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 (1-6). In humans (*Homo sapiens*, Hs), they are organized in the rat sarcoma (RAS) superfamily, comprised of the ARF, RAB, RAN, RAS and RHO families (7), with the latter being further divided into Cdc42-like, Rho-like, RAC-like, RhoBTB and Rnd subfamilies (8). 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 (9, 10). 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 (11). This nucleotide exchange is accompanied by a conformational shift, which affects interaction with other proteins (12, 13). 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 (14).

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 (15). 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 (16).

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 (17, 18). F-box proteins are part of SKP1-CUL1-F-box (SCF) E3 ubiquitin ligase

complexes which mediate ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation of selected proteins

(19). SCF^{FBXL19} targets S71-phosphorylated Rac1, which leads to ubiquitination of Rac1 K166

(18). 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 (20-22). 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 (23). ERK phosphorylates RhoA at S88 and

T100, enhancing GTP-binding and actin stress fiber formation in mammalian cell lines (24). 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 (25-28). 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 (29, 30) (for an overview of Rac1 and RhoA PTMs, see S1 Fig).

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 (31). Furthermore, type II AtROP10 and AtROP11 are phosphorylated at S138, but no functional studies about these phosphosites have been conducted yet (32). 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 (33). 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* (34-37). 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 (35, 38-40). 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

(34-37). 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 (41-43). 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 (34). 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 (44). Another protein-protein

interaction partner of RBK1, S-PHASE KINASE 1-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN-LIKE (SKP1L), is

also involved in resistance towards *Bgh* (45). SKP1L may be a subunit of an SCF E3 ubiquitin

ligase complex, which targets specific proteins for polyubiquitination and proteasomal

degradation (19). 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 (45).

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* (44). 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 (Fig 1A). For His-tagged *Medicago sativa* MsROP6, Dorjgotov, Jurca (46) 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* (44), 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.

Fig 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.

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 (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 (S1 Table), 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 (Fig 2B).

Fig 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 (47)). 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 (48)). 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 (49). Surface structure (front, back and top view)

and cartoon (front view) illustrations were modelled in PyMOL (50).

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 (37) 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 (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 (Fig 3B).

Fig 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. Eluate fractions of anti-HA immunoprecipitations were analyzed by anti-HA

Western blotting. Plant material belonged to pools of transgenic lines BG657 E3 and E4 for

HA-CA-RACB and BG658 E4 and E9 HA-CA-RACB-ΔCSIL.

(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. Lines were BG657 E4 for 3x*HA-CA-RACB*, BG658 E4 for 3x*HA-*

*CA-RACB-*ΔCSIL and BG659 E2 for 3x*HA*. Each datapoint corresponds to one plant. Statistical

significances were determined using a One-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD.

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 (S2A Fig). However, we were repeatedly unsuccessful in

identifying *in vivo* phosphopeptides of RACB (S2 Table). 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 (S2B Fig), some of the mapped barley phosphosites might

be CA-RACB- and/or RBK1-dependent (S3 Table). Therefore, this needs further analysis.

Despite the high amount of identified phosphopeptides, no *in vivo* phosphopeptides of

CA-RACB were recovered.

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

equally suitable for mapping phosphosites in RBK1 (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

(S2A Fig and Fig 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.

Fig 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.

262 **(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 (45). 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 (Fig 5A). As this laddering is a
potential indicator for ubiquitination of a target protein (51, 52), 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 (S2C Fig). Interestingly, we found
the peptide containing RACB K167 carrying a mass shift equal to 2 glycine molecules (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 (53). 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 (Fig 6 and S3 Fig).

Fig 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 (Fig S2B). Plant material was pooled from transgenic lines BG657 E3 and E4 for 3xHA-CA-RACB and BG659 E2 and E3 for 3xHA.

(B) Ubiquitination of CA-RACB at K167 was identified by mass spectrometry in a workflow described in S2B Fig. 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 (53). Example: $y9_{modified}$ (1062.59 m/z) − $y9_{unmodified}$ (948.55 m/z) = 114.04 m/z = 2 * glycine (57.02 m/z).

Fig 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 (54, 55).

In plants, ROP regulation by GEFs and GAPs has been shown (1, 34, 56-58), 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* (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 (Fig 2 and S1 Fig; (59, 60)). 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 (S3 Fig; (32)), 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 (S1 Fig). 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 (15, 18, 24), a process also

influenced by RACB in barley (38). 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 Figs 3 and 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) (51, 52), 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 (Fig 6 and S3 Fig). The respective residue is also

ubiquitinated in mammalian Rac1 and Rac3 by the SCF[FBXL19]-complex, which leads to

proteasomal degradation of both proteins (18, 61). 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

(S1 Fig): 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 (20-22, 29, 62). 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 (44, 45). While we did find ubiquitination at RACB K167

(which corresponds to Rac1 K166, S1 Fig), 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 (44, 63,

64), while AKT belongs to the AGC kinases (65). 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 (66). 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 (44, 45).

In Arabidopsis, the ROP-activated RBK1-homolog RLCK VI_A3 is also involved in pathogen

resistance rather than susceptibility (63). 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 (31). 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 (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

(37). 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 (34, 42, 43). 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 (9, 10).

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

413   A cDNA clone of CA-*RACB* ((37), NCBI GenBank identifier for wildtype RACB: CAC83043.2)

414   was cloned into the bacterial expression vector pET26b out of frame of the N-terminal pelB,

415   but in frame with a C-terminal 6xHIS (Novagen, Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany). This way,

416   no potential artificial phosphorylation site was included (46). The barley protein *RBK1* (NCBI

417   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 S4 Table.

Proteins were purified using HisSelect Sepharose beads (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) and the *in vitro* kinase reactions were carried out as described earlier (44, 45). 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 (49)

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 (50) was used to generate protein surface

structure and cartoon illustrations.

All protein sequence alignments were done in Jalview V2.11.0 (67) with the MAFFT algorithm

running at default settings (68). 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 (37)) 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 (69), 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 (70) and transgenic plants were

generated by agro-inoculation of immature barley embryos according to Hensel, Kastner (71).

Transgenic plants were identified by *HYGROMYCIN PHOSPHOTRANSFERASE*-specific

PCR, which yielded 47 lines for 3xHA-CA-RACB (BG657 E1-E49; E7 and E41 were not

transgenic), 37 lines for 3xHA-CA-RACB-ΔCSIL (BG658 E1-E39; E19 and E38 were not

transgenic) and 40 lines for 3xHA (BG659 E1-E42; E17 and E37 were not transgenic). 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. 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. After

screening, ten positive plants of two lines per construct were picked for an additional round of

propagation: we chose BG657 E3 and E4 for 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*, BG658 E4 and E9 for 3x*HA*-

CA-*RACB*-ΔCSIL and BG659 E2 and E3 for 3x*HA*. Since the offspring of these lines remained

segregating in generation T_2 and no homozygous plants were obtained, all descendants were

screened for transgene expression as described above before use in any experiment. All

primers can be found in S4 Table.

Plant and fungal growth conditions

494 Transgenic barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) plants of spring-type cultivar Golden Promise were

495 grown under long-day conditions (16 h light, 8 h darkness) with a photon flux of at least 150

496 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} at 18 °C and a relative humidity of 65%. Transgene-expressing plants of

generation T_2 were used in all experiments but one. An exception was made for the *Bgh* penetration assay (see below), because propagation of the T_2 plants was not ready at that time. Therefore, we used corresponding T_1 plants in this experiment. For all other experiments, pools of T_2 plants expressing the same construct were used. For 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*, we pooled plants of lines BG657 E3 and E4, BG658 E4 and E9 for 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*-ΔCSIL and BG659 E2 and E3 for 3x*HA*. 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, three transgene-expressing plants of one T_1 line (BG657 E4 for 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*, BG658 E4 for 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*-ΔCSIL and BG659 E2 for 3x*HA*) were analyzed, with at least 96 evaluated plant-fungus interaction sites per plant. Data were visualized with GraphPad Prism version 6. 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 (pools of lines BG657 E3

and E4) or 3xHA (pools of lines BG659 E2 and E3) were isolated and super-transformed as

described in Reiner, Hoefle (45), 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, Reiner (44)) or water (as a mock control) were used. Ten reactions per

combination (S2A and S2B Figs) 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 (S2A Fig (center panel) and S3B Fig). In

one experiment, where the phosphopeptide enrichment was skipped (S2A Fig (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 (S2A Fig (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

In order to show protein stability of 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB* and 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*-ΔCSIL, we performed a routine HA-immunoprecipitation from untreated transgenic leaves (lines BG657 E3 and E4 and BG658 E4 and E9, respectively), followed by an anti-HA Western blot (see below). For ubiquitination analysis, transgenic barley leaves expressing 3xHA-CA-RACB (lines BG657 E3 and E4) or 3xHA (lines BG659 E2 and E3) 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 (S2A Fig), 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.

In order to show protein stability of 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB* and 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*-ΔCSIL, we

performed a routine HA-immunoprecipitation from untreated transgenic leaves (lines BG657

E3 and E4 and BG658 E4 and E9, respectively), followed by an anti-HA Western blot.

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 (72) 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 S2A

Fig (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 (73). 200 µg (experiment

described in S2A Fig (center panel)) or 900 µg (all experiments described in S2B Fig) 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 (74). 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) (75), 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 S2A Fig (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 S2B Fig 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 (76). 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 (S2C Fig), 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 S2B Fig, 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 S2A Fig, 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 (77) 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 S2B Fig, we added the

phosphopeptide library sequences (75). 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 (78). 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) (79) 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 (80) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD019273.

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Supporting information

S1 Fig. 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, Dechert (37). AtROP6 has been shown to be

transiently *S*-acylated at two cysteines (59, 60), which are also conserved in RACB (black

boxes). Conservation of amino acids was determined using MAFFT multiple-sequence

alignment in Jalview (67, 68). 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).

S2 Fig. 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 (pooled lines BG657 E3 and E4). 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 (lines BG659 E2 and E3) or 3xHA-CA-RACB (lines BG657 E3 and E4). 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 (from pooled lines BG657 E3 and E4) 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.

S3 Fig. 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 (67, 68).

S1 Table. Dataset of the mass spectrometry analysis of the recombinant RACB and RBK1 *in vitro* kinase assay.

S2 Table. Dataset of the first mass-spectrometry experiment to identify *in vivo* phosphorylation of CA-RACB. This dataset contains 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 (S2A Fig). 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.

S3 Table. Dataset of the second mass-spectrometry experiment to identify *in vivo* phosphorylation of CA-RACB. 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 (S2B Fig). 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.

S4 Table. List of all primers used in this study.