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Annual Review of Plant Biology Exploiting Broad-Spectrum Disease Resistance in Crops: From Molecular Dissection to Breeding

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broad-spectrum resistance, pattern recognition receptor, nucleotidebinding and leucine-rich repeat receptor, NLR, QTL, susceptibility gene, durable resistance, plant immunity, molecular breeding

Abstract

Keywords

Plant diseases reduce crop yields and threaten global food security, making the selection of disease-resistant cultivars a major goal of crop breeding. Broad-spectrum resistance (BSR) is a desirable trait because it confers resistance against more than one pathogen species or against the majority of races or strains of the same pathogen. Many BSR genes have been cloned in plants and have been found to encode pattern recognition receptors, nucleotide-binding and leucine-rich repeat receptors, and defense-signaling and pathogenesis-related proteins. In addition, the BSR genes that underlie quantitative trait loci, loss of susceptibility and nonhost resistance have been characterized. Here, we comprehensively review the advances made in the identification and characterization of BSR genes in various species and examine their application in crop breeding. We also discuss the challenges and their solutions for the use of BSR genes in the breeding of disease-resistant crops.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Plant Diseases in Crop Production

Plant diseases caused by pathogenic fungi, oomycetes, bacteria, viruses, and nematodes cause huge yield losses annually. A recent survey showed that crop losses caused by pathogens and pests worldwide range from 10.1% to 28.1% in wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), 24.6% to 40.9% in rice (*Oryza sativa*), 19.5% to 41.1% in maize (*Zea mays*), 8.1% to 21.0% in potato (*Solanum tuberosum*), and 11.0% to 32.4% in soybean (*Glycine max*) (157). In addition to reducing yields, plant diseases reduce crop quality and economic value and can cause food poisoning in humans and animals. The development of highly resistant cultivars is an economical and eco-friendly alternative to expensive and environmentally harmful chemical controls.

1.2. Use of BSR in Crop Production

Broad-spectrum resistance (BSR) refers to resistance against more than one pathogen species or against most races or strains of the same species (80). Plant breeders have relied on the use of single dominant or recessive resistance (R) genes because of their strong effects and ease of selection. Most R genes confer race-specific resistance against a single or few pathogen strains; however, mutations and virulence shifts in pathogen populations make the effectiveness of these race-specific Rgenes short-lived. In contrast to the high level of race-specific resistance conferred by R genes, the partial resistance controlled by quantitative trait loci (QTLs) is usually race nonspecific. This partial resistance is generally insufficient to defend against pathogen attack, especially in epidemic years. Although combining R genes and QTLs in the same genetic background is effective for disease control, integrating both types of resistance in an elite cultivar is technically challenging and time consuming. For these reasons, the selection of new cultivars with BSR, which is usually durable (195), has become an important crop breeding goal. In this review, we classify BSR into species-nonspecific (SNS) BSR, which confers resistance against two or more pathogen species, and race-nonspecific (RNS) BSR, which confers resistance against two or more races or strains of the same pathogen (195). Supplemental Tables 1 and 2 list the SNS- and RNS-BSR plant genes that have been cloned to date.

1.3. Plant Immune System

Plants use a two-tiered innate immune system to defend against pathogen infection. The first layer of defense is triggered by the recognition of pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) by membrane-associated pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), leading to PAMP-triggered immunity (PTI) (13). The second layer results from the recognition of pathogen avirulence (Avr) effectors by the nucleotide-binding and leucine-rich repeat receptors (NLRs) and other types of cytoplasmic proteins and often leads to the robust, race-specific effector-triggered immunity (ETI) (71). Although PTI is generally weaker than ETI, the opposite situation has been observed in some cases, while in others, it is not easy to clearly distinguish PTI from ETI (182).

R genes encode surface receptors [such as receptor-like kinases (RLKs)] or intracellular receptors (such as NLRs) that can detect cognate pathogen effectors directly or indirectly. Several genes encoding cell wall–associated kinases (WAKs) are also involved in pathogen detection. The PTI and ETI pathways involve numerous defense-signaling genes, such as those encoding receptor-like cytoplasmic kinases (RLCKs), mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), enzymes for epigenetic regulation and protein degradation, transcription factors (TFs), and other signaling molecules. In addition, pathogen infection induces the expression of many pathogenesis-related

Broad-spectrum resistance (BSR):

plant disease resistance against at least two pathogen species or to multiple strains or races of one pathogen species

Resistance (R) genes:

genes that confer disease resistance against pathogens and encode surface receptors (such as receptor-like kinases) or intracellular receptors (such as NLRs) that can detect cognate pathogen effectors directly or indirectly

Quantitative trait locus (QTL):

a specific chromosomal region or genetic locus responsible for the variation of a quantitative trait in the phenotype of a population of organisms

Species-nonspecific broad-spectrum resistance (SNS BSR): plant disease resistance against two or more pathogen species

Race-nonspecific broad-spectrum resistance (RNS BSR): plant disease

resistance against two or more races or strains of the same pathogen species

Pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs): small

molecular motifs conserved within a class of microbes and recognized by cell surface pattern recognition receptors in both plants and animals

Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs):

receptor proteins capable of recognizing PAMPs or the damage-associated molecular patterns

Pathogen-associated molecular pattern-triggered immunity (PTI):

a cascade of defense response via the recognition of the conserved PAMPs or microbe-associated molecular patterns by PRRs

Nucleotide-binding and leucine-rich repeat receptor (NLR) proteins:

a class of cytoplasmic immune receptors in both plants and animals that contain the nucleotide-binding and leucine-rich repeat motifs

Effector-triggered immunity (ETI):

a protective immune response in host initiated by the recognition of pathogenic effectors

Supplemental Material >

(*PR*) genes, resulting in the production of antimicrobial proteins such as defensins, proteases, protease inhibitors, or enzymes involved in the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the accumulation of secondary metabolites for cell wall cross-linking and the deposition of lignin and callose as well as phytoalexins (6). Furthermore, many genes underlying QTLs, loss of susceptibility (*S*), and nonhost resistance (NHR) have recently been cloned and used in crop breeding (131). This review focuses on our current understanding of the structure and function of the BSR genes that have been cloned in plants, in addition to the strategies used to introduce these genes into crops.

2. STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF THE SPECIES-NONSPECIFIC BSR PROTEINS

2.1. Membrane-Associated Pattern Recognition Receptors

PAMPs are generally important for microbial survival or fitness and are therefore evolutionarily conserved. Plants perceive the PAMPs via cell surface PRRs that quickly activate immune responses. Plant PRRs are plasma membrane-localized RLKs or receptor-like proteins (RLPs) (71). Five PRRs from Arabidopsis thaliana, rice, and potato have been reported to confer SNS BSR (Supplemental Table 1). The first RLK-PRR to be characterized, FLAGELLIN SENSING 2 (FLS2) in Arabidopsis, confers SNS BSR against several genera of flagellated bacteria, including Pseudomonas (39a, 152a), and heterologous expression of FLS2 in other plant species enhances their resistance against many bacterial species (152). The bacterial PAMP elf18, a conserved N-terminal epitope of the elongation factor (EF) Tu, is recognized by the RLK-PRR EF-TU RECEPTOR (EFR), which functions as an SNS-BSR protein to regulate Arabidopsis resistance against different bacterial pathogens (84, 86). The transgenic expression of Arabidopsis EFR in Nicotiana benthamiana, tomato (Solanum lycopersicum), potato, rice and Medicago truncatula activates SNS BSR against several pathogenic bacteria (12, 86, 141, 161). Xa21 was the first RLK-PRR R gene to be cloned in crops and confers resistance against multiple strains of the rice bacterial blight pathogen Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae (Xoo) (168a, 188b). Moreover, heterologous expression of Xa21 in citrus (Citrus sp.), Arabidopsis, and banana (Musa sp.) conferred resistance against several bacterial pathogens (56, 137, 183). The Lysin motif-containing proteins LYP4 and LYP6 in rice are dual-role PRRs that sense bacterial peptidoglycan and fungal chitin, activating immunity against bacteria and fungi (100). In potato, the RLP-PRR elicitin response (ELR) recognizes extracellular elicitin, a conserved molecular pattern produced by Phytophthora species, and mediates SNS BSR against multiple species of this oomycete (34). In addition to ELR, the RLP-PRR RLP23 in Arabidopsis was reported to form a tripartite complex with the LRR receptor kinases Suppressor Of BIR1-1 (SOBIR1) and BRI-associated kinase (BAK1) to regulate microbial protein Necrosis and ethylene-inducing peptide 1-like protein (NLP)-triggered immunity (4). The ectopicexpressed RLP23 in potato can recognize NLP and induce SNS BSR to oomycete Phytophthora infestans and fungus Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. These results demonstrate that PRRs that recognize widespread microbial patterns might be particularly suited for engineering immunity in crop plants (4).

2.2. Nucleotide-Binding and Leucine-Rich Repeat Receptor Proteins

The first identified SNS-BSR NLR proteins are the linked *Arabidopsis* RESISTANCE TO RALSTONIA SOLANACEARUM1 (RRS1) and RESISTANCE TO PSEUDOMONAS SY-RINGAE4 (RPS4) that function cooperatively as a dual *R*-gene system against bacterial and fungal pathogens (129). RPS4 works with RRS1 as a pair to trigger a hypersensitive reaction (HR)

against *Pseudomonas syringae* containing AvrRps4. Apart from AvrRps4, RRS1/RPS4 also recognize the effector PopP2 from *Ralstonia solanacearum* (129). Moreover, both RRS1 and RPS4 are required for resistance against the fungal pathogen *Colletotrichum higginsianum*, probably through recognizing an unknown effector (10, 129). Recently, the NLR protein RECOGNITION OF XOPQ 1 (Roq1) in *N. benthamiana* was shown to recognize the effectors of two bacterial species. It physically interacts with HopQ1 from *Pseudomonas* as well as XopQ alleles from various *Xanthomonas* species in the presence of the resistance regulator Enhanced Disease Susceptibility 1 (EDS1) (160). N REQUIREMENT GENE 1 (NRG1) was recently found to be a key protein acting downstream of EDS1 to mediate various Toll/IL-1 receptor-NLR signaling pathways, including those contributing to the *Roq1*-mediated resistance to *Xanthomonas* and *Pseudomonas* and to *XopQ*-regulated transcriptional changes in *N. benthamiana* (146). The mechanism of SNS BSR mediated by RRS1/RPS4 and Roq1 warrants further investigation.

2.3. Defense-Signaling Proteins

Following the perception of PAMPs or effectors, the PRRs or NLRs (or other R proteins) activate complex, interconnected signaling pathways that are involved in many biological processes, including protein–protein interactions, posttranslational modifications, epigenetic regulation, transcriptional regulation, and calcium ion signaling. The defense-signaling genes play positive or negative roles in these signaling processes. A total of 42 defense-signaling genes are known to be involved in SNS BSR (listed in **Supplemental Table 1**).

MAPKs are well-known defense-signaling proteins that transduce defense signals from the immune receptors to the downstream proteins; for example, OsMAPK5 negatively regulates rice resistance against both the bacterial pathogen *Burkholderia glumae* and the fungus *Magnaporthe oryzae* (198). Similarly, OsMPK15 negatively regulates *PR* gene expression and ROS accumulation, with the *osmpk15* knockout mutant having enhanced SNS BSR against *Xoo* and multiple *M. oryzae* strains (57). In addition, two MAPK cascade components in soybean, GmMPK4 and GmMEKK1, negatively regulate plant cell death, *PR* gene expression, the accumulation of salicylic acid (SA) and ROS, and resistance against multiple species of pathogens (105, 200).

In addition to the MAPKs, other types of kinases, such as the RLKs and RLCKs, also function as SNS-BSR proteins (**Supplemental Table 1**); for example, overexpression of the RLCK-like *BROAD-SPECTRUM RESISTANCE 1* (*BSR1*) gene confers BSR against at least two major bacterial species and two major fungal species in rice (115). Two rice WAKs, OsWAK25 and OsWAK91, are important for SNS BSR against two different pathogens (3, 30, 49).

Protein ubiquitination-mediated degradation also plays an important role in SNS BSR (24). The rice U-box E3 gene SPOTTED LEAF 11 (Spl11) encodes a negative regulator of cell death, and the *spl11* mutant has increased SNS BSR against *M. oryzae* and *Xoo* (212). The knockout of the gene encoding the SPL11-interacting Protein 6 (SPIN6) also increases plant resistance against these two pathogens (104). Another multisubunit E3 ubiquitin ligase, Cullin3a (OsCUL3a), negatively regulates rice cell death and SNR BSR against *M. oryzae* and *Xoo* by targeting and degrading NONEXPRESSER OF PATHOGENESIS-RELATED 1 (OsNPR1) (107). OsBAG4, the rice homolog of human BAG (Bcl2-associated athanogene), forms a module with the RING domain E3 ubiquitin ligase Enhanced Blight and blast Resistance 1 (EBR1) to control programmed cell death and SNS BSR against *M. oryzae* and *Xoo* (207).

Proteins functioning in epigenetic modification appear to be key regulators of SNS BSR; for example, silencing *HISTONE H4 DEACETYLASE GENE 701 (HDT701)* in rice enhanced resistance against *M. oryzae* and *Xoo* (33). These results demonstrate that genes involved in protein degradation or epigenetic modification make important contributions to SNS BSR.

Wall–associated kinases (WAKs): a

class of plant receptorlike kinases which contain extracellular galacturonan-binding domain, transmembrane domain, and cytoplasmic serine threonine kinase domain

Defense-signaling

genes: genes that function in signal transduction pathways that link pathogens recognition to defense activation

Pathogenesis-related (*PR*) genes: genes that are downstream components of defense response and responsible for production of antimicrobial agents

Nonhost resistance

(NHR): plant disease resistance against all nonadapted pathogens; the most common form of disease resistance exhibited by plants against the majority of potentially pathogenic microorganisms

TFs are critical components of plant immune signaling and key regulators of defense-related gene expression. Several WRKY TFs are involved in SNS BSR in rice; for example, the overexpression of *OsWRKY45-1* or *OsWRKY45-2* activated the defense response against *M. oryzae* but suppressed the response against *Rhizoctonia solani* (163, 181). Furthermore, these two genes play opposite roles in rice-bacterium interactions: *OsWRKY45-1* negatively regulates rice resistance against *Xoo* and *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzicola* (*Xoc*), but *OsWRKY45-2* positively regulates rice resistance against *Xoo* and *Xoc* (163, 181). In addition, *OsWRKY45-2* positively regulates rice resistance against *Xoo* and *Xoc* (163, 181). In addition, *OsWRKY67*, *OsWRKY30*, *OsWRKY62*, and *OsWRKY76* function as SNS BSR genes in rice (102, 140, 186). In cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*), the ethylene response factor TF gene *CsERF004* positively regulates the expression of several *PR* genes, the levels of the defense hormones, and the levels of SA and ethylene, and the overexpression of this gene confers SNS BSR against *Corynespora cassiicola* and *Pseudoperonospora cubensis* (101).

As a central defense-signaling protein, NPR1 and its homologs NPR3 and NPR4 are SA receptors that activate SA-mediated systemic acquired resistance by transcriptionally activating defense genes in *Arabidopsis* (18, 41, 215). *NPR1* overexpression confers SNS BSR against the bacterial pathogen *P. syringae* and the oomycete pathogen *Phytophthora parasitica* in a dosage-dependent manner. The heterologous expression of *Arabidopsis NPR1* or its orthologs induces SNS BSR in many other plant species (165); for example, the expression of *NPR1* in rice increases resistance against *Xoo*, *M. oryzae*, *Fusarium verticillioides*, and *Erwinia chrysanthemi* (25, 150). However, it is worth noting that *NPR1* overexpression often leads to autoimmunity and pleiotropic phenotypes in transgenic plants.

2.4. Pathogenesis-Related Proteins

The dynamic and robust transduction of defense signaling during the early stages of infection by many different pathogens leads to the rapid production of defense enzymes, defensins, thaumatinlike proteins, and secondary metabolites including phytoalexins. It also leads to the generation of ROS, callose deposition and cell wall modifications, and/or the activation of programmed cell death in plants in an attempt to inhibit pathogen infection. The production of these antimicrobial agents is regulated by the *PR* genes, which are ubiquitous in plants and effective against a variety of pathogens. Three types of *PR* genes that contribute to SNS BSR are listed in **Supplemental Table 1**. SNS BSR of these *PR* genes is usually achieved by overexpressing them in transgenic plants. For example, the overexpression of the pepper gene *Capsicum annuum ANTIMICRO-BIAL PROTEIN1 (CaAMP1)* in *Arabidopsis* increased resistance against various pathogens (89). Moreover, the overexpression of the motherwort (*Leonurus japonicus*) gene *LjAMP2*, encoding an antimicrobial protein, in white poplar (*Populus tomentosa*) conferred SNS BSR against multiple fungal pathogens (64, 204a).

Phytohormone synthesis-related proteins such as the rice ethylene biosynthesis enzyme 1aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid synthase 2 (OsACS2) also function in BSR. The overexpression of *OsACS2* enhances ethylene production, defense gene expression, and resistance to a field isolate of *R. solani* and multiple strains of *M. oryzae* (53). Interestingly, there is little or no difference between *OsACS2* overexpression plants and the wild-type plants in agronomic traits, which is ideal for rice resistance breeding. In addition, a rice homologue of mammalian selenium-binding proteins, *OsSBP*, also functions as a BSR *PR* gene (158). OsSBP positively regulates rice defense gene transcription and phytoalexin accumulation after *M. oryzae* infection and H₂O₂ accumulation after treatment by the protein phosphatase inhibitor calyculin A. As a result, overexpression of *OsSBP* activates rice disease resistance against *Xoo* and *M. oryzae* (158).

2.5. Susceptibility Proteins

Plant genes that facilitate pathogen infection and contribute to susceptibility are termed Susceptibility (S) genes (210). Loss-of-function mutations in S genes (recessive alleles) substantially reduce the compatibility between hosts and pathogens and thus result in resistance against a diverse array of pathogens. The S genes are usually targeted and induced by pathogens to negatively regulate host resistance. Over the past two decades, 11 S genes affecting SNS BSR have been identified in crops (**Supplemental Table 1**). For example, Xa5, encoding a γ -subunit of the TF IIA, was the first S gene to be identified in rice and was found to negatively regulate SNS BSR against multiple isolates of Xoo (66) and Xoc (209). Xa13/OsSWEET11 encodes a sugar transporter that facilitates bacterial and fungal infections, and the loss of its function confers SNS BSR against Xoo and R. solani. A recent study reported that CRISPR/Cas9-mediated mutations in the promoters of OsSWEET11 and its homologs OsSWEET13 and OsSWEET14 provide BSR to all tested Xoo strains collected in Asia and Africa (136). In addition, the team reported the development of a diagnostic kit, SWEET^R kit 1.0, to detect induction of OsSWEET11, OsSWEET13 and OsSWEET14 in the engineered reporter rice lines to visualize SWEET protein accumulation and identify suitable resistant lines for farmers (26, 36, 44).

Recently, BROAD-SPECTRUM RESISTANCE KITAAKE-1 (Bsr-k1) was cloned in rice and was found to encode a tetratricopeptide repeat domain RNA-binding protein that negatively regulates SNS BSR. Bsr-k1 knockout resulted in the upregulated expression of the rice phenylalanine ammonia lyase genes (OsPALs) and enhanced resistance against M. oryzae and Xoo (220). Similarly, the tomato eukaryotic translation initiation factor genes elF4E1 and elF4E2 function as S genes that negatively regulate SNS BSR (120). The knockdown of both genes activates tomato resistance against many potyviruses, including Potato virus Y, Tobacco etch potyvirus, Pepper mottle virus, Ecuadorian rocoto virus, and Pepper severe mosaic virus (120).

The Arabidopsis protein Downy Mildew Resistant 6 (DMR6) belongs to a superfamily of 2oxoglutarate Fe(II)-dependent oxygenases, and its production is enhanced in response to pathogen infection (185). The knockout of DMR6 enhances the expression of defense-related genes and increases SA levels, resulting in SNS BSR against many bacterial, fungal, and oomycete pathogens (135, 185, 211). Similarly, the knockout of the genes SPOTTED LEAF 28 (SPL28, encoding a clathrin-associated adaptor protein), ABSCISIC ACID2 (OsABA2, alcohol dehydrogenase), OsPLD β 1 (phospholipase D), Suppressor of Salicylate Insensitivity of npr1–5 (OsSSI2, stearoyl acyl carrier protein fatty acid desaturase), and OsDRP1E (dynamin-related protein) in rice resulted in SNS BSR against M. oryzae and Xoo, although all the mutants underwent cell death (65, 96, 97, 148, 201).

2.6. Quantitative Trait Loci

Compared with the major gene-mediated resistance, quantitative resistance controlled by QTLs is usually thought to be race nonspecific and more durable. To date, four QTLs contributing to SNS BSR have been cloned in wheat, maize, and cucumber (**Supplemental Table 1**). The genes Lr67/Yr46 and Lr34/Yr18/Pm38, cloned in wheat, confer SNS BSR against important diseases. Lr67/Yr46 encodes a hexose transporter that confers partial resistance against multiple pathogens, including pathogens that cause leaf rust, stripe rust, stem rust, and powdery mildew in wheat (54, 123a, 169). The transporter encoded by Lr67/Yr46 is believed to modulate hexose transport in the infected leaves, thereby reducing the growth of multiple species of biotrophic pathogens. Similarly, Lr34/Yr18/Pm38 encodes an ATP-binding cassette transporter that confers partial resistance against leaf rust, stripe rust, and powdery mildew in wheat (82, 87, 169).

Susceptibility (S) gene: any plant gene that facilitates the infection process or supports compatibility with a pathogen

The maize QTL qMdr9.02 confers resistance against important diseases, including southern leaf blight, gray leaf spot, and northern leaf blight. Molecular cloning revealed that ZmCCoAOMT2, which encodes a caffeoyl-CoA O-methyltransferase, contributes to the qMdr9.02-mediated quantitative resistance against southern leaf blight and gray leaf spot (204), indicating that ZmCCoAOMT2 may control metabolite levels in the phenylpropanoid and lipoxygenase pathways associated with SNS BSR in maize.

The cucumber resistance QTL *STAYGREEN* (*CsSGR*), used for over 50 years to confer SNS BSR against oomycete downy mildew, bacterial angular leaf spot, and fungal anthracnose pathogens, was recently cloned (192). A single-nucleotide polymorphism was found to cause an amino acid substitution in CsSGR, resulting in the inhibition of chlorophyll degradation (and thus a stay-green phenotype) upon pathogen infection, which may inhibit the overaccumulation of ROS and phytotoxic catabolites in the plants. *SGR* is highly conserved in plants; however, its resistance function has not previously been reported in other species.

2.7. Nonhost-Resistance Proteins

NHR is the most common form of disease resistance exhibited by plants against the majority of potentially pathogenic microorganisms (128). It is believed to confer long-lasting BSR and helps ensure plant survival (52). The first *NHR* gene to be isolated was *NONHOST 1* (*NHO1*) in *Arabidopsis*, which positively regulates SNS BSR against several nonhost pathogens, such as the bacteria *P. syringae* pv. *tabaci*, *P. syringae* pv. *phaseolicola*, and *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and the fungus *Botrytis cinerea* (72, 113). Three *NHR* genes related to pathogen penetration were isolated in genetic screens of *Arabidopsis*. *PENETRATION1* (*PEN1*) encodes a syntaxin that localizes to the plasma membrane, and its role in vesicle trafficking and exocytosis appears to confer NHR to the powdery mildew pathogens *Blumeria graminis* f. sp. *bordei* (*Bgb*) and *Erysiphe pisi* (8, 27, 99). *PEN2*, which encodes a glycosyl hydrolase that localizes to peroxisomes, positively regulates BSR against the host-specific pathogen *Erysiphe cichoracearum* and the host-nonspecific pathogens *Bgb* and *E. pisi* (99, 171). *PEN3* is a plasma membrane–localized putative ATP-binding cassette transporter that not only positively regulates plant resistance against *E. cichoracearum* in an SA-dependent manner (111, 171).

3. STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF RACE-NONSPECIFIC BSR PROTEINS

3.1. Cytoplasmic Nucleotide-Binding and Leucine-Rich Repeat Receptors and Other Types of Resistance Genes

Supplemental Material >

Nearly all cloned NLR *R* genes in plants confer resistance against a single pathogen; however, as indicated in **Supplemental Table 2**, 36 NLR *R* genes confer RNS BSR in rice, wheat, potato, tomato, pepper, and roses (*Rosa* spp., multiple cultivars). Among the cloned rice blast *R* genes, 12 were reported to confer RNS BSR, and all these except *Ptr* encode NLR proteins (**Supplemental Table 2**). The *Pi2/Pi9* locus on rice chromosome 6 contains several RNS-BSR genes, including *Pi2*, *Pi9*, *Pi50*, *Piz-t*, and *Pigm* (109). The *Pigm* locus is unique in that it encodes a pair of antagonistic NLRs, Pigm Resistant (PigmR) and Pigm Susceptible (PigmS) (31); PigmR confers BSR, while PigmS competitively forms heterodimers with PigmR to inhibit its function in immunity. However, *PigmS* expression is tightly controlled by epigenetic regulation, resulting in strong and durable blast resistance without a yield penalty. *Pi2*, *Pi9*, *Pi50*, *Piz-t*, and *Pigm* have been widely used in the breeding of blast-resistant rice. In wheat, three leaf rust *R* genes (*Lr1*, *Lr10*, and *Lr21*),

five stem rust *R* genes (*Sr33*, *Sr35*, *Sr22*, *Sr45*, and *Sr50*), one yellow rust *R* gene (*Yr5/Yr7*), and one powdery mildew *R* gene (*Pm21*) confer RNS BSR, and all these genes encode NLR proteins (**Supplemental Table 2**).

Nine RNS-BSR *R* genes encode non-NLR proteins (**Supplemental Table 2**); for example, the rice gene *Xa4* encodes a WAK protein and confers durable RNS BSR against *Xoo* without compromising grain yield (58). In noninoculated plants, XA4 activates the transcription of the cellulose synthase gene *CesA* to facilitate cellulose biosynthesis and inhibits expansin expression, increasing the mechanical strength of the plant cell wall and suppressing *Xoo* infection (58). The rice genes *Xa10*, *Xa23*, and *Xa27* encode executor R proteins and confer durable RNS BSR at the seedling and adult stages (48a, 188a, 213). In addition, the yellow rust *R* genes *Yr15* and *Yr36* in

wheat encode a tandem kinase and a START kinase, respectively (40, 77).

3.2. Defense-Signaling Proteins

The ubiquitination-mediated pathway plays important roles in RNS BSR by activating the NLRs and downstream immune signaling (24). Three defense-signaling genes encode E3 ligases in rice and potato (**Supplemental Table 2**). The rice RING finger E3 ubiquitin ligase BLAST AND BTH-INDUCED 1 (OsBBI1) was reported to regulate RNS BSR against *M. oryzae* by modifying the host cell wall (93). The overexpression of *OsBB11* increased rice resistance against multiple strains of *M. oryzae* and enhanced accumulation of defense-associated H_2O_2 and other ROS. The rice U-box/ARM E3 ubiquitin ligase OsPUB15 interacts with the rice blast R protein Pid2 to positively regulate plant cell death and the basal defense response, thereby conferring RNS BSR against *M. oryzae* (189). The RING-H2 Finger Protein 1 (StRFP1) is a potato E3 ubiquitin ligase that positively regulates RNS BSR against multiple strains of *Phytophthora infestans* in potato and in transgenic *N. benthamiana* via an E3 ligase activity-dependent pathway (133, 218).

Protein kinase genes are also involved in RNS BSR in crops (**Supplemental Table 2**). The rice RLK Blast Resistance-Related 1 (OsBRR1) positively regulates resistance against *M. oryzae*, with *OsBRR1*-overexpressing plants exhibiting enhanced resistance against virulent *M. oryzae* isolates without showing obvious developmental changes (139). The L-type lectin receptor kinase V (LecRK-V) was cloned from the diploid wheat relative *Haynaldia villosa*, and its transgenic expression in wheat enhances powdery mildew resistance at the seedling and adult stages (194). *Stpk-V*, a serine/threonine protein kinase gene also from *H. villosa*, confers BSR against wheat powdery mildew (147). Most recently, we discovered a novel plant RNA recognition motif domain–containing TF family that physically interacts with rice NLRs to trigger RNS-BSR blast resistance, which directly activates rice defense genes including *OsWAK14* and *OsPAL1*, establishing a direct link between transcriptional activation of immune responses with NLR-mediated pathogen perception (214).

3.3. Susceptibility Proteins

To date, five *S* genes have been reported to confer RNS BSR (**Supplemental Table 2**). *Mildew Resistance Locus O (Mlo)* was the first *S* gene to be identified in barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), but it has also been found in almost all higher plants (17). Recessive *mlo* loss-of-function alleles of barley induced by ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS), X-rays, or γ rays confer durable RNS BSR to all known isolates of *Bgh* (17). MLO localizes to the plasma membrane and contains seven conserved transmembrane domains and a calmodulin-binding domain in its C terminus (75). In wild-type barley, MLO suppresses the hydrogen peroxide burst in the epidermal cell wall at the *Bgh* penetration site, thus inhibiting disease resistance by suppressing plant cell death and a second oxidative

Pyramiding: a process of combining two or more genes by genetic strategies to develop elite lines or varieties

Marker-assisted selection (MAS):

a complementary tool for traditional breeding in which the selection of individuals depends on the link between the polymorphic molecular marker and trait burst (142). The effectiveness and durability of the barley *mlo* gene to powdery mildew led to the identification and functional characterization of many *MLO* orthologs in other plant species, such as *Arabidopsis AtMLO2*, *AtMLO6*, and *AtMLO12*; tomato *SlMLO1*; pea *Er1/PsMLO1*; grapevine *VvMLO3* and *VvMLO4*; tobacco *NtMLO1*; pepper *CaMLO2*; cucumber *CsaMLO8*; *Lotus japonicus LjMLO1*; barrel clover *MtMLO1*; rice *OsMLO3*; and wheat *TaMLO-A1*, *TaMLO-B1*, and *TaMLO-D1* (217). The functions of these orthologous genes in disease resistance remain to be elucidated.

The rice S gene *Pi21* (also referred to as a QTL) encodes a proline-rich protein with a putative heavy metal-binding domain and a protein-protein interaction domain (42). The *pi21* recessive allele containing mutations in its proline-rich motif confers durable RNS BSR against many *M. oryzae* strains and has been used in rice breeding in Japan for many years (42). Another rice blast RNS-BSR *S* gene, *Broad-spectrum resistance Digu 1* (*Bsr-d1*), was recently cloned and reported to encode a C2H2-type TF (94). A single-nucleotide change in the promoter of *Bsr-d1* enhances the binding of the MYB TF MYBS1, which suppresses *Bsr-d1* expression and enhances resistance against multiple strains of *M. oryzae* (94). Several *S* genes also function in the rice-*Xoo* pathosystem, including *Xa25/OsSWEET13* and *Xa41(t)/OsSWEET14*, which encode sugar transporters that facilitate bacterial infection, reducing RNS BSR against *Xoo* (62, 219).

3.4. Quantitative Trait Loci

Three RNS-BSR QTLs have been cloned in wheat, maize, and potato (**Supplemental Table 2**). Recently, the long-sought wheat QTL *Fbb1*, which confers durable RNS BSR against *Fusarium* head blight, was cloned and characterized by three independent research groups and was found to likely encode a putative histidine-rich calcium-binding protein (5, 91, 174) or a chimeric lectin with agglutinin domains and a pore-forming toxin-like domain (151). Because *Fbb1* is highly conserved in the genomes of grass species, the identification of *Fbb1* is significant for the breeding of cereal crops resistant to *Fusarium* species. The maize RNS-BSR gene *Helminthosporium turcicum resistance N1 (Htn1*) protects against northern corn leaf blight and was found to encode a WAK (ZmWAK-RLK) with a highly diverse extracellular domain in different maize genotypes (60). The potato QTL *R8* encodes an NLR, which contributes to providing durable BSR against late blight (70). The further characterization of these genes will elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying QTL-mediated resistance.

4. PLANT BREEDING STRATEGIES FOR ACHIEVING BSR IN CROPS

4.1. Pyramiding Multiple Resistance Genes

Breeding resistant cultivars using R genes is currently the most effective and economical strategy for controlling crop diseases (126); however, the frequent loss of R gene–mediated resistance in the field limits the widespread and long-lasting use of single R genes in breeding programs. Pyramiding multiple R genes, especially BSR genes, with different resistance spectra against a single pathogen or multiple pathogens in the same genetic background has proved to be an effective strategy for achieving BSR. With the use of marker-assisted selection (MAS), multiple R genes have been successfully pyramided into recipient cultivars of various crops to generate new varieties with resistance against several major diseases, including rice blast, rice bacterial blight, wheat rust, wheat powdery mildew, and soybean cyst nematodes.

Rice blast and bacterial blight are the two most important diseases of rice (109). Rice lines containing multiple pyramided *R* genes usually have broader resistance than lines containing single *R* genes; for example, the resistance spectra and levels in lines containing *Pi2/Pi1*, *Pigm/Pi54*,

Pi2/Pi54, and *Piz-t/Pi54* pairs were significantly better than the monogenic lines containing individual *R* genes (67, 196, 197). Similarly, elite rice varieties with pyramided *Xa4*, *Xa21*, *Xa7*, *Xa23*, and *Xa27* genes obtained using MAS have broader resistance spectra and higher resistance levels than lines containing only a single gene (114, 176, 202). Efforts to integrate multiple *R* genes that confer BSR against different pathogens in elite rice cultivars have recently been increased, as exemplified by the development of lines containing *Pi9* and *Xa23*, *Pi2* and *Xa23*, or *Xa21* and *Pi54* (68, 132, 178).

Wheat fungal diseases cause annual yield losses of 15-20% (39). Over 187 *R* genes in wheat have been found to confer resistance against various rust diseases, and many have been used in breeding for rust resistance (2). The *R* genes *Sr22*, *Sr25*, *Sr26*, *Sr33*, *Sr35*, *Sr45*, and *Sr50* are considered to be the most valuable for pyramiding to protect against the newly evolved races of stem rust, including the aggressive race Ug99 (35, 166). Pyramiding of two single dominant yellow rust genes, *Yr5* and *Yr15* or *Yr64* and *Yr15*, in common wheat resulted in complete resistance against all tested stripe rust races (77, 149). In addition, different combinations of the powdery mildew *R* genes *Pm2*, *Pm4a*, and *Pm21* were successfully integrated into the elite wheat cultivar Yang 158, resulting in broad-spectrum powdery mildew resistance (103).

The soybean cyst nematode (*Heterodera glycines*) has a major effect on soybean production (108). *Resistance to Heterodera glycines* 1 (*Rbg1*) is located in a cluster with genes encoding an amino acid transporter, an α -soluble NSF (N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor) attachment protein, and a wound-inducible domain protein 12 (WI12), each of which contributes to providing resistance against the cyst nematode (28). The major resistance QTL *Rbg4* that encodes a serine hydroxy-methyltransferase was also cloned (108). A strong epistatic interaction occurs between *Rbg1* and *Rbg4* in the Peking background, which provides the only known instance of full resistance against the pathogenic nematode (122); therefore, lines containing these two genes have a broader spectrum of resistance against the cyst nematode (208). Similarly, potato plants containing stacks of two or three of the *R* genes *Rpi-vmt1*, *Rpi-sto1*, *Rpi-vmt1.1*, and *Rpi-blb3* exhibit BSR against the late blight *P. infestans* in the field (51, 221).

As mentioned above, the pyramiding of R genes with complementary resistance spectra or modes of action can produce additive and synergistic effects on resistance levels and spectrum. In a few cases, however, the pyramiding of R genes can reduce resistance to levels lower than what could be obtained with individual R genes. In the case of blast disease in rice, for example, the resistance level of plants containing *Piz-5* and *Pita* is lower than the level observed in the monogenic lines expressing *Piz-5* alone (55). Similar phenotypes were also observed in the pyramiding lines containing *Piz* and *Pi54* (196); therefore, different R gene combinations should be tested for their compatibility in different genetic backgrounds before they are used in breeding programs.

4.2. Combining Resistance Genes with Quantitative Trait Loci

It has been well documented that a combination of R genes and QTLs or partial resistance genes confers durable resistance (127, 131). Plant breeders have pyramided R genes with multiple QTLs to achieve broad-spectrum and durable resistance and to reduce the selection of resistancebreaking pathogen genotypes (88, 170). In wheat, the best-known QTL genes are Sr2, Lr34, Lr46, and Lr67; these genes have provided partial resistance in mature plants for many years over large areas, despite high and prolonged disease pressure in the field (35). Combining Lr34 and Lr67with various dominant race-specific Lr genes enhanced the resistance of wheat plants against leaf rust in multiyear, multilocation field trials (29, 46, 184). The pyramiding of R genes with QTLs, such as the combination of Sr2, Lr34/Yr18/Pm38, and Lr46/Yr29/Pm39, has proved effective for the control of stripe rust and powdery mildew in the CIMMYT spring wheat breeding programs Durable resistance: resistance that remains effective for long periods when widely exposed to the pathogen under the prevailing growing conditions (98, 167). The QTL *Fbb1* has been widely deployed to improve *Fusarium* head blight resistance in different cultivated wheat varieties (91, 151, 174, 205), and the pyramiding of *Fbb1* with the leaf rust *R* gene *Lr21* in elite spring wheat greatly improved its BSR against various pathogens (168).

Several maize disease QTLs have been cloned, including *qHSR1*, *Htn1*, *qMdr9.02*, and *ZmTrxb* (203, 204). Resistance alleles from multiple QTLs have been stacked into a single line using MAS, resulting in BSR against multiple pathogens (7, 216). The pyramiding of the *R* genes *Ht1* and *Ht2* with a head smut QTL provided a higher level of disease resistance against northern leaf blight and head smut than was observed in the parental lines (69). In addition, two studies showed that rice lines with multiple blast-resistance QTLs, including *pi21*, *qBR4-2*, *Pi34*, *qBR12-1*, and *Pi35*, had a strong, race-nonspecific, environmentally stable resistance against *M. oryzae* (43, 206). Integration of these resistance QTL alleles into elite cultivars with major *R* genes will likely lead to the development of durable BSR rice lines.

4.3. Modifying Immune Receptor Expression and Structure

Plant *R* gene expression is typically strictly controlled to avoid autoimmunity when plants are not under pathogen attack (95); however, the overexpression of a few *R* genes can activate immune responses and generate BSR against multiple pathogens without inducing high levels of cell death. For example, increasing expression of the rice *R* gene *Xa3/Xa26* using different promoters, including the native, *WRKY13*, and maize *Ubiquitin* promoters, can increase the spectrum of *Xoo* resistance (19). In addition, overexpression of the rice PRRs *OsLYP4* and *OsLYP6* conferred BSR against *Xoo* and *M. oryzae* (100). Similarly, overexpression of the *Pto* gene in tomato conferred resistance against *P. syringae* pv. *tomato*, *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *vesicatoria*, and *Cladosporium fulvum* (180).

Modification of the transcription activator-like effector (TALE)-binding sites in *R* genes can generate broad, durable resistance against important *Xanthomonas* diseases (59, 153). The introduction of multiple TALE-binding elements into the promoter of the *R* gene *Xa2*7 activates its expression and expands resistance against *Xoo* and *Xoc* (59). The designer TALEs strategy uses the scaffold of the TALE AvrBs3 and modified repeat-variable diresidues that match the tomato *Bacterial spot resistance 4* (*Bs4*), *Arabidopsis ENHANCER OF GLABRA3* (*EGL3*), or the *Arabidopsis KNOTTED-LIKE 1* (*KNAT1*) promoters to transcriptionally activate them in a sequence-specific manner (124). Engineering synthetic TALEs to induce the transcription of these immune receptor–encoding *R* genes can therefore trigger BSR against various pathogens.

Recently, significant progress has been made in engineering sensitized NLR variants with a lower activation threshold, which recognize a wider spectrum of effectors. Mutations in the conserved coiled-coil and nucleotide-binding domains of the NLR receptors expanded their response spectra to include more effector variants (21, 50, 162, 173). Another study (47) reported that the engineered tomato immune receptor I2 (I141N) confers partial resistance against *P. infestans* and has an expanded response spectrum to the fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *lycopersici*, suggesting that synthetic immune receptors can be engineered to confer resistance against phylogenetically divergent pathogens. Mutations in the LRR domain and near the nucleotide-binding pocket structure of the NLR receptors Rx and R3a may increase the resistance spectrum (37, 50, 162). These studies illustrate that immune receptors can be modified to improve the NLR resistance spectra. It remains to be determined how base-editing technologies could be used to generate point mutations at conserved NLR nucleotides to obtain new BSR genes (45).

Another significant breakthrough was made in modifying a decoy to engineer novel pathogen recognition specificities (81). The *Arabidopsis* NLR receptor RESISTANCE TO PSEU-DOMONAS SYRINGAE5 (RPS5) guards the host kinase AVRPPHB SUSCEPTIBLE1 (PBS1)

against cleavage by the bacterial effector AvrPphB, a protease that cleaves PBS1 at a defined region to produce a conformational change. The engineered modification of the AvrPphB cleavage site within PBS1 to resemble that of a bacterial or viral protease enabled RPS5 to recognize these proteases upon infection (76). This study indicates that decoys can be used to expand the recognition specificity of a plant NLR, an approach with potential use in the rational engineering of disease resistance in crop plants.

4.4. Inducible Expression of Pathogen Elicitor and Avirulence Genes in Plants

Some pathogen elicitor or *Avr* genes trigger a strong HR when expressed in transgenic plants; therefore, researchers investigated the possibility of using a pathogen-inducible promoter to drive an elicitor/*Avr* gene to activate BSR. Keller et al. (74) generated transgenic tobacco plants harboring a fusion between the pathogen-inducible tobacco *bsr2037* gene promoter and a *Phytophthora cryptogea* gene encoding the elicitor cryptogein. After *P. cryptogea* inoculation, the induced production of cryptogein resulted in a localized HR that restricted further growth of the oomycete *Phytophthora* and unrelated fungal pathogens (74). BSR was also obtained through the expression of both *R* and *Avr* genes in transgenic rice plants (61). These plants expressed the *Avr1-CO39* effector gene from *M. oryzae*, under the control of an inducible promoter, and were challenged with *Xoo* and *Xoc* strains carrying a TALE designed to transactivate the inducible promoter. The recognition of the corresponding NLR receptor *Pi-CO39* by the induced *Avr1-CO39* triggered resistance against the bacterial diseases (61). Such an approach, which is based on synthetic promoter traps, expands the panel of genes that can be exploited to engineer resistance in plants against infections by TALE-injecting pathogens. This strategy has not yet been tested in the control of crop diseases caused by pathogens that lack TALEs.

4.5. Altered Expression of Defense-Signaling and Pathogenesis-Related Genes

Engineering BSR is possible using both defense-signaling and *PR* genes because they usually function downstream of the immune receptors. For example, silencing soybean *GmMPK4s* caused spontaneous cell death in the leaves and stems and enhanced resistance against downy mildew and the soybean mosaic virus (105). Defense-signaling and *PR* genes are conserved in different plant species, allowing BSR to be achieved in many crops by expressing the *Arabidopsis* defense master regulator *NPR1* (116, 119, 164, 165, 188). The *NPR1* orthologs cloned from other plants also function as BSR regulators in their native species and when expressed in other species; for example, *NPR1* cloned from *Malus pumila* (*MpNPR1*) or *Malus hupehensis* (*MbNPR1*) can activate BSR in apple (*Malus × domestica*), protecting against fire blight, apple scab, and cedar apple rust (23, 117, 118). Similarly, the transgenic expression of *StoNPR1* from *Solanum torvum* (a wild eggplant highly resistant to *Verticillium dabliae*) in potato enhances its resistance against *V. dabliae* (32).

Some *PR* genes are involved in strengthening cell walls, generating an oxidative burst, and producing antimicrobial compounds in the host plants. The overexpression of *PR* genes, such as those encoding defensins, enhanced plant resistance to multiple pathogens (138, 156). In another example, the expression of *CaAMP1*, which encodes an antimicrobial protein, led to BSR against biotrophic, hemibiotrophic, and necrotrophic pathogens in pepper (89).

Transgenic plants with alterations in their expression of a single defense signaling or PR gene usually have relatively low levels of resistance against pathogens; however, stacking these transgenes may increase their resistance. If a strong HR occurs in the transgenic plants, an inducible expression system should be used to alleviate the cell death phenotypes. Another approach is to screen germplasm for new alleles with high expression levels but a minimal yield penalty.

Gene editing: a group of genetic technologies such as CRISPR/Cas9 that allow genetic materials to be added, removed, or altered at particular locations in the genome of a living organism

4.6. Genome Editing of Susceptibility Genes

Recent advances in genome editing technologies have enabled the targeted mutagenesis of S genes in several important crops, with the goal of generating BSR against multiple pathogens. TALEN and CRISPR/Cas9 technologies were used to target the *Mlo* loci in wheat and thereby obtain plants resistant to powdery mildew (193). In tomato, knocking out the *Mlo* ortholog *SlMlo1* using CRISPR/Cas9 resulted in plants fully resistant to the powdery mildew fungus *Oidium neolycopersici* (130). Moreover, in rice, CRISPR/Cas9-induced mutations in the proline-rich motif of *Pi21* provided RNS BSR against *M. oryzae* (42, 92), and promoter editing of three *SWEET* genes led to the development of BSR transgenic lines in all tested *Xoo* strains in two mega rice varieties (136). Another example involves eIF4E, which is essential for the cellular infection cycle of potyviruses (155). Two independent studies recently showed that disruption of *eIF4Es* using CRISPR/Cas9 led to resistance against ipomoviruses and potyviruses in *Arabidopsis* and cucumber (20, 145). These results clearly show that manipulation of *S* genes is a powerful approach for generating resistance in economically important crops.

4.7. Using the Multiline Strategy to Confer BSR

A multiline cultivar is a mixture of pure lines that are agronomically similar but differ in a single trait, such as an R gene (125). Relative to single-component cultivars, multiline barley cultivars have up to 80% less disease, while wheat multilines show a 60% disease reduction (143). In rice, mixed plantings of disease-resistant and susceptible varieties grown in multiple locations for two years can greatly reduce the severity of rice blast infections in both varieties (222). Blast-resistant multilines composed of near-isogenic lines with different R genes had lower levels of blast disease than their corresponding single-component cultivars (63, 78, 85). Generating uniform sets of nearisogenic lines in the same genetic background is time consuming; therefore, multilines composed of transgenic wheat lines overexpressing Pm3a, Pm3c, Pm3d, Pm3f, or Pm3g in the Bobwhite cultivar background were developed. Field tests showed that all transgenic lines were more resistant to powdery mildew than the respective control lines, with substantially greater resistance in the multilines containing all four pyramided alleles (15, 79). This demonstrated that a difference in a single R gene is sufficient to cause host-diversity effects, and that the development of multilines represents a promising strategy for the effective and sustainable use of R alleles. Gene editing techniques are rapidly being improved, meaning breeders will soon be able to engineer crop multilines containing both SNS- and RNS-BSR genes.

5. POTENTIAL CHALLENGES AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

As discussed above and shown in **Figure 1**, significant progress has been made in the identification of BSR genes and in our understanding of the molecular basis of BSR. In addition, several breeding strategies have been employed to select BSR cultivars (**Figure 2**). However, many challenges remain regarding the application of BSR in crop breeding. These challenges and their possible solutions are discussed in the following sections.

5.1. Identifying Novel Genes that Balance BSR and Yield

The molecular mechanisms underlying the trade-off between resistance and crop yield are largely unknown (134); however, several recent studies have described new approaches for minimizing the fitness cost of disease tolerance in rice. The *Pigm* locus in rice encodes a pair of antagonistic NLR receptors, PigmR and PigmS (31), which decrease and enhance yields, respectively. The transfer

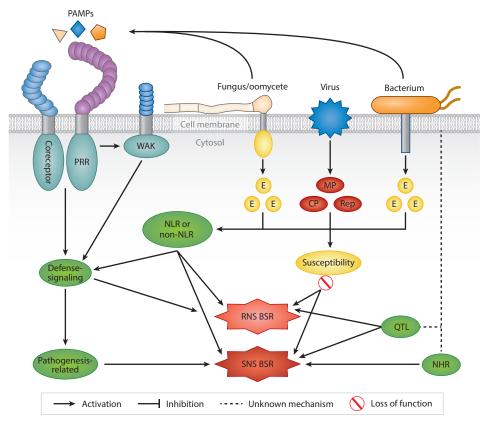


Figure 1

Mechanism of BSR in plants. PAMPs from bacteria, fungi, oomycetes, and other pathogens are perceived by membrane-associated PRRs and coreceptors. WAKs can also recognize pathogen effectors or plant signals, such as damage-associated molecular patterns, and can be activated by PRRs (16). Meanwhile, intracellular resistance proteins such as NLRs or non-NLRs can recognize pathogen-secreted Es or viral proteins such as CP, Rep, and MP. These specific recognitions activate various immune signaling cascades mediated by defense-signaling proteins that lead to the synthesis of numerous pathogenesis-related proteins to confer RNS BSR, SNS BSR, or both. By contrast, loss of function of susceptibility genes targeted by pathogen effectors or viral proteins, expression of QTLs, and *NHR* genes can initiate RNS BSR and SNS BSR to pathogens in plants. Abbreviations: BSR, broad-spectrum resistance; CP, capsid protein; E, effector; MP, movement protein; NHR, nonhost resistance; NLR, nucleotide-binding and leucine-rich repeat receptor; PAMP, pathogen-associated molecular pattern; PRR, pattern recognition receptor; QTL, quantitative trait locus; Rep, replicase; RNS, race-nonspecific; SNS, species-nonspecific; WAK, cell wall-associated kinase.

of both receptors into a susceptible line ensures a good balance between yield and immunity, and the entire *Pigm* locus has been introduced into elite cultivars using traditional breeding. Another study demonstrates that the substitution of a single nucleotide in the promoter of the *Bsr-d1* gene enhances disease resistance without reducing yields (94). Two recent studies showed that the TFencoding gene *Ideal Plant Architecture1 (IPA1)* promotes high yields while contributing to rice immunity against *M. oryzae* and *Xoo* (106, 190). The use of genetic and genomic approaches to identify additional *Pigm-*, *Bsr-d1-*, and *IPA1*-like alleles in rice and other crops will provide new germplasm materials for the breeding of new cultivars with both high pathogen resistance and high yields.

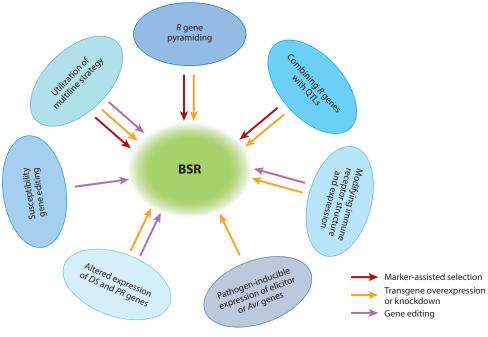


Figure 2

Multiple strategies for breeding BSR in crops. The proposed strategies can be used separately or in combinations dependent on the availability of BSR genes and technologies for the crop. Abbreviations: Avr, avirulence; BSR, broad-spectrum resistance; DS, defense-signaling; PR, pathogenesis-related; R, resistance; QTL, quantitative trait locus.

5.2. Eliminating the Negative Effects of Defense Proteins on Plant Growth Using Upstream Open Reading Frames

The overexpression of immune receptor–encoding, defense signaling, *PR*, and *NHR* genes often leads to cell death and dwarf phenotypes (134). Upstream open reading frames (uORFs), located in the 5' untranslated regions, are potent *cis*-acting regulators of translation and mRNA turnover and are abundant in angiosperm genomes (187). In *Arabidopsis*, the TF TL1-binding factor 1 (TBF1) is involved in the switch from growth to defense that occurs upon induction of the immune response. The TBF1 cassette consists of the *TBF1* promoter and the 5' untranslated region, which contains two pathogen-inducible uORFs. A recent study used uORFs_{TBF1}-mediated translational control to minimize the fitness cost of BSR in *Arabidopsis* and rice (199). The authors found that the *TBF1p:uORFs-NPR1* and *TBF1p:uORFs-SNC1* transgenic plants displayed BSR against three rice pathogens without suffering any fitness cost. This strategy provides a way of minimizing the negative effects of the overexpression of BSR genes in crops. The search for additional TBF1-like TFs in plant genomes may lead to the development of crop plants with BSR but without the associated reductions in growth and yield.

5.3. Reducing the Selection Pressure on Pathogens When Growing BSR Cultivars

The widespread and long-term planting of BSR cultivars will likely increase the selection pressure on pathogens and increase the appearance of resistance-breaking populations (121). In theory,

BSR cultivars should provide durable resistance because overcoming their resistance mechanisms would require the accumulation of mutations in multiple pathogen effectors. The durability of BSR cultivars mainly depends on the evolutionary potential of the pathogens, however, which can be considerable for species with complex populations, mixed reproductive systems, and substantial gene flow (121). Researchers have proposed that multivirulent pathogen populations develop in a step-by-step manner (14); therefore, a complete survey of the frequency of virulent strains in the field is essential for the correct deployment of BSR genes or combinations of R genes and QTLs in crop production. In addition, the establishment of natural disease nurseries used for the evaluation of the resistance capabilities of different BSR cultivars will also be helpful for testing the effectiveness of the BSR genes.

5.4. Identifying and Using Nonhost-Resistance Genes in Crop Breeding

Although the molecular mechanism underlying NHR in plant defense is still not clear, the use of NHR in crops is a promising approach for breeding BRS cultivars. The wheat Lr34 gene is a good example because the transfer of this gene to other cereal species, such as barley, rice, and maize, confers resistance against multiple species-specific pathogens of these crops (11, 83, 175). Another promising *NHR* gene is the *Cajanus cajan Resistance against Phakopsora pachyrhizi 1* (*CcRpp1*), an NLR-encoding gene from pigeonpea (*C. cajan*) that confers resistance against the fungal pathogen *P. pachyrhizi* in soybean (73). Nevertheless, the number of Lr34- and *CcRpp1*-like genes in crops is limited, and new methods for rapidly isolating such genes are required. Although the expression of *NHR* genes across phylogenetically distant species may lead to the development of BSR in economically important crops, some crop plants currently remain untransformable, which limits the application of the *NHR* genes. The development of new transformation techniques in these crops will facilitate the use of *NHR* genes for the engineering of additional BSR crops.

5.5. Optimizing Strategies for Intra- and Interspecies Transfer of Immune Receptors

Crop breeders have introgressed R genes from wild relatives into elite cultivars (9, 60). The maize R gene Htn1, encoding a putative WAK that confers quantitative resistance against most isolates of northern corn leaf blight, was introduced from a Mexican landrace into modern maize breeding lines in the 1970s (60). In apple, the susceptible cultivar Gala showed enhanced scab resistance against multiple strains of *Venturia inaequalis* after being transformed with the R gene HcrVf2 from the wild species *Malus floribunda* (9). One challenge for transferring new R genes from wild relatives into cultivated lines is how to rapidly identify and clone the R alleles that confer BSR. Recently, multiple strategies have been used to clone new R genes from the wild relatives of wheat, barley, and potato, including MutRenSeq, MutChromSeq, dRenSeq, and RenSeq (22, 154, 172). These low-cost mapping strategies can be adapted for use with other crop plants.

The interspecies transfer of PRR genes was recently reported; for example, the *Arabidopsis EFR* gene was introduced into tomato (86), rice (112, 161), potato (12), *Medicago* (141) and wheat (159), and the resulting transgenic plants displayed resistance to the pathogens adapted to each of these crops. Similarly, the transformation of *Xa21* into tomato (1), sweet orange (*Citrus aurantium*) (123), and banana (*Musa acuminata*) (183) increased resistance to *Xanthomonas axonopodis* pv. *citri*, *R. solanacearum*, and *X. campestris* pv. *musacearum*, respectively. Although PRRs have been transferred between species, the resistance levels of the transgenic lines, such as the *Arabidopsis EFR* gene in rice, to their species-specific pathogens have usually been relatively low (161); however, combining

PRR genes with NLRs or QTLs in the recipient species could enhance the resistance levels and spectra of the transgenic plants.

5.6. Choosing the Right BSR Gene Combinations and Pyramids

Previous research suggests that, in a pyramid, one R gene may mask the effects of the others, such that some R gene combinations provide less disease resistance than other combinations (127). For example, rice plants containing both *Piz-5* and *Pita* had lower blast resistance than plants containing *Piz-5* alone (55). Similar results were reported in the pyramided lines containing *Piz* and *Pi54* (196). In addition, the genetic background of the recipient cultivars may affect the resistance phenotype; the resistance conferred by a combination of Xa5, Xa13, and Xa21 differed substantially among five rice cultivars, indicating the possible presence of resistance suppressors in some of the host plants (144). The effects of specific combinations of different BSR genes or pyramids of R genes and QTLs are therefore not predictable and should be tested in different genetic backgrounds before being used in crop breeding programs. Further investigation of the mechanisms underlying the synergistic or antagonistic effects of different BSR gene combinations or genetic backgrounds will provide essential new information for BSR breeding.

5.7. Screening for Genes That Provide BSR Against Both Necrotrophic and Biotrophic Pathogens in Crops

Biotrophic and necrotrophic pathogens use different strategies: Necrotrophic pathogens kill host tissues because they colonize and thrive on the contents of dead or dying cells, whereas biotrophs depend on living host cells to complete their life cycle (48). In many cases, plants with resistance against biotrophic pathogens are susceptible to necrotrophic pathogens, and vice versa (179); how-ever, transgenic carrots (*Daucus carota*) expressing *NPR1* had BSR against both necrotrophic and biotrophic pathogens (188). The two transgenic carrot lines in that study exhibited a 35–50% reduction in disease symptoms on their foliage and roots when exposed to three necrotrophic pathogens. It is therefore critical for breeders to identify new BSR genes that confer resistance against both necrotrophic and biotrophic pathogens in crops.

SUMMARY POINTS

- 1. Selection of new cultivars with broad-spectrum resistance (BSR) is an important goal in crop breeding programs.
- 2. BSR genes encode pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), nucleotide-binding and leucine-rich repeat receptors (NLRs), and other defense-related proteins.
- 3. Genes underlying quantitative trait loci (QTLs), loss of susceptibility and nonhost resistance (NHR) are also involved in BSR.
- 4. Durable BSR can be achieved with different breeding strategies in crops.
- 5. Low-cost mapping strategies such as RenSeq can be adapted for rapid isolation of BSR genes in wild species.
- 6. Genome-editing technologies such as CRISPR/Cas9 will play a vital role in engineering BSR crops.

DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

The authors are not aware of any affiliations, memberships, funding, or financial holdings that might be perceived as affecting the objectivity of this review.

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