides a further indication of the sequence complexity of NBS-LRR loci [11]. Here, three distinct families of NBS-LRR genes are found (with interfamily amino-acid similarities of 46–51% and no overall significant DNA similarity) within a 240 kilobase interval in which family members are interspersed.

The extracellular LRR class

The extracellular LRR class of R genes includes the rice Xa21 gene for resistance against bacterial blight (Xanthomonas resistance) and the Cf genes of tomato for resistance against the fungal pathogen *Cladosporium fulvum*. The Xa21 product has the classic receptor-kinase format — an extracellular LRR, a membrane-spanning region and an intracellular protein-kinase domain (see [1] for references of the earlier literature). The Cf gene products contain extracellular LRRs and a transmembrane domain, but lack a significant intracellular region that could constitute a signalling component (e.g. a protein kinase domain [1]). How the proposed Cf receptors transduce signals across the cell membrane remains unknown. The molecular analysis of the CLAVATA (CLV) system in Arabidopsis, which is involved in the development of the shoot meristem, has, however, recently provided clues to the nature of this signal [12•].

Three components of the CLV system have been identified: first, CLV1, a transmembrane LRR receptor kinase, which is analogous to Xa21; second, CLV2, an extracellular LRR protein with a membrane-spanning anchor, which is structurally analogous to Cf proteins; and third, CLV3, a small extracellular protein that is the potential ligand that interacts with and cements an activated signalling complex involving CLV1 and CLV2. Whereas the Cladosporiumencoded small avirulence proteins (e.g. Avr9) may be analogous to CLV3, the predicted transmembrane receptorkinase component of the tomato Cf system remains to be identified. Additional support for this model is provided by the observation that one member of the Xa21-complex locus in rice, Xa21D [13], encodes a truncated homologue of Xa21 that is structurally analogous to Cf proteins, having only LRR and transmembrane domains. Xa21D confers partial resistance to bacterial blight in transgenic rice. The extracellular LRR class of disease resistance genes may well have evolved by recruitment of genes that were initially responsible for developmental processes in multicellular organisms. It is interesting that the Toll signalling pathway in flies and mammals also has a dual role in development and pathogen resistance [14].

The Pseudomonas tomato resistance (Pto) gene

The *Pto* gene for bacterial speck resistance in tomato, which encodes a serine/threonine protein kinase (PK) with no LRR region, requires the presence of the linked NBS-LRR gene *Prf (Pseudomonas resistance and fenthion sensitivity)* for activity (see [1,2] for earlier original references). No other R genes in the PK class have been identified to date. An extensive mutational analysis has been reported recently that confirms that *Pto* is the receptor for the corresponding ligand encoded by the bacterial *avr* gene *Avr–Pto*, and that the *Prf* gene does not act upstream of *Pto* in signalling the resistance response [15^{••}]. The molecular analysis of the

Pto–Prf system is among the most elegant and detailed studies of R-gene function.

The molecular basis of R-gene specificity

The flax L gene, a member of the TIR-NBS-LRR subclass, has provided an excellent system in which to analyse the molecular basis of R-gene specificity. Eleven alleles of the flax L gene, ten of which encode different flax rust resistance specificities, have been sequenced [16.]. The comparison of the allele sequences revealed that most alleles contain polymorphic bases spread across the whole coding region, with the largest variation in the LRR-coding region. Comparison of the predicted amino-acid sequences encoded by the most closely related pairs of alleles provides information concerning regions of the polypeptide that are important for the differences in gene-for-gene specificity. For example, the L6 and L11 proteins, which are identical in the TIR and NBS regions, differ by 33 amino-acid substitutions in the LRR. This indicates that the differences between L6 and L11 resistance specificities are caused by differences in their LRR regions. In vitro exchanges between alleles and analysis of transgenic plants into which the resulting hybrid L genes have been introduced also indicate the importance of LRR variation in specificity differences. Nevertheless, L6 and L7, which have different specificities, differ only in the sequences encoding the amino-terminal TIR region, which indicates that polymorphism in this region can also affect resistance specificity.

Evolution of R genes and specificities

For an increasing number of R genes, including the NBS-LRR genes, evidence of the selection for diversity of codons encoding residues in the LRR region that are predicted to be solvent exposed, and hence may constitute ligand contact points, has been observed [6,10**,13,17–20]. Like the initial analysis of Cf genes in tomato [17], subsequent comparison of DNA sequences within NBS-LRR gene loci has revealed evidence of past exchanges of blocks of sequence by recombination [6,10**,16**]. Whether such exchanges occur by sequential crossing over or gene conversion has not been determined. DNA-sequence analysis also provides evidence for recombinational events that increase and decrease the size of the LRR region.

Modification of the length of the LRR appears to be an important contributor to R-gene diversification. For example, whereas the genes at the Cf4/9 locus of tomato vary principally because of multiple nucleotide substitutions, the related genes at the unlinked Cf2/5 locus have additionally undergone deletion/expansion events involving individual LRR-repeat units [21]. Furthermore, these events have been restricted to the amino-terminal LRR region of the protein, a region of Cf proteins that determines specificity differences between paralogues [22]. In flax L alleles, the LRR repeats are more degenerate and the DNA sequences encoding the repeats are probably not sufficiently related for inter-repeat recombination. Nevertheless, examples occur in which blocks of sequence

encoding LRR units within flax and Arabidopsis NBS-LRR R genes have undergone duplication $[10^{\bullet\bullet}, 16^{\bullet\bullet}]$. These direct repeats then are able to undergo unequal exchange events that can give rise to cycles of repeat expansion and reduction. For example, although most L alleles in flax contain two direct repeats of 450 base pairs comprising six individual LRR repeat units, functional alleles with either one or four copies of the 450-base-pair repeat occur $[16^{\bullet\bullet}]$. Another example is provided by the *RPP5* locus where more complex arrangements of direct repeats consisting of sets of four individual LRR units exist $[10^{\bullet\bullet}]$. Exchange events giving rise to paralogues with 8, 13, 21 and 25 LRR units have taken place during the evolution of the locus.

Mutant R genes resulting from expansion and contraction of LRR-region repeats have been recovered from genetic experiments in both flax and *Arabidopsis* [23,24]. Thus, whereas point mutation can alter specificity by varying the identity of potential ligand contact points in the LRR, recombination/gene conversion can play a dual role in reassorting variation in alleles and paralogues, and also by reduction and expansion of the number of LRR units. The reduction/expansion events could change the spatial distribution of ligand contact points and adjust either affinity or specificity for different ligands.

The role of unequal exchange events at complex R loci

Re-assortment of sequence polymorphism by meiotic recombination is a principal factor in R-gene evolution. Where R genes exist as complexes of directly repeated genes that are related in sequence, two alternatives for sequence exchange are possible. First, 'equal exchange' in which the first gene in the complex may only recombine with the first gene in the homologous complex, the second gene with the second homologue, and so on. Second, 'unequal exchange' in which each gene in the sequence may recombine with any other gene in the homologous complex. Sequential unequal exchange between ribosomal RNA genes, for example, either by crossing-over or gene conversion, results in rapid homogenization of sequence differences so that paralogues tend to be nearly identical. Because homogenization is not observed for genes at the Dm3 (downy mildew 3) and Pto loci, where individual genes in the complexes have more similarity with orthologues in related species than with paralogues [19,25], Michelmore and Meyers [25] argue that unequal exchanges have been less important than equal exchanges in the evolution of R genes. These arguments ignore the role of selection. For ribosomal RNA genes, purifying selection acts to maintain homogeneity in sequence. In contrast, R genes are subjected to diversifying selection.

Furthermore, the simple notion of tandem R genes, in which the first gene in one haplotype is most related to the first in a homologous haplotype, is not borne out by the complete sequencing of the *RPP5* haplotype from two ecotypes of *Arabidopsis* [10^{••}]. Haplotypes can contain different numbers of genes and, as observed for the *RPP5*

locus, the degree of sequence similarity between genes from different haplotypes does not necessarily reflect their position in the cluster [10^{••}]. The probability of paralogues pairing during meiosis is likely to be proportional to the level of sequence similarity between the interacting gene sequences and is also likely to be influenced by intergenic sequences. Recombination between highly diverged sequences at complex loci is probably rare compared to recombination between closely related genes. In loci with highly diverged paralogues, such as Dm3, recombination may therefore be limited to closely related members, thus preserving sequence relationships between orthologues in related species. Sequence exchange between paralogues may, however, be more common where greater sequence similarity exists.

Importantly in plant populations, the frequency of chimeric alleles resulting from equal versus unequal exchange is probably not determined solely by the frequency of the exchange event but also by selection for novel resistance specificities that arise from these processes. Thus, unequal recombination events, which give rise to chimeric genes ([4•]; Q Sun, N Collins, T Pryor, S Hulbert, unpublished data), are observed experimentally in homozygotes for the Rp1D rust resistance locus in maize and inferred from sequence analysis of the *RPP8* locus in *Arabidopsis* [6]. Furthermore, the patchwork of sequence variation shared between paralogues of *Cf* genes [17], *RPP5* [10••], *RPP1* [20] and *RPP8* [6] also indicates that exchange occurs between paralogues. There is also initial evidence for exchange of information between distinct *Cf* loci (i.e. 'ectopic exchange' [26•]).

Molecular population genetics of R genes

Population genetic analysis of wild plant species can provide information concerning the frequencies and diversity of resistance alleles in nature, and on the selection forces maintaining resistance and leading to the evolution of new specificities in natural populations. The high level of genomic/molecular biological information that is accumulating on *Arabidopsis* and *Arabidopsis*-pathogen interactions is stimulating the increased use of this wild plant in population analysis of host-pathogen interactions [27°,28°].

The data on *Arabidopsis* genes that are known to have a function in resistance are beginning to indicate some differences in the nature of certain NBS-LRR resistance loci. *RPP1*, *RPP5* and *RPP8* are found in complex loci with from two to nine paralogues, and each locus contains two or more identified resistance specificities (e.g. the virus resistance gene *HRT* is a paralogue of *RPP8* [29•]). The genes at each locus are highly polymorphic, have been subjected to diversifying selection and their sequences provide evidence for recombination. These features are shared by the 'classical' resistance genes that have been identified in crop plants, such as the *Cf* genes of tomato [17,21,22], the *L* and *M* rust-resistance genes of flax [16••,23], the *Rp1* rust-resistance genes of maize [4•], the tobacco mosaic virus (TMV)-resistance gene *N* (see [1] for original references), the potato

virus X (PVX)-resistance locus Rx [3[•]], and the *Dm3* downy mildew resistance locus of lettuce [19].

In contrast, RPS2 (resistance to Pseudomonas syringae 2) [27[•]], RPM1 (a gene conferring the ability to recognize Pseudomonas pathogens carrying AvrRpm1 or AvrB) [28[•]] and RPS4 [5[•]] are simple loci containing a single gene with only minor allelic variation in DNA sequence. There are no indications or reports of these genes having undergone diversifying selection, and they each have only a single identified resistance specificity. (RPS4 and its homologues are somewhat unusual in that each gene is found in close proximity to a second divergently transcribed NBS-LRR gene with which it shares only 35% nucleotide identity [5[•]].) Some of these features are similar to the tomato NBS-LRR gene PRF (see [2] for references), the sequence of which is highly conserved within tomato.

Genes in the first (more complex) class have been identified using an oomycete pathogen species, Peronsospora parasitica, which occurs in natural field infections of Arabidopsis. Genes in the second (less complex) group have been identified in the laboratory using bacterial pathogens isolated from non-Arabidopsis hosts, and represent Arabidopsis-pathogen interactions that, to our knowledge, have not been described in the field. Whether these distinctions will be maintained after more in-depth investigation remains to be seen. Nevertheless, two interesting questions remain unanswered. First, do the apparently contrasting characteristics of the two classes of Arabidopsis genes reflect the different nature of the pathogens, that is, oomycetes versus bacteria? Second, and more interestingly, do the different characteristics of the two groups result from the fact that the first class is subject to co-evolutionary pressures from a field pathogen and the second class is not? An open mind needs to be maintained on whether some of the second class of genes are primarily involved in an as yet unidentified function other than classical gene-for-gene or race-specific disease resistance. Perhaps these genes are involved in non-host resistance, that is, resistance to pathogen species that are adapted to another host species. In the absence of co-evolution of host and pathogen, diversifying selection would not affect the second class. These considerations may be important in the choice of pathosystems for study and the interpretation of results from population-genetic analyses in Arabidopsis.

A popular metaphor in the plant R-gene evolutionary/population biology literature sees the co-evolution of R genes and pathogen avirulence as an 'arms race'. This metaphor has provided a useful conceptual framework for the consideration of the evolution of multiple disease resistance specificities. In this scenario, the effectiveness of an R-gene specificity in the host is lost (defeated) as a result of mutation of the corresponding pathogen Avr gene so that the pathogen avoids recognition. This, in turn, imposes selection pressure on the host for new resistance specificities, which may arise at the 'defeated' locus or elsewhere in the genome, and the cycle continues. There is accumulating evidence (see [30]) that Avr genes have a positive function in virulence and hence confer a selective advantage to pathogens in the absence of a corresponding R gene. Thus, a newly 'defeated' (but still functional) R gene and its cognate Avr gene may be maintained in the host and pathogen for long periods by balancing selection, and fluctuate in frequency. Furthermore, selection in the pathogen for novel Avr genes is also predicted by this model. These predictions are in agreement with the observations of high levels of polymorphism for resistance and avirulence in natural host/pathogen populations [31,32].

One recent evolutionary study provides a detailed examination of the RPM1 locus (P. syringae resistance in the laboratory) of Arabidopsis [28•]. Using a collection of 26 ecotypes of diverse provenance, the authors confirm an earlier observation, which was based on fewer ecotypes, that the resistance is associated with a single NBS-LRR gene whereas susceptibility is always associated with a large deletion covering RPM1. Both alleles are found widely in Arabidopsis throughout its natural distribution. From a molecular evolutionary analysis of DNA-sequence polymorphisms flanking the locus, Stahl et al. [28•] establish that the two alleles are ancient (10⁶ years old) have been maintained by balancing selection and have fluctuated in frequency. In the absence of an identified field pathogen that interacts in a gene-forgene sense with RPM1, the nature of this selection for active *RPM1* is speculative. Interestingly, the maintenance of the deletion allele suggests that under certain conditions, the active allele imposes a genetic load on the host. What this fitness cost may be is an interesting question. So is the question of why the null allele is only represented by a deletion and not by insertion or point mutations, which frequently inactivate other NBS-LRR R genes in Arabidopsis [10**]. Stahl et al. [28•] also make a critical analysis of the 'arms race' model, which they propose predicts that 'variation for disease resistance will be transient, and that host populations generally will be monomorphic at disease-resistance loci'. The model is correctly rejected on the basis that, first, resistance and susceptibility alleles have existed at RPM1 for 10⁶ years, and second, plant populations in general show considerable variation at R-gene loci. Rejection of the model is, however, contingent on this over-restrictive interpretation of the 'arms race' metaphor.

Downstream resistance signalling components

Although not the topic of this review, one recent report is relevant to R-gene evolution. The authors cloned the *Bs2* gene (for *Xanthomonas* blight resistance) from pepper and demonstrated that it functions in several Solanaceous species but not in species outside of the Solanceae [7•]. One interpretation of this observation is that downstream components of R-gene signalling pathways are co-adapted within species to particular R-gene products; a phenomenon referred to as 'restricted taxonomic functionality' [7•]. This is somewhat surprising considering the ubiquity of NBS-LRR genes in all plant species and extensive variation of NBS-LRR family members within species. From the practical standpoint, this observation suggests that successful trans-species transfer of R genes by genetic engineering may be limited to closely related genera unless the downstream components of resistance signalling are also transferred and are able to engage with the more terminal signalling components in the new species. Experiments already in progress will no doubt provide further insights.

Conclusions and future directions

Significant progress has been made during the past year in understanding the determinants of R-gene specificity and how these specificities evolve. In particular, mutational analysis of Pto in tomato and recombinational analysis of L alleles in flax have identified features of the two distinct classes of proteins encoded by these genes that are involved in recognition and signalling processes. In addition, the large-scale sequence analysis of complex R-gene haplotypes has shed light on the processes of diversifying selection, sequence exchange, and expansion/contraction of LRRs that underlie the evolution of new resistance specificities. Important questions that remain include the nature of the interaction between R-gene products (other than Pto) and their cognate avirulence proteins. An intriguing and plausible model has emerged for Cf-9-Avr-9 interaction and requires testing. It will be interesting to see whether other R-Avr interactions also involve a ternary (or higher order) complex. We also look forward to the molecular analysis of population genetics of R genes from multi-allelic series or complex loci in wild-plant-pathogen ecosystems to shed further light on the nature of the selection processes acting on these loci.

Update

Since the submission of this review several new publications relevant to this topic have appeared. The cloning of a further *Peronospora* resistance gene from *Arabidopsis*, *RPP13*, has been reported [33]. Three specificities have been identified at the locus, which appears to be a single gene with highly variable multiple alleles that are subject to diversifying selection in the LRR region.

The first analysis demonstrating a biological role of alternative products, a feature shared by all TIR-NBS-LRR resistance genes, has been carried out for the N gene of tobacco (which provides resistance to TMV) [34]. *In vitro*constructed variants of *N*, which in transgenic plants encode only the major of the two alternatively spliced messages associated with wild-type gene transcripts, retain the capacity to detect TMV and induce HR. However, the R gene is 'weakened' in these variants in which, unlike in the wild-type, TMV escapes the HR lesion, systemically infects the host plant, then induces HR at locations distant to the infection site. Interestingly, the ratio between the two alternative mRNA products of the wild-type gene inverts during the first seven hours after the infection of *NN* plants and then returns to the pre-infection state. The full implications of these observations to N gene and other TIR-NBS-LRR gene functions are awaited.

The first report of a plant gene isolated in a yeast twohybrid screen using a TIR-NBS-LRR gene has appeared [35]. The NBS domain (now named the NB-ARC domain to highlight the shared similarities of this region with human Apaf-1, plant R-proteins and nematode CED-4 proteins) of RPP5 interacts with a plant protein that is similar to the bacterial proteins RelA/SpoT, which are involved in signaling during the synthesis/degradation of guanosine phosphates, (p)ppGpp. Such proteins were hitherto unknown in eukaryotes. A biological role for these proteins in plant disease resistance is yet to be demonstrated.

References and recommended reading

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The authors studied an NBS-LRR (non-TIR class) gene for resistance to potato virus X (PVX). The corresponding *avr* gene in the virus encodes the viral coat protein. The reaction of resistant plants to the virus is described as 'extreme resistance' and does not involve HR. Thus, HR is not required for resistance, at least in this instance. It is shown that lack of HR is not the property of the Rx gene itself, but is caused by a particular anti-viral defense response that is triggered in the Rx-PVX interaction. This response, controlled by unidentified genes, prevents viral replication and gene expression with the consequence that viral coat protein does not accumulate. However, when coat protein is expressed in transgenic Rx plants using a constitutive promoter, HR does occur. The authors conclude that expression of the coat protein from the constitutive promoter is not affected by the anti-viral HR induction.

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An extensive phylogenetic analysis of over 400 NBS-LRR related sequences from several plant species that are represented in several public and private DNA databases. The *Arabidopsis thaliana* database is the most extensive followed by the rice database.

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