Posttranslational modification of the RHO of plants protein RACB by

phosphorylation and cross-kingdom conserved ubiquitination

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Abstract:

Small RHO-type G-proteins act as signaling hubs and master regulators of polarity in

eukaryotic cells. Their activity is tightly controlled, as defective RHO signaling leads to aberrant

growth and developmental defects. Two major pathways regulate G-protein activity: canonical

switching of the nucleotide bound state and posttranslational modification (PTM). PTMs can

support or suppress RHO signaling, depending on each individual case. In plants, regulation

of Rho of plants (ROPs) has been shown to act through nucleotide exchange and hydrolysis,

as well as through lipid modification, but there is little data available on phosphorylation or

ubiquitination of ROPs. Hence, we applied proteomic analyses to identify PTMs of the barley

ROP RACB. We observed *in vitro* phosphorylation by barley ROP Binding Kinase 1 and *in vivo*

ubiquitination of RACB. Comparative analyses of the newly identified RACB phosphosites and

human RHO protein phosphosites revealed conservation of modified amino acid residues, but

no overlap of actual phosphorylation patterns. However, the identified RACB ubiquitination site

is present in all ROPs from *Hordeum vulgare*, *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Oryza sativa*. Since

this highly conserved amino acid residue is likewise ubiquitinated in mammalian Rac1 and

Rac3, we suggest that RHO family proteins from different kingdoms could be generally

regulated by ubiquitination of this site.

Introduction:

Small guanosine triphosphate-binding (G-) proteins are master regulators of developmental

and immunity-related processes. These include membrane transport, nuclear protein

trafficking, reactive oxygen species production and cytoskeleton organization in growth and

immunity (Irani et al., 1997; Lin and Yang, 1997; Jones et al., 2002; Yang, 2008; Ebine et al.,

2011; Akamatsu et al., 2013). In humans (*Homo sapiens*, Hs), they are organized in the rat

sarcoma (RAS) superfamily, comprised of the ARF, RAB, RAN, RAS and RHO families

(Wennerberg et al., 2005), with the latter being further divided into Cdc42-like, Rho-like, RAC-

like, RhoBTB and Rnd subfamilies (Lawson and Ridley, 2018). Plants however possess ARF,

RAB and RAN family proteins, but only one type of small G-proteins from the RAS homologue

(RHO) family, so called Rho of plants (ROPs). Traditionally, they were also called plant RACs

(RAS-related C3 botulinum toxin substrate), due to their slightly higher similarity to metazoan

RACs than RHO proteins. ROPs can be further distinguished based on their C-terminal

hypervariable region and associated lipid modification. Type I ROPs can be reversibly

S-acylated and additionally contain a CaaX-box motif that is a target for constitutive cysteine

prenylation. Type II ROPs lack the CaaX-motif and are apparently constitutively *S*-acylated.

Those cysteine lipid modifications are essential for plasma membrane anchoring and

downstream signaling (Sorek et al., 2011; Yalovsky, 2015). Additionally, RHO proteins are

often called molecular switches, as they cycle between a guanosine diphosphate (GDP)-bound

"OFF" state and guanosine triphosphate (GTP)-bound "ON" state. The nucleotide cycling itself

is tightly controlled by a set of specific proteins: guanosine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs)

facilitate the GDP to GTP exchange, which leads to G-protein activation. In turn, GTPase

activating proteins (GAPs) target GTP-bound G-proteins and stimulate their weak intrinsic GTPase activity to hydrolyse GTP to GDP to turn them "OFF" again (Berken and Wittinghofer, 2008). This nucleotide exchange is accompanied by a conformational shift, which affects interaction with other proteins (Milburn et al., 1990; Berken, 2006). A third class of regulatory proteins, so-called guanine nucleotide dissociation inhibitors (GDIs), target mostly the GDP-bound state and recruit the G-protein to the cytoplasm, blocking it from downstream signaling (Boulter and Garcia-Mata, 2010).

Lipidations are not the only posttranslational modifications (PTM) in RHO proteins. In animals both phosphorylation and ubiquitination are employed to control RHO signaling, thereby enhancing or suppressing G-protein function in a case-dependent manner. The mammalian RHO family member Rac1 for instance is phosphorylated at three amino acids by different kinases: focal adhesion kinase (FAK) and proto-oncogene tyrosine-protein kinase Src (cellular sarcoma) phosphorylate Rac1 *in vitro* at Y64 (Chang et al., 2011). Phosphomimetic Rac1-Y64D mutants showed decreased GTP-binding and association with downstream signaling proteins, and cells expressing Rac1-Y64D displayed defects in focal adhesion targeting and cell spreading. Extracellular signal-related kinase (ERK) phosphorylates Rac1 at T108, targeting it to the nucleus before prenylation and hence isolating it from activation by cytosolic GEFs (Tong et al., 2013). Phosphorylation of Rac1 by the AGC kinase AKT (RAC-alpha serine/threonine-protein kinase 1) at S71 has been shown to be essential for targeting by an F-box/Leucine-rich repeat (FBXL) protein (Kwon et al., 2000; Zhao et al., 2013). F-box proteins are part of SKP1-CUL1-F-box (SCF) E3 ubiquitin ligase complexes which mediate ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation of selected proteins (Hua and Vierstra, 2011). SCF[FBXL19] targets S71-phosphorylated Rac1, which leads to ubiquitination of Rac1 K166 (Zhao et al., 2013). This depletes Rac1 from cells, which inhibits its function in cell spreading. Another Rac1 ubiquitination site is K147, which is targeted by HECT domain and ankyrin repeat containing E3 ubiquitin protein ligase 1 (HACE1) and two inhibitor of apoptosis proteins (IAPs). While HACE1 mainly targeted GTP-bound Rac1, both XIAP and c-IAP1 did not show any preference for a particular nucleotide-bound state. In all cases, ubiquitination of K147 leads to

proteasomal degradation of Rac1, abolishing its function in cell migration (Torrino et al., 2011;

Oberoi et al., 2012; Castillo-Lluva et al., 2013). For mammalian RhoA, four phosphorylation

sites and three ubiquitination sites have been identified. Phosphorylation of S26 by mammalian

Sterile20-related kinase 3 (Mst3) leads to increased intrinsic GTPase activity of RhoA and

associated depolymerization of F-actin, which is necessary for proper neuron positioning in the

developing mouse brain (Tang et al., 2014). ERK phosphorylates RhoA at S88 and T100,

enhancing GTP-binding and actin stress fiber formation in mammalian cell lines (Tong et al.,

2016). In contrast, protein kinase A (PKA)-mediated phosphorylation of S188 results in eviction

of RhoA from the plasma membrane with the help of RhoGDI, impeding RhoA function and

protecting it from ubiquitin-mediated degradation (Lang et al., 1996; Forget et al., 2002;

Ellerbroek et al., 2003; Rolli-Derkinderen et al., 2005). Ubiquitination of RhoA has also been

demonstrated, with K6 and K7 being targets of Smad ubiquitylation regulatory factor 1

(Smurf1), while K135 is ubiquitinated by SCF^{FBXL19}. These modifications resulted in a loss of

tight junctions in epithelial cells and suppressed RhoA-mediated cytoskeleton organization and

cell proliferation, respectively (Ozdamar et al., 2005; Wei et al., 2013) (for an overview of Rac1

and RhoA PTMs, see Supplemental Figure 1).

Compared to the mammalian field, knowledge about phosphorylation and ubiquitination in

ROPs is limited. To date, phosphorylation of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (At) ROP4 and ROP6 by

ROP BINDING PROTEIN KINASE 1 (RBK1), a receptor-like cytoplasmic kinase (RLCK) of

class VI_A, has been shown. RBK1 interacts with Mitogen-activated protein kinase 1 (MPK1)

of an auxin-responsive MPK cascade, indicating that regulation of ROP4 and ROP6 via

phosphorylation might be important for auxin-dependent cell expansion (Enders et al., 2017).

Furthermore, type II AtROP10 and AtROP11 are phosphorylated at S138, but no functional

studies about these phosphosites have been conducted yet (Mergner et al., 2020). Introduction

of a phosphomimetic S-to-E mutation of the broadly conserved S74 in AtROP4 and *Medicago*

sativa MsROP6 has been investigated. The S74E mutation did not alter GTPase activity, but

blocked interaction with an upstream activating ROPGEF, weakened binding to a downstream

signaling kinase and showed lesser *in vitro* kinase activation (Fodor-Dunai et al., 2011).

However, evidence for *in vivo* phosphorylation of type I ROPs is lacking.

In barley (*Hordeum vulgare, Hv*), ROPs have been investigated in the interaction between

barley and the powdery mildew fungus *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *hordei* (*Bgh*). There, it was

shown that most barley ROPs are supporting the penetration success of *Bgh* (Schultheiss et

al., 2002; Schultheiss et al., 2003; Pathuri et al., 2008; Hoefle et al., 2011). Among these

ROPs, RACB is the best characterized ROP family member. Under physiological conditions,

it is required for root hair outgrowth and stomatal subsidiary cell formation. RACB and its

interacting proteins further steer cytoskeleton organization (Opalski et al., 2005; Pathuri et al.,

2008; Pathuri et al., 2009; Scheler et al., 2016). During *Bgh* attack, however, it was shown that

RNA-interference (RNAi)-mediated knockdown of RACB decreased the penetration success

of the fungus into barley epidermal cells, whereas overexpression of constitutively activated

RACB (CA, RACB-G15V) promoted susceptibility (Schultheiss et al., 2002; Schultheiss et al.,

2003; Pathuri et al., 2008; Hoefle et al., 2011). In contrast, transient overexpression of neither

wildtype (WT) nor dominant negative RACB (DN, RACB-T20N) increased barley susceptibility,

indicating that the GTP-bound, active form of RACB supports fungal invasion into intact barley

cells.

Since RHO family proteins interact with several downstream effectors in order to perform their

function in signaling, interaction partners of RACB were investigated with regard to barley

susceptibility to *Bgh*. It was shown that two classes of scaffolding proteins, ROP-interactive

partners (RIPs) and ROP-interactive and CRIB-domain containing proteins (RICs), associate

with CA-RACB at the plasma membrane and enhance penetration success of *Bgh* into barley

epidermal cells when overexpressed (Schultheiss et al., 2008; Engelhardt et al., 2019;

McCollum et al., 2019). In contrast, two other RACB protein-protein interaction partners

support resistance to fungal penetration. MICROTUBULE-ASSOCIATED GTPASE

ACTIVATING PROTEIN 1 (MAGAP1) enhances resistance towards *Bgh* and likely regulates

RACB by supporting GTP hydrolysis (Hoefle et al., 2011). Barley RBK1 interacts with

CA-RACB in yeast and *in planta*, and CA-RACB increases RBK1 kinase activity *in vitro*. RBK1

may be a RACB effector kinase, since co-expression of CA-RACB and RBK1 results in

co-localization of both proteins at the plant plasma membrane via recruitment of the otherwise

cytosolic RBK1. However, opposite to the effect for RACB, transient knockdown of RBK1

results in increased disease susceptibility and reduced microtubule stability (Huesmann et al.,

2012). Another protein-protein interaction partner of RBK1, S-PHASE KINASE 1-

ASSOCIATED PROTEIN-LIKE (SKP1L), is also involved in resistance towards *Bgh* (Reiner et

al., 2016). SKP1L may be a subunit of an SCF E3 ubiquitin ligase complex, which targets

specific proteins for polyubiquitination and proteasomal degradation (Hua and Vierstra, 2011).

In line with this predicted function, it was demonstrated that RBK1, SKP1L and the 26S

proteasome negatively influence protein abundance of CA-RACB, presumably acting in a

negative feedback-loop towards the ROP (Reiner et al., 2016).

In this study, we confirm that kinase activity of RBK1 is strongly enhanced in the presence of

CA-RACB. This results in phosphorylation of both RBK1 and CA-RACB *in vitro*. Phosphosite

mapping revealed novel phosphorylated residues in RACB that were not previously described

to be modified in other RHO family proteins. We further found that CA-RACB shows an

ubiquitination-typical appearance of high molecular weight derivatives after proteasome

inhibition. Mass spectrometry revealed that CA-RACB is ubiquitinated in barley at K167, a

residue which is conserved in mammalian Rac1, Rac3 and all other ROPs of barley, rice and

Arabidopsis.

Results

CA-RACB is phosphorylated by RBK1 *in vitro*

In a previous study, we showed that constitutively activated (CA-) RACB interacts with RBK1

in vivo and enhances its kinase activity *in vitro* (Huesmann et al., 2012). To test, if RACB is

phosphorylated during this protein-protein interaction, we carried out an *in vitro* radiolabeling

kinase assay with recombinant His-tagged RBK1 and CA-RACB (see Fig. 1A). For His-tagged

Medicago sativa MsROP6, Dorjgotov et al. (2009) showed that RBK1-like RLCK VI_A kinases

phosphorylate the His-tag and linker, but not the ROP protein itself *in vitro*. We hence designed

the cloning strategy in a way that avoids creation of potential artificial phosphorylation sites,

which could otherwise be formed. Since RBK1 shows some constitutive kinase activity *in vitro*

(Huesmann et al., 2012), we used low RBK1 protein amounts in this assay. RBK1 alone

displayed only weak autophosphorylation activity under these conditions. In the presence of

CA-RACB, we then observed strong phosphorylation of both CA-RACB and RBK1. No

phosphorylation could be detected after incubation with a RBK1 kinase-dead mutant (KD,

K245D, also see Fig. 1B for RBK1 protein stability) or in a water-control reaction.

To identify phosphosites in RACB, we conducted the *in vitro* kinase assay using unlabeled

ATP and detected *in vitro* phosphosites of CA-RACB via mass spectrometry (see Fig. 2A).

This revealed high confidence CA-RACB peptides with phosphorylated residues at positions

S97, T139, S159, S160 and T162. Since in the case of the neighboring serines S159 and S160

the localization of the phospho-modification could not be specifically assigned within the

peptide sequence (see Supplemental Table 1), both residues were treated as possible but

alternative phosphosites. Using computational modelling of the RACB protein structure based

on the protein models of GDP-bound AtROP4 and GTP-analog-bound HsRAC1, we suggest

that S97, T139 and T162 are surface-exposed in RACB, whereas this is less clear for S159

and S160 (see Fig. 2B).

Figure 1: *In vitro* co-incubation of RACB and RBK1 results in phosphorylation of both proteins.

A: Low amounts of His-tagged RBK1 alone show weak autophosphorylation *in vitro*. Kinase activity is enhanced by the presence of constitutively activated His-tagged CA-RACB, resulting in extensive phosphorylation of both proteins. Upper panel = protein loading control. Lower panel = autoradiogram showing ^{32}P-labelled, phosphorylated proteins. WT = wildtype RBK1; KD = kinase-dead RBK1 loss-of-function mutant (K245D); H_2O = no kinase control. Estimations of molecular weight are depicted in kilo Dalton (kDa) on the left.

B: Western blot showing stability of both WT and KD His-RBK1.

We also tried to map *in vivo* phosphorylation sites for RACB. To this end, we made use of transgenic barley lines overexpressing HA-tagged full-length CA-RACB, a cytosolic

non prenylated CA-RACB-ΔCSIL mutant (Schultheiss et al., 2003) or the HA-tag alone.

Initially, we generated 47 transgenic plants for HA-CA-RACB, 37 plants for HA-RACB-ΔCSIL

and 40 plants for HA alone. We propagated these lines and selected the offspring using PCR,

resistance against hygromycin and Western blotting (not shown). Thereby, we could see that

all positive plants expressed the expected HA-tagged proteins, except for the free HA-tag,

which could not be detected on a Western blot, most likely because the peptide is too small

(see Fig. 3A). We further analyzed three transgenic plants of one line per construct with regard

to susceptibility towards powdery mildew. Upon infection with *Bgh*, plants overexpressing full-

length CA-RACB displayed increased disease susceptibility compared to the free HA-control,

whereas the CA-RACB-ΔCSIL mutants did not show an altered disease phenotype (see Fig.

3B).

From the transgenic HA-CA-RACB overexpressing plants, we initially isolated protoplasts and

treated them with the proteasome inhibitor MG132 before protein extraction. We enriched

HA-tagged CA-RACB using immunoprecipitation, digested proteins with trypsin and selected

for phosphorylated peptides using Immobilized Metal Affinity Chromatography (IMAC).

Peptides and posttranslational modifications were identified via mass spectrometry, but did not

indicate CA-RACB phosphosites (not shown). In the following experiment, we co-expressed

RBK1 in transgenic protoplasts before MG132 treatment, and selectively skipped

immunoprecipitation or IMAC (see Supplemental Figure 2A). However, we were repeatedly

unsuccessful in identifying *in vivo* phosphopeptides of RACB (see Supplemental Table 2). In

a third approach, we tried to map RACB phosphorylation after transient co-expression of RBK1

and proteasome inhibition by MG132 in transgenic HA-CA-RACB overexpressing barley

protoplasts. From this, we extracted proteins, performed a tryptic digest and enriched

phosphopeptides via IMAC. These samples were subsequently decomplexed by high pH

reversed-phase fractionation to increase the discovery rate of peptides during mass

spectrometry. This identified more than 5,000 phosphopeptides from diverse barley proteins,

including ROP signaling components such as three different barley ROPGAPs, thus providing

a resource for the barley research community. Because our experimental design included *in*

vivo expression of combined or single GFP-tagged RBK1 and HA-CA-RACB (Supplemental

Figure 2B), some of the mapped barley phosphosites might be CA-RACB- and/or RBK1-

dependent (see Supplemental Table 3). Therefore, this needs further analysis. Despite the

high amount of identified phosphopeptides, no *in vivo* phosphopeptides of CA-RACB were

recovered.

Figure 2: Surface-exposure of CA-RACB *in vitro* phosphosites.

A: Phosphorylation sites of CA-RACB are shown in blue, predicted surface-exposed residues

are additionally highlighted in yellow. *In vitro* phosphorylation sites of RACB were identified by

mass spectrometry after *in vitro* co-incubation of CA-RACB and RBK1.

B: Upper panel: the model of GDP-bound WT RACB (amino acids 1-178 from 197 total) was

built with GDP-bound AtROP4 as template (PDB entry: 2NTY.1 (Thomas et al., 2007)). Lower

panel: GTP-bound WT RACB (amino acids 7-178 from 197 total) was modelled using HsRAC1

associated with GNP (phosphoaminophosphonic acid-guanylate ester, a non-hydrolysable

GTP-analog) as template (PDB entry: 3TH5.1 (Krauthammer et al., 2012)). Phosphorylated

surface-exposed residues are shown in red, GDP as ligand in blue. Only S97, T139 and T162

are surface-exposed, S159 (pink) and S160 (blue) are not clearly exposed to the surface.

Putative RACB folds were assembled by homology-modelling using SWISS-MODEL

(Waterhouse et al., 2018). Surface structure (front, back and top view) and cartoon (front view)

illustrations were modelled in PyMOL (Schrodinger, 2015).

Although we primarily aimed at identifying phosphopeptides of RACB, our datasets were

equally suitable for mapping phosphosites in RBK1 (see Fig. 4). In the *in vitro* kinase assay,

we found RBK1 to be phosphorylated at positions S26, S30, S98, S100, S107, T110, S155,

T170 and S436. In the two experiments involving *in vivo* co-overexpression of CA-RACB and

RBK1 (see Supplemental Figure 2A and Figure 4B), we found RBK1 phosphosites at positions

S26, S30, S160, T170, S189, S197, S518, T521 and S26, S30, S100, S107, S113, S114,

S216, T525, respectively. Overlapping sites from *in vitro* and at least one *in vivo* experiment

are therefore S26, S30, S100, S107 and T170.

Figure 3: Transgenic barley plants overexpressing HA-tagged CA-RACB show increased *Bgh* susceptibility.

A: Both HA-tagged full-length CA-RACB and CA-RACB-ΔCSIL are stably expressed in transgenic barley.

B: Transgenic plants expressing full-length HA-tagged CA-RACB are more susceptible towards penetration by *Bgh*, while plants expressing the truncated CA-RACB-ΔCSIL mutant show the same level of susceptibility as the HA-control. For each construct, three plants of one transgenic line were tested. Each datapoint corresponds to one plant. Statistical significances were determined using a One-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD.

Figure 4: Comparison between *in vitro* and *in vivo* RBK1 phosphosites.

A: Barley RBK1 sequence with marked *in vitro* (blue) and *in vivo* (red) phosphosites. Residues phosphorylated under both conditions are shown in half circles of blue and red. *In vitro* phosphorylated amino acids were identified in an *in vitro* kinase assay, in which His-tagged RBK1 and His-tagged CA-RACB were co-incubated. *In vivo* phosphosites were found in transgenic HA-CA-RACB overexpressing protoplasts in the presence of transiently co-expressed GFP-tagged RBK1 and the proteasome-inhibitor MG132. Phosphopeptides were enriched from total protein extracts of protoplast lysates using IMAC (experiment 1) and additionally decomplexed by high pH reversed-phase fractionation (experiment 2). All *in vitro* and *in vivo* phosphosites were identified by mass spectrometry.

B: List of RBK1 phosphosites from all *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments.

CA-RACB is ubiquitinated *in vivo*

Previously, we found that the protein abundance of CA-RACB is negatively influenced by RBK1, SKP1L and the proteasome (Reiner et al., 2016). For this reason, we investigated if we could detect ubiquitination of CA-RACB *in vivo*. We used MG132 for proteasome inhibition in primary leaves of transgenic barley overexpressing HA-tagged CA-RACB. This led to detection of HA-CA-RACB and higher molecular weight derivatives on Western blots after αHA-immunoprecipitation and detection via anti-HA antibodies (see Fig. 5A). As this laddering is a potential indicator for ubiquitination of a target protein (Gohre et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2011), we attempted to map the residue(s) at which RACB might be ubiquitinated. We first conducted a global mass spectrometry analysis, in which we specifically looked for branched amino acid sequences as derived from ubiquitinated lysine residues after tryptic digest (see Supplemental Figure 2C). Interestingly, we found the peptide containing RACB K167 carrying a mass shift equal to 2 glycine molecules (see Fig. 5B). This mass shift indicates that K167 is indeed ubiquitinated, as two glycine residues typically remain at ubiquitinated lysine residues (glyglycylation), whereas the rest of the ubiquitin moiety is cleaved by trypsin during sample digestion (Peng et al., 2003). Evidence for RACB ubiquitination was subsequently substantiated in a targeted parallel reaction monitoring (PRM) approach. Comparison with other ROPs from barley, rice and Arabidopsis showed that RACB K167 is a highly conserved residue in ROPs (see Fig. 6 and Supplemental Figure 3).

Figure 5: Constitutively activated RACB is ubiquitinated *in vivo*.

A: HA-tagged CA-RACB and higher molecular weight bands were detected in an αHA-Western blot after MG132 treatment and αHA-immunoprecipitation from whole barley leaves stably expressing 3xHA or 3xHA-CA-RACB (see Fig. S2B).

B: Ubiquitination of CA-RACB at K167 was identified by mass spectrometry in a workflow described in Fig. S2B. The left graph shows spectra of the recovered ubiquitinated peptide, while the right graph shows the corresponding unmodified peptide. The black box illustrates one example: fragment "y9" was recovered with two different masses. The difference corresponds to that of 2 glycines, which is typical after a tryptic digest of ubiquitinated proteins (Peng et al., 2003). Example: $y9_{modified}$ (1062.59 m/z) – $y9_{unmodified}$ (948.55 m/z) = 114.04 m/z = 2 * glycine (57.02 m/z).

Figure 6: Alignment of type I ROPs from barley (*Hordeum vulgare*, *Hv*), rice (*Oryza sativa*, *Os*) and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (*At*).

The ubiquitinated residue from CA-RACB (K167, green) is conserved across all type I ROPs from the three species (shaded box). *In vitro* phosphosites of RACB (blue) are conserved among some type I ROPs (shaded box). Surface-exposed phosphosites are additionally highlighted in yellow.

Discussion

Small RHO family proteins are signaling hubs and master regulators of cell polarity. Their function is tightly regulated, for instance by PTMs. Lipid modifications, phosphorylation and ubiquitination have been well described in the recent years, which can have an activity-enhancing or suppressing influence on the RHO protein, depending on each individual case. Other PTMs, such as glycosylation and adenylylation have been described, but they are

predominantly employed by pathogens which target RHO family proteins via virulence

effectors (Worby et al., 2009; Jank et al., 2013).

In plants, ROP regulation by GEFs and GAPs has been shown (Wu et al., 2000; Berken et al.,

2005; Klahre and Kost, 2006; Hoefle et al., 2011; Akamatsu et al., 2013), but there is little data

available on posttranslational regulation of ROPs beyond prenylation and *S*-acylation. In this

study, we show *in vitro* phosphorylation and *in vivo* ubiquitination of the barley ROP RACB.

S97, T139 and T162 *in vitro* phosphosites are predicted to be surface-exposed and therefore

could be also targets for RBK1-dependent phosphorylation of RACB *in vivo* (see Fig. 2). This

is less clear for S159 and S160. Nevertheless, one can speculate that they could become

accessible *in vivo* after other posttranslational modification of RACB, which cause a

conformational shift in the RACB structure. It would be furthermore possible that

phosphorylation of S159/S160 interferes with RACB signaling, since these residues are in

direct proximity of the putative *S*-acylation site C158 and the nucleotide binding pocket (see

Fig. 2 and Supplemental Figure 1; Sorek et al. (2010); Sorek et al. (2017)). However, this

remains hypothetical, as we did not find evidence for *in vivo* phosphorylation of these amino

acids. All five phosphorylated residues are partially conserved in other type I and type II ROPs,

indicating that these sites might be common targets for phosphorylation of RBK1-like RLCK

VI_A kinases in plants. The only known *in vivo* ROP phosphosite, S138 from AtROP10 and

AtROP11 (see Supplemental Figure 3; Mergner et al. (2020)), is not conserved in RACB, which

indicates that this might be a type II ROP-specific modification site. In any case, introducing

point mutations at these sites could help answering, which role they play in regulating ROP

function.

Comparison of RACB phosphosites with those of mammalian Rac1 and RhoA revealed that

there is no overlap between mapped animal and plant phosphosites, although several modified

residues are conserved across kingdoms (see Supplemental Figure 1). Thus, it is well possible

that RACB is also phosphorylated at Y67, S74 and S89 by other kinases, but in our *in vitro*

and *in vivo* approaches we did not identify modification of these residues. Still, conservation of

these amino acids suggests that RACB could be regulated in a similar fashion as mammalian

RHO family proteins. Interestingly, phosphorylation of these residues in mammalian RHO

proteins directly and indirectly regulates actin cytoskeleton dynamics (Chang et al., 2011; Zhao

et al., 2013; Tong et al., 2016), a process also influenced by RACB in barley (Opalski et al.,

2005). Therefore, it remains conceivable that phosphorylation of these conserved sites may

be important for ROP regulation during plant cytoskeleton rearrangement.

Using transgenic CA-RACB overexpressing plants, we were able to evidence RACB and

higher molecular weight derivatives on a Western blot after proteasome inhibition, which was

not observed in the absence of the proteasome inhibitor (compare Fig. 3 and Fig. 5). Since

these higher molecular weight derivatives strongly resembled a typical ubiquitination pattern

as described for e.g. the plant pattern-recognition receptor flagellin sensing 2 (FLS2) (Gohre

et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2011), we excised these bands and investigated RACB ubiquitination via

mass spectrometry. This way, we identified RACB K167 as an ubiquitin acceptor site, which is

fully conserved across all ROPs of barley, rice and Arabidopsis (see Fig. 6 and Supplemental

Figure 3). The respective residue is also ubiquitinated in mammalian Rac1 and Rac3 by the

SCF[FBXL19]-complex, which leads to proteasomal degradation of both proteins (Zhao et al.,

2013; Dong et al., 2014). It remains to be elucidated, if comparable regulatory mechanisms

are conserved between RHO family proteins across kingdoms.

Two other ubiquitination sites present in mammalian RHO proteins are conserved in RACB

(see Supplemental Figure 1): K8 and K148. Similar to phosphorylation, ubiquitination of the

corresponding sites in RhoA and Rac1 also influences actin cytoskeleton dynamics and

associated cellular processes, such as cell motility (Wang et al., 2003; Ozdamar et al., 2005;

Torrino et al., 2011; Oberoi et al., 2012; Castillo-Lluva et al., 2013). Cross-kingdom

conservation of these sites raises the possibility that they might also be important for the

regulation of RACB signaling, but it is not yet known under which conditions these

modifications might occur.

We previously hypothesized that RACB is regulated similarly to mammalian Rac1.

Phosphorylation of Rac1 S71 by AKT leads to SCF^{FBXL19}-mediated ubiquitination at Rac1 K166

and subsequent proteasomal degradation, which blocks Rac1 from signaling (Kwon et al.,

2000; Chang et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2013). In plants, activated RACB would be

phosphorylated by RBK1 and then targeted for ubiquitination and degradation by an

SCF-complex containing SKP1L (Huesmann et al., 2012; Reiner et al., 2016). While we did

find ubiquitination at RACB K167 (which corresponds to Rac1 K166, see Supplemental

Figure 1), we did not identify RACB S74 as a phosphorylation site. One potential reason for

this might be that RBK1 belongs to RLCK class VI_A (Jurca et al., 2008; Huesmann et al.,

2012; Reiner et al., 2015), while AKT belongs to the AGC kinases (Rademacher and Offringa,

2012). Interestingly, ROPs and AGCs also work together in polar cell development: one

AGCVIII kinase, D6PK, binds to specific membrane lipids and cooperates with

AtROP2/AtROP6 to form root hairs (Stanislas et al., 2015). Thus far, phosphorylation of ROPs

during interaction with AGC kinases has not been described. Hence, it is possible that AGC

kinases phosphorylate ROPs, with S74 being one of the potential targets. It could also be that

RACB S74 is not the target for a barley SKP1L-containing SCF-complex as hypothesized

above. One of the *in vitro* phosphosites in RACB could be alternatively recognized and fulfill

this role instead.

In Arabidopsis and barley, ROPs and RBK1 or related RLCK VI_A-class kinases seem to have

partially opposing biological functions. In previous studies, we have shown that HvRBK1 had

the opposite disease phenotype of RACB and negatively regulated its protein stability

(Huesmann et al., 2012; Reiner et al., 2016). In Arabidopsis, the ROP-activated RBK1-

homolog RLCK VI_A3 is also involved in pathogen resistance rather than susceptibility (Reiner

et al., 2015). In Arabidopsis, an auxin-responsive MPK-cascade was associated with AtRBK1

(RLCK VI_A4) and ROP signaling. Enders and co-workers could show that *mitogen-activated*

protein kinase kinase kinase 3 (*mkk3), mpk1* and *rbk1* knock-out plants displayed

hypersensitivity towards auxin, while *atrop4* and *atrop6* mutants were defective in auxin

sensing. Furthermore, they demonstrated that AtROP4 and AtROP6 might be direct

phosphorylation targets of AtRBK1 and hypothesized that AtRBK1-mediated phosphorylation

negatively influences the activity of both ROPs (Enders et al., 2017). However, this remains to

be fully shown, since phosphorylation of His-tagged AtROP4 and AtROP6 was investigated *in*

vitro and no phosphosites were mapped in this study. Nevertheless, this suggests a general

mechanism, in which ROPs are negatively regulated by phosphorylation through RLCK VI_A

members in distinct signaling branches.

Our data further support that posttranslational lipidation may be important for the signaling

ability of RACB. Only full-length CA-RACB increased barley susceptibility towards *Bgh*, while

the truncated CA-RACB-ΔCSIL mutant did not (see Fig. 3B). We have shown before that

removal of the CaaX-box prenylation motif from RACB results in a shift of CA-RACB's

subcellular localization from the plasma membrane to the cytosol and to loss of function in

susceptibility (Schultheiss et al., 2003). Importance of the CaaX-box prenylation motif CSIL for

RACB function is now confirmed here with stable transgenic plants. We have also reported

that the interaction of RACB with its downstream effectors mostly takes place at the plant

plasma membrane (Schultheiss et al., 2008; Hoefle et al., 2011; McCollum et al., 2019). It

would be interesting to see, if barley ROP effectors can still interact with CA-RACB-ΔCSIL *in*

planta and localize to the plasma membrane in presence of excessive amounts of cytosolic

CA-RACB-ΔCSIL. This could provide another piece of evidence that ROPs need to be plasma

membrane-localized to perform their function in signaling and to bind to downstream

interactors, as it has been described before (Sorek et al., 2011; Yalovsky, 2015).

Conclusion:

Regulation of RHO family proteins by PTMs has long been established in the animal research

field. In plants, however, we are only at the beginning of discovering these regulatory

mechanisms of PTMs in ROP signaling. Here, we present the first piece of data on *in vivo*

ubiquitination of one ROP from barley. The identified ubiquitination site is conserved in all

ROPs from barley, rice and Arabidopsis, and has been described before for mammalian

RACB-homologs. This suggests that the lysine residue corresponding to RACB K167 might be

a general target for ubiquitination across kingdoms. However, it remains to be elucidated, if

the function of this modification is also conserved in plants.

Experimental procedures:

Heterologous protein expression, purification, and kinase activity measurements

A cDNA clone of CA-*RACB* ((Schultheiss et al., 2003), NCBI GenBank identifier for wildtype

RACB: CAC83043.2) was cloned into the bacterial expression vector pET26b out of frame of

the N-terminal pelB, but in frame with a C-terminal 6xHIS (Novagen, Merck KGaA, Darmstadt,

Germany). This way, no potential artificial phosphorylation site was included (Dorjgotov et al.,

2009). The barley protein *RBK1* (NCBI GenBank identifier: HE611049.1) was cloned into the

pET28a vector in frame with an N-terminal 6xHIS. Cloning was achieved by restriction-ligation

after PCR amplification of the cDNA inserts using *Eco*RI and *Xho*I flanking restriction sites on

the C- and N-terminal sequence-specific primers. CA-*RACB* was amplified using

RACBCA-EcoRI-F + RACBCA-XhoI-R primers, while both wildtype and kinase-dead *RBK1*

were amplified with RBK1-F + RBK1-R primers. The kinase dead (KD, K245D) mutant of *RBK1*

was constructed by PCR-mediated site-directed mutagenesis using primers RBK1KD-mut-F +

RBK1KD-mut-R. After PCR, the parental DNA was digested with *Dpn*I and the whole reaction

was transformed into *E. coli* DH5α cells. Following transformation, plasmids were extracted

using a routine Miniprep protocol and checked for mutation by sequencing. All primers can be

found in Supplemental Table 3.

Proteins were purified using HisSelect Sepharose beads (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) and

the *in vitro* kinase reactions were carried out as described earlier (Huesmann et al., 2012;

Reiner et al., 2016). Two parallel reactions, one with and one without radioactive γ-^{32}P-ATP

were performed with both WT and KD RBK1, using the same amount of RACB-6xHIS as

substrate. The amount of the proteins in the reactions was app. 150 pmol of RACB-6xHIS with

4 pmol of 6xHis-RBK1-WT or 12 pmol 6xHis-RBK1-KD. The radioactive reaction for

autoradiography contained 10 µM of cold ATP and 0.2 MBq γ-^{32}P-ATP, while 100 µM ATP

were included in the non-radioactive reaction destined for mass spectrometry analysis. The

reactions were terminated after 2.5 h and proteins were separated on 12% SDS-

polyacrylamide gels that were stained by Coomassie Brilliant Blue using standard methods.

Radioactive gels were dried and exposed to x-ray films. From the non-radioactive gel, the band

containing RACB-6xHIS was cut out and sent for phosphosite mapping.

To show stability of both WT and KD 6xHis-RBK1, a Western blot was performed according to

standard procedures. His-tagged proteins were detected with an anti-polyHistidine−peroxidase

antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, A7058).

Bioinformatical analysis

The putative RACB protein fold was built by homology-modelling using SWISS-MODEL

(Waterhouse et al., 2018) with AtROP4 (PDB entry: 2NTY.1) as template. The final RACB

model contained amino acids 1-178 (from 197 total amino acids). PyMOL V2.3.5 (Schrodinger,

2015) was used to generate protein surface structure and cartoon illustrations.

All protein sequence alignments were done in Jalview V2.11.0 (Waterhouse et al., 2009) with

the MAFFT algorithm running at default settings (Katoh and Toh, 2010). NCBI GenBank

identifiers for all aligned proteins are:

HvRACB: CAC83043.2; HvRACD: CAD27895.1; HvRAC1: CAD57743.1; HvRAC3:

BAJ98596.1; HvROP4: CAD27896.1; HvROP6: CAD27894.1; OsRAC1: XP_015621645.1;

OsRAC2: XP_015638759.1; OsRAC3: XP_015625155.1; OsRAC4: XP_015641323.1;

OsRAC5: XP_015627011.1; OsRAC6: XP_015625732.1; OsRAC7: XP_015627590.1;

AtROP1: NP_190698.1; AtROP2: NP_173437.1; AtROP3: NP_001077910.1; AtROP4:

NP_177712.1; AtROP5: NP_195320.1; AtROP6: NP_001190916.1; AtROP9: NP_194624.1;

AtROP10: NP_566897.1; AtROP11: NP_201093.1; HsRAC1: NP_001003274.1; HsRHOA:

5FR2_A.

Generation of transgenic plants

A full-length cDNA clone of CA-*RACB* (carrying the G15V mutation as described in (Schultheiss et al., 2003)) and CA-*RACB*-ΔCSIL (lacking the last 4 amino acids, but with an artificial stop codon) were amplified by PCR using primers RACBCA-Esp-Start + RACBCA-Esp-Stop and RACBCA-Esp-Start + RACBCA-ΔCSIL-Esp-Stop, respectively. Both constructs were cloned first into pGGEntL-EP12 and subsequently into pGGInAE-226n_35SP_Ntag-3xHA_35ST vectors using procedures adapted from Golden Gate-based cloning (Engler et al., 2008), generating the 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*(-ΔCSIL) fusion constructs. From these vectors, the CA-*RACB*(-ΔCSIL) fusion constructs were re-amplified by PCR using primers 3xHA-XmaI-F and RACBCA-XmaI-R (3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*) and 3xHA-XmaI-F + RACBCA-ΔCSIL-XmaI-R (3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*-ΔCSIL). The free 3x*HA*-control was amplified using primers 3xHA-XmaI-F + UL1-XmaI-R. All constructs were introduced into pUbifull-AB-M, a derivative of pNOS-AB-M (DNA-Cloning-Service, Hamburg, Germany) with the maize *POLYUBIQUITIN 1* promoter being inserted in the multiple cloning site, by restriction-ligation using *Xma*I. From there, *Sfi*I fragments were transferred into the generic binary vector p6i-2x35S-TE9 (DNA-Cloning-Service, Hamburg, Germany). The binary plasmids were transferred into *A. tumefaciens* strain AGL1 (Lazo et al., 1991) and transgenic plants were generated by agro-inoculation of immature barley embryos according to Hensel et al. (2009). Transgenic plants were identified by *HYGROMYCIN PHOSPHOTRANSFERASE*-specific PCR, which yielded 47 lines for 3xHA-CA-RACB, 37 lines for 3xHA-CA-RACB-ΔCSIL and 40 lines for 3xHA. All lines were propagated under normal growth conditions in the greenhouse. Since all descending lines are segregating in generation T_1, individual plants were screened for transgene integration and expression before use in any experiment. This was achieved using Western blotting detecting the HA-tag (antibody: Anti-HA-Peroxidase, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, 12013819001) and resistance against hygromycin-induced discoloration. For the latter, 7 d old leaves were detached and placed on 0.8% water-agar plates containing 200 µg/ml Hygromycin B (Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany, CP12.2). These plates were put into growth chambers operating under long-day conditions (see below) for roughly 4 d, until discoloration of hygromycin non-resistant plants was observed. All primers can be found in Supplemental Table 4.

Plant and fungal growth conditions

Transgenic barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) plants of spring-type cultivar Golden Promise were grown under long-day conditions (16 h light, 8 h darkness) with a photon flux of at least 150 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} at 18 °C and a relative humidity of 65%. Transgene-expressing plants of generation T_1 were used in all experiments. For protoplast isolation, individual plants of different lines expressing the same construct were pooled. The barley powdery mildew fungus *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *hordei* race A6 (*Bgh*) was propagated on non-transformed wildtype barley Golden Promise plants under the same growth conditions.

Assessment of *Bgh* penetration efficiency

Primary leaves of transgenic plants were cut and placed on 0.8% water-agar plates. These plates were inoculated with 100-130 spores/mm^2 of *Bgh* and placed under normal growth conditions for 48 h, followed by fixing and destaining leaves in 70% (v/v) ethanol. Fungal spores and appressoria were stained with an ink solution (10% (v/v) Pelikan Ink 4001® (Pelikan, Hannover, Germany), 25% (v/v) acetic acid) and analysed by transmission light microscopy. Haustorium establishment was counted as successful penetration, while stopped fungal growth after appressorium formation was counted as successful plant defense. For each construct (3xHA-CA-RACB, 3xHA-CA-RACB-ΔCSIL and 3xHA), three transgene-expressing plants of one propagated line were analyzed, with at least 96 evaluated plant-fungus interaction sites per plant. Statistical analysis was performed in RStudio V1.2.5033 (source: https://rstudio.com/) using R V3.6.3 (source: https://www.R-project.org). Normal distribution and homogeneity of variance in the penetration assay dataset were confirmed with Shapiro-Wilk's test and Levene's test, respectively. Significant differences of results were assessed using a One-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD.

Protoplast transformation, proteasome inhibition and protein extraction

Transgenic barley protoplasts stably expressing 3xHA-CA-RACB or 3xHA were isolated and super-transformed as described in Reiner et al. (2016), with the following deviations:

transformation reactions were scaled to 1 ml of protoplasts and overnight incubation was

conducted in 1 ml buffer WI in single cell culture tubes. For transformation, 50 µg/ reaction of

a plasmid coding for *GFP-RBK1* (from Huesmann et al. (2012)) or water (as a mock control)

were used. Ten reactions per combination (see Supplemental Figure 2A and B) were prepared.

After overnight incubation, MG132 was added to a final concentration of 10 µM, followed by

incubation in the dark for 3 h. Protoplasts of corresponding reactions were pooled and pelleted

by centrifugation at 120 g. Supernatants were removed and protoplasts were lysed by brief

vortexing and snap-freezing in liquid nitrogen. Proteins were resuspended in a modified

extraction buffer (10% (w/v) glycerol, 25 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM DTT, 1 mM

PMSF, 1% sodium deoxycholate, 1x protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, P9599),

1 tablet /10 ml PhosSTOP™ (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, 4906845001)) and incubated on

ice for 30 min with occasional mixing. This solution was centrifuged at 4 °C to pellet cell debris,

the supernatant was digested with trypsin and used in phosphopeptide enrichment (see

Supplemental Figure 2A (center panel) and 3B). In one experiment, where the phosphopeptide

enrichment was skipped (see Supplemental Figure 2A (bottom panel)), proteins were

subjected to immunoprecipitation (see below), loaded on a SDS-PAGE and then submitted to

in-gel tryptic digest prior to mass spectrometry. All buffers described in the immunoprecipitation

paragraph were used. In another experiment (see Supplemental Figure 2A (top panel)),

protoplast lysates were subjected to immunoprecipitation using a modified extraction buffer

(10% (w/v) glycerol, 25 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, 50 µM

MG132, 1x protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, P9599), 1 tablet /10 ml

PhosSTOP™ (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, 4906845001)) and washing buffer (10% (w/v)

glycerol, 25 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM PMSF, 50 µM MG132, 1x protease inhibitor

(Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, P9599), 1 tablet /10 ml PhosSTOP™ (Sigma-Aldrich, St.

Louis, USA, 4906845001)) and used for on-bead tryptic digest prior to phosphopeptide

enrichment via IMAC.

Immunoprecipitation and Western blotting

Transgenic barley leaves expressing 3xHA-CA-RACB or 3xHA were vacuum infiltrated for

3 min at -26 mm in Hg with a leaf-floating solution (0.45 M mannitol, 10 mM MES pH 5.7, 10

mM CaCl$_2$, 0.0316 g /10 ml Gamborg B5 medium including vitamins (Duchefa, RV Haarlem,

The Netherlands, G0210), 50 µM MG132). After incubation in the dark for 3 h, leaves were

snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and homogenized using a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN, Hilden,

Germany). Proteins were resuspended in extraction buffer (10% (w/v) glycerol, 25 mM Tris pH

7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, 0.5% Nonidet P40 substitute, 1x

protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, P9599)) by tumbling end-over-end at 4 °C

for 30 min. Cell debris was removed by centrifugation and the supernatants were used for

immunoprecipitation (IP). IPs were conducted according to routine procedures. Briefly, for

each sample, 50 µM Pierce™ Anti-HA Magnetic Beads (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham,

USA) were equilibrated 3x in extraction buffer before adding supernatants. HA-tagged proteins

were immunoprecipitated by tumbling end-over-end for 1 h at 4 °C, then washed 5x with

washing buffer (10% (w/v) glycerol, 25 mM Tris pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM

PMSF, 1x protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, P9599)). For selected RACB

phosphopeptide screenings (see Supplemental Figure 2A), the beads were directly prepared

for mass spectrometry. Otherwise, proteins were eluted in 100 µl of 2x NuPAGE™ LDS

Sample Buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA, NP0008) and boiled at 95 °C for 10

min. After the IP, 25 µl of eluate were separated on a 12% SDS-PAGE and proteins were

transferred to a PVDF membrane. HA-tagged proteins were detected with an

Anti-HA-Peroxidase antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA, 12013819001). For the RACB

ubiquitination screening, the remaining 75 µl were loaded on another 12% SDS-PAGE and

silver stained after separation. For this, the SDS-PAGE was incubated in a fixation solution

(50% (v/v) methanol, 5% (v/v) acetic acid, 45% (v/v) water) for 1 h and subsequently washed

with water three times (two times 2 min each, last time 1 h) on a shaking incubator. The gel

was sensitized with a 0.02% (w/v) sodium thiosulfate solution for 2 min, then briefly washed

with water twice. Afterwards, the gel was incubated at 4 °C in pre-chilled 0.1% (w/v) silver

nitrate for 30 min, then rinsed two times with water for 30 s each. In order to stain proteins, the

gel was incubated in a developing solution (0.04% (v/v) formaldehyde in 2% (w/v) sodium

carbonate) until a sufficient degree of staining had been obtained. Then, the gel was washed

five times in 1% (v/v) acetic acid to stop the reaction. Bands corresponding to 3xHA-CA-RACB

and its higher molecular weight derivatives were excised from the gel and the gel slices were

prepared for mass spectrometry.

Protein digest and phosphopeptide enrichment

In-gel digestion of SDS-PAGE gel segments was performed according to standard procedures.

Briefly, excised gel segments were reduced and alkylated with 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and

55 mM chloroacetamide (CAA) followed by digestion with trypsin (Roche). Dried peptides were

reconstituted with 0.1% FA in water prior to LC-MS analysis. For peptide retention time

monitoring, PROCAL peptide standard (Zolg et al., 2017) was added to peptide mixtures at a

concentration of 100 fmol on column.

On-bead digestion of one immunoprecipitation sample (from the experiment described in

Supplemental Figure 2A (bottom panel)) was performed to facilitate a subsequent

phosphopeptide enrichment. Dry beads-bound proteins were incubated with urea buffer (8 M

Urea, 50 mM Tris HCl pH 8.5, 10 mM DTT, cOmplete™ EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail

(PIC) (Roche, Basel, Switzerland, 04693132001), Phosphatase inhibitor (PI-III; in-house,

composition resembling Phosphatase inhibitor cocktail 1 (P2850), 2 (P5726) and 3 (P0044)

from Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) for one hour at 30 °C. The sample was alkylated (55 mM

CAA), diluted 1:8 with digestion buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.5, 1 mM $CaCl_2$) and pre-digested

with trypsin (1:100 protease:protein ratio) for 4 hours followed by overnight digestion with

trypsin (1:100 protease:protein ratio) at 37 °C. The sample was acidified to pH 3 with TFA and

centrifuged at 14,000 g for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was desalted on a 50 mg SepPAC

column (Waters, Milford, USA; elution buffer 50% acetonitrile, 0.07% TFA).

Proteins from protoplast lysates were precipitated overnight with 10% trichloroacetic acid in

ice-cold acetone at -20°C. Precipitates were washed two times with ice-cold acetone and dry

samples re-suspended in urea buffer (8 M Urea, 50 mM Tris HCl pH 8.5, 1 mM DTT,

cOmpleteTM EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (PIC) (Roche, Basel, Switzerland, 04693132001), Phosphatase inhibitor (PI-III; in-house, composition resembling Phosphatase inhibitor cocktail 1 (P2850), 2 (P5726) and 3 (P0044) from Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA).

Protein concentration was determined with the Bradford assay (Bradford, 1976). 200 µg (experiment described in Supplemental Figure 2A (center panel)) or 900 µg (all experiments described in Supplemental Figure 2B) total protein was reduced (10 mM DTT), alkylated (55 mM CAA), diluted 1:8 with digestion buffer and pre-digested with trypsin (1:100 protease:protein ratio) for 4 hours followed by overnight digestion with trypsin (1:100 protease:protein ratio) at 37 °C. Samples were acidified to pH 3 with TFA and centrifuged at 14,000 g for 15 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were desalted on 50 mg SepPAC columns (Waters; elution buffer 50% acetonitrile, 0.07% TFA).

Phosphopeptide enrichment was performed using a Fe^{3+}-IMAC column (Propac IMAC-10 4x50 mm, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) as described previously (Ruprecht et al., 2017b). Shortly, desalted peptide samples were adjusted to 30% acetonitrile, 0.07% TFA. For quality control, 1.5 nmol of a synthetic library of phosphopeptides and their corresponding non-phosphorylated counterpart sequence (F1) (Marx et al., 2013), were spiked into samples prior to loading onto the column. The enrichment was performed with buffer A (0.07% TFA, 30% acetonitrile) as wash buffer and Buffer B (0.315% NH_4OH) as elution buffer. Collected full proteome and phosphopeptide fractions were vacuum-dried and stored at -80°C until further use.

Phosphopeptides from the experiments described in Supplemental Figure 2A (top and center panels) were re-suspended in 50 mM citrate, 0.1% formic acid (FA) and desalted on self-packed StageTips (five disks, Ø 1.5 mm C18 material, 3M Empore™, elution solvent 0.1% FA in 50% ACN). Phosphopeptides from the experiment described in Supplemental Figure 2B were re-suspended in 50 mM citrate, 0.1% formic acid (FA), fractionated on basic reverse phase StageTip microcolumns (five disks, Ø 1.5 mm C18 material, 3M Empore™) and pooled

to 4 fractions, as described previously (Ruprecht et al., 2017a). Dried peptides were

reconstituted with 0.1% FA in water prior to LC-MS analysis.

In vitro kinase assay samples were mixed 1:4 with urea buffer (8 M urea, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH

7.5). Samples were reduced (5 mM DTT, 1h, room temperature), alkylated (15 mM CAA, 30

min, room temperature) and subsequently diluted 1:8 with digestion buffer. In-solution pre-

digestion with trypsin (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) was performed for 4 hours at 37 °C (1:50

protease:protein ratio), followed by overnight digestion with trypsin (1:50 protease:protein

ratio). Samples were acidified to pH 3 using trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) and centrifuged at

14,000 *g* for 5 min. The supernatant was desalted on self-packed StageTips (four disks, Ø 1.5

mm C18 material, 3M Empore™, elution solvent 0.1% FA in 50% ACN). Dried peptides were

reconstituted with 0.1% FA in water prior to LC-MS analysis.

Mass spectrometry

Liquid chromatography-coupled mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) analysis was performed on

Orbitrap mass spectrometer systems (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) coupled on-

line to a Dionex 3000 HPLC (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). The liquid

chromatography setup consisted of a 75 µm × 2 cm trap column packed in-house with Reprosil

Pur ODS-3 5 µm particles (Dr. Maisch GmbH) and a 75 µm × 40 cm analytical column, packed

with 3 µm particles of C18 Reprosil Gold 120 (Dr. Maisch GmbH, Ammerbuch, Germany).

Peptides were loaded onto the trap column using 0.1% FA in water. Separation of the peptides

was performed by using a linear gradient from 4% to 32% ACN with 5% DMSO, 0.1% formic

acid in water over 60 min followed by a washing step (70 min total method length) at a flow

rate of 300 nl/min and a column temperature of 50 °C. For phosphopeptide fractions, the

gradient was adjusted to a two-step gradient from 4% to 27% ACN. The instruments were

operated in data-dependent mode, automatically switching between MS and MS2 scans.

For the RACB ubiquitination screen samples (see Supplemental Figure 2C), full-scan mass

spectra (m/z 360-1300) were acquired in profile mode on a Q Exactive HF with 60,000

resolution, an automatic gain control (AGC) target value of 3e6 and 10 ms maximum injection

time. For the top 20 precursor ions, high resolution MS2 scans were performed using HCD

fragmentation with 25% normalized collision energy, 30,000 resolution, an AGC target value

of 2e5, 50 ms maximum injection time and 1.7 *m/z* isolation width in centroid mode. The

underfill ratio was set to 1% with a dynamic exclusion of 20 s. To confirm and more precisely

monitor the GlyGly- and phospho-modified peptides identified in the global analysis of these

samples, a targeted parallel reaction monitoring assay (PRM) was set up on the Q Exactive

HF using the same LC gradient settings. Peptide precursor charge states were chosen based

on the previous identification results. In addition, a selection of PROCAL retention time

calibration mixture peptides was monitored. PRM measurements were performed with the

acquisition method switching between experiments after one duty-cycle. The first experiment

consisted of a full scan MS1 spectrum recorded in the Orbitrap (360 to 1300 m/z, 15k

resolution, AGC target 3e6, Maximum IT 50 ms). The second experiment consisted of a tMS2

PRM scan triggering MS2 scans based on a list containing retention time window, m/z and

charge information. For the tMS2 PRM scan, the scheduled precursors were isolated (isolation

window 1.3 m/z), fragmented via HCD (NCE 25%) and recorded in the Orbitrap (120 to 2,000

m/z, 15k resolution, AGC target 2e5, Maximum IT 100 ms).

For the kinase assay samples, full scan maximum injection time was 50 ms and MS2 scans

were performed with a resolution of 15,000 and 100 ms maximum injection time. His-tagged

CA-RACB and RBK1 peptides were set on an inclusion list and the dynamic exclusion set to

5s.

For the experiments described in Supplemental Figure 2B, full-scan mass spectra (m/z 360-

1300) were acquired in profile mode on a Q Exactive HF-X with 60,000 resolution, an automatic

gain control (AGC) target value of 3e6 and 45 ms maximum injection time. For the top 20

precursor ions, high resolution MS2 scans were performed using HCD fragmentation with 26

% normalized collision energy, 30,000 resolution, an AGC target value of 2e5, and 1.3 *m/z*

isolation width in centroid mode. The intensity threshold was set to 2.2e4 with a dynamic

exclusion of 25 s. RACB and RBK1 peptides were set on an inclusion list. Full proteome

samples were measured with 50 ms maximum injection time for MS2 scans, phosphopeptide

samples with 100 ms.

For the experiment described in Supplemental Figure 2A, full-scan mass spectra (m/z 360-

1,300) were acquired in profile mode on an Orbitrap Fusion LUMOS with 60,000 resolution, an

automatic gain control (AGC) target value of 4e5 and 50 ms maximum injection time. For the

top 15 precursor ions, high resolution MS2 scans were performed using HCD fragmentation

with 30% normalized collision energy, 30,000 resolution, an AGC target value of 5e4, 120 ms

maximum injection time and 1.7 *m/z* isolation width in centroid mode. The intensity threshold

was set to 2.5e4 with a dynamic exclusion of either 27 s (all peptides) or 10 s (RACB peptides

set on an inclusion list).

Peptide and protein identification and quantification was performed with MaxQuant (Cox and

Mann, 2008) using standard settings (version 1.5.8.3). Raw files were searched against a

barley database (160517_Hv_IBSC_PGSB_r1_proteins_HighConf_REPR_annotation.fasta;

IPK Gatersleben) and common contaminants. For the experiments described in Supplemental

Figure 2B, we added the phosphopeptide library sequences (Marx et al., 2013). For the kinase

assay dataset, we used the recombinant protein sequences and an *E. coli* reference database

(uniprot-proteome_UP000000625). Carbamidomethylated cysteine was set as fixed

modification and oxidation of methionine, and N-terminal protein acetylation as variable

modifications. Lysine ubiquitylation, phosphorylation of serine, threonine or tyrosine were set

as variable modification were applicable. An m/z value of 115.0502 was specified as diagnostic

ion for lysine glyglycylation (Zolg et al., 2018). Trypsin/P was specified as the proteolytic

enzyme, with up to two missed cleavage sites allowed. The match between run function was

enabled for matching samples and between fractions. Results were filtered to 1% PSM, protein

and Site FDR. MS spectra were displayed with MaxQuant viewer.

RAW files from the PRM measurement of the ubiquitination screen samples were imported

into Skyline (64-bit, v.4.1.0.11796) (MacLean et al., 2010) for data filtering and analysis and

transition selection was manually refined to include site determining ions for each modification

site. Peaks were integrated using the automatic peak finding function followed by manual

curation of all peak boundaries and transitions. The summed area under the fragment ion

traces data for every transition was exported for data visualization in Microsoft Excel and used

to confirm the expected relative quantity of modified RACB peptides based on the gel segment.

The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange

Consortium via the PRIDE (Vizcaíno et al., 2016) partner repository with the dataset identifier

PXD019273.

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Supplements

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Supplemental Figure 1: Alignment of RACB with AtROP6, HsRAC1 and HsRHOA.

Previously published phosphorylation (blue) and ubiquitination (green) sites of mammalian

Rac1 and RhoA are highlighted here in the human RAC1 and RHOA sequences. Conserved

sites are highlighted in grey boxes. Additionally, the GTPase domain (G), effector loop (E),

nucleotide-binding domain (GB), special effector loop (SE) and CaaX-box prenylation motif (C)

are illustrated and were taken from Schultheiss et al. (2003). AtROP6 has been shown to be

transiently *S*-acylated at two cysteines (Sorek et al., 2010; Sorek et al., 2017), which are also

conserved in RACB (black boxes). Conservation of amino acids was determined using MAFFT

multiple-sequence alignment in Jalview (Waterhouse et al., 2009; Katoh and Toh, 2010).

Conservation scores range from 0 to 11 and are shown as bars (dark grey = less conserved,

light grey = highly conserved). Scores of 0, 10, and 11 are shown as "-", "+" and "*",

respectively).

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Supplemental Figure 2: Workflows designed to identify RACB phosphorylation and

ubiquitination.

A: Identification of phosphorylated peptides after CA-RACB and RBK1 overexpression.

Protoplasts were isolated from stably transgenic barley leaves overexpressing 3xHA-CA-

RACB. These protoplasts were transiently super-transformed with GFP-RBK1 to stimulate

phosphorylation events of proteins associated with the RACB/RBK1 pathway. After

transformation, all protoplasts were treated with MG132 and proteins were extracted.

HA-tagged proteins were first enriched using immunoprecipitation, followed by tryptic digest

and phosphopeptide enrichment via IMAC (top panel). In two cases, immunoprecipitation or

IMAC were skipped (center and lower panel, respectively). Phosphorylated peptides were

identified using mass spectrometry.

B: Second experiment to identify phosphorylated peptides after CA-RACB and/or RBK1

overexpression. Protoplasts were isolated from stably transgenic barley leaves overexpressing

either 3xHA or 3xHA-CA-RACB. These protoplasts were super-transformed with GFP-RBK1.

After transformation, all protoplasts (including an untransformed 3xHA-CA-RACB control) were

treated with MG132. Proteins were extracted and digested with trypsin, followed by enrichment

of phosphopeptides using IMAC. These samples were decomplexed by fractionating the

phosphorylated proteins according to their hydrophobicity. Phosphorylated peptides were

identified by mass spectrometry.

C: Analysis of CA-RACB ubiquitination by a targeted approach. Transgenic barley leaves

overexpressing 3xHA-CA-RACB were floated on a solution containing MG132. HA-containing

proteins were enriched by immunoprecipitation and loaded on a SDS-PAGE. Following silver-

staining, RACB-containing bands and those corresponding to the higher molecular weight

derivatives shown in Fig. 5A were excised from the gel (white boxes). After solubilization and

tryptic digest, modification of RACB-peptides was investigated via mass spectrometry.

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Supplemental Figure 3: Alignment of barley RACB with type II ROPs from barley, rice

Arabidopsis thaliana.

The CA-RACB ubiquitination site at K167 (green) is conserved in all type II ROPs from the

three species (shaded box). *In vitro* phosphorylation sites of RACB (blue) are conserved

among most type II ROPs (shaded box). Surface-exposed phosphosites are additionally

shown in yellow. Conserved of amino acids were identified and aligned using MAFFT multiple-

sequence alignment in Jalview (Waterhouse et al., 2009; Katoh and Toh, 2010).

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Supplemental Table 1: Dataset of the mass spectrometry analysis of the recombinant RACB

and RBK1 *in vitro* kinase assay.

Supplemental Table 2: Dataset containing all identified barley phosphopeptides originating

from transgenic HA-CA-RACB overexpressing protoplasts, which were transformed with

GFP-RBK1 and treated with MG132. HA-tagged proteins and/or phosphopeptides were

enriched by HA-immunoprecipitation and IMAC, respectively (see Supplemental Figure 2A).

All peptides and their modifications were identified by mass spectrometry. Of main interest are

the gene identifiers and peptides with phosphorylated residues and associated localization

scores.

Supplemental Table 3: Dataset comprising all recovered barley phosphopeptides from

protoplasts of stable transgenic barley plants. Phosphopeptides were enriched from full-protein

extracts of either HA- or HA-CA-RACB overexpressing protoplasts, which were co-transformed

with GFP-RBK1 and incubated with MG132. Samples were decomplexed by fractionating

phosphopeptides according to their hydrophobicity (see Supplemental Figure 2B). All peptides

and their modifications were identified by mass spectrometry. Non-enriched full-protein

samples (FP) were included in mass spectrometry analyses, but did not yield many

phosphopeptides. Of main interest in this dataset are the gene identifiers and peptides with

phosphorylated amino acids and their corresponding localization scores.

Supplemental Table 4: List of all primers used in this study.

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