

Pathogenesis mechanisms employed by Alternaria species

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Abstract

Alternaria species are mainly saprophytic fungi, but some have acquired pathogenic capacities causing plant diseases over a broad host range. More than 70 phytotoxins are produced by them from which only a small proportion have been chemically characterized and reported to act as mycotoxins. Host-selective toxins (HSTs) produced by *Alternaria* plant pathogens are generally low-molecular-weight secondary metabolites with a diverse range of structures that function as effectors controlling pathogenicity or virulence in certain plant–pathogen interactions. This review summarizes all the diseases caused by *Alternaria* spp., mycotoxins produced by *Alternaria* spp. and the recent advances in elucidating mode of action of host specific *Alternaria* toxins at physiological, biochemical and molecular levels.

Keywords: Alternaria spp., mechanism, mode of action, phytopathogenesis, toxin

Introduction

The genus Alternaria includes many saprophytic and endophytic species. It was first described by Nees in 1816 with Alternaria tenuis as the only species, which was later renamed as Alternaria alternata (Fr.) Keissl. (Meena et al., 2010). All Alternaria species lack sexuality, and are thus classified into (kingdom fungi, sub-kingdom Eumycotera, phylum fungi Imperfecti, form class Hypomycetes, form order Moniliales, form family Dematiaceae, genus Alternaria). Many pathogenic Alternaria species produce toxins which facilitate their necrotrophic life style. Prior to colonization, necrotrophs kill their host cells at a distance by producing both toxins, and lytic enzymes. They often trigger genetically- programmed apoptotic pathways, or directly cause cell damage resulting in necrosis. Many species of Alternaria produce toxins with broad host ranges, but some agronomically important species produce host-specific toxins with a narrow range often to the cultivar level. Alternaria species are important pathogen of many crucifers which also produces carcinogenic, teratogenic and mutagenic mycotoxins. Researchers around the globe are using this necrotrophic pathogen to study molecular mechanisms of plant defense (Oliver & Ipcho, 2004, Thaler *et al.*, 2004, Rowe & Kliebenstein, 2010).

Lawrence *et al.* (2008) used *Alternaria brassicicola* (Schwein.) Wiltshire as a model representative for their basic research on virulence and generalized the role of toxins in the pathogenesis mechanism employed by *Alternaria* genus. Chung (2012) also studied the stress response and pathogenecity of the necrotrophic fungal pathogen *Alternaria alternata*. This review summarizes the recent advances in pathogenesis of *Alternaria* spp. at physiological, biochemical and molecular levels, and also discusses the present understanding of the mode of *Alternaria* host specific toxins.

Plant diseases caused by Alternaria species

The genus *Alternaria* includes both non-pathogenic and pathogenic species causing diseases on agronomically important plants including cereals, ornamentals, oilcrops, vegetables and fruits in table 1 (Rahman *et al.*, 2002, Thomma, 2003, Agrios, 2005, Raja *et al.*, 2006, Meena *et al.*, 2010).

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Species	Host	Symptoms	Location	Reference
A. acalyphae	Kucing Galak	Leaf spot	Seychelles	Kingsland, 1984
	(Acalypha indica)		Islands	
A. alternata	Aloe (Aloe vera)	Leaf spot	Pakistan	Bajwa <i>et al.</i> , 2010
	Aloe (Aloe vera)	Leaf spot	Louisiana	da silva & Singh, 2012
	Almond (Prunus dulcis)	Leaf spot	California	Teviotdale et al., 2001
	Apple (Malus Communis)	Postharvest Decay	Pennsylvania	Jurick et al., 2014
		during Cold Storage		
	Barbados nut (Jatropha curcas)	Inflorescence blight	Sinaloa (Mexico)	Angeles et al., 2012
	Baby's breath	Leaf spot	Bulgaria	Margina <i>et al.</i> , 1999
	(Gypsophila paniculata)			
	Banana (Musa)	Leaf spot	United States	Parkunan et al., 2013
	Big leaf hydrangea	Leaf spot	Italy	Garibaldi et al., 2007
	(Hydrangea macrophylla)			
	Big bend bluebonnet	Stem blight	Texas	Colbaugh et al., 2001
	(Lupinus havardii)			
	Desert zinnia (Zinnia acerosa)	Flower blight	Texas	Colbaugh et al., 2001
	Bladder dock (Rumex vesicarius)	Leaf spot	India	Sankar et al., 2012
	Black mangrove	Leaf spot	China	Lin et al., 2014
	(Bruguiera gymnorrhiza)			
	Cherry (Prunus avium)	Leaf spot	Greece	Thomidis &
				Tsipouridis, 2006
	Cherry fruits (Prunus avium)	Black spot	China	Zhao & Liu, 2012
	Compass plant	Blight	Poland	Wagner &
	(Silphium laciniatum)			Jamiolkowska, 2004
	Cotton (Gossypium hirsutum)	Stem canker	-	Laidou et al., 2000
	Chinese dwarf Banana (Musa)	Leaf spot	China	Fu et al., 2014
	Crown flower	Leaf spot	Rajasthan	Sain et al., 2009
	(Calotropis gigantean)			
	Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	Leaf spot	-	Vakalounakis, 1990
	Desert Zinnia (Zinnia acerosa)	Flower blight	Texas	Colbaugh et al., 2001
	Date Palm (Phoenix dactylifera)	Postharvest	Spain	Palou et al., 2013
		Black Spot		
	English walnut (Juglans regia)	Leaf spot	-	Belisario et al., 1999
	Fig (Ficus carica)	Fruit Rot	Montenegro	Latinovic et al., 2014
	Gopher plant (Euphorbia lathyris)	Blight	China	Yu et al., 2011
	Heart-leaved houttuynia	Leaf spot	China	Zheng et al., 2011
	(Houttuynia cordata)			
	Hop cones (Humulus lupulus)	Infection	Australia	Pethybridge et al., 2001
	Kiwifruit (Actinidia deliciosa)	Dieback	-	Tsahouridou &
				Thanassoulopoulos, 200

 Table 1. Alternaria species causes various diseases on different hosts

	Kiwifruit (<i>Actinidia deliciosa</i>)	Leaf spot	Turkey	Karakaya & Celik, 2012
	Kiwifruit (<i>Actinidia deliciosa</i>)	Leaf spot	Italy	Corazza <i>et al.</i> , 1999
	Lemon (Citrus)	Brown spot	Yunnan	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2010
			Province China	
	Lime (<i>Citrus</i>)	Brown spot	Peru	Marin <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Lemon (<i>Citrus</i>)	Black rot	-	Peever & Carpenter
				Boggs, 2005
	Lemon (<i>Citrus</i>)	Brown Spot	Spain	Vicent et al., 2000
	Marigold (Tagetes erecta)	Leaf Spot	Beijing, China	Li et al., 2014
	Melon	Leaf spot	Mid-Atlantic	Zhou & Everts, 2008
			Region of the	
			United States	
	Pomegranate (Punica Granatum)	Black spot	Spain	Berbegal et al., 2014
	Peace lily (Spathiphyllum)	Leaf spot	Argentina	Cheheid et al., 2000
	Paneer dodi (Withania coagulans)	Leaf Spot	India	Sharma <i>et al.</i> , 2013
	Philodendron (Philodendron)	Leaf Spot	China	Zhou et al., 2014
	Potatoe (Solanum tuberosum)	Leaf Blight	South Africa	van der Waals et al. 2011
	Prickly-ash (Zanthoxylum piperitum)	Blight	China	Yang et al., 2013
	Switchgrass (Panicum virgatum)	Leaf Spot	Tennessee	Vu et al., 2012
	Tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum)	Brown spot	Connecticut and	LaMondia, 2001
			Massachusetts	
	Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)	Leaf blight	Pakistan	Akhtar et al., 2004
	Toothed Dock (Rumex dentatus)	Leaf Spot	Pakistan	Siddiqui et al., 2009
	Thorowax (Bupleurum chinense)	Leaf blight	China	Zhang et al., 2010
	Tea (Camellia sinensis)	Leaf spot	China	Zhou & Xu, 2014
	Vine spinach (Basella alba)	Leaf blight	India	Sankar et al., 2011
	Wonder tree (Idesia polycarpa)	Leaf spot	China	Sun et al., 2014
A. arborescens	Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)	Stem canker	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. arbusti	Asian pear (Pyrus pyrifolia)	Leaf lesions	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. arotiincultae	Carrot (Daucus carota)	-	New Zealand	Trivedi et al., 2010
A. bataticola	Sweet potato (Ipomoea batatas)	Leaf spot and	South America	Lopes & Boiteux, 1994
		stem blight		
A. blumeae	Hunchback's mother	Lesions	-	Kirk et al., 2008
	(Blumea aurita)			
A. brassicae	Daikon (Raphanus sativus	Leaf spot	California	Koike & Molinar, 1997
	cv. longipinnatus)			
	Whitetop (Lepidium draba)	Leaf Spot	North America	Caesar & Lartey, 2009
	Canola	Gray leaf spot	Argentina	Gaetan & Madia, 2005
	Abyssinian Kale	Leaf spot	Australia	You et al., 2005
	(Crambe abyssinicia)			
A. brassicicola	Cauliflower (Brassica oleracea)	Leaf blight	Rajasthan	Porwal & Kothari, 1970
	Field Pannycress (Thlaspi arvense)	Leaf spot	Geneva, NY	Cobb & Dillard, 1998
	Derer's West Loof (Louis in dissing)	T C	China	Cas et al. 2014

Dyer's Woad Leaf (Isatis indigotica) Leaf spot

Gao et al., 2014

China

A. brunsii	Cumin (Cuminum cyminum)	Blossom blight	_	Kirk et al., 2008
A. cassiae	Cowpea (Vigna unguiculata)	-	-	Grange & Aveling, 1998
A. cichorii	Radicchio (<i>Cichorium intybus</i>)	Leaf spot	California	Koike & Butler, 1998
A. carthami	Snow lotus (<i>Saussurea laniceps</i>)	Leaf spot	China	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Safflower (<i>Carthamus tinctorius</i>)		-	Kirk <i>et al.</i> , 2008
	Snow Lotus (Saussurea laniceps)	Leaf Spot	China	Zhao et al., 2008
A. carotiincultae	Carrot (Daucus carota)	Leaf blight	-	Kirk et al., 2008
	Parsnip (Pastinaca sativa)	-	-	Kirk et al., 2008
-	Cucurbit (<i>Cucurbita argyrosperma</i>)	-	-	Kirk et al., 2008
	Pumpkin (<i>Cucurbita pepo</i>)	Leaf spot	North Caucasus	Gannibal, 2011;
		1	(Russia)	Sikora, 1994
A. cinerariae	Leopard plant (Farfugiu japonicum)	Leaf spot	Japan	Sakoda et al., 2010
	Climbing hydrangea (<i>Hydrangea</i>	Leaf spot	Italy	Garibaldi et al., 2008
1	anomala subsp. Petiolaris)	1	,	,
A. chlamydospora	Ashwagandha (<i>Withania somnifera</i>)	Leaf blight	-	Vanitha, 2008
	Wallflower (Erysimum cheiri)	-	-	Bambridge et al., 1985
A. dauci	Carrot (Daucus carota)	Leaf blight	Israel	Ben-Noon <i>et al.</i> , 2001
	Carrot (Daucus carota)	-	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. dianthicola	Ashwagandha	Leaf blight	India	Maiti et al., 2007
	(Withania somnifera)	C		
A. dichondrae	Kidney grass (Dichondra repens)	Leaf blight	Australia	Sivapalan & Pascoe,
				1994
A. euphorbiicola	Cole	-	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. gaisen	Pear (Pyrus communis)	Ring spot	-	Kirk et al., 2008
	Rice (Oryza sativa)	Leaf spot	Pakistan	Akhtar <i>et al.</i> , 2014
A. grandis	Potato (Solanum tuberosum)	Early blight	Brazil	Rodrigues et al., 2010
A. gossypina	Cotton (Gossypium hirsutum)	Leaf spot and boll rot	-	Hopkins, 1932
A. helianthi	Sunflower (Helianthus annuus)	Stem and foliar blight	Louisiana	Singh & Ferrin, 2012
A. helianth-	Sunflower (Helianthus annuus)	Leaf spot	Korea	Cho and Yu, 2000
inficiens	Sunflower (Helianthus annuus)	Foliar and Stem Blight	Croatia	Vrandecic et al., 2012
A. heveae	Rubber Tree (Hevea brasiliensis)	Black Leaf Spot	China	Cai et al., 2014
A. infectoria	Wheat (Triticum aestivum)	-	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. interrupta	Potato (Solanum tuberosum)	Early blight	Iran	Taheri et al., 2009
A. iridicola	Blackberry-lily	Leaf blight	Korea	Yu et al., 2000
	(Belamcanda chinensis)			
А.	Water hyacinth	Leaf blight	-	Dagno et al., 2011
jacinthicola	(Eichhornia crassipes)			
A. japonica	Cole crops	-	-	Kirk et al., 2008
	Arugula (Diplotaxis tenuifolia)	Leaf spot	Italy	Garibaldi et al., 2011
	and garden rocket (Eruca vesicaria)			
	Chinese cabbage (Brassica rapa)	Damping-off	China	Ren and Zhang, 2012
	Arugula (Diplotaxis tenuifolia)	Leaf spot	California	Tidwell et al., 2014
А.	Largehead atractylodes rhizome	Leaf spot	China	Tan et al., 2012

longipes	(Atractylodes macrocephala)			
01	Tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum)	-	-	Kirk et al., 2008
	Carrot (Daucus carota)	Leaf Blight	Israel	Vintal et al., 2002
	Potato (Solanum tuberosum)	Leaf spot	Pakistan	Shoaib et al., 2014
	China Root (Smilax china)	Leaf spot	China	Long et al., 2009
A. molesta	Porpoises (Phocoena phocoena)	Skin lesions	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. multirostrata	Rough Mexican clover	Blight	-	Jackson and Simmons,
	(Richardia scabra)			1968
A. mali	Apple (Malus communis)	Necrotic leaf spot	Turkey	Ozgonen and Karaca,
				2005
A. palandui	Onion (Allium cepa)	leaf blight	-	Karthikeyan et al., 2005
A. panax	Sun King (Aralia cordata)	Leaf spot	Japan	Zhang et al., 2009
	Japanese aralia (Fatsia japonica)	Leaf blight	Europe	Garibaldi et al., 2004
	Ginseng (Panax ginseng)	Blight	Australia, Canada,	Woodhall and
			China, Italy, Japan,	Sansford, 2006
			Korea, Netherlands	,
			New Zealand,	
			Spain, United Kinge	dom,
			United States and	
			Venezuela	
	Octopus tree	Leaf spot and blight	Hawaii	Alfieri et al., 1994
	(Schefflera actinophylla)			
	Ginseng (Panax quinquefolius)	Leaf spot and blight	Hawaii	Alfieri et al., 1994
A. passiflorae	Passion-Vine (Passiflora)	Brown- spot	New Zealand	Brien, 1940
A. petroselini	i Fennel (Foeniculum vulgare)	Seedling damping-off	Netherlands	Pryor & Asma, 2007
	Parsley (Petroselinum crispum)	Leaf blight	-	Kirk et al., 2008
	Chinese Hickory (Carya cathayensis)	Leaf Blight	China	Liu et al., 2013
	Fennel (Foeniculum vulgare)	Leaf Blight	Spain	Bassimba et al., 2012
A. porri	Leek (Allium)	Purple blotch	California	Koike & Henderson, 1998
	Chicory (Cichorium endivia L.)	Leaf Spot	Argentina	Sarasola, 1970
	Velvet Bean (Mucuna pruriens)	Leaf Spot	China	Ye et al., 2013
A. radicina	Carrot (Daucus carota)	Black Rot	Michigan	Saude & Hausbeck,
			-	2006
A. raphani	Chinese radish (Raphanus sativus)	Black patches	Canada	Su et al., 2005
A. saponariae	P Soapwort (Saponaria)	Leaf spot	California	Koike et al., 1999
A. selini	Parsley (Petroselinum crispum)	Crown decay	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. sesami	Sesame (Sesamum)	Leaf spot	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. sesamicola	Sesame (Sesamum indicum)	Blight	-	Singh et al., 1980
A. smyrnii	Alexander (Smyrnium olusatrum)	Leaf spot	-	Kirk et al., 2008
A. solani	Potato (Solanum tuberosum)	Early blight	Idaho	Wharton et al., 2012
	Potato (Solanum tuberosum) and	Early blight	-	Kirk et al., 2008
	tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)			

	Potato (Solanum tuberosum)	Early Blight	Idaho	Miles et al., 2013
A. tenuissima	Pigeonpea (Cajanus cajan)	Blight	India	Sharma et al., 2012
	Siberian Ginseng	Leaf spot	China	Gao et al., 2011
	(Eleutherococcus senticosus)			
	Strawberry (Fragaria)	Fruit rot	Korea	Lee et al., 2001
	Broad bean (Vicia faba)	Leaf spot	Japan	Honda et al., 2001
	Blueberry disease	Leaf spot	China	Luan et al., 2007
	(Vaccinium myrtillus)			
	Candytuft (Iberis sempervirens)	Leaf spot	Italy	Garibaldi et al., 2005
	Leopard Plant	Leaf spot	Korea	Lee et al., 2013
	(Farfugium japonicum)			
	Apple (Malus communis)	Postharvest Decay	United States	Kou et al., 2014
	Green Amaranth	Leaf Spot	-	Blodgett et al., 1999
	(Amaranthus hybridus)	-		-
	Potato (Solanum tuberosum)	blight	China	Zheng & Wu, 2013
	Blueberry (Vaccinium corymbosum)	Leaf spot	Western Australia	You et al., 2014
A. tomatophila	Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)	Early blight	Brazil	Rodrigues et al., 2010
A. triticimaculans	Wheat (Triticum aestivum)	Leaf spot	Argentina	Kirk et al., 2008
	Wheat (Triticum aestivum)	Leaf spot	Argentina	Perello et al., 1996
A. yaliinficiens	Ya Li pear (Pyrus)	Leaf spot	U.S	Roberts, 2005
A. zinniae	Zinnia (Zinnia elegans)	Leaf spot	Germany	Pape, 1942
A. zinniae	Marigold (Tagetes patula)	Spot and	-	Chandel and Singh,
		flower blight		2010
<i>A</i> . sp.	Strawberry (Fragaria)	Fruit rot	Taiwan	Ko et al., 2008
	Barberry (Berberis)	Stem spot	Iran	Mairabadi et al., 2005
	Highbush Blueberry	Leaf spot	South Korea	Kwon et al., 2014
	(Vaccinium corymbosum)			
	Apple (Malus communis)	Leaf blotch	Australia	Harteveld et al., 2014
	Tea plant (Camellia)	Leaf spot	Italy	Garibaldi et al., 2007
	Japanese Plum (Prunus)	Leaf spot	Korea	Kim et al., 2005
	Loquat (Eribotraya japonica)	Fruit Rot	Taiwan	Ko et al., 2010
	Hazelnut (Corylus avellana)	Leaf spot	-	Belisario et al., 2004
	and Walnut Fruit (Juglans regi)			

Host selective toxins Disease determinants of *Alternaria* spp.

Alternaria species being most ubiquitous and saprophytic fungi produces toxins (Rotem, 1994). Determination of the exact mode of action of phytotoxic compounds in pathogenesis or virulence is critical and it can be determined by studying virulence and sensitivity of toxins produces by different isolates on host genotypes (Strange, 2007, Meena *et al.*, 2012). Recently, Rotondo *et al.* (2012) compared the *Alternaria* spp. collected in Italy with *A. mali* (Roberts) and other AM-toxin producing strains and suggested that the production of the AMtoxin might be involved in pathogenesis by some of the Italian isolates of *A. alternata*.

Host-selective toxins (HSTs) are mycotoxins which are often essential for both host specificity and pathogenicity, whereas the non-selective toxins (NSTs) are mycotoxins which are important only for virulence. HSTs are produced during germination of spores on plant surfaces (Mausunaka *et al.*, 2005). HSTs are generally low-molecular-weight secondary metabolites but many HSTs like Ptr ToxA and Ptr ToxB by *Pyrenophora tritici-repentis* (Died.) Drechsler, Sn Tox1 and Sn ToxA by *Stagonospora nodorum* (E. Mull.) Hedjar and AB toxin by *A. brassicicola* (Schw.) Wiltsh, are proteinaceous in nature (Wolpert *et al.*, 2002, Friesen *et al.*, 2007, Manning *et al.*, 2009).

Other HSTs are AP- toxin by *Alternaria panax* (Whetzel) (Quayyum *et al.*, 2003), destruxin B & ABR toxin by *A. brassicae* (Berk.) Sacc. Maculosin & AS toxin by *A. alternata* (Fr.) Kressler . Tomato pathotype of *Alternaria alternata* produce two forms of AAL-toxins which are mono-esters of propane-1,2,3 tricarboxylic acid (TA) and 2,4,5,13,14- pentahydroxyheptadecane (TB) (Wang *et al.*, 1996). *Alternaria alternata* pathotypes Japanese pear, Strawberry, tangerine, rough lemon, and apple, respectively, produce AK toxin I and II, AF- toxin I, II and III, ACT- toxin Ib and IIb, ACR toxin , and AM-toxin. Host- specific toxins responsible in causing plant diseases are listed in table 2.

In a study on pathogenic- HST- producing and nonpathogenic- NST- producing A. alternata pathotypes, it was revealed that only the pathogenic pathotypes carried small extra chromosomes (Akamatsu et al., 1999, Thomma, 2003). All the toxins produced by A. alternata pathotypes are similar in structure. Genes associated with the synthesis of AK, AF and AM toxins are clustered together on small chromosomes (Tanaka & Tsuge, 2000, Johanson et al., 2000; 2001, Hatta et al., Many mutants have been included in 2002). studies determining involvement of toxin in disease development. Johanson et al. (2000) cloned and sequenced the cyclic peptide synthetase gene responsible in the synthesis of AM-toxin; this gene has no introns and is 13.1 Kb in length. Mutants obtained by transformation of a wild type toxigenic isolate with disruption vectors were toxin-minus which were unable to cause disease symptoms on susceptible apple cultivars. Recovery of genomic DNA flanking the integration site revealed two genes ak1 & ak2. ak1 encodes a carboxyl activating enzyme, while ak2 encodes a protein of unknown function. Targeted gene disruption showed that both ak1 and ak2 genes were necessary for pathogenicity and toxin production. Homologues of both genes were detected in both tangerine and pear pathotypes, but not in other pathotypes or non-pathogenic isolates.

Several other mycotoxins and phytotoxic metabolites produced by Alternaria species include:, Alternaric acid, alternariol, solanapyrone and zinnolide by A. solani (Ellis & G. Martin) (Anderson et al., 2008), Alternariol monomethyl ether by A. dauci (J.G. Kuhn) (Ostry, 2008), erythroglaucin and anthraquinones by A. porri (Ellis). Ciferri (Ostry, 2008), ATC-toxin by A. tenuissima (Kunze) Wiltshire (Ostry, 2008), and zinnolide and znnimidine by both A. solani (Sorauer) and A. cichorii (Natrass) (Ostry, 2008). Zinnolide and Znnimidine are structurally similar to Zinnole which is the only common metabolite produced by A. porri, A. dauci and A. solani (Horiuchi et al., 2003). Alternaric acid, produced by A. solani, although not phytotoxic when sprayed alone on tomato leaves, but it is the major metabolite responsible for the development of necrotic and chlorotic symptoms. Alterporriols, altersolanols, macrosporin and tentoxin are produced

	les	Toxin	Target site	Chamical stuncture	$D - f_{2,2,2,2,2,2,2,2}$
t f	for long and the second		Turber 2110	Cilelincal su ucture	Kelerences
t f	nata 1.sp. 1ycopersci	AAL-Toxin	Sphingolipid &	Ester of propanetricarboxylic acid	Bottini and Gilchrist,
t t	pe)		ethanolamine	and aminodimethylheptad	1981
f t			metabolism	ecapentol	
t t	uata f.sp. citri	ACT toxin	Plasma membrane	Ester of amino acid	Kohmoto et al., 1993
t t				epoxydecatrienoic acid	
4	<i>uata</i> f.sp. fragariae	AF toxin	Plasma membrane	Ester of amino acid	Nakatsuka <i>et al.</i> , 1986
	otype)			epoxydecatrienoic acid	
Black leal spot Alternaria alterna	Alternaria alternata f.sp. kikuchiana	AK toxin	Plasma membrane	Ester of amino acid	Nakashima <i>et al.</i> , 1985
of Japanese pear (Japanese pear pathotype)	athotype)			epoxydecatrienoic acid	
Brown spot of Alternaria alterne	Alternaria alternata f.sp. citri jambhiri	ACR toxin	Mitochondria	Polyhydroxyalkenyl	Gardner et al., 1985
rough lemon (rough lemon pathotype)	thotype)			I dehydropyrone	
Alternaria blotch Alternaria alternata f.sp. mali	<i>ıata</i> f.sp. mali	AM toxin	Chloroplast and	Cyclic depsipeptide	Okuno <i>et al.</i> , 1974
of apple (apple pathotype)	(*		plasma membrane		
- Alternaria alternata (spotted	<i>nata</i> (spotted	Maculosin	ı	1	Stierle et al., 1988
knapweed pathogen)	gen)				
- Alternaria alternata	nata	AS-toxin	ı		Liakopoulou-
(sunflower pathogen)	igen)				kyriakides <i>et al.</i> , 1997
Black spot of Alternaria brassicae	vicae	Destruxin B	I	cyclidepsipeptide	Bains & Tiwari, 1987
rapeseed					
Black leaf spot Alternaria brassicicola	vicicola	AB-toxin	ı	Protein	Chaube & Pundhir,
of Brassica spp					2005
Brown spot of Alternaria alternata Tobacco	<i>uata</i> Tobacco	AT-toxin	ı	ı	Chaube & Pundhir,
Tobacco pathotype (A. longipes)	mgipes)				2005
- Alternaria brassicae	vicae	ABR-toxin	ı	ı	Parada <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Alternaria panax	X	AP-toxin	ı		Quayyum et al., 2003

in cultures of A. porri and A. solani (Suemitsu et al., 1992). Alternaria alternata produces a number of mycotoxins, including alternariol, alternariol monomethyl ether, altenuene, altertoxins I, II, III, and tenuazonic acid (Ostry, 2008, Zhou & Qiang, 2008). Nine novel compounds closely related to ACTG-toxin, termed as tricycloalter-narenes, were isolated from a strain of A. alternata, from B. sinensis (L.) which was earlier used for the production of the non-specific phytotoxin tentoxin (Nussbaum et al., 1999). Liebermann et al. (2000) also reported isolation of 11 new bicycloalternarenes as well as ACTG-toxins A and B. Alternaria brassicae (Berk.) Sacc. produces cyclic depsipeptide phytotoxin including Homodestuxin B, Destruxin B2 & desmethyldes-truxin B (Ayer & Pena-Rodriguez, 1987, Buchwaldt & Green, 1992, Montemurro & Visconti, 1992, Agarwal et al., 1994, Parada et al., 2008). Alternaria brassicicola produces despeptides and fucicoccin-like toxic compounds and also proteinaceous Brassicillin A (Pedras et al., 2009, Cooke et al., 1997, MacKinnon et al., 1999).

Mode of action of HST's

Understanding the mechanism of action of HSTs provide a better picture of host pathogen interactions and resistance mechanisms. Of the two approaches used to study the mode of action of pathogen, one is the study of host selectivity at the molecular level, and the other at the cellular level. Hypersensitive response (HR) is one of the most effective defense mechanisms developed by plants against their pathogens where several pathogenesis-related proteins (PR) participate and necrosis of the tissue at the site of infection and formation of phytoalexins occur (Agrios, 2005).

At Physiological level

The effect of phytotoxins on plants at the physiological level is characterized by the malfunctioning of many physiological processes including respiration, transpiration, photosynthesis, translocation, growth and development. It is also characterized by the appearance of specific symptoms including wilting, growth suppression, chlorosis, necrosis, and spotting of aerial portions.

Physiological processes

Alternaria HSTs are classified into three groups in terms of primary site of action. AM toxin targets the chloroplast and plasma membrane, ACR (L) toxin targets mitochondria and ACT, ACTG, AK, AF toxins target the plasma membrane (Fig. 1). A. solani infection in potato decreases photosynthesis and increases respiration, in both necrotic and adjacent symptomless tissues (Livescu et al., 1986). In general, respiration increases once parasitic relationships is established. Alternaria pathogens infect green aerial tissues and reduce photosynthetic activity, produce cytokinins which lead to the formation of Green Island below the germinating conidia on senescing tissues, and cause deformation in chloroplast and mitochondria (Chaturvedi, 1972, Agarwal et al., 1994, Zheng et al., 2006). In tobacco, treatment by A. alternata produced metabolites decrease chlorophyll content, soluble protein, photosynthetic O₂ production, catalase activity, and increase in H₂O₂ content in the senescence leaves (Jia et al., 2010). Plasma membrane is a common active site for action of toxins in animal and plant cells. Alternaria macrospora (Zimm.) alters plasma membrane permeability in leaves, and increases leakage of electrolytes, mainly potassium ions (Park & Ikeda, 2008). In Brassica juncea, A. brassicae HST destruxin B inhibits almost all-macromolecular biosynthesis, promotes ion leaching, and causes aberrations in mitochondria and chloroplast. In tomato, Alternaria solani produced alternaric acid induces physiological and morphological modifications of the plasma membrane near plasmodesmata; modification includes localization of free ions in the vicinity of plasma membrane invaginations (Langsdorf et al., 1991).

Specific symptoms

Toxins produced by *A. brassicae* cause brown necrotic spots on leaves and brown streaks on stem leading to yield losses (Aneja & Agnihotri, 2013). *Alternaria raphani* (Groves & Skolko) produces black stripes or dark brown, sharp-edged lesions on the hypocotyls of the seedling (Valkonen & Koponen, 1990) whereas, *A. brassicicola* produces black sooty velvety spots. *Alternaria* infection reduces size of leaves and number of flowers in

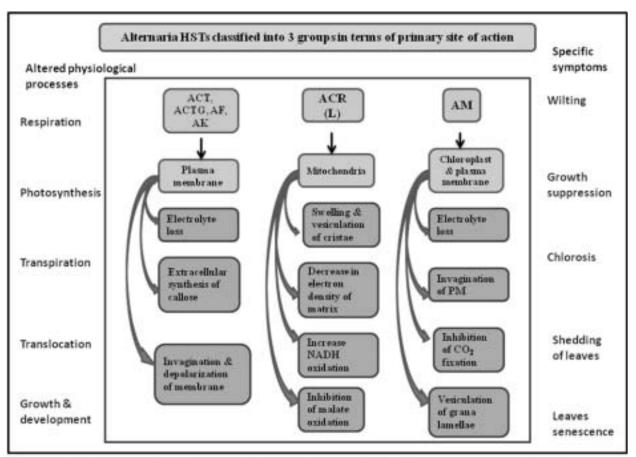


Fig.1. Schematic representation of changes at physiological level by Alternaria spp.

(Source : Park et al., 1976; Akimitsu 1989; Otani et al., 1995; Thomma 2003; Park and Ikeda 2008)

tomato (Coffey *et al.*, 1975), and stimulates shedding of infected leaves (Spross-blickle *et al.*, 1989).

At Biochemical level

Infection of Plants by pathogenic fungi may trigger several biochemical defense responses including enzyme synthesis, cell wall deposition of lignin and suberin, and accumulation of speciûc metabolites (Daayf & Platt, 2000, Abdel-Farid *et al.*, 2009). The mechanisms of host selective pathogenesis are not well understood at the biochemical level, even in cases where the toxin site of action is known.

Enzyme synthesis

The first physical barrier between plants and pathogen invasion is the cuticle (Schweizer *et al.*, 1996, Fan & Koller, 1998, Farah *et al.*, 2005) and cell wall, which inhibit both initiation and spread of infection. One characteristic feature of many

phytopathogenic organisms is their ability to produce an array of extracellular and highly stable enzymes capable of degrading the complex polysaccharides of the plant cell wall and membrane constituents. Inoculation of A. brassicae on the leaves of B. juncea blight resistant cultivar RC-781 decreases the activities of cell wall degrading polygalcturonase and cellulose enzymes, but increases their activities in a sucepticible cultivar Varuna up to 3 days of infection (Garg et al., 1999). Infection of A. brassicicola shows a differential and sequential induction of two classes of cutinolytic esterases. One class is expressed only in short duration contact (24hr) with intact cutin, but not induced by cutin monomer. The second class however, is induced by cutin monomers only in prolonged exposure with intact cutin. This differential behavior indicates a sequential recognition of cutin as a barrier to be penetrated and utilized as a carbon source in

saprophytic stages. (Yao & Koller, 1995, Fan & Koller, 1998, Baker et al., 2005). The small (7-10 KD), lipid transfer proteins (LTPs) are expected to be involved in wax transport because of their increased expression during drought condition (Beisson et al., 2003, Cameron et al., 2006, Jubert et al., 2011). During A. brassicicola infection the ltpg1 (GPI-anchored LTP) knockout mutant showed increased susceptibility (Lee et al., 2009), but the genetically unidentified cutinase- deficient mutants were non pathogenic (Tanabe et al., 1988). Suzuki et al. (2003) observed that during citrus-pathogen A. alternata infection, cutinase release from pegs functions as an aggressiveness factor for penetration into pear tissues (Perez et al., 1991), and triggers a hypersensitive response (HR) in lemon seedlings characterized by phenylalanine ammonia-lyase induction (Roco et al., 1993), scoparone synthesis (Perez et al., 1994a), tissue maceration (Perez et al., 1994b), participation in a signaling pathway including calmodulin, G protein and protein kinases (Ortega & Preze, 2001), and phosphoinositide metabolism (Ortega et al., 2002). It was observed that the expression of hsr203j gene, a known marker for hypersensitive response is more in A. brassicae tolerant cultivar than in susceptible cultivar of B. juncea (Mishra et al., 2011). Chitin is a component of fungal cell walls, which is absent in plants, yet plants produce chitin-degrading enzymes; chitinase produced in plants can directly affect the viability of fungal pathogens (Boller, 1995, Stacey & Shibuya, 1997, Shibuya & Minami, 2001). This is proved by overexpression of chitinase in transgenic plants which are generally more resistant to fungal pathogens. Further, it was observed that more chitinase is produced and accumulate at the site of fungal infection (Majeau et al., 1990, Roby et al., 1990, Wubben et al., 1992). Chikkara et al. (2012) reported that co-expression of chitinase and ribosomal - inactive protein in B. juncea provides more protection against A. brassicae. AAL-toxin, structurally related to sphinganine, a member of sphinganine-analogue mycotoxin (SAMS), is an inhibitor of sphinganine-N-acyltransferase (Gilchrist et al., 1994, Abbas et al., 1994) enzyme important in sphingolipid biosynthesis leading to accumulation of free sphingoid bases (Brandwagt et al., 2000, Spassieva et al., 2002, Gechev & Hille, 2005). These long chain sphingoid bases (LCBs) are determinant in the occurrence of programmed cell death (PCD) in susceptible plants (Shi *et al.*, 2007, de Zélicourt *et al.*, 2009). SAMS inhibit ceramide biosynthesis. Biochemical and molecular data demonstrated that programmed cell death (PCD) triggered by AALtoxin is also associated with H_2O_2 (Gechev *et al.*, 2004) as *atr* mutant of *Arabidopsis* show enhanced tolerance to H_2O_2 and reactive oxygen species (ROS) - induced cell death (Gechev & Hille, 2005, Gechev *et al.*, 2008). Brassinin hydrolases, a detoxifying enzyme (BHAb) of a crucifer phytoalexin brassinin, also plays an important role in development of disease caused by *A. brassicicola* in *Brassica* (Pedras *et al.*, 2009).

Accumulation of specific metabolites

In Japanese pear, although infection by A. alternata, induces general resistance by increasing release of polysaccharides (Hayami et al., 1982), its AK toxins increase susceptibility in cultivar Nijisseiki by suppressing production and release of polysaccharides (Otani et al., 1991, Kodama et al., 1998, Suzuki et al., 2003). In Chinese cabbage, A. brassicae infection signiûcantly increases glucosinolates (aliphatic and indole) and anthocyanins, but decreases sucrose levels (Rosta's et al., 2002, Abdel-Farid et al., 2009). Imazaki et al. (2010) reported that A. alternata pathotypes contain abundant peroxisomes which are very important in both tissue colonization and pathogenesis. Other functions of peroxisomes include fatty acid metabolism, acetyl-CoA generation, secondary metabolism, cell wall biogenesis, and peroxisome homeostasis.

At Molecular level

The interaction between plants and pathogens at molecular level are specific, complex and dynamic. Many responses are evoked in plants upon encountering pathogens, but relatively very few have been studied in detail. Key events in plant-pathogen interaction include perception of pathogen on the plant or cell surface by receptors/sensors, and transduction of these perceptions through various transcription factors and target genes which are involved in coordination of the appropriate responses (Hammond & Jones, 1996). Different types of both plant and pathogen genes have been shown to be involved in plant and necrotrophic fungal interaction. These responses range from genes that encode proteins like receptor/receptor kinase, cell wall degrading enzymes, toxins, and transporter proteins, to those involved in signal transduction cascades such as mitogen activated protein kinases (MAPKs), and various transcription factors like WRKY, NAC (Lawrence et al., 2008, Wang et al., 2009, Amselem et al., 2011). Ghose et al. (2008) also studied the differential profiling of selected defense-related genes induced on challenge by A. brassicicola in resistant white mustard, and their comparative expression pattern in susceptible Indian mustard. These genes have similarity with receptor-likeprotein-kinase genes, genes involved with calciummediated signaling, salicylic acid-dependent genes, and other functional genes in Arabidopsis. Various studies determining the role of receptor/receptorlike-protein in perception of fungal pathogens have been concluded. After the attack, the fungal cell wall is hydrolyzed by an enzyme chitinase, and fragment of cell wall chitin is perceived by a receptor known as chitin elicitor receptor kinase (CERK1) or Lys M receptor-like protein kinase (Lys M RLK1). A mutation in lys m gene blocks the induction of almost all chito-oligosaccharide-responsive genes and leads to increased susceptibility to fungal pathogens indicating that LysM RLK1 is essential for chitin signaling in plants (Wan et al., 2008). Another receptor gene, Phytosulfokine Receptor (PSK-receptor) psk2 and pskr1, also got induced in Arabidosis leaves after A. brassicicola infection, which shows its role in pathogenesis (Loivamaki et al., 2010).

Phytopathogenesis of A. brassicae on B. juncea

Molecular mechanism of Alternaria blight in *Brassica* shows involvement of chlorotic & necrotic toxins as well as of phytohormone. *Alternaria brassicae* produces a chlorotic toxin destruxin B that plays an important role in signal transduction leading to programmed cell death, and suppressing the defense system (Taj *et al.*, 2004). Differential expression of cell cycle proteins in toxin- treated leaves and calli, and overexpression of p53 suggest that the toxin-mediated perturbations in cell cycle

eventually cause p53- induced - programmed cell death (PCD) (Khandelwal et al., 2002). Interestingly, A. brassicae pathotoxin-induced-celldeath pathway was antagonized by a phytohormone zeatin, in cell culture of B. juncea (Pandey et al., 2001). The antagonistic effect of these two structurally different entities strongly suggests the role of interactive- signaling -pathways in pathogenesis of Alternaria blight in Brassica species. Introgression of Osmotin, a known pathogenesis related PR-5 protein causes perturbation in resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses (Taj et al., 2004). The effect of toxin and zeatin treatments on the B. juncea leaf proteome was investigated by using two-dimensional electrophoresis and liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LCMS) techniques; results showed that 20 proteins were uniquely expressed in toxin treated leaf, while 27 proteins were expressed in together with toxin and zeatin. LCMS technique has also been used to identify a total of 15 proteins with differential expression in toxin treated leaves. The proteins identified in response to the toxin are glycosyl hydrolases, subtilisin like proteases, P-nitrophenyl phosphatase, malate dehydrogenase, heat shock, ribulose 1,5 bis phosphate carboxylase, Cucumisinlike serine proteases, Globulin like protein, and adenosine triphosphate (ATP) synthase (Singh et al. unpublished data). Shrama et al. (2007) also studied the proteome -level changes in A. brassicae -B. napus and suggested role of reactive oxygen species (ROS)- mediated- auxin- signaling in the pathosystem.

Mitogen-activated-protein-kinases (MAPK) cascades are also standard players in the signal transaction literature for diverse organisms (Madhani & Fink, 1998, Cobb, 1999). Activation of MAPK confers resistance to both bacterial and fungal pathogens (Sheen *et al.*, 2002). Deciphering the MAP Kinase machinery components in *B. juncea,* reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) amplification of all 20 known MAPK has been done. Amongst the MAP Kinases 8, 12 and 18 showed no expression, expression of MAP Kinase 3, 10 and 14 were validated with the Northern Blot (Singh et al. unpublished data), MAPK 3 important gene directly correlated with the transcription

factors, and expresses in compatible interaction of *A. brassicae* and *B. juncea* (Taj *et al.*, 2011). Expression of MAPKK4, MAPKK5, MAPKK9, MAPKKK1, Wrky 22 and Wrky 29 has also been validated by Real time PCR (Giri *et al.*, unpublished data). Expression analysis of MAP 2K 9 and MAP K 6 is also governed during pathogenesis of Alternaria blight in *A. thaliana*. where simultaneous increased levels up to middle stage of disease progression were observed (Kannan *et al.*, 2011).

Deciphering the resistance mechanism in Basella alba (L.), against A. brassicicola shows the downstream signaling of MAPK-6 which was found to be activated after ethylene treatment (Taj et al., 2010). This might be a significant step as up-regulation of ndr1/hin-1- like gene nhl25, and PR gene reported during Basella alba infection (Varet et al., 2002); these genes were downstream targets of MAPK6 in Arabidopsis which are controlled by Salicylic acid (SA) (Desikan et al., 1999, Ghose et al., 2008). Activation of more than one member of MAPK by Alternaria suggests that MAPK cascades act as points of convergence and divergence in signaling, and might play a pivotal role in deciding whether disease should progress, or defense pathways defeat the pathogen. Transgenic potato plants carrying StMEK1 (MAPKK) also show resistance against A. solani by provoking oxidative burst-mediated plant defense (Yamamizo et al., 2006).

Phytohormones in Alternaria pathogenesis

The involvement of phytohormone dependent pathway is well documented in plant pathogen interaction. Role of Jasmonic acid (JA)- dependentsignaling- pathway of necrotrophic pathogen, and Salicylic acid (SA) –dependent- signaling- pathway of biotrophic pathogen is also well documented. Mutants of JA, and/or Ethylene (ET)- signaling pathways, and JA-insensitive *coi-1* of *A. thaliana* respectively, show increased susceptibility, and resistance against *A. brassicicola* (Thomma *et al.*, 1999, Kachroo *et al.*, 2001, Nandi *et al.*, 2005, Mang *et al.*, 2009). Systemic expression of the JAinducible pdf1.2 gene is also reduced after infection with *A. brassicicola*. This reflects the necessity of JA-mediated responses for expression of this trait (Glazebrook, 1999). In contrast, the SA-insensitive mutant npr-1, and SA-depleted nahG line has no effect on the resistance phenotype (Thomma et al., 1998) indicating no direct involvement of SA as a signaling molecule. In another study, induction of SA signaling marker, PR1, and enhanced biosynthesis of the antifungal compound camalexin upon infection by A. brassicicola in Arabidopsis raises the possibility of cross-talk between these different signaling networks (Doares et al., 1995, Kunkel & Brooks, 2002, Kachroo et al., 2003a, 2003b). Overexpression of ngnpr3 gene in tobacco plant also shows the resistance against A. brassicicola (Zhang et al., 2010). Jasmonic acid also helps in the modulation of MAP Kinase 4 and MAP Kinase 6 during phytopathogenesis of Alternaria blight in A. thaliana.

Furthermore, biosynthesis of antifungal compounds camalexin which plays a role against Alternaria pathogen has been found to be positively controlled by SA and ET. JA regulated lox gene is also known to play role during A. brassicae pathogenesis (Taj et al., 2011). During incompatible interaction of Arabidopsis transgenic plant harboring CaLOX1-OX, lox1 mutant and A. brassicicola, it was discovered lox1 mutant plants are more susceptible than wild type, CaLOX1-OX transgenic, and CaLOX1 plants (Hwang & Hwang, 2010). Transcription of the plant defense genes pdf1.2 and Thi2.1 is enhanced in response to Botrytis cinerea (De Bary) Whetzel and A. brassicicola infection, and is dependent on ET, JA, and Oleic Acid (OA) signals (Epple et al., 1995, Penninckx et al., 1996, Kachroo et al., 2003a, 2003b). Resurrection1 (rst1) mutant plants show more resistance to the necrotrophic fungi Botrytis cinerea and A. brassicicola by suppressing pathogen growth, sporulation, and disease symptoms, which might be due to altered cuticular waxes (Chen et al., 2005), because the amount of cutin monomers, phytoalexin accumulation, and basal expression of the pdf1.2 gene were significantly enhanced in infected leaves (Mang et al., 2009). Unlike rst 1 mutation, other mutations including mpk4, bik1 and wrky33, cause susceptibility to the necrotrophic pathogens A. brassicicola and Botrytis cinerea (Petersen et al., 2000, Wiermer et al., 2005,

Veronese *et al.*, 2006, Zheng *et al.*, 2006, Mang *et al.*, 2009). Constitutive expression of VvWRKY2 in tobacco reduces susceptibility of *A. tenuis* to the seeds of transgenic tobacco (Mzid *et al.*, 2007). DEAD-box RNA helicase also plays role during *Arabidopsis- A. brassicicola* interaction. Transgenic *Arabidopsis* plant that over-expresses the osbirh1 gene (DEAD-box RNA helicase protein) also shows enhanced expression of PR-1, PR-2, PR-5, PDF1.2, and disease resistance against *A. brassicicola* (Li *et al.*, 2008).

At the cellular level, events during the infection by *A. solani* include general defense responses found also in other plant–pathogen interactions involving quantitative resistance. These responses are basically similar to hypersensitive responses in monogenic resistance, but they are expressed more slowly and at a lower level (Agrios, 2005, Chaerani & Voorrips, 2006).

Differential expression of genes in pathogen

During the course of infection, various genes of pathogen are also expressed and play role in fungal pathogenesis. Gene aafus3 which encodes for FUS3MAPK in A. alternata is required for conidial development and penetration of the fungus in plant (Lin et al., 2010). Another study shows that deletion of abpro1 (transcription factor) and abnik1 (two component histidine kinase) gene of A. brassicicola results in 70 % and complete loss of virulence, respectively (Cho et al., 2009). Cyanide hydralase, arsenic ATPase, formate dehydrogenase, are some other genes of A. brassicicola which are being expressed, and have a role in fungal pathogenesis (Cramer & Lawrance, 2004). Recently, one group shows that unfolded protein response (UPR) pathway also regulates the fungal pathogenesis, and abhac a gene encodes the major UPR transcriptional regulator; Loss of UPR in mutants of A. brassicicola resulted in complete loss of virulence (Joubrt et al., 2011).

Future Aspects

The physiological, biochemical and molecular basis for resistance toward *Alternaria* pathogens is still mostly unknown despite recent advancements. There are still many uncovered distinct signaling

pathways, enzymes and key regulatory factors involved in this process. Further studies on plant-Alternaria interaction require uncovering the different mechanisms employed by the pathogen to develop disease, and overpower the plant defense system. No doubt, these studies will promote our understanding of pathogenesis, and may provide clues to manipulate plant defense signaling pathways as resistance against this fungus, is controlled by multiple plant defense pathways, including both constitutive and inducible factors. Our objective in this review was to provide an overview of physiological, biochemical and molecular basis of phytopathogenesis of Alternaria species. Future work should focus on understanding the complete picture of Alternaria spp. complex affecting individual vegetable/ Brassica crops with very hostspecific Alternaria species to elucidate the physiology of the early steps involved in signal recognition. There is also a need to study the relationship between pathogenic and molecular (sequence) variability among Alternaria isolates apart from relation with morphological and cultural data. Based on the sequence data of type culture, host differentials also need to be standardized.

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