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Biotechnology Advances xxx (2015) xxx-xxx



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Biotechnology Advances



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/biotechadv

1 Research review paper

Bio-based resistance inducers for sustainable plant protection against pathogens

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8 ARTICLE INFO

Available online xxxx

Induced resistance

Algae polysaccharides

Keywords:

Elicitor

Chitosan

Biochar

Compost

Plant extracts

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ABSTRACT

An increasing demand for environmentally acceptable alternative for traditional pesticides provides an impetus 19 to conceive new bio-based strategies in crop protection. Employing induced resistance is one such strategy, 20 consisting of boosting the natural plant immunity. Upon infections, plants defend themselves by activating 21 their immune mechanisms. These are initiated after the recognition of an invading pathogen via the microbe- 22 associated molecular patterns (MAMPs) or other microbe-derived molecules. Triggered responses inhibit patho-23 gen spread from the infected site. Systemic signal transport even enables to prepare, i.e. prime, distal uninfected 24 tissues for more rapid and enhanced response upon the consequent pathogen attack. Similar defense mecha- 25nisms can be triggered by purified MAMPs, pathogen-derived molecules, signal molecules involved in plant 26 resistance to pathogens, such as salicylic and jasmonic acid, or a wide range of other chemical compounds. 27 Induced resistance can be also conferred by plant-associated microorganisms, including beneficial bacteria or 28 fungi. Treatment with resistance inducers or beneficial microorganisms provides long-lasting resistance for 29 plants to a wide range of pathogens. This study surveys current knowledge on resistance and its mechanisms 30 provided by microbe-, algae- and plant-derived elicitors in different crops. The main scope deals with bacterial 31 substances and fungus-derived molecules chitin and chitosan and algae elicitors, including naturally sulphated 32 polysaccharides such as ulvans, fucans or carageenans. Recent advances in the utilization of this strategy in prac- 33 tical crop protection are also discussed. 34

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2015.01.004 0734-9750/© 2015 Published by Elsevier Inc. 2

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60 Introduction

In agriculture, plant varieties were domesticated and over time bred 61 62 for yield and fruit quality. As a consequence, plant disease resistance is often decreased compared to wild varieties. Most crops are susceptible 63 to numerous diseases caused by different microorganisms (pathogens). 64 Diseases decrease crop yield and quality, and toxins released by some 65 66 microorganisms may be present in the harvest. Formerly, plant diseases 67 were responsible for severe economic and nutritional crises and are 68 still currently responsible for a considerable loss in the worldwide 69 crop production. To date, ensuring a satisfactory yield and the quality of the harvest requires an extensive use of numerous phytochemical 70 pesticides. However, pesticides harm crops, the environment, even the 7172health of farmers and consumers. Using pesticides also leads to the selection of resistant pathogen strains. For these reasons alternative 73 74 and sustainable disease management is required. Alternatives include organic and integrated farming practices, biological control, the use of 75 76 resistant hybrids or transgenic crops. However, some national legislative bodies do not allow genetic crop improvement by transgenesis 77 and assisted crossing may also be prohibited for some crops, such as 78 wine, protected by appellation seals. The strategy of induced resistance 79 80 represents one alternative compatible with organic-farming. It consists 81 of stimulating the plant immune system with elicitors, natural molecules that mimic a pathogen attack or a danger state, or by living organ-82 isms. Induced resistance may represent an interesting strategy for crops 83 when fungicide-provided control is undesired. 84

85 Plant immunity

86 Plants possess an efficient and multifaceted immune system that is 87 able to cope with most microbial invaders, such as bacteria, fungi, 88 oomycetes or viruses, ubiquitously present in the environment. Besides 89 the physical and chemical constitutive barriers, such as cuticle, cell walls, and antimicrobial phytoanticipins, plants possess a defense line 90 that can be induced by the detection of microbial presence via immune 91receptors. The main and evolutionary older layer of this inducible 9293 immunity is based on the external recognition of "non-self" signals, 94 notably microbe/pathogen-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs/ PAMPs). These are conserved molecular structures essential for the 95 overall fitness of microbes (Boller and Felix, 2009), such as flagellin 96 from bacterial flagella or chitin or different glucans present in fungal/ 97 98 oomycete cell walls. Already many diverse MAMPs have been described; they can be (glyco) proteins, carbohydrates or lipids (Newman et al., 99 100 2013). The early external recognition is also achieved with the host-101 derived "danger" signals or damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), such as pectin-derived oligogalacturonides, produced as a con-102103 sequence of enzymatic microbial activities and toxins (Boller and Felix, 2009; Dodds and Rathjen, 2010). MAMPs and DAMPs are recognized 104 by plasma-membrane localized pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) 105and induce a broad variety of defense responses commonly referred to 106 as MAMP/PAMP/pattern-triggered immunity (MTI/PTI). First, following 107 108 MAMP/DAMP binding, PRRs trigger a complex cascade of signaling 109 events, including ion fluxes leading to plasma membrane depolarization, production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), nitric oxide (NO) and acti-110vation of Mitogen-Activated and Calcium-Dependent Protein Kinases 111 (MAPKs and CDPKs; Boller and Felix, 2009; Boudsocq et al., 2010). 112113 These signaling events modulate transcription factor (TF) activities leading to massive transcriptional reprogramming related to defense. 114 Defense gene activation results in the accumulation of different enzymes 115 and stress-specific metabolites. Frequently found among them are, i) the 116 pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins including hydrolytic enzymes (β-117 1,3-glucanases and chitinases), which degrade microbial cell walls, cat-118 ionic defensins disrupting pathogen membrane, peroxidases, proteinase 119 inhibitors or lipid-transfer proteins; ii) compounds with antimicrobial 120activity such as phytoalexins; iii) lignin and callose deposited to 121 122 the cell wall assuring its strengthening. Other key stones of patterntriggered immunity (PTI) are, iv) production of ROS with a signaling 123 role and direct antimicrobial effect, or, v) stomatal closure (Boller and 124 Felix, 2009; Dodds and Rathjen, 2010; Melotto et al., 2006). The immune 125 responses are orchestrated by and depend on phytohormones, such 126 as salicylic acid (SA), jasmonic acid (JA), ethylene (ET) and abscisic 127 acid (ABA; Glazebrook, 2005). The interplay and fine tuning between 128 these hormones and others, such as auxins, brassinosteroids (BR) or 129 giberellins, coordinate the activation of these above-mentioned defenses 130 and allow directing immune responses against the specific intruder 131 (Robert-Seilaniantz et al., 2011). Many of the defense responses depend 132 strictly on these phytohormones (Glazebrook, 2005; Robert-Seilaniantz 133 et al., 2011). 134

During infection, plant defenses are also activated by the recognition 135 of pathogen effectors, molecules that pathogen secretes specifically 136 upon infection to disrupt host immune system and gain more nutriments. The mechanisms of effector-triggered immunity (ETI) are similar 138 to the above-mentioned PTI. Additionally, ETI is associated with hypersensitive response (HR), a strong local defense leading to programmed cell death at the site of infection (Dodds and Rathjen, 2010). 141

Besides the local defenses, an infection further triggers systemic 142 acquired resistance (SAR; Fig. 1, Pieterse et al., 2009). In SAR, the 143 defense alert is amplified and transferred from the site of infection by 144 a system of mobile signals into distal (systemic) plant parts (Conrath, 145 2011). The phenomenon of priming is a critical component of SAR. 146 Primed tissues are in an alert state that enables them to more rapidly 147 and efficiently confront both biotic and abiotic stresses. In such potenti-148 ated cells, the defense compounds are only expressed upon the patho-149 gen challenge (Conrath, 2011). Because defense is costly, priming thus 150 saves energy by minimalizing allocation costs and limits the impact on 151 the growth and development (Conrath, 2011; Zamioudis and Pieterse, 152 2012). Some of the molecular mechanisms that underlie priming have 153

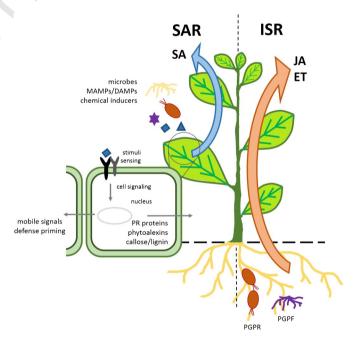


Fig. 1. Scheme of different types of systemic resistance. The systemic acquired resistance (SAR, the left scheme part) is triggered upon pathogen attack, foliar treatments of plants with MAMPs, DAMPs, plant phytohormones or chemical activators. After the recognition by a sensor, the plant cell triggers complex signaling and defense responses, including production of pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins, antimicrobial phytoalexins or cell wall fortification with callose or lignin. Local defenses are followed by the production of mobile signals that are transported via xylem and prime distal plant parts for defense compounds accumulation. Induced systemic resistance (ISR, the right scheme part) can be triggered by root colonization with plant-growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) or fungi (PFPF). ISR is SA-independent, governed mainly by jasmonic acid (JA) and ethylene (ET). Both SAR and ISR prime for enhanced and accelerated defenses upon subsequent biotic and abiotic stresses. Redrawn and modified from Pieterse et al. (2009).

Please cite this article as: Burketová L, et al, Bio-based resistance inducers for sustainable plant protection against pathogens, Biotechnol Adv (2015), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2015.01.004

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