# Activation of the pathogen-inducible Gst1 promoter of potato after elicitation by Venturia inaequalis and Erwinia amylovora in transgenic apple  $(Malus \times domestica)$

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Received 4 April 2005; accepted 8 September 2005

Key words: beta-glucuronidase, expression, fire blight, Malus  $\times$  domestica, promoter, transgenic

### Abstract

Rather than using a constitutive promoter to drive transgenes for resistance against fungal and bacterial diseases in genetic engineering of apple (*Malus*  $\times$  *domestica*) cultivars, a promoter induced only after infection was preferred. The ability of the *Pgst1* promoter from potato (Solanum tuberosum L.) to drive expression of the *gusA* reporter gene was determined in two genotypes of apple: the fruit cultivar Royal Gala and the M.26 rootstock.  $\beta$ -glucuronidase activity in the transgenic lines grown in a growth chamber was determined quantitatively using fluorometric assays and compared to the activity in Cauliflower Mosaic Virus ( $CaMV$ ) 35S promoter-driven transgenic lines. In both apple genotypes, the *Pgst1* promoter exhibited a low level of expression after bacterial and fungal inoculation compared to the level obtained with the PCaMV35S promoter (15% and 8% respectively). The Pgst1 promoter was systematically activated in apple at the site of infection with a fungal pathogen. It was also activated after treatment with salicylic acid, but not after wounding. Taken together, these data show that, although the *Pgst1* promoter is less active than the PCaMV35S promoter in apple, its pathogen responsiveness could be useful in driving the expression of transgenes to promote bacterial and fungal disease resistance.

## Introduction

Constitutive promoters and non-specific promoters such as PCaMV35S (Cauliflower Mosaic Virus) and nos (nopaline synthase) have been frequently used as experimental tools to assess the effects of transgene expression in many plant species. With such promoters, a gene is expressed in the majority of tissues during most phases of plant growth and development. This limited temporal and spatial regulation may be suitable for proof of concept experiments, but presents a number of potential drawbacks for use in genet-

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ically improved crops. For example, the presence of transgenes driven by constitutive promoters may result in homology dependent gene silencing, particularly when the promoter is highly active (Vaucheret et al., 1998). Thus gene expression under the control of inducible promoters is preferred in any strategy to produce transgenic plants with transgene-mediated improvements in resistance to pathogens. Such a pathogen-inducible promoter should be strictly regulated, primarily responsive to multiple pathogens and not responsive to abiotic stress factors (Stuiver & Custers, 2001). A relatively small number of these promoters have been studied extensively.

Most apple (*Malus*  $\times$  *domestica*) cultivars are \*Author for correspondence<br>
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susceptible to two important major diseases, fire<br>
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susceptible to two important major diseases, fire blight, caused by the necrogenic bacterium Erwinia amylovora (Burr) and apple scab caused by the ascomycete fungus Venturia inaequalis (Cooke). Several strategies have been used to enhance resistance against fire blight, including the use of lytic peptides such as attacin (Reynoird et al., 1999), and lactoferrin (Malnoy et al., 2003a), and against apple scab including the use of endochitinase (Bolar et al., 2000, 2001). However, all the transgenes tested so far were under the control of the PCaMV35S promoter. This may lead to undesirable accumulation of transgenic proteins in the consumed fruits. An evaluation of gene promoters specifically induced by bacterial and fungal pathogens is therefore needed in apple. To address these concerns we have undertaken a study of the efficacy of the inducible promoter Pgst1 in transgenic apple plants.

The potato defense gene *Pgst1* (formerly called Pprp1–1) encodes a glutathione S transferase (Hahn & Strittmatter, 1994). The promoter of this gene has been previously shown to mediate rapid and local transcriptional activation in response to different types of plant microbe interactions (fungus and virus). Transcription from this promoter is not induced by environmental abiotic stimuli such as wounding or heat shock (Martini et al., 1993; Strittmatter et al., 1996).

In this study, we report the analysis of expression profiles of the potato *Pgst1* gene promoter in apple genotypes in response to biotic and abiotic stresses.

### Table 1. Bacterial strains and fungal isolates used in this study

#### Materials and methods

# Bacterial strains

The wild-type strain of E. amylovora (Ea 273) and its transposon mutants (Table 1) were grown overnight at 28°C on Kado medium containing kanamycin or rifampicin  $(20 \text{ mg ml}^{-1})$  for the transposon mutants. Inocula were prepared by suspension in distilled water at a concentration of  $7.5 \times 10^7$  cfu ml<sup>-1</sup>. Pseudomonas syringae pv. tabaci (B86-7) strain was grown at  $28^{\circ}$ C on Kado, inoculum was prepared as described for E. amylovora.

### Fungus strain

A mixed inoculum of Venturia inaequalis isolates 1805-2, 1777-8, 1771-2, 1778-6 and 1810-1, representing the five races, 1–5, was used (Table 1). Inocula were prepared by suspension of the conidia in distilled water at a concentration of  $2.7 \times 10^7$  conidia ml<sup>-1</sup>.

# Plasmid constructs

Two binary expression vectors, pBI121 and pBI101.1:Pprp1-1 were used. pBI121 (BD Bioscience Clontech, Palo Alto, CA) contained an nptIIbased expression cassette as the selectable marker and a gusA-intron expression cassette adjacent to the right border of the T-DNA. pBI101.1:Pprp1–1



<sup>a</sup>Hrc, hypersensitive response conserved (HRP secretion mutant); HR, hypersensitive response; P, pathogenecity.

contained an nptII based expression cassette as the selectable marker and the gusA-intron under the control of the Pgst1 promoter. These binary vectors were introduced by electroporation into the supervirulent Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain EHA105 (Hood et al., 1993).

# Plant material and transformation

The apple cultivar Royal Gala (RG) and the rootstock M.26 were chosen for this study because they can be genetically transformed at high efficiency (Borejsza-Wysocka et al., 1999; Norelli et al., 1999). Leaf segments were excised from in vitro grown shoots of these two cultivars three weeks after subculturing. Transformation experiments were carried out as previously reported (Borejsza-Wysocka et al., 1999; Norelli et al., 1999) using Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain EHA105 containing pBI121 or pBI101.1:Pprp1-1 binary vectors. DNA was isolated from the youngest leaf of putative transgenic plants and non-transformed control plants as described by Cheung et al. (1993) and the PCR procedure was as described by Bolar et al. (1999). In order to check for the presence of promoter-GUS fusions, specific primers were designed to amplify a fragment overlapping the promoter region and the *gusA* sequence (Table 2). Non-transgenic RG, M.26 and transgenic clones were propagated in vitro (Norelli et al., 1998). Acclimation of the plants was performed as described by Bolar et al. (1998).

# Determination of ploidy level

Ploidy level in the transgenic and untransformed clones was estimated by flow cytometry. Nuclei were isolated from *in vitro* leaves by manual chopping with a razor blade directly into the buffer described by the manufacturer (Partec, Münster, Germany). After addition of 4,6 diamino 2 phenyl indole dihydrochloride (DAPI; 2% v/v) and filtration through a  $20 \mu m$  nylon mesh, the mixture was analyzed with a cytometer (Partec II; Partec).

### Inoculation procedures and plant treatments

### Erwinia amylovora

The youngest expanded leaves from self-rooted plants in a growth chamber were inoculated by cutting the leaves transversely with scissors dipped in a suspension  $(7.5 \times 10^7 \text{ cftu m}^{-1})$  of the virulent E. amylovora strain Ea273 or water (control).

#### Venturia inaequalis

The youngest expanded leaf was tagged and the plants were inoculated with a suspension of V. *inaequalis*  $(2.7 \times 10^6 \text{ conidia ml}^{-1})$ , using an atomizer connected to compressed air (Yepes & Aldwinckle, 1993). The plants were incubated in a mist chamber (16 h photoperiod of 40 micromol  $m^{-2}$  s<sup>-1</sup>, 18 ± 1°C and 100% relative humidity) for 48H and later moved to a growth chamber.

#### Abiotic elicitor

Salicylic acid (Sigma, St Louis, MO) was applied by spraying with an atomizer.

### Fluorometric GUS assay

GUS activity in apple was quantified using the procedure described by Gittins et al. (2000). Leaf tissue  $(20 \text{ mg})$  was ground in 500 µl of assay buffer (40 mM sodium phosphate pH7, 4 mM EDTA, 0.08% SDS (w/v), 0.08% Triton  $\times 100$  (v/v), 10 mM  $β$ -mercaptoethanol) containing methanol (1/4 v/v). After centrifugation for 15 min at 13000 g, 150  $\mu$ l of supernatant was mixed with  $350 \mu l$  of assay buffer and  $200 \mu l$  of 4 methylumbelliferyl  $\beta$ -D-glucuronide (4 MUG ; 4 mM) substrate was added. An aliquot of  $200 \mu l$  was

Table 2. Primer pairs used in this study

Primer	Sequence	Size of amplified fragment (bp)
$Gst1-GUS$ F	<b>CTAGCCACCAGATTTGACCA</b>	957
$Gst1-GUS$ R	<b>TCCCGCTAGTGCCTTGTCCAG</b>	
CaMV35S GUS F	GACGTAAGGGATGACGCACAAT	1450
CaMV35S GUS R	CAGCAGCAGTTTCATCAATCA	

immediately added to 800  $\mu$ l of stop buffer (0.2 M  $Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>$ ) to be used as a time zero control. The remaining mixture was incubated at 37°C for 60 min. The amount of 4-MU product was determined using the DyNa Quant 200 fluorometer  $(\lambda)$ excitation  $365 \text{ nm}/\lambda$  emission 455 nm; Hoefer LKB, Lorton, VA).  $\beta$ -glucuronidase activity was normalized to the protein content of extracts determined by the method of Bradford using bovine serum albumin as a standard (Bradford, 1976). For each treatment, 6 to 10 replicates from 2 or 3 separate experiments were assayed.

# Results

# Generation of transgenic lines and analysis of gusA expression following fungal and bacterial infection

Transformation experiments with binary vectors pBI121 and PBI101.1:Pprp1-1 harboring the PCaMV35S and Pgst1 promoters, respectively, were performed on leaves detached from in vitro shoots of M.26 and RG. The transformation rate per leaf varied from 15% to 80% according to the genotype. Integration of the promoter-gusA-fusion was confirmed by PCR analysis of lines growing on kanamycin selective medium. Flow cytometry showed that all transgenic lines were diploid. Several vigorous 2n lines harboring the *Pgst1* (5) RG and 6 M.26 lines) and PCaMV35S (5 RG and 5 M.26 lines) promoters selected after PCR analyses were micropropagated in vitro and acclimated in a growth chamber. For comparison, untransformed lines of RG and the rootstock M.26 were propagated in an identical manner.

Expression of the *PCaMV35S-gusA* and Pgst1–gusA fusions was measured in extracts from the transgenic lines without treatment or 10 days after spraying with water or with  $V$ . inaequalis conidia (Figure 1). Among the  $PCaMV35S-gusA$ lines GUS activity varied from 65 nM 4  $MU$  min<sup>-1</sup> mg protein<sup>-1</sup> in transgenic RG line TRG-171 plants to 135 nM 4 MU  $min^{-1}$  mg protein<sup>-1</sup> in transgenic M.26 line T26.642 plants 10 days after water or  $V$ , *inaequalis* inoculation. GUS activity values were similar in the untreated leaves (data not shown). In both RG and M.26, expression of the PCaMV35S promoter was very similar. A lower range of variation was observed among the Pgst1-gusA lines 10 days after inoculation with  $V$ . inaequalis. GUS activity after water treatment was 1.5 to 7.9 fold less than after V. inaequalis spraying in M.26 lines and 2.8 to 4.6 fold less for RG lines. GUS activity in untreated leaves of untransformed M.26 and RG Pgst1-gusA lines was negligible (data not shown).

The pattern of expression of the same transgenic lines 48 h after inoculating leaves with the virulent Ea273 strain of E. amylovora was similar to that after V. inaequalis inoculation. There were similar differences in activation of *gusA* between the control and the E. amylovora treatment, as between the control and the  $V$ . *inaequalis* treatment.

Based on these analyses, two transformants with each promoter for each apple genotype that had high GUS activity when sprayed with virulent races of V. inaequalis or inoculated with a virulent strain of E. amylovora were selected for further studies.

# Effect of wounding on PCaMV35S and Pgst1 promoter activity in transgenic lines of apple

In potato, the *Pgst1* promoter is not responsive to abiotic stimuli such as wounding (Strittmatter et al., 1996). Some experiments were performed to characterize the effect of the wounding alone or coupled with a fungal inoculation procedure, on the activity of these two promoters in apple. Leaves from two transgenic lines per promoter fusion were sprayed with  $V$ . inaequalis or water. Similar leaves were wounded by scissor cuts and sprayed with conidia or water. All these treatments induced the PCaMV35S promoter weakly (data not shown). The *Pgst1* promoter was weakly activated following wounding, and strongly activated after inoculation with and without wounding (data not shown).

These data indicated that the *Pgst1* promoter is not wound-inducible in apple and that scissor cutting is a reliable technique of inoculation for further assessment of  $E$ . amylovora effects on these promoters.

Time course of activation of Pgst1 promoters following pathogen inoculation and the effect of mutants of Erwinia amylovora and of other bacterial pathogens

GUS activity was monitored in leaves from 6 selected transgenic lines (T26-986, T26-1003,



*Figure 1.* GUS activity in independent transgenic lines of apple containing the PCaMV35SP-GusA (a) or Pgst1-gusA fusions (b and c). GUS activity was measured 10 days after inoculation with Venturia inaequalis at  $2.5 \times 1$ cates obtained from 3 separate experiments.

T26-643, TRG-1046, TRG-1047 and TRG-171) at 0, 3, 7, 10 and 12 days after inoculation with V. inaequalis or 0, 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, 72 and 96 h after inoculation with E. amylovora, or after water treatment (Figure 2). The PCaMV35S-gusA lines showed weak activation after treatment with V. inaequalis, E. amylovora and water in the first hours following the treatment (data not shown). This activity decreased 72 h after inoculation of the leaves with  $E$ . *amylovora*, at the time when necrosis first became visible in the inoculated leaves.

In Pgst1-gusA lines, maximum GUS activity was observed in both apple genotypes 10 days after inoculation with  $V$ . *inaequalis* and 48 h after inoculation with *E. amylovora*. This activity reached 11% and 6% of the GUS activity of PCaMV35S–gusA levels of transgenic lines M.26 and RG, respectively, after inoculation with V. inaequalis. After inoculation with E. amylovora, GUS activity increased and reached 20% and 10% of the GUS activity of PCaMV35S-gusA transgenic lines of M.26 and RG, respectively. At this time point, GUS activity increased modestly in the Pgst1–gusA transgenic M.26 lines after water treatment. However, this activation was 4 and 5 fold less than obtained after inoculation with E. amylovora and V. inaequalis, respectively. In Pgst1–gusA transgenic RG lines, GUS activity remained low after water treatment.

In response to another bacterial pathogen (Pseudomonas syringae pv tabaci), the Pgst1 promoter was activated during an incompatible interaction in M.26 (data not shown) and RG transgenic lines (data not shown).

Avirulent mutant strains of E. amylovora with mutations affecting the *hrp* and *dsp* regions were investigated in order to understand the role of pathogenicity factors of E. amylovora in induction of the disease. The Pgst1-gusA transgenic M.26 line T26-986 showed different GUS activity in response to these mutants (data not shown). Similar results were obtained with the Pgst1-gusA transgenic RG line TRG-1047 (data not shown). These results show the important role of the *hrp* and *dsp* genes in activation of the P*gst1* promoter. It is activated weakly after inoculation with water and with the hrpN-W and dspE/A mutants of Erwinia amylovora (22% and 42% respectively, of the GUS activity obtained after treatment with E. amylovora wild type). This suggests that the

pathogenicity factors harpin N and W, and DspE encoded by these genes are essential for induction of this promoter. When inoculated with these bacterial mutants, PCaMV35S-gusA transgenic lines showed no significant difference in GUS activation (data not shown).

# Spatial and temporal expression of Pgst1 promoter in response to fungal inoculation

In tobacco the *Pgst1* promoter shows local and rapid activation in response to infection by Phytophthora infestans, which causes an incompatible reaction (Martini et al., 1993). Experiments were done to confirm that this promoter shows the same pattern of spatial induction in apple. GUS activity was measured in the inoculated leaf and also in upper and lower untreated leaves of the selected Pgst1-gusA transgenic lines. The *Pgst1* promoter showed maximum activity in the untreated lower leaves 10 days after inoculation with V. inaequalis (Figure 3). This activity was almost two fold more than that obtained in the inoculated leaves in the Pgst1-gusA transgenic M.26 line T26-986. No GUS activity was detected in the upper leaves of the Pgst1-gusA transgenic M.26 line T26-986. No difference in GUS activity was detected in the treated and neighboring untreated leaves of the  $Pgst1-gusA$  transgenic RG line TRG-1047 (Figure 3). The *PCaMV35S*gusA transgenic lines showed stable expression of GUS activity in treated and untreated leaves throughout the duration of the experiment (data not shown).

# Effect of salicylic acid concentration on the activation of the Pgst1 promoter

The presence of a phytohormone responsive cis element in the *Pgst1* promoter was sought by spraying salicylic acid on the surface of transgenic leaves. Salicylic acid weakly increased GUS activity in the Pgst1-gusA transgenic M.26 line T26-986 during the first 12 h post inoculation. During these first 12 h no difference of induction could be observed after a treatment with two concentrations of SA (5 and 50 mM). A strong increase in GUS activity appeared in the transgenic M.26 line 24 hours after treatment. No difference in GUS activity was observed in the PCaMV35S-gusA line after these treatments (data not shown).



Figure 2. Time courses of activation of promoter Pgst1 fusions in leaves of representative transgenic apple lines, M.26 (T26.986) and T26.1003) (a and c) or Royal Gala (TRG.1046 and TRG.1047) (b and c) inoculated with Venturia inaequalis (a and b) or with Erwinia amylovora (c). Each datum point represents the mean of 6 replicates obtained from 3 separate experiments. Bars represent confidence interval at  $\alpha$  = 0.05.



Figure 3. Time courses of Pgst1-gusA activation in the upper and lower leaves of representative transgenic apple lines M.26 (a, T26.986) or Royal Gala (b, TRG.1047) inoculated with V. inaequalis. Each datum point represents the mean of 6 replicates obtained from 3 separate experiments. Bars represent confidence interval at  $\alpha$  = 0.05.

#### Discussion

Genetic engineering is a potentially powerful tool for creating disease resistant plants, thereby offering an alternative method of disease control, or in some cases control of a disease inadequately controlled at present. Researchers have identified numerous plant and pathogen genes that can be used to increase crop resistance toward invading pathogens. These strategies involve both expression of gene products toxic to certain pathogens, and also enhancement of the plant's own natural defense mechanism. Such introduced genes usually are placed under the control of strong promoters, such as the PCaMV35S promoter which yields

constitutive expression of the gene product in all plant tissues at all stages of growth. Use of a promoter that allowed restricted expression of the desired gene product exclusively at the sites of pathogen invasion would be a preferred effect in many cases. Ideally, expression of the gene product would be limited to cells surrounding infection sites and would not occur in other parts of the plant.

In order to improve fire blight resistance of apple cultivars without undesirable effects on potentially beneficial plant-associated bacteria or risk to human health, we have undertaken a search for this type of promoter. Knowledge of genes involved in plant-pathogen interactions is still very limited in the case of fire blight, and no homologous promoters have been characterized, with the exception of the promoter PYPR10 in apple which is inducible by fungal and abiotic stress (Pühringer et al., 2000). We therefore selected the Pgst1 promoter from potato (also referred as Pprp1-1) (Martini et al., 1993) and designed experiments to evaluate its performance in apple using the gusA reporter gene, prior to using it to control the expression of a functional transgene.

In this study, we produced a population of transgenic lines of two genotypes of apple in which the expression of the  $gusA$  gene was driven by the constitutive PCaMV35S promoter and the inducible Pgst1 promoter. Activation was measured by GUS assay in 5 or 6 transgenic lines for each genotype and construct. A high level of variability was observed in the M.26 and Royal Gala transgenic lines with the Pgst1 promoter. The range of variation observed for the PCaMV35S promoter was similar to the variation of gusA expression under the same promoter in transgenic apple (Pühringer et al., 2000) but the level of expression of the  $qusA$  gene was more than six times higher in our experiments. This difference can be explained by the different vectors that we and Pühringer et al., 2000 used. Several hypotheses could explain the high variability of expression of the gusA gene between the different lines, including the influence of the number, position and integrity of the transgene insertion. Therefore, in such a study, the individual transgenic lines selected for more detailed promoter analysis should be chosen carefully. In this work we have selected two transgenic lines with strong GUS expression, avoiding the extreme levels of GUS activity.

The pattern of expression of the  $P$ gst $1$ -gus $\overline{A}$ fusion in apple revealed that the  $Pgst1$  promoter is functional in apple and retains most of its typical features of expression in potato. In fact, it conserved a similar pattern of induction compared to that found by Martini et al. (1993) and Strittmatter et al. (1996) in potato. As in potato, this promoter was not activated by wounding, but it was activated by different pathogens (bacterial and fungal) in apple. Furthermore, we demonstrated that the kinetics of activation of the *Pgst1* promoter differed following the pathogen study. It reached a maximum 48 h and 10 days after inoculation with a bacterium  $(E. \,amylovora)$  and with a fungus  $(V.$  *inaequalis*), respectively, in the two genotypes of apple studied. At that time, GUS activity differed between the two genotypes of apple and also between the treatments with the pathogens. The genotype M.26 had GUS activity that was 2.5 fold higher than that of the genotype Royal Gala regardless of the pathogen inoculated. Similar results were obtained following inoculation with  $E$ . amylovora and  $V$ . inaequalis. GUS activity was 1.7 fold higher after inoculation with E. amylovora than the activity observed after inoculation with  $V$ . inaequalis, and this difference was consistent between the two genotypes of apple.

Our study in apple also provided evidence of the systemic induction of the  $Pgst1$  promoter following infection with a mixture of five virulent races of the fungus V. *inaequalis*. GusA expression in neighboring upper and lower non-treated leaves closely followed the expression in the treated leaf. A systemic signal that directly activates the Pgst1 promoter appears to be involved in the two genotypes of apple. This result correlates with the induction of this promoter by salicylic acid and with the low level of systemic induction previously reported in potato after inoculation with Phytophthora infestans (Martini et al., 1993).

Our study provided detailed insight into the role of various pathogenicity regions of the  $E$ . amylovora genome. Taking advantage of a panel of well characterized mutants of E. amylovora provided by S.V. Beer (Cornell University, Ithaca, NY), we were able to study the differential response of this promoter to several gene products. The response of this promoter to treatment with an  $E$ . amylovora hrp secretion mutant was almost identical to the response to water treatment. This indicates that a functional secretory hrp system is necessary for the activation of this promoter in apple. Treatment with mutant strains unable to synthesize either harpin N and W or DspE/A protein clearly resulted in lower activation of the Pgst1 promoter than the treatment with wild type *E. amylovora*. Thus, these pathogenicity factors, which are secreted via the hrp system, play a complementary role in the activation of the Pgst1 promoter. These two pathogenicity factors were also reported to play an important role in the activation of two other inducible promoters in pear (Malnoy et al., 2003b). Recently, Venisse et al. (2003) have demonstrated the important role of these factors in the induction of fire blight infection in apple.

Taken together, our data indicate that the potato promoter Pgst1, is functional in apple and exhibits an induction pattern similar to that observed in potato. It is interesting to note that it is not the first time that a promoter isolated from another botanical family was functional in the Rosaceae. Indeed, the str246C and sgd24 promoters isolated from Solanaceae, are functional in pear (Rosaceae), which is botanically quite distant from Solanaceae (Malnoy et al., 2003b). But cross functionality is not true of all pathogen inducible promoters isolated from the Solanaceae. In fact, the hsr203J promoter isolated from tobacco was weakly functional in the Rosaceae, apple (Reynoird et al., 2000) and pear (Malnoy et al., 2003b).

The *Pgst1* promoter could be used to drive the expression of transgenes for bacterial and fungal disease resistance, as was done with the harpin gene in potato (Li & Fan, 1999), albeit with some potential drawbacks. Its systemic activation in apple could be beneficial, as it may help the plant to mount an active defense in advance of bacterial and fungal spread in the tissues. However, this fact may cause unwanted accumulation of the transgene product in fruits. The average level of gusA expression by the *Pgst1* promoter in response to bacterial and fungal induction is much lower (15% and 8% respectively) than the constitutive expression driven by the *PCaMV35S* promoter in apple. Thus, transgenes with a high efficacy in combating E. amylovora or V. inaequalis at low levels will be required. Another strategy will be to define synthetic plant promoters that directly control local gene expression in response to pathogens. Pathogen inducible plant promoters contain multiple cis-acting elements which are responsible for the induction patterns of the promoter, but only some of these may contribute to pathogen inducibility. Therefore, a synthetic promoter containing specific cis-acting elements can prevent a local and elevated gene expression after a pathogen attack. Using a range of cis-acting elements (boxes W1, W2, GCG, JERE, S, GST1, and D), Rushton et al. (2002) were able to develop different synthetic plant promoters that produced varied patterns of induction after treatment with compatible or incompatible pathogens and abiotic stress. Some of these promoters showed an expression higher than the expression obtained with the original vector.

### Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge B. Reynoird, P. Munagala and H.L. Gustafson for excellent technical assistance. The authors wish to thank Peggy Abbott for excellent critical reading of the manuscript. This work was supported by a grant from the New York apple growers through a grant from the New York Apple Research and Development Program, and by a special grant from USDA-CSREES.

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