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 processes regulate G-protein activity: canonical shuttling between different nucleotide bound states and posttranslational modification (PTM), of which the latter can support or suppress RHO signaling, depending on the individual PTM. In plants, regulation of Rho of plants (ROPs) signaling activity has been shown to act through nucleotide exchange and GTP 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 conserved in all ROPs from *Hordeum vulgare*, *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Oryza sativa* and in mammalian Rac1 and Rac3. Point mutation of this ubiquitination site leads to stabilization of RACB. Hence, this highly conserved lysine residue may regulate protein stability across different kingdoms.

Introduction

Small guanosine triphosphate-binding (G-) proteins are master regulators of developmental and immunity-related processes including 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*), small G-proteins 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 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, because they cycle between a guanosine diphosphate (GDP)-

bound "OFF" state and the signaling-competent guanosine triphosphate (GTP)-bound "ON"

state. This cycling itself is tightly controlled by 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, which results in GTP hydrolysis and turns the

G-proteins signaling incompetent (Berken and Wittinghofer, 2008). This nucleotide exchange

is accompanied by a conformational shift, which affects the interaction with other proteins

(Milburn et al., 1990; Berken, 2006). A third class of regulatory proteins, so-called guanine

nucleotide dissociation inhibitors (GDIs), targets mostly the GDP-bound state and recruits 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 and

ubiquitinated at two residues (reviewed in Abdrabou and Wang (2018)), whereas for

mammalian RhoA four phosphorylation sites and three ubiquitination sites have been identified

(Lang et al., 1996; Forget et al., 2002; Ellerbroek et al., 2003; Ozdamar et al., 2005; Rolli-

Derkinderen et al., 2005; Wei et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2014; Tong et al., 2016) (see S1 Fig for an overview of Rac1 and RhoA PTMs).

Compared to the mammalian field, knowledge about phosphorylation and ubiquitination in ROPs is limited. To date, *in vitro* 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 reported. RBK1 further interacts with Mitogen-activated protein kinase 1 (MPK1) of an auxin-responsive MPK cascade, and it has been suggested 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 mutation of the broadly conserved S74 in AtROP4 and *Medicago sativa* MsROP6 has been investigated. This S74E mutation did not alter GTPase activity, but blocked interaction with an upstream activating ROPGEF, weakened the binding to a downstream signaling kinase and stimulated less *in vitro* kinase activity (Fodor-Dunai et al., 2011). However, there is no reported evidence for *in vivo* phosphorylation of type I ROPs.

ROPs have been also investigated in the interaction between barley (*Hordeum vulgare, Hv*) and the powdery mildew fungus *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *hordei* (*Bgh*). There it was shown that most barley ROPs can support the penetration success of *Bgh* (Schultheiss et al., 2002; Schultheiss et al., 2003; Pathuri et al., 2008; Hoefle et al., 2011). Among these barley ROPs, RACB is the best characterized ROP family member. Under physiological conditions, it is required for root hair outgrowth and stomatal subsidiary cell formation, and RACB and its interacting proteins further steer cytoskeleton organization (Engelhardt et al., 2019). During *Bgh* attack, RNA-interference (RNAi)-mediated knockdown of RACB decreased the penetration success of the fungus into barley epidermal cells, whereas overexpression of a constitutively activated RACB variant (CA, RACB-G15V, a GTPase mutant that cannot hydrolyse GTP) 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 a dominant negative RACB form (DN, RACB-T20N, a mutant that can only bind GDP) increased barley susceptibility, indicating that the GTP-bound, signaling-active form of RACB supports fungal invasion into intact barley leaf epidermal cells.

Since RHO family proteins interact with several downstream executors to perform their signaling function, interaction partners of RACB were investigated with regard to barley susceptibility to *Bgh*. It was shown that two classes of scaffolding proteins, Interactor of Constitutively Active ROPs/ROP-interactive partners (ICRs/RIPs) and ROP-interactive and CRIB-motif containing proteins (RICs), associate with CA-RACB at the plasma membrane and enhance penetration success of *Bgh* into barley epidermal cells when transiently overexpressed (Schultheiss et al., 2008; Engelhardt et al., 2019; McCollum et al., 2020). In contrast, two other interactors of activated RACB support resistance to fungal penetration. Microtubule-Associated ROP GTPase Activating Protein 1 (MAGAP1) enhances resistance towards *Bgh* and likely negatively 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-regulated 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, unlike RACB, transient knockdown of RBK1 results in increased disease susceptibility and reduced microtubule stability (Huesmann et al., 2012). S-phase kinase 1-associated protein-like (SKP1L), an interactor of RBK1, is also involved in resistance towards *Bgh* (Reiner et al., 2016). SKP1L is a predicted 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 transiently overexpressed CA-RACB. These proteins hence presumably act in a negative feedback-loop involving phosphorylation and ubiquitination of RACB (Reiner et al., 2016).

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

presence of CA-RACB, leading to strong autophosphorylation of RBK1 and

transphosphorylation of 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 displays an ubiquitination-typical

appearance of high molecular weight derivatives after immunoprecipitation. Mass

spectrometry revealed that CA-RACB is ubiquitinated at K167. Mutational studies support that

RACB K167 is involved in regulating protein stability, but otherwise did not interfere with

RACB's ability to recruit interaction partners or influence susceptibility of barley to *Bgh*.

However, data demonstrate *in planta* ROP ubiquitination at a residue that is conserved in

mammalian Rac1, Rac3 and all other ROPs of barley, rice and Arabidopsis.

Results

CA-RACB is phosphorylated by RBK1 *in vitro*

Since previous research suggested that RACB might be negatively regulated through the protein kinase RBK1 and ubiquitination (Reiner et al., 2016), we aimed to discover putative posttranslational modifications in RACB. First, we investigated the potential of RACB to be phosphorylated by RBK1, because it was previously shown that constitutively activated (CA-) RACB interacts with RBK1 *in vivo* and enhances RBK1's kinase activity *in vitro* (Huesmann et al., 2012). Therefore, we carried out an *in vitro* radiolabeling kinase assay with recombinantly expressed and purified RBK1 and CA-RACB, both C-terminally His-tagged (Fig 1A). C-terminal tagging should prevent artificial phosphorylation events, as Dorjgotov et al. (2009) showed RBK1-like RLCK VI_A kinases phosphorylating the N-terminal His-tag and linker-region of *Medicago sativa Ms*ROP6, but not the ROP protein itself. Since RBK1 alone shows some constitutive kinase activity and autophosphorylation *in vitro* (Huesmann et al., 2012), we used low RBK1 protein amounts in this assay to be able to see stimulated kinase activity. Under these conditions, only weak autophosphorylation of RBK1 was visible. In the presence of CA-RACB, however, we observed stronger autophosphorylation of RBK1 and transphosphorylation of CA-RACB. No phosphorylation could be detected after incubation with a RBK1 kinase-dead mutant (KD, K245D) or in a water-control (see Fig 1B for RBK1 protein stability).

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

(A) Low amounts of His-tagged RBK1 alone showed weak autophosphorylation *in vitro*. Kinase activity was 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) Ponceau S stain showing stability of purified WT and KD His-RBK1.

To eventually prove phosphorylation within the RACB protein sequence and to identify phosphosites in RACB, we conducted the *in vitro* kinase assay using RBK1 and unlabeled

ATP and detected *in vitro* phosphosites of CA-RACB via mass spectrometry after tryptic

digestion (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 *At*ROP4 and GTP-analog-bound *Hs*RAC1, 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 or, when phosphorylated and predicted as surface-exposed, residues are additionally highlighted by asterisks. *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 *At*ROP4 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 *Hs*RAC1 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 highlighted 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 and achieved GMQE (global model quality estimate) scores of 0.75 for GDP-RACB and 0.66 for GTP-RACB, and QMEAN DisCo (qualitative model energy analysis with consensus-based distance constraint) (Studer et al., 2020)) scores of 0.82 ± 0.07 and 0.80 ± 0.07, respectively. Surface structure (front, back and top view) and cartoon (front view) illustrations were modelled in PyMOL (Schrodinger, 2015).

Next, we tried to map *in vivo* phosphorylation sites for RACB. In order to obtain sufficient amounts of protein, we generated transgenic barley lines overexpressing HA-tagged 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 the selection marker hygromycin and Western blotting (not shown). When we confirmed the expression of the HA-tagged RACB variants by Western blot, only the free HA-peptide could not be detected, most likely because of its small size (Fig

3A). Since CA-RACB is a susceptibility factor in the barley-*Bgh* interaction (Schultheiss et al.,

2002; Schultheiss et al., 2003; Pathuri et al., 2008; Hoefle et al., 2011), we also scored the

penetration efficiency of *Bgh* in leaf epidermal cells of all three transgenic lines to rule out any

artificial effects of the HA-tag on the susceptibility function of RACB during the barley-*Bgh*

interaction. Upon infection with *Bgh*, plants overexpressing full-length HA-CA-RACB displayed

increased disease susceptibility compared to the free HA-control similar as shown before for

untagged CA-RACB (Pathuri et al., 2008), whereas the HA-CA-RACB-ΔCSIL overexpressing

plants did not show an increased disease phenotype (Fig 3B). This suggests that HA-tagged

CA-RACB is functional in support of fungal penetration.

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

3xHA-CA-RACB and BG658 E4 and E9 for *3xHA-CA-RACB*-ΔCSIL.

(B) Leaf epidermal cells of transgenic plants expressing full-length HA-tagged CA-RACB were 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 with about 100 interaction sites scored, and means with standard deviation are shown. Statistical significances were determined using a One-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD.

To find *in vivo* phosphorylation sites of RACB, we initially isolated leaf mesophyll protoplasts from HA-CA-RACB overexpressing plants and, to eliminate any negative impact on RACB stability caused by phosphorylation as previously hypothesized (Reiner et al., 2016), we treated them with the proteasome inhibitor MG132. We extracted total proteins from these protoplasts and enriched HA-tagged CA-RACB using immunoprecipitation. Following tryptic digestion, we selected for phosphorylated peptides using Immobilized Metal Affinity Chromatography (IMAC). Peptides and posttranslational modifications were identified via mass spectrometry, but potential HA-CA-RACB phosphosites eluded our detection (not shown). Next, before MG132 treatment, we co-overexpressed GFP-tagged RBK1 in mesophyll protoplasts prepared from transgenic HA-CA-RACB overexpressing and control plants, and selectively skipped immunoprecipitation or IMAC (S2A Fig). This attempt also did not lead to the identification of *in vivo* RACB phosphopeptides, although more than 2,000 barley proteins were found to phosphorylated in those samples (S2 Table). In a third approach, we tried to map RACB phosphorylation after transient co-overexpression of GFP-RBK1 and proteasome inhibition by MG132 in transgenic HA-CA-RACB overexpressing barley mesophyll 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 (S3 Table), thus

providing a valuable resource for the barley research community. For instance, data show in

vivo phosphorylation sites of ROP signaling components such as three different barley

ROPGAPs (S4 Table). 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, but this would need further

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

of HA-CA-RACB were recovered.

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

phosphosites for 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

4C), we found RBK1 phosphosites at positions S26, S30, S107, S113, 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) Schematic illustration of the barley RBK1 sequence with marked *in vitro* (blue) and *in vivo* (red) phosphosites. Residues phosphorylated under both conditions are shown with both colors. *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 mesophyll protoplasts in the presence of transiently co-overexpressed 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 a proteasome (Reiner et al., 2016). This prompted us to investigate potential *in vivo* CA-RACB ubiquitination. We used MG132 for proteasome inhibition in first 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). To determine whether this band pattern is MG132 dependent, we repeated this experiment with a DMSO control and found a similar laddering pattern in the control (S3 Fig). As this laddering is usually a characteristic indicator for ubiquitination of a target protein (Gohre et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2011), we attempted to map the residue(s) at which HA-CA-RACB might be ubiquitinated. We first conducted a global mass spectrometry analysis, in which we specifically looked for branched amino acid sequences that derive from ubiquitinated lysine residues after tryptic digest (S2C Fig). Interestingly, we found a 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 (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 (Fig 6 and S4 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 of such a size difference: 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).

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

The ubiquitinated lysine residue in barley 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 highlighted with asterisks.

RACB K167 regulates protein stability

Next, we wanted to know if RACB K167 plays a role in regulating protein stability. For this, we generated non-ubiquitinatable K167R mutants of the different RACB activity-variants (WT, CA, DN [dominant negative RACB-T20N (Schultheiss et al., 2003)]). We substituted lysine with arginine, because both amino acids are positively charged and structurally similar, but arginine is not recognized as an ubiquitin acceptor site. In order to assess if K167 influences protein

stability in barley epidermal cells, we fused GFP to the N-terminus of RACB and compared the

fluorescence levels of regular GFP-WT/CA/DN-RACB with those of their corresponding K167R

mutants via confocal microscopy after biolistic transformation (Fig 7). Since fluorescence levels

inherently vary between single transiently transformed cells, we co-expressed free mCherry

as a normalizer in all experiments and used the calculated ratio of GFP to mCherry

fluorescence for comparisons. Thereby, we measured that the K167R mutants of GFP-CA-

and GFP-DN-RACB showed stronger fluorescence signals than their original K167

counterparts, while the GFP-WT-RACB(-K167R) fluorescence levels displayed no difference.

Comparison of total protein abundance between RACB variants was not feasible, because

laser excitation levels had to be adjusted for imaging of WT/CA/DN-RACB.

Fig 7. Quantification of GFP-RACB(-K167R) fluorescence intensities.

GFP-tagged RACB-variants (WT **(A)**, CA **(B)** and DN **(C)**) and their corresponding non-ubiquitinatable K167R mutants were transiently expressed in single barley epidermal cells via particle bombardment. Free mCherry was co-expressed in all experiments as a normalizer. Mean pixel fluorescence intensities for GFP and mCherry were measured using a confocal laser-scanning microscope. For comparison, ratios of fluorescence were calculated by dividing the measured fluorescence signal of GFP-RACB by that of free mCherry in each individual cell. In case of GFP-CA- and GFP-DN-RACB, the K167R mutants displayed higher fluorescence levels than their non-mutated K167 counterparts, whereas GFP-WT-RACB(-K167R) fluorescence levels were similar. Each datapoint represents one transformed cell. All datapoints were collected over three biological replicates. Laser excitation levels were different for all three RACB activity variants, but kept identical for regular and K167R RACB forms. Statistical analysis was performed with Wilcoxon rank-sum tests with continuity correction against a p-value of 0.05.

To confirm that the RACB-K167R mutants are properly folded proteins and signaling competent, we tested if they are on one hand able to recruit downstream interactors to the plasma membrane and on the other hand influence the susceptibility of barley in favor of *Bgh*. We exclusively used CA-RACB in these experiments, since only this form of RACB was shown to govern signaling processes (Schultheiss et al., 2003; Pathuri et al., 2008; Schultheiss et al., 2008). In order to check if CA-RACB-K167R is promoting susceptibility to fungal cell entry in the barley-*Bgh*-interaction, we transiently overexpressed untagged CA-RACB(-K167R) or an empty vector control in barley epidermal cells before challenge inoculation with *Bgh* (Fig 8). At 40 hpi, we recorded a 39.4% or 34.6% increased susceptibility towards fungal penetration in cells overexpressing CA-RACB or CA-RACB-K167R, when compared to the control. Hence, we detected no difference in support of fungal penetration efficiency between CA-RACB and CA-RACB-K167R. For testing possible recruitment of a known RACB downstream interactor, we chose RIC171 because it was shown before to enrich at the cell periphery or plasma

membrane when CA-RACB was co-expressed (Schultheiss et al., 2008). We used mCherry-

RIC171 and GFP-CA-RACB(-K167R) fusion proteins for confocal microscopy in transiently

transformed barley epidermal cells (Fig 9). Free CFP was co-expressed in all combinations as

a marker for cytoplasmic and nuclear fluorescence. We observed that mCherry-RIC171 was

strongly recruited towards the cell periphery in the presence of both GFP-CA-RACB and GFP-

CA-RACB-K167R. No obvious recruitment of mCherry-RIC171 was detectable when free GFP

was co-overexpressed and mCherry-RIC171 localized to the cytoplasm and nucleoplasm in

this case.

Fig 8 CA-RACB-K167R, similar to CA-RACB, increases barley susceptibility towards

***Bgh*.**

Transient overexpression of untagged CA-RACB and CA-RACB-K167R in barley epidermal

cells resulted in increased susceptibility towards *Bgh* when compared to the empty vector

control. Transient transformation was achieved using particle bombardment. Fungal

susceptibility was assessed 40 hpi. Mean *Bgh* penetration efficiency and standard error of the

mean of 5 fully independent biological replicates are shown. Each datapoint represents one

biological replicate, in which the penetration efficiency of *Bgh* was calculated using a minimum

of 50 individual cells. Only single transformed barley epidermal cells were considered for

analysis.

Fig 9. Recruitment of mCherry-RIC171 by GFP-CA-RACB-K167R.

Localization of the mCherry-tagged RACB-interactor RIC171 (Schultheiss et al., 2008) was

imaged in the presence of either free GFP, GFP-CA-RACB or GFP-CA-RACB-K167R. Free

CFP was co-expressed in all cells as a marker for cytosolic and nuclear localization. All

proteins were expressed transiently in barley epidermal cells via particle bombardment. In the

absence of GFP-CA-RACB, mCherry-RIC171 fluorescence co-localized with GFP and CFP in

the cytoplasm and nucleus (left panels, white arrows indicate cytosolic transvacuolar strands).

When GFP-CA-RACB (center panels) or GFP-RACB-CA-K167R (right panels) were

co-expressed, mCherry-RIC171 re-localized towards the periphery of the cell and showed only

background fluorescence in the cytoplasm and nucleus. Representative images of three

independent experiments are shown. In each experiment 15 cells per combination were

imaged. Images display Z-stack maximum intensity projections of slices with 2 µm step

increments. Brightness of the images was enhanced by 20% post-scanning for better visibility.

The white scale bar in the bottom right corner of each panel represents 50 µm.

Discussion

The function of RHO family proteins as signaling hubs and master regulators of cell polarity

must be tightly controlled. Posttranslational modifications of RHO proteins, which enhance or

suppress RHO protein activity, such as lipid modifications, phosphorylation and ubiquitination,

have been well described in recent years (Abdrabou and Wang, 2018). Other PTMs including

glycosylation and adenylylation have been predominantly demonstrated to be caused by

virulence effectors from pathogenic organisms that target RHO family proteins of their hosts

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

The regulation of ROP activity in plants by GEFs and GAPs has been well documented and

occurs via their influence on the nucleotide binding state of the G-protein (Wu et al., 2000;

Berken et al., 2005; Klahre and Kost, 2006; Hoefle et al., 2011; Akamatsu et al., 2013).

However, for plants there is little data available on ROP activity regulation via posttranslational

modifications beyond prenylation and S-acylation (Yalovsky, 2015). In this study, we show in

vivo ubiquitination of a plant RHO protein, and our data also suggest a biological role for this

PTM. Using transgenic barley plants overexpressing a CA-RACB variant, we identified higher

molecular weight RACB derivatives on a Western blot, reminiscent of 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). Mass spectrometry analysis evidenced RACB K167 as an

ubiquitin acceptor site, which is fully conserved across all ROPs of barley, rice and Arabidopsis

(Fig 6 and S4 Fig). The presence of this particular lysine even in mammalian Rac1 and Rac3

(Zhao et al., 2013; Dong et al., 2014) suggests a highly conserved ubiquitination motif across

kingdoms. Conservation of two other ubiquitination sites from mammalian RHO proteins in

RACB suggests that general regulatory mechanisms for small G-proteins could be conserved

between plants and animals. Albeit we couldn't evidence RACB K8 and K148 being

ubiquitinated in our experimental setup, the corresponding lysines in RhoA and Rac1 are

targeted for ubiquitination (S1 Fig), which influences actin cytoskeleton dynamics and

associated cellular processes, such as cell motility, in mammalian cells (Wang et al., 2003;

Ozdamar et al., 2005; Torrino et al., 2011; Oberoi et al., 2012; Castillo-Lluva et al., 2013).

Nonetheless, it is not yet known whether and under which conditions a modification of these

conserved sites might occur in ROPs. Regarding RACB, an association with protein

degradation was supported by mutating specifically RACB-K167 to a non-ubiquitinatable

arginine in various GFP-tagged RACB activity-variants (WT, CA, DN). CA-RACB-K167R was

drastically more abundant than CA-RACB in barley epidermal cells, whereas this was less

pronounced, but consistent for DN-RACB-K167R. Interestingly, the abundance of WT-RACB

was not significantly influenced by the K167R mutation, which might be explained by the fact

that wildtype RACB can still shuttle between GEF/GAP-mediated ROP activation and

deactivation, whereas ubiquitination might be a slower process that predominantly takes place

if RACB is arrested in a nucleotide bound form. Alternatively, efficient deubiquitination might

be restricted to regulated WT-RACB. Generally, activated GTP-RACB could be ubiquitinated

as an additional means of the plant cell to terminate active G-protein signaling besides

inactivation via hydrolysis of GTP. This seems reasonable and could be conserved across

kingdoms, as a similar mechanism has been shown for mammalian GTP-Rac1, which is

ubiquitinated at the corresponding K166 to remove it from signaling in cell motility (Zhao et al.,

2013). On the other hand, the purpose of ubiquitination of signaling incompetent DN-RACB

could be a simple disposal mechanism.

The presence or absence of the protein stability-regulating lysine doesn't appear to impinge

on RACB-mediated downstream signaling. Both ubiquitinatable and non-ubiquitinatable

CA-RACB could recruit the interaction partner RIC171 to the cell periphery, which was

described before (Schultheiss et al., 2008). Additionally, overexpression of the higher

abundant CA-RACB-K167R showed the same increase in barley susceptibility towards

penetration by *Bgh* as CA-RACB (Schultheiss et al., 2003; Schultheiss et al., 2008). Hence,

the sheer abundance of activated RACB might not be limiting for fungal penetration success

in a situation in which CA-RACB is overexpressed. However, ubiquitination could have an

impact on RACB's ability to interact with other proteins. For instance, non-ubiquitinated K167

is presumably bound by PRONE-GEFs and CRIB-domain-containing proteins, since it is in

both cases part of the respective binding interface (see S5 Fig, (Abdul-Manan et al., 1999;

Thomas et al., 2007; Schaefer et al., 2011)). Ubiquitination of K167 could hence sterically block

these interfaces and therefore hinder activation of RACB by PRONE-GEFs and interaction

with downstream CRIB-containing executors. In both scenarios, RACB signaling would be

effectively inhibited. In turn, it is likely that interaction of activated RACB with CRIB-domain-

containing executors, such as RIC proteins (Schultheiss et al., 2008; Engelhardt et al., 2019),

would mask the ubiquitination site. This could not only lead to increased protein stability, but

also secure RACB's signaling activity during crucial processes. In any case, RACB's upstream

or downstream interactors may have the potential to interfere with ubiquitination of RACB and

hence proteasomal degradation, but this remains to be tested in the future.

This ubiquitin-dependent regulation of RACB activity could also involve RBK1 and SKP1-like,

since RNAi-mediated knock-down of both proteins was shown to have a similar effect on RACB

abundance (Reiner et al., 2016). 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). We speculated that

activated RACB might 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, S1

Fig), we did not identify RACB S74 as a phosphorylation site although the motif was covered

in our MS data set. 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. For instance, the AGCVIII kinase D6PK binds to specific

membrane lipids and cooperates with RACB-like type I *At*ROP2/*At*ROP6 to form root hairs

(Stanislas et al., 2015). Thus far, phosphorylation of ROPs during interaction with AGC kinases

has not been described, but it remains possible that AGC kinases phosphorylate ROPs, with

S74 being one of the potential targets.

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

opposing biological functions. In previous studies, we have shown that gene silencing of barley

RBK1 provoked the opposite disease phenotype as *RACB* and supports RACB protein

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

RBK1-homolog RLCK VI_A3 is similarly involved in pathogen resistance rather than

susceptibility (Reiner et al., 2015). Enders and co-workers could show that *rbk1* knock-out

plants displayed hypersensitivity towards auxin, while *atrop4* and *atrop6* mutants were

defective in auxin sensing. Furthermore, they suggested that *At*ROP4 and *At*ROP6 might be

direct phosphorylation targets of *At*RBK1 (synonym: RLCK VI_A4). They hypothesized that

*At*RBK1-mediated phosphorylation negatively influences the activity of both ROPs (Enders et

al., 2017). However, this remains to be shown, since phosphorylation was investigated *in vitro*

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

general mechanism, in which ROPs are negatively regulated by phosphorylation through

RLCK VI_A members in distinct signaling branches. However, we would like to stress that *in*

vivo phosphorylation of RACB by RBK1 could neither be proved nor disproved in this study.

The *in vitro* phosphosites S97, T139 and T162, which we identified in RACB, are predicted to

be surface-exposed and therefore could theoretically be targets for RBK1-dependent

phosphorylation of RACB *in vivo* (Fig 2). This is less clear for S159 and S160. Nevertheless,

one can speculate that these serine residues could become accessible *in vivo* after other

posttranslational modifications of RACB, which cause a conformational shift. Alternatively,

these sites become more exposed during interaction with RBK1. The positions of the

phosphosites within RACB suggest that the modification of particularly S159, S160 and T162

could interfere with RACB lipidation and nucleotide cycling, since these residues are next to

the putative *S*-acylation site C158 and the nucleotide binding pocket (Fig 2 and S1 Fig; (Sorek

et al., 2010; Sorek et al., 2017)). Furthermore, *in vivo* phosphorylation of all five residues could

affect RACB activation, as they are part of or in direct proximity of a conserved PRONE-GEF

binding interface (see S5 Fig, (Sørmo et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2007; Fricke and Berken,

2009)). However, this remains a speculation at this point.

All five in *vitro* phosphorylated residues in RACB are partially conserved in other type I and type II ROPs, indicating that these sites might be common targets for phosphorylation. The only evidenced *in vivo* ROP phosphosite, S138 from *At*ROP10 and *At*ROP11 (S4 Fig; (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 (S1 Fig). Thus, it is well possible that RACB is also phosphorylated at Y67, S74 and S89 by other kinases. 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 stable transgenic plants, our data further support that posttranslational prenylation may be important for the signaling ability of RACB. Full-length CA-RACB increased barley susceptibility towards *Bgh*, whereas the truncated CA-RACB-ΔCSIL mutant did not. We have shown before in transiently transformed barley cells that removal of the CaaX-box prenylation motif CSIL from RACB results in a shift of CA-RACB's subcellular localization from the plasma membrane to the cytosol and abolishes function in susceptibility (Schultheiss et al., 2003). 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., 2020). Our data with CSIL truncations in stable transgenic barley provide now another piece of evidence that ROPs need to be membrane-localized to perform their function, as it has been described before for Arabidopsis (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 data on *in vivo* ubiquitination of a barley ROP. 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 is a general target for ubiquitination across kingdoms and that this regulates protein abundance.

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 S5 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 (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 routine Ponceau S stain was perfomed.

Bioinformatical analysis

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

(Waterhouse et al., 2018) with GDP- bound AtROP4 (PDB entry: 2NTY.1 (Thomas et al.,

2007)) as template for GDP-bound RACB and GNP-associated *Hs*RAC1 as template for GTP-

RACB (PDB entry: 3TH5.1 (Krauthammer et al., 2012)). SWISS-MODEL GMQE (global model

quality estimate) scores were 0.75 for GDP-RACB and 0.66 for GTP-RACB, and QMEAN

DisCo (qualitative model energy analysis with consensus-based distance constraint) (Studer

et al., 2020)) scores were 082 ± 0.07 and 0.80 ± 0.07, respectively. The final RACB models

contained amino acids 1-178 for GDP-RACB and 7-178 for GTP-RACB (from 197 total RACB

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.

607   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 (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 being used in any experiment. All primers can be found in S5 Table.

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_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*. For transient transformation experiments (see below) and propagation of

the barley powdery mildew fungus *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *hordei* race A6 (*Bgh*),

non-transformed wildtype barley cultivar Golden Promise plants were grown 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 40 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 analyzed 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.

For the analysis of *Bgh* susceptibility after transient overexpression of untagged CA-RACB(-

K167R), a full-length cDNA clone of *RACB* was first amplified with Gateway® attachment sites

using primers RACB-Gateway-F + RACB-Gateway-R and cloned into the Gateway® entry

vector pDONR223 using routine Gateway® BP-cloning procedures (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,

California, USA). From pDONR223, *RACB* was transferred into the Gateway®-compatible

plant expression vector pGY1-GW (generated in Engelhardt et al. (2019)) using routine

Gateway® LR-cloning. A CA-*RACB*-K167R clone was generated from pGY1-*RACB* using

subsequent site-directed mutagenesis with primers RACB-SDM-G15V-F + RACB-SDM-G15V-

R and RACB-SDM-K167R-F + RACB-SDM-K167R-R. Integrity of the sequences and

mutations was confirmed via Sanger sequencing. All primers can be found in S5 table.

For transient transformation via particle bombardment, three primary leaves of 7 d old wildtype

barley plants (cultivar Golden Promise) were placed on 0.8% water-agar plates and

transformed using the PDS-1000/He™ system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, California, USA). For one

transformation reaction, 11 µl of 25 mg/ml spherical gold particles (diameter 1 µm, Nanopartz,

Loveland, USA) were mixed with 1 µg plasmid DNA coding for pGY1-CA-*RACB*, pGY1-CA-

RACB-K167R or pGY1 (empty) and 0.5 µg plasmid DNA coding for the transformation marker

pUbi-*GUSplus* (a gift from Claudia Vickers, Addgene plasmid #64402,

http://n2t.net/addgene:64402, (Vickers et al., 2003)). Afterwards, 15 µl CaCl$_2$ (to a final

concentration of 0.5 M) and 7.5 µl of 20 mg/ml Protamine (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) were

added and the solution was incubated at RT for 30 min, with occasional mixing. Subsequently,

the solution was washed twice, first with 500 µl 70% ethanol and second with 500 µl 100%

ethanol. Finally, the gold particles were dissolved in 6 µl 100% ethanol using a sonicator and

used in the PDS-1000/He™ System. For each plasmid combination, nine barley leaves

distributed on three plates were transiently transformed per biological replicate. After

transformation, all plates were placed in a growth chamber operating under the above stated

conditions. These plates were then challenge-inoculated with 100-130 spores/mm^2 of *Bgh* at

24 h post transformation and incubated under normal plant growth condition for 40 h.

Afterwards, the leaves were first transferred into plates containing a GUS-staining solution

(0.1 M Na$_2$HPO$_4$/NaH$_2$PO$_4$ buffer pH 7, 0.01 M sodium EDTA, 0.005 M potassium

hexacyanoferrat (II), 0.005 M potassium hexacyanoferrat (III), 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100, 20%

(v/v) methanol, 0.5 mg/ml X-gluc (1,5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indoxyl-β-D-glucuronic acid,

cyclohexylammonium salt (Carbosynth, Bratislava, Slovak Republic), (Schweizer et al., 1999)),

vacuum infiltrated for 3 min and incubated at 37 °C for 6 h in the dark, before finally being

destained in 70% ethanol. For analysis of fungal penetration efficiency, fungal material was

stained using a calcofluor staining solution (0.3% (w/v) Calcufluor-white, 50 mM Tris pH 9)

before being subjected to light microscopy. Briefly, leaves were screened for transformed cells,

which could be distinguished due to their blue GUS-stain. If a fungal attack occurred in a

transformed cell, established haustoria were counted as successful penetration, while halted

fungal growth after appressorium formation was counted as successful plant defense. The *Bgh*

penetration efficiency for each plasmid combination was calculated by dividing the number of

successful penetration events by the sum of all successful penetration and defense events in

this combination. Five biological replicates of this experiment were analyzed, with at least 50

evaluated plant-fungus interactions per plasmid combination per replicate. Fig 8 displays all

Bgh penetration efficiencies divided by the mean penetration efficiency of all empty vector

controls with the respective standard error of the mean. All penetration efficiency data (stable

and transient assays) 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 datasets

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 against a p-value of

0.05.

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 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 (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 αHA-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). To determine, whether the observed ubiquitin-like

laddering pattern of 3xHA-CA-RACB is MG132-dependent, we floated transgenic barley

leaves expressing 3xHA-CA-RACB (lines BG657 E3 and E4) either on the float solution

described above or in a solution that contained the equal volume of DMSO instead of 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

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

787 prepared for mass spectrometry. In order to show protein stability of 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB* and

788 3x*HA*-CA-*RACB*-ΔCSIL, we performed a routine HA-immunoprecipitation from untreated

789 transgenic leaves (lines BG657 E3 and E4 and BG658 E4 and E9, respectively), followed by

790 an αHA 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 (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 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^{TM} 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 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 (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 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 (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 (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 (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 S2B Fig,

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.

Confocal microscopy

For the generation of GFP-tagged RACB-variants, *RACB* coding sequence was mutated in

pDONR223-*RACB* (from above) to create the G15V (CA), T20N (DN), K167R, G15V-K167R

and T20N-K167R mutants using site-directed mutagenesis with the respective primer pairs

RACB-SDM-G15V-F + RACB-SDM-G15V-R, RACB-SDM-T20N-F + RACB-SDM-T20N-R and

RACB-SDM-K167R-F + RACB-SDM-K167R-R. Subsequently, the *RACB* mutants were

transferred from pDONR223 into the Gateway®-compatible plant expression vector pGY1-

GFP (described in Engelhardt et al. (2019)) via Gateway® LR-cloning. Integrity of the

sequences and mutations were confirmed via Sanger sequencing. All primers can be found in

S5 Table. Protein stability of GFP-tagged RACB and its variants (WT, CA, DN and WT-K167R,

CA-K167R, DN-K167R) was indirectly assessed in transiently transformed barley epidermal

cells using confocal laser-scanning microscopy. For this, three primary leaves of 7 d old

wildtype barley plants (cultivar Golden Promise) were placed on 0.8% water-agar plates and

transformed using biolistic bombardment with the PDS-1000/He™ system (Bio-Rad, Hercules,

California, USA) as described above. For one transformation reaction, 1 µg of plasmid DNA

coding for a GFP-tagged RACB variant and 0.5 µg of plasmid DNA coding for free mCherry

were mixed. At 24 h post transformation, the leaves were analyzed using a Leica TCS SP5

CLSM mounted on a DM6000 stage (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany). Single transformed barley

epidermal cells were identified and fluorophores were sequentially scanned. Hereby, GFP was

excited with a 488 nm Argon laser and detected between 500 nm and 550 nm using a HyD

detector, while mCherry was excited with a 561 nm laser line and detected between 570 nm

and 620 nm using another HyD detector. To analyze and compare fluorescence intensities

between one RACB variant and its K167R counterpart, appropriate laser and detector settings

were chosen initially and kept constant for all cells and biological replicates of this combination.

For all cells, Z-stacks with 2 µm step size were acquired, ranging from the top of the cell until

the full nucleus was captured. The number of Z-stacks was kept constant for each RACB

variant combination. For one biological replicate, at least 25 cells were imaged per construct,

with three biological replicates in total. Single-cell mean pixel fluorescence intensities were

measured separately for GFP and mCherry, as 8 bit grey scale values using Fiji (Schindelin et

al., 2012), with regions of interest (ROIs) over one whole cell that was displayed a maximum

intensity projection of the Z-stacks. Data points of three independent experiments were

collected and graphed in 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 were tested with Shapiro-Wilk's

test and *Fisher's*-test, respectively. Significant differences of results were assessed using

Wilcoxon's rank-sum test with continuity correction against a p-value of 0.05.

For the RIC171 recruitment assay, an mCherry-RIC171 clone was generated by first amplifying

a coding sequence of *RIC171* (Schultheiss et al., 2008) via PCR with the primer pair RIC171-

Gateway-F + RIC171-Gateway-R and cloning it into the Gateway® entry vector pDONR223

using Gateway® BP-cloning. From there, RIC171 was transferred into the Gateway®-

compatible plant expression vector pGY1-nmCherry (generated in Engelhardt et al. (2019))

using Gateway® LR-cloning to create pGY1-*mCherry-RIC171*. For transient transformation of

barley epidermal cells, 1 µg of pGY1-*mCherry-RIC171* was mixed with 1 µg of pGY1-*CFP* and

either 0.5 µg of pGY1-*GFP*, 1 µg of pGY1-*GFP*-CA-*RACB* or 1 µg of pGY1-*GFP*-CA-*RACB*-

K167R for one reaction. Transient transformation of 7 d old wildtype barley plants (cultivar

Golden Promise) was carried out as described above. Single epidermal cells were analyzed

24 h after transformation using the Leica TCS SP5. CFP was excited with the 458 nm Argon

laser line and detected between 463 nm and 485 nm using a HyD detector, while GFP was

excited with the 488 nm Argon laser line and detected between 500 nm and 550 nm using a PMT and mCherry was excited with the 561 nm laser line and detected between 570 nm and 620 nm using another HyD detector. Individual laser excitation strengths and detector sensitivity settings were used for each cell in order to give high quality images. For all cells, sequentially-scanned Z-stacks with 2 μm step size were taken, ranging from the top of the cell until the full nucleus was captured, with the number of Z-steps being unique for each cell. For each combination of constructs, 15 cells were taken per replicate, with 3 biological replicates in total. For better illustration, the brightness of the representative images in this study was enhanced post scanning using the Leica Application Suite X software V3.5.7.23225 (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany).

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Supporting information

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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 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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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.

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S3 Fig. The ubiquitin-like laddering pattern of 3xHA-CA-RACB is independent of MG132.

Whole first leaves of barley stably overexpressing 3xHA-CA-RACB were either floated on a

solution containing MG132 or DMSO. After protein extraction, αHA-immunoprecipitation and

αHA Western blotting, higher molecular weight laddering of 3xHA-CA-RACB could be detected

independent of the treatment. Plant material originated from transgenic lines BG657 E3 and

E4.

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S4 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 indicated by

asterisks. Conserved 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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S5 Fig. GEF- and CRIB-binding interfaces in RACB.

Predicted binding interfaces for PRONE-GEFs (**A**, orange boxes, (Thomas et al., 2007)) and

CRIB-domains (**B**, pink boxes, (Abdul-Manan et al., 1999; Schaefer et al., 2011)) are

highlighted in the RACB amino acid sequence. RACB secondary structure motifs were

obtained through homology-modelling using SWISS-MODEL with the crystal structure of

AtROP5 as template (PDB: 3bwd.1, (Fricke and Berken, 2009)). α-helices (grey boxes with

winding helices) and β-sheets (grey arrows), as well as RACB *in vitro* phosphorylation (blue

circle) and *in vivo* ubiquitination (green circle) sites are illustrated. Annotations for the

G-domains (G$_{1-5}$) and hypervariable region (HVR) were taken from Fricke and Berken (2009),

whereas regions for P loop and Switches I & II were adopted from Sørmo et al. (2006).

Numbering for α-helices and β-sheets follow Pai et al. (1989) and Thomas et al. (2007).

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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. Summary of all barley ROPGAP phosphorylation sites which were evidenced

in this study.

S5 Table. List of all primers used in this study.

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