Dual action of sphinganine in the plant disease resistance to bacteria

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Abstract

Sphingolipids are ubiquitous, highly diverse molecules constituting at least 40% of plant plasma membranes. Initially known as modulators of membrane integrity, they now emerge as important players in plant responses to (a)biotic stresses. The interaction between *Arabidopsis thaliana* and the bacterium *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 *AvrRpm1* (*Pst AvrRpm1*) culminates in the activation of a programmed cell death known as the hypersensitive response (HR), which is part of the plant immune response. In this study, we showed that the co-infiltration of *Pst AvrRpm1* and sphinganine (d18:0) in *Arabidopsis* leaves suppress the HR. This suppression phenotype is also observed with bacteria carrying the effectors AvrB and AvrPphB but not with the ones carrying AvrRpt2 and AvrRps4. Sphingolipid-induced HR suppression by *Pst AvrRpm1* is correlated with the down-regulation of the gene *AtNMT1* encoding a *N*-myristoyltransferase. d18:0 does not have a direct antibacterial

effect and its co-infiltration in plants does not display typical signs of immune response

such as activation of salicylic acid signaling pathway and extracellular reactive oxygen

species production. Biophysical studies showed that d18:0 interacts with plant plasma

membrane lipids. More specifically, d18:0 disturbs plant plasma membrane

organization and mechanical properties. Our results demonstrate that sphingolipids

play an important role in plant resistance, especially by interfering with the plasma

membrane organization and effector localization and thus disturbing their function and

subsequent immune responses.

1. Introduction

Recognition of pathogenic microorganisms leading to plant immunity is commonly divided into two pathways that can mutually potentiate each other (Ngou et al., 2021). Pathogen perception involves the recognition of pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) through plant cell surface-anchored pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), which induces pattern-triggered immunity (PTI) (Saijo and Loo, 2020). However, some bacteria can interfere with PTI by delivering effectors into the plant cell to block signaling mechanisms at different steps (Desveaux et al., 2006; Kamoun, 2006; Dodds et al., 2009). The recognition of microbial effectors or virulence factors by the plant cells through intracellular nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat receptors (NLRs) induces effector-triggered immunity (ETI). PTI and ETI share many signals and components, but their signaling pathways are induced at different scales and time (Bjornson and Zipfel, 2021; Kadota *et al.*, 2019; Yuan *et al.*, 2021). Typical overlaps in signaling components are e.g., the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), the influx of calcium, and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling cascades. They also share some immune responses, such as transcriptional reprogramming and alterations in stress-related hormone homeostasis, including salicylic acid (SA), jasmonic acid (JA), and/or ethylene (ET) (Bari and Jones, 2009; Betsuyaku *et al.*, 2018; Guan *et al.*, 2015). Rapid programmed cell death (PCD) at the site of infection, known as the hypersensitive response (HR), usually is a hallmark of the ETI pathway (Couto and Zipfel, 2016; Henry *et al.*, 2013; Kadota *et al.*, 2019; Ngou *et al.*, 2021; Yuan *et al.*, 2021).

The bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 (*Pst* DC3000) has been extensively studied due to its capacity to cause bacterial speck in both tomato and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (hereafter *Arabidopsis*) (Lee *et al.*, 2015; Wei *et al.*, 2018),

as well as the availability of its complete genome sequence (Buell *et al.*, 2003).

Transformation of *Pst* DC3000 to express effectors has been essential for the

discovery of mechanisms associated with ETI (Boyle and Martin, 2015; Hicks and

Galán, 2013; Nimchuk *et al.*, 2000). AvrRpm1 effector was originally identified in *P.*

syringae pv. *maculicola* strain m2 (Debener *et al.*, 1991) and harbors an N-terminal

eukaryotic consensus site for myristoylation required for its full avirulence function. This

allows the effector, once acylated by the plant host, to be redirected to the plant plasma

membrane (PM) (Boyle and Martin, 2015; Hicks and Galán, 2013; Nimchuk *et al.*,

2000). Although the host acylation apparatus is initially exploited by bacteria to interfere

with PTI by binding to the kinase domain of PRRs (Boyle and Martin, 2015), in resistant

plants, it can actually turn against the pathogen. For instance, in *Arabidopsis*, the NLR

RPM1 (RESISTANCE TO *PSEUDOMONAS SYRINGAE* PV *MACULICOLA*) is

monitored by the PM-associated protein RPM1-INTERACTING PROTEIN-4 (RIN4),

which guards it against effector-mediated perturbations (Boyes *et al.*, 1998; Jones and

Dangl, 2006; Mackey *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, once relocated to the PM, AvrRpm1 will

target RIN4, inducing its phosphorylation. This activates RPM1 which triggers the ETI

and the HR, together interrupting the spread of the bacteria and leading to the

degradation of RPM1 (Boyes *et al.*, 1998; Mackey *et al.*, 2002; Xin *et al.*, 2018).

Sphinganine is a sphingolipid (SL), belonging to the long-chain base (LCB) class,

which are one major building block of SLs (Pata *et al.*, 2010). It consists of a C18 core

with an amino group at C2 and two hydroxylations at C2 and C3 (Luttgeharm *et al.*,

2016; Mamode Cassim *et al.*, 2019). SLs are key components of the plant PM

structure, accounting for up to 40 mol% of its external leaflet (Cacas *et al.*, 2016). They

are found mostly in lipid microdomains, and play an important part in signaling, protein

aggregation, and stress response (Cacas *et al.*, 2016; Grennan, 2007; Mamode

Cassim *et al.*, 2019; Pata *et al.*, 2010). Recent studies have shown that SLs are key

players in PCD regulation occurring either during plant development or immunity (Ali

et al., 2018; Berkey *et al.*, 2012; Huby *et al.*, 2020; Lenarčič *et al.*, 2017). For instance,

Bax-inhibitor-1 interacts with enzymes of the SL biosynthetic pathway FAH1 and 2

(FATTY ACID HYDROXYLASE 1 and 2). It leads to changes in lipid content of

membrane microdomains (Lenarčič et al., 2017). This causes the loss of proteins

normally located in these microdomains and that are essential for plant defense,

especially for cell death by oxidative stress or SA (Ishikawa *et al.*, 2015). Further links

between PCD, sphingolipids and the SA pathway have recently been highlighted. In

Arabidopsis, triple mutations of enzymes of the SL biosynthetic pathway, FAH1, FAH2

and LOH2 (LAG ONE HOMOLOG 2) led to the accumulation of sphinganine and

ceramides, another class of SLs. These mutants also exhibited a PCD that was

dependent on SA and was probably linked to d18:0 accumulation (König *et al.*, 2021,

2012).

Sensing of pathogen-derived lipid molecules is far from being elucidated. A recent

study demonstrated that the clivage product of the *Phytophthora infestans* ceramide D

by the neutral ceramidase 2 is recognize by the PRR RESISTANT TO DFPM-

INHIBITION OF ABSCISSIC ACID SIGNALING 2 (RDA2) (Kato *et al.*, 2022). Some

studies suggest that lipidic elicitors can directly interact with lipids in the plant PMs

(Cordelier *et al.*, 2021). For instance, ergosterol, the main sterol of fungi, is described

as a general elicitor of plant defenses (Klemptner *et al.*, 2014). Due to its lipidic nature

and its capacity to form rafts, it is thought to interact with the PM. In *Beta vulgaris,* it

can inhibit its H^+-ATPase activity, supposedly by tempering with the NADPH oxidase

present in the plant microdomains (Hao *et al.*, 2014; Rossard *et al.*, 2010).

While there are abundant reports on the links between LCBs and PCD (Ali *et al*., 2018; Huby *et al*, 2020), only few data on the use of exogenously applied LCBs and their mode of action are available (Glenz *et al*., 2019; Gutiérrez-Nájera *et al*., 2020; Magnin-Robert *et al*., 2015; Peer *et al*., 2011; Saucedo-García *et al*., 2011, 2023; Shi *et al*., 2007). In previous studies, we and others showed that the co-infiltration of *Arabidopsis* leaves with an LCB and *Pst AvrRpm1* does not induce an HR (Glenz *et al*., 2022; Magnin-Robert *et al*., 2015). In order to decipher the underlying mechanism, activation of canonical defense responses and antibacterial effect of the LCB were analyzed. Moreover, we showed similar phenotype with other effectors that share the myristoylation sequence with AvrRpm1. Finally, biophysical analyses demonstrated that sphinganine can interact with the plant biomimetic PM and disturb its organization as well as its mechanical features.

2. Material and methods

2.1 Plant material and growth conditions

Seeds of the *Arabidopsis* T-DNA insertion mutants *rpm1-3* (CS68739), *rpm1-rps2-rin4* (CS68760), and transgenic line *RPM1-myc rpm1* (CS68778) were obtained from the Nottingham *Arabidopsis* Stock Center (http://Arabidopsis.info). Mutants, transgenic lines and wild-type seeds Columbia-0 (Col-0) were grown in soil under 12 h-light/12 h-dark conditions (150 µmol/m^2/s, 20°C, and 60% humidity) for 5 weeks.

2.2 Chemicals

Sphinganine (d18:0), palmitoyl-2-linoleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (PLPC), sitosterol (sito), *D*-glucosyl-ß-1,1′-*N*-palmitoyl-*D*-erythro-sphingosine (d18:1/16:0 - GluCer or Glucosylceramide) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids. Sphingolipids were dissolved in ethanol (100%); PLPC, sitosterol and GluCer were dissolved in chloroform/methanol (2:1, v:v), and used without further purification. Protamine sulphate was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (France).

2.3 Bacterial cultures and inoculations

Pst DC3000 strains transformed to express the effectors AvrRpm1 (*Pst AvrRpm1*), AvrRpt2 (*Pst AvrRpt2*), AvrRps4 (*Pst AvrRps4*), AvrB (*Pst AvrB*) or AvrPphB (*Pst AvrPphB*) were provided by Prof. Jeff Dangl (University of North Carolina, USA) and Dr. Farid El-Kasmi (University of Tübingen, Germany), Prof. Brian Staskawicz (University of California, USA), Prof. Jane Parker (Max-Planck Institute, Cologne, Germany) and Dr. Brad Day (Michigan State university, USA), respectively. Bacteria were cultured overnight under agitation (180 rpm) at 28°C in liquid King's B medium, supplemented with rifampicin (50 µg/mL) and kanamycin (50 µg/mL). Bacterial cells were collected by centrifugation, washed twice, and resuspended in 10 mM MgCl$_2$. Bacterial solutions were infiltrated at 10^7 CFU/mL on the abaxial side of *Arabidopsis* leaves using a 1 mL syringe without needle. Co-treatment of bacteria with 100 µM d18:0 was

performed likewise. Control inoculations were conducted with 10 mM $MgCl_2$. At least four

leaves per plant were treated for each condition, with a minimum of three different plants.

2.4 *In vitro* antibacterial assays

Bacteria were cultured as previously described before being distributed in 96 wells plates at

10^7 CFU/mL in King's B medium supplemented with appropriate antibiotics, under agitation

and at 28°C. Bacteria were plated either alone, with ethanol (0.1%, v/v) or with d18:0 (100 µM).

OD_{600} measurements were performed using the TECAN Spark® (USA) absorbance reader,

every hour for 50 h. The presented data are obtained from growth curve experiments, from

which the growth rate was extracted.

2.5 Pathogen assay *in planta*

For bacterial count experiments, bacterial cells were cultured and inoculated as described.

Four inoculated leaves were weighed and ground in 1 mL of 10 mM $MgCl_2$ using a mortar and

pestle. Appropriate dilutions were plated on King's B medium with suitable antibiotics, and

bacterial colonies were counted. Data are reported as means ±SD of the log (CFU/mg fresh

weight) of three replicates.

2.6 RNA extraction and qRT-PCR

For total RNA extraction, at least 3 leaves from 3 different inoculated plants were collected 6

and 48 hours post infection (hpi). Fresh material was flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored

at -80°C until further use. RNA isolation was subsequently performed with Extract-all from

Eurobio Scientific (France), following recommendations from the manufacturer. For qRT-PCR,

1 µg RNA was used for reverse transcription using the Verso cDNA synthesis kit from Thermo

Fisher Scientific (USA) following the supplier's recommendations. The transcripts were then

quantified by qRT-PCR with a thermocycler CFX96 Real-Time system (Bio-Rad, USA) and the

Absolute Blue SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Gene-specific primers

were designed for PATHOGENESIS RELATED GENE 1 (*PR1)*, VEGETATIVE STORAGE

PROTEIN 1 (*VSP1*) and N-MYRISTOYLTRANSFERASE 1 (*NMT1*) are available in the

supplemental data. For each experiment, PCR was performed in triplicates. Transcript levels

were normalized against those of the UBIQUITIN5 (*UBQ5*) gene, used as an internal control.

Fold induction compared with untreated sample was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method, where

ΔΔCt=

$(Ct_{GI[unknown\ sample]}-Ct_{GI[reference\ sample]})-(Ct_{UBQ5[unknown\ sample]}-Ct_{UBQ5[reference\ sample]})$

where GI is the gene of interest. Data were analyzed with Bio-Rad CFX Manager software v2.0

(Bio-Rad, USA).

2.7 Immunoblotting assay

Extraction of total proteins was performed on pre-treated leaves of *RPM1-myc rpm1* plants

collected 0, 2, 6 and 24 hpi. To that end, 20 mg of leaf tissue were ground in a Potter-Elvehjem

homogenizer with 40 µL of extraction buffer (0.35 M Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 30% (v/v) glycerol, 10%

(v/v) SDS, 0.6 M DTT, 0.012% (w/v) bromophenol blue) and were denatured for 7 min at 95°C.

Next, samples were centrifuged at 11 000 g for 5 min and 30 µL of supernatant were separated

by 12% SDS-PAGE. Proteins were transferred onto PVDF membranes for 10 min at 25 V using

iBLOT gel transfer system (Invitrogen, France). After 30 min in 5% saturation solution (50 g/L

milk, TBS (137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 25 mM Tris-HCl), Tween20 0.05% (v/v)) and 3 times

for 5 min in 0.5% washing solution (5 g/L milk, TBS (137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 25 mM Tris-

HCl), Tween 20 0.05% (v/v)), membranes were incubated overnight with recombinant

monoclonal Anti-c-myc epitope tag [Clone 9E10] Mouse IgG1 kappa (Cliniscience, France,

1:1000) at 4°C. Then, membranes were washed 3 times for 5 min with the washing solution

and incubated 1 h with anti-mouse IgG HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (Bio-Rad, USA,

1:3000) at room temperature. Finally, washed membranes were developed with SuperSignal®

West Femto using an Odyssey scanner (ODYSSEY® Fc Dual-Mode Imaging System, LI-COR,

USA).

To normalize protein loading, membranes were stripped 15 min with 0.25 M NaOH, blocked

30 min in 5% non-fat milk. Then, membranes were incubated at room temperature for 1 h with

plant monoclonal anti-actin primary antibodies (CusAb, USA, 1:1000) and 1 h with anti-mouse

IgG HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (Cell Signalling, 1:3000). Membranes were washed

and developed as previously described.

2.8 Electrolyte leakage

10 min after bacteria inoculation, performed as previously described, 9-mm-diameter leaf discs

were collected using a cork borer from the infected area and washed extensively with distilled

water for 1 hour. Two leaf discs were placed in each well of a 24-well plate containing 1 mL of

distilled water. Conductivity measurements were then conducted over time using a B-771

LaquaTwin (Horiba) conductivity meter. Control inoculations were conducted with 10 mM

$MgCl_2$ and ethanol (0.1%, v/v).

2.9 Extracellular ROS production

Measurements of extracellular ROS production were adapted from Smith and Heese (2014).

Briefly, single half leaf discs (9 mm diameter) were placed in wells of a 96-well plate containing

150 mL of distilled water and incubated overnight at room temperature. Just before ROS

quantification, distilled water was replaced by 150 mL of an elicitation solution containing 20

mg/mL horseradish peroxidase, 0.2 mM luminol, and bacteria. Bacteria were added to a final

concentration of 10^8 or 10^9 CFU/mL, as specified further. In tests involving d18:0, the molecule

was added at a final concentration of 100 µM concomitantly with the elicitation solution. Control

inoculations were conducted with 10 mM $MgCl_2$ and ethanol (0.1%, v/v).

2.10 Phytohormone and camalexin quantifications

The quantification of SA, JA-isoleucine (JA-Ile) and camalexin was performed at 0 and 48 hpi

by UPLC-nano-ESI-MS/MS as previously described in Herrfurth *et al*. (2020). Phytohormones

were extracted with methyl-tert-butyl ether (MTBE), reversed phase-separated using an

ACQUITY UPLC® system (Waters Corp., USA) and analysed by nanoelectrospray ionization

(nanoESI) (TriVersa Nanomate®; Advion BioSciences, USA) coupled with an AB Sciex 4000

QTRAP® tandem mass spectrometer (AB Sciex, USA) employed in scheduled multiple reaction monitoring mode. For quantification, 10 ng D_4-SA (C/D/N Isotopes Inc., Canada), 20 ng D_5-IAA (Eurisotop, Germany), and 10 ng D_3-JA-Leu (kindly provided by Otto Miersch, Halle/Saale, Germany) were added at the beginning of the extraction procedure. For detection, the following mass transitions were used: 137/93 (declustering potential (DP) −25 V, entrance potential (EP) -6 V, collision energy (CE) −20 V) for SA, 141/97 (DP −25 V, EP −6 V, CE −22 V) for D_4-SA, 179/135 (DP −35 V, EP −9 V, CE -14 V) for D_5-indole-acetic acid, 199/141 (DP −60 V, EP −4 V, CE -32 V) for camalexin, 322/130 (DP −45 V, EP −5 V, CE -28 V) for JA-Ile and 325/133 (DP −65 V, EP −4 V, CE -30 V) for D_3-JA-Leu.

2.11 GUS reporter assays

To determine induction of *PR1*, GUS enzyme activity of *PR1::GUS Arabidopsis* plants was determined histochemically on leaves of the reporter line, treated as previously described, collected at 48 hpi, and placed in the GUS staining solution (50 mM sodium phosphate buffer - pH 7, 10mM EDTA, 1 mM $K_3Fe(CN)6$, 2 mM X-GlcA, and 0,1% Triton X-100). The leaves were vacuum-infiltrated for 5 min and incubated for 4 h at 37°C. Next, they were washed with Milli-Q water and left overnight at 4°C in a discoloration / fixation solution (ethanol:acetic acid, 3:1). Once the discoloration process was complete, leaves were placed in 95% (v/v) ethanol.

2.12 Lipid composition for plant biomimetic membranes

To mimic the lipid composition of plant PM, PLPC, β-sitosterol and GluCer were used, either in a mixture (60:20:20, molar ratio) or alone, depending on the experiment. This lipid composition was previously used to mimic plant PM (Deleu *et al.*, 2014, 2019; Deboever *et al.*, 2022).

2.13 Adsorption of sphinganine onto lipid monolayers using Langmuir trough

Adsorption experiments at constant surface area were performed in a KSV (Helsinki, Finland) Minitrough (190 cm^3) placed on a vibration-isolated table and equipped with a Wilhelmy plate,

as previously described (Nasir *et al.*, 2016). Lipid solutions were spread at the air-subphase

interface to reach the desired initial surface pressure. After a 15 min wait for solvent

evaporation and film stabilization, d18:0 was injected in the subphase (10 mM Tris buffer, pH

7.4), underneath the pre-formed lipid monolayer to a final concentration of 1.25 μM. The

adsorption of d18:0 to the lipid monolayer was monitored by the increase of surface pressure

as previously described (Nasir *et al.*, 2016; Deleu *et al.*, 2019). The injection of ethanol (0.1%)

was used as control. The maximal insertion pressure (MIP) and the differential Π_0 ($d\Pi_0$) were

determined, indicating the penetration power of d18:0 into the lipid monolayer and the attracting

effect the lipids have on d18:0, respectively. The MIP was obtained by linear regression of the

plot $\Delta\Pi$ *vs* Π_i and $d\Pi_0$ was calculated as follows: $d\Pi_0 = \Delta\Pi_0 - \Pi_e$

$\Delta\Pi_0$ corresponds to the y-intercept of the linear regression of the plot, and Π_e is the surface

pressure of d18:0 at the equilibrium when there is no lipid at the interface.

2.14 MLVs and liposome preparation

Multilamellar vesicles

Multilamellar vesicles (MLVs) were prepared as follows, with lipid mixtures of plant lipids. They

were dissolved in a chloroform/methanol mix (2:1, v:v). Solvents were evaporated and samples

were maintained under vacuum overnight to obtain a dry lipid film. Tris-HCl buffer (10 mM, pH

7.4) was then added to hydrate the lipid film. The lipid dispersion was maintained at 37°C for

1 h, vortexed every 10 min followed by 5 cycles of freeze-thawing.

Large unilamellar vesicles

To obtain large unilamellar vesicles (LUVs), the MLV suspension was extruded 13 times

through a 0,1 μM membrane filter using Liposofast extruder (AVESTIN®). Diameter and

stability of the LUVs were confirmed by dynamic light scattering (DLS) measurements.

2.15 Thermodynamic parameters of sphinganine interaction with lipid bilayers by

isothermal titration calorimetry

For isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) measurements, LUVs were prepared as described

and resuspended to reach a final concentration of 1 mM in Tris-HCl buffer (10 mM, pH 7.4). A

VP-ITC microcalorimeter (Microcal Inc., Northampton, MA, USA) was used for all

measurements. d18:0 was dissolved in DMSO (100%). All experiments were performed at

26°C. The reference cell was filled with degassed Milli-Q water. The sample cell (V= 1.4565

mL) was filled either with buffer (blank - Tris-HCl, 10 mM, pH 7.4), buffer + d18:0 (at a final

concentration of 20 µM) or buffer + DMSO (control – 0,01%). This cell was continuously stirred

at 305 rpm. The syringe (V= 300 µL) was filled with the LUV suspension + DMSO (1 mM in

buffer + 0.01%). Both the LUV solution and the content of the sample cell were degassed by

ultrasonication before use. The first injection of LUVs suspension was 2 µL and was not used

in data analysis. Then, every 600 s, 10 µL of the suspension were injected in the sample cell.

ITC data were analyzed using Origin 7.0 (Microcal) software following a previously described

method (Heerklotz and Seelig, 2000; Lebecque *et al*., 2018).

2.16 Laurdan polarization on lipid vesicles LUVs

Liposome suspension at a concentration of 100 µM in lipids was incubated with 1 µM of

Laurdan (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1h15. Then, wells of black 96-well microplates (Greiner Bio-

One™ CellStar™, Fischer Scientific) were loaded with 100 µL of liposome solution per well.

The fluorescence was recorded using Spark® microplate reader (Tecan) with an excitation

wavelength at 360 (±35) nm and emission wavelengths at 430 (±20) nm and 485 (±20) nm.

The fluorescence was recorded once before treatment and every 5 min until 20 minutes, after

the addition of 100 µL of 2-times concentrated treatment.

The generalized polarization (GP) was defined as GP = $\frac{(I_{430nm}-I_{485nm})}{(I_{430nm}+I_{485nm})}$, where I_{430nm} and I_{485nm}

represents the blank-subtracted fluorescence intensities at emission wavelengths of 430 nm

and 485 nm respectively. Variation of GP (ΔGP) is defined as the subtraction of GP measured

at each time point following treatment from GP measured before treatment.

2.17 Propensity of sphinganine to insert into a bilayer determined by the Impala procedure

First, the structure of d18:0 was constructed using HyperChem software (Hypercube, Inc.). The molecular geometry was optimized by systematic analysis of the torsion angles using the structure tree method as previously described (Lins *et al*., 1995). The most probable structure, corresponding to the lowest conformational energy, was used. The Impala procedure uses a Monte Carlo approach to simulate the insertion of d18:0 in an implicit lipid bilayer, as previously described (Ducarme *et al*., 1998; Franche *et al*., 2020). Briefly, this method employs an empirical forcefield to depict membrane physicochemical features while taking into account two types of restraints: the hydrophobic effect and lipid disturbances. The Z axis is assumed to be the only variable in membrane properties. The two restraints were calculated at each place by moving the d18:0 molecules along the Z axis by 1 Å steps from one side of the implicit membrane to the other and were later added to determine the total energy restraint.

2.18 Interaction energies between sphinganine and lipids determined by the Hypermatrix docking method

The hypermatrix docking method was employed, as previously described (Deleu *et al*., 2014; Deleu *et al*., 2019) in order to dock a molecule of sphinganine to a lipid system composed of either plant or bacterial lipids. Briefly, a molecule of d18:0 is fixed at the center of the system and oriented at the hydrophilic/hydrophobic interface. The lipid molecules, which are also oriented at the interface, are positioned around the center molecule and over 10^7 positions (translations and rotations) are tested. Interactions such as Van der Waals, electrostatic, and hydrophobic are all taken into account when calculating the interaction energies. The energy of interaction along the coordinates of all assembly are gathered in a matrix and sorted according to decreasing values. The assembly with the lowest energy value is considered the energetically most stable.

2.19 Modeling of sphinganine/plant lipids monolayer interactions with Big Monolayer method

The big monolayer method, as described by Deleu *et al.* (2019), was used to visualize lipid domains. Briefly, the initial stage consisted in aligning each pair of molecules in the system at the hydrophilic/hydrophobic interface according to Hypermatrix. Then, their interaction energies were computed, considering Van der Waals, electrostatic, and hydrophobic interactions. The second phase involved creating a grid of 200 × 200 molecules and utilizing a Monte Carlo procedure to minimize the system using the interaction energies computed in the previous step. Each molecule is represented by a pixel, producing an image of the molecular domains formed. Three repetitions of the system were calculated. The simulations were performed using plant lipid mixture with or without d18:0 (88% lipids, 12% d18:0).

2.20 Protoplast isolation

The isolation of mesophyll protoplasts was carried out by an enzymatic method as previously described (Yoo *et al*., 2007). Briefly, leaves of *Arabidopsis* were harvested, their abaxial side abraded with a scalpel blade and placed abaxial face down in an enzymatic solution (20 mM MES, 400 mM mannitol, 20 mM KCl, 10 mM $CaCl_2$, 1.5% cellulase, 0.4% maceroenzyme). They were left overnight at room temperature in the dark in this solution. The next day the digested solution was filtered with a gauze and centrifuged at 300 g for 2 min. The supernatant was removed, and a rinsing solution was added (20 mM MES, 400 mM mannitol, 20 mM KCl, 10 mM $CaCl_2$). This operation was repeated two times. The last supernatant was discarded, and the protoplasts were resuspended at 10^6 protoplasts/mL in a storage solution (20 mM MES, 400 mM mannitol, 20 mM KCl, 10 mM $CaCl_2$) until further use.

2.21 Atomic force microscopy

Protoplasts were adhered to the bottom of a glass-bottom Petrie dish by coating with positive-charge-bearing protamine sulphate 1 % in water: the bottom of the Petri dish was covered with a thin layer of this solution during 2 min, rinsed 3 times with the protoplasts storage solution

and the remaining solution was discarded. Protoplast suspension was incubated for 5 min with

final concentration 2 µM or 5 µM of d18:0 or control ethanol in protoplasts storage solution for

5 min. Then, pre-treated or not protoplasts suspension was gently deposited to the coating

Petri Dish, and the protoplasts were settled for 5 min.

QNM-LC-CAL probes (Bruker, Billerica, USA), having a resonance frequency of 45 kHz, a tip

radius of 65 nm, a tip height of 16 µm and a nominal spring constant below 100 mN/m were

calibrated on a non-compliant sample to extract the deflection sensitivity which turned out to

be around 10 nm/V. Afterwards the tip was pulled off (of 100 Um) and tuned in liquid to

determine the spring constant.

Optics (Nikon Ti 2000, Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) were used in bright field mode to browse through

all protoplasts and focus on those having a 100 µm diameter. Therefore, the tip was engaged

at the very center of each and forces curves were captured in single force spectroscopy mode.

The atomic force microscopy (AFM) used was a Bioscope Catalyst (Bruker, Billerica, USA). A

z ramp output was used, with a ramp size of 5 µm, a ramp rate of 0.25 Hz, a contact time of

50 msec, and a forward and backward velocities of 5 µm/sec. Each force curves contained

2048 points. The Poisson's ratio was arbitrary set at 0.3. We used a relative trigger mode, a

tip threshold of 30 nm and plotted the deflection error as data type. It was verified that there

was no apparent change in diameter or x,y motion of the object during the acquisition.

The Young's modulus was extracted according to the Hert's theory and normalized as a

function of the protoplasts' volumes. A minimum of 50 curves per condition were recorded and

experiments were repeated three times.

2.22 Confocal microscopy

To determine the membrane order, protoplasts were labelled with 300 nM final concentration

of fluorescent probe di-4-ANEPPDHQ (Invitrogen, D36802, stock solution 1,5 mM in DMSO)

in protoplast storage solution, during 5 min. The labelled protoplasts suspension was gently

deposited to the bottom of a glass bottom Petri dish and the protoplasts were settled for 5 min.

The labelled protoplast suspension was incubated for 5 min with final concentration 2 µM or 5

µM of d18:0 or control ethanol for 5 min.

Fluorescence images were acquired using a laser scanning microscope LSM 880 from ZEISS

(Carl ZEISS SAS, Rueil Malmaison, France) through 63x (ON 1,4) oil immersion objective with

ZEN software. Di-4-ANEPPDHQ excitation was done at 488 nm and emission intensities were

acquired between 540–560 nm (green image) and between 630–650 nm (red image).

Ratiometric imaging was performed using the Fiji software (Schindelin et al., 2021) with a

dedicated home-made macro.

3. Results

3.1 Effect of *Pst AvrRpm1* and sphinganine co-infiltration on *Arabidospis* cell death

We and others previously demonstrated that the co-infiltration of *Pst AvrRpm1* and d18:0 or t18:0, respectively, does not induce an HR in contrast to what happens with an infiltration of an avirulent bacteria or LCB alone (Magnin-Robert *et al.*, 2015; Glenz *et al.*, 2022). Therefore, *Pst* expressing effectors other than AvrRpm1 were selected to elucidate whether the absence of visible HR was dependent on the effector. AvrRpt2 was chosen because, like AvrRpm1, it is associated to the PM with RIN4 (Boyes *et al.*, 1998; Mackey *et al.*, 2003; Xin *et al.*, 2018). AvrRps4 was also tested because of the cytoplasmic localization of its target, RPS4 (Gassmann *et al.*, 1999; Wirthmueller *et al.*, 2007).

As expected, treatment with *Pst* DC3000 co-infiltrated or not with d18:0 triggered typical disease symptoms and infection with *Pst AvrRpm1*, *Pst AvrRpt2* or *Pst AvrRps4* alone, gave rise to a typical HR. Whereas co-infiltration of *Pst AvrRpm1* and d18:0 did not induce a visible HR as expected, the other tested bacteria displayed an HR when co-infiltrated with the sphingolipid (Figure 1A). Changes in conductivity were then used as a marker of plant cell death, as PM damages result in strong electrolyte leakage (Kawasaki *et al.*, 2005) (Figure 1B). All treatments triggered an increase in conductivity between 4 and 24 hpi, except for co-infiltration with *Pst AvrRpm1* and d18:0, displaying a conductivity stable over time and similar to the control plants (Figure 1B). These findings are consistent with our previous study (Magnin-Robert *et al.*, 2015) and corroborated with phenotypic observations in Figure 1A.

3.2 *In vitro* and *in planta* growth of *Pst AvrRpm1* in presence of sphinganine

As a potential deleterious effect of d18:0 on the bacteria could not be excluded, *in vitro* bacterial growth measurements were undertaken with or without the sphingolipid in the culture medium (Figure 2A). Ethanol had no effect on bacterial growth of all tested strains (data not shown). Interestingly, d18:0 had no antibacterial effect on *Pst AvrRpm1* and out of all the bacteria tested, d18:0 slightly reduced the growth rate of *Pst AvrRpt2*. Surprisingly, this bacterium does provoke cell death when co-infiltrated into leaves.

To determine the effect of the co-infiltration on bacterial growth *in planta*, bacterial populations were quantified at 0 and 48 hpi (Figure 2B). The growth of the avirulent strain *Pst AvrRpm1* was slightly reduced compared to the virulent strain, *Pst* DC3000 at 48 hpi. Furthermore, while the co-infiltration had no consequence on the development of *Pst* DC3000, it slightly reduced *Pst AvrRpm1* growth at 48 hpi. This bacterial count was however two-fold higher at 48 hpi than at 0 hpi, like in the other conditions (Figure 2B). Collectively, these data suggest that d18:0 does not have an antibacterial effect that could explain the absence of HR when *Pst AvrRpm1* is co-infiltrated with d18:0. Moreover, while *Pst AvrRpm1* continues its development inside the plant, it is however incapable of triggering an HR.

3.3 Extracellular ROS production by *Arabidopsis* in response to infection by *Pst*

Strong and sustained extracellular ROS production is an early defense event generally linked to HR. We therefore monitored their production by *Arabidopsis* in response to *Pst AvrRpm1*, *Pst AvrRpt2* and *Pst AvrRps4* (Figure 3). No significant statistical difference was found between ROS production triggered by bacteria alone or mixed with ethanol (data not shown). As already observed by Magnin-Robert *et al.* (2015), co-treatment of *Pst AvrRpm1* but also of *Pst AvrRpt2* and *Pst AvrRps4* with d18:0

reduced extracellular ROS production by approximatively 6-, 2- and 1.7-fold,

respectively (Figure 3). Only the co-infiltration of *Pst AvrRpm1* and d18:0 did not result

in an HR but ROS levels appear to be dramatically affected even with other bacteria

like *Pst AvrRps4*. These results suggest that reduced ROS production is not directly

linked to the absence of HR.

3.4 Effects of *Pst AvrRpm1* and sphinganine co-infiltration on *Arabidopsis* late

defense responses

Considering the effects of d18:0 on ROS production and cell death development, other

markers of plant defense were studied in response to co-infiltration. The accumulation

of the phytoalexin camalexin as well as the hormones SA and JA-Ile was followed. The

expression of *PATHOGENESIS-RELATED GENE 1* (*PR1*) and *VEGETATIVE*

STORAGE PROTEIN 1 (*VSP1*), marker genes of SA and JA-Ile signaling pathways,

respectively, was also analyzed. Control infiltration did not induce camalexin

production (Figure 4A). At 48 hpi, *Pst* DC3000 inoculation with or without d18:0

triggered similar camalexin accumulation. However, d18:0 co-infiltration did

significantly reduce camalexin production in response to *Pst AvrRpm1* since it

decreased from ~250 nmol/g FW to a similar level observed in controls (~3 nmol/g FW)

at 48 hpi (Figure 4A). Overexpression of *PR1* was observed 48h after infiltration with

each *Pst* strain alone (Figure 4C), which correlated with the accumulation of SA (Figure

4E). Neither SA accumulation nor *PR1* expression was induced at earlier time points.

The use of an *Arabidopsis* reporter line *PR1::GUS* confirmed the induction of *PR1*

expression in treated leaves (Figure 4B). Both SA accumulation and *PR1*

overexpression are repressed when leaves are co-infiltrated with d18:0, leading to

similar levels as in control plants (Figure 4C and E). *VSP1* is weakly expressed in

response to *Pst* DC3000 but overexpressed when this bacterium is co-infiltrated with

d18:0 (~ 9-fold and ~ 6-fold more at 6 and 48 hpi, respectively) (Figure 4D). JA-Ile

levels are however higher with the bacterium alone than co-infiltrated (Figure 4F).

When *Arabidopsis* was inoculated with *Pst AvrRpm1*, *VSP1* was slightly

overexpressed at 48 hpi but repressed when co-infiltrated with d18:0 (Figure 4D). JA-

Ile levels were concomitantly low (Figure 4F), as expected from plants challenged with

avirulent *P. syringae* (Mur *et al.*, 2006). Overall, co-infiltration of *Pst AvrRpm1* with

d18:0 significantly lowers the amount of camalexin and both defense hormone

signaling pathways.

3.5 Involvement of RPM1 and RIN4 in the absence of HR

Once injected into the cytoplasm of the host, AvrRpm1 triggers the phosphorylation of

RIN4, inducing the activation of RPM1 and subsequently the ETI leading to an HR

(Nimchuck *et al.*, 2000). To elucidate whether RPM1 and / or RIN4 were involved when

the bacterium is co-infiltrated with d18:0, inoculations of *Pst AvrRpm1* were performed

on *Arabidopsis* mutants *rpm1-3,* and *rpm1-rps2-rin4,* as well as the complemented line

RPM1-myc rpm1. Infiltration of the bacteria alone induced cell death and co-infiltration

of the complemented line displayed no symptoms, as expected (Figure 5A). Despite

lacking RPM1 and / or RIN4, all mutants showed the same phenotype as the WT when

co-infiltrated with d18:0 as they did not exhibit visible cell death (Figure 5A). It has been

previously demonstrated that RPM1 is degraded during the first hpi, coincidently with

the onset of the HR (Boyes *et al.*, 1998). To further elucidate the role of RPM1 and

RIN4, *RPM1-myc rpm1* plant was used to monitor the degradation of RPM1 following

inoculation (Figure 5B). Western blot analysis showed that while RPM1 was degraded

around 4 to 6 hpi when *Pst AvrRpm1* was infiltrated alone, the protein was still detected

24 hpi when the bacteria was co-infiltrated (Figure 5B). Taken collectively, these data

suggest that the mechanism underlying the absence of HR occurs upstream of RPM1

degradation.

3.6 Effect of *Pst AvrB* and *Pst AvrPphB* co-infiltration with sphinganine on

***Arabidopsis* defense response**

The three effectors AvrRpm1, AvrB and AvrPphB share an eukaryotic *N*-myristoylation

site in their protein sequences that allows them to be redirected to the PM once they

have entered their host (Nimchuk *et al.*, 2000). Like AvrRpm1, AvrB interacts with

RPM1 and RIN4 (Grant *et al.*, 1995; Lee *et al.*, 2004), and AvrPphB with RPS5 and

PBS1, both located at the PM (Ade *et al.*, 2007; Pottinger and Innes, 2020). As already

demonstrated (Warren *et al.*, 1998; Whalen *et al.*, 1991), infiltration of *Pst AvrB* or *Pst*

AvrPphB triggers an HR. No cell death was visible when both *Pst AvrB* and *Pst*

AvrPphB were co-infiltrated with d18:0, suggesting HR was not triggered in treated

plants, similarly to *Pst AvrRpm1* (Figure 6A). Further tests were conducted to

determine if d18:0 had an *in vitro* effect on these bacteria. Their growth rate remained

unchanged after d18:0 addition (Figure 6B), confirming that d18:0 has no antibacterial

effect on these two bacteria. Extracellular ROS production by *Arabidopsis* in response

to *Pst AvrB* and *Pst AvrPphB* was also monitored (Figure 6C). As for *Pst AvrRpm1*,

d18:0 significantly reduced this production in response to both bacteria (~ 2-fold for *Pst*

AvrB and ~ 3-fold for *Pst AvrPphB*).

3.7 *NMT1* relative expression following *Pst AvrRpm1* and sphinganine co-

infiltration

In *Arabidopsis*, two enzymes, NMT1 and NMT2, are responsible for *N*-myristoylation (Pierre et al., 2007). As the corresponding mutants displaying severe phenotypes, they were thus not suitable for our experiments. We used qRT-PCR to determine expression patterns of *NMT1* and *NMT2* in response to infiltration of *Arabidopsis* WT leaves with *Pst* DC3000 or *Pst* AvrRpm1, either alone or with d18:0 (Figure 7). Unfortunately, the expression of *NMT2* was too low to be detectable. At 6 and 24 hpi, *NMT1* expression in plants infiltrated with *Pst* DC3000 alone or with d18:0 was similar to that of control samples but was induced at 48 hpi (~ 2-fold). When plants were infiltrated with *Pst* AvrRpm1 alone, a continuous stimulation of *NMT1* expression is observed during the time-course experiment to reach a ~2.2-fold induction at 48 hpi (Figure 7). However, when plants were co-infiltrated with *Pst* AvrRpm1 and d18:0, no induction could be observed during the time-course experiment (Figure 7). Thus, a decrease of ~1.7-fold is observed between *Pst* AvrRpm1 infiltrated alone and with d18:0. Overall, these results suggest that co-infiltration with d18:0 modifies *NMT1* expression in response to infection with *Pst* AvrRpm1.

3.8 Interaction capacity of sphinganine with plant plasma membrane-mimicking models

It has been shown that LCB sphingosine (d18:1) can increase the permeability of liposomal and erythrocyte ghost membranes to aqueous solutes (Contreras *et al.*, 2006). Based on this finding, d18:0 was hypothesized to interact with the lipids of plant PM. To investigate this hypothesis, we conducted *in silico* and *in vitro* biophysical analyses using membrane plant models. Thanks to their defined structure and controlled lipid composition, these models were found to be useful in understanding

how external molecules affect the organization and mechanical properties of the membranes (Deleu *et al.*, 2014; Furlan *et al.*, 2020; Cordelier *et al.*, 2022).

The Impala modeling method was used to predict the ability of d18:0 to insert into an implicit model lipid bilayer and to determine the preferable location and positioning of d18:0 within a membrane bilayer (Figure 8). The more negative the energy is, the more favorable the insertion will be. A sharp drop of energy was observed as d18:0 moved from the aqueous phase to the membrane surface (up to ~-10 Kcal/mol), indicating that it could easily insert into membranes. The energy was close to 0 Kcal/mol in the hydrophobic region of the membrane, suggesting that d18:0 has a less favorable interaction with this region compared with the lipid bilayer hydrophilic region (Figure 8A). Nevertheless, the non-positive energy value in the hydrophobic region of the bilayer suggests that d18:0 could flip-flop between the two bilayer leaflets. A large increase in energy (from ~-10 Kcal/mol to +6.7 Kcal/mol) is also observed when d18:0 moves from the inner bilayer leaflet to the aqueous medium, which strongly suggests that d18:0 has no propensity to cross the membrane and enter into the cytoplasm. The preferred positioning of d18:0 within the membrane is shown in Figure 8B. Its lipid chain lies within the hydrophobic part of the membrane while the amine and alcohol groups are located in the hydrophilic part of the bilayer. Altogether, this indicates that d18:0 can interact with membranes and remains there. To support these simulation results, experimental analyses were performed using large unilamellar vesicles (LUVs) that mimic plant PM, consisting of palmitoyl-2-linoleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (PLPC), glucosylceramide (GluCer) and β-sitosterol (sito) as the plant PM model phospholipid, sphingolipid and sterol respectively (Deleu *et al.*, 2014; Rondelli *et al.*, 2021; Deboever *et al.*, 2022).

Results from ITC experiments showed a negative and decreasing heat flow after each
LUV injection into the d18:0 solution (Figure 9A), indicating that d18:0 interacts with
plant PM-mimicking LUVs. The thermodynamic parameters calculated from the fitting
of raw data are presented in Figure 9B. The binding coefficient K was relatively high
(>80 mM^{-1}) suggesting that d18:0 has a strong affinity for plant-mimicking lipid
membranes confirming the low probability that it emerges in the intracellular medium.
This affinity for plant PM-like liposomes is higher than that observed for other plant-
eliciting molecules such as linoleic and linolenic acid hydroperoxides (<3 mM^{-1}; Deleu
et al., 2019), and rhamnolipid bolaforms (7.5 mM^{-1}; Luzuriaga-Loaiza *et al*., 2018). The
binding reaction of d18:0 to LUVs was spontaneous as the molar free energy ΔG was
negative, exothermic as the molar enthalpy change ΔH was negative and generated a
positive change of the molar entropy (TΔS>0). The higher absolute value of the molar
entropy (TΔS>0) compared to the absolute value of the molar enthalpy change (ΔH),
indicates that the interactions is entropy-driven, i.e. mostly of hydrophobic nature.
Altogether, these results suggest that d18:0 is attracted by and can interact with plant
lipid membranes.
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3.9 Lipid specificity of the interaction between sphinganine and plant plasma
membrane-mimicking models

To investigate specific interactions between d18:0 and lipids representative of plant
PM, the Langmuir trough technique was used to analyze the adsorption capacity of
d18:0 into monolayers of each individual lipid. In this technique, a lipid monolayer is
initially formed at an air-water interface, and then d18:0 is injected into the subphase
beneath the monolayer. The increase in surface pressure (ΔΠ) at a constant trough
area was monitored to determine the adsorption of d18:0 into the lipid monolayer at

different initial surface pressures (Π_i) (Figure S1). Two parameters were determined from these data (Figure 10A): (i) the differential surface pressure ($d\Pi_0$), which provides information on the attractive effect of the lipids on d18:0, and (ii) the maximal insertion pressure (MIP), which reflects the ability of d18:0 to penetrate into the lipid monolayer (Deleu et al., 2014). Upon insertion of d18:0 onto monolayers formed with individual plant PM lipids, $d\Pi_0$ values were all positive and similar for all compositions, indicating that all tested lipids exert a similar attraction on d18:0 (Figure 10A). MIP values were all higher than the lateral pressure supposed to prevail into biological membranes (30 – 35 mN/m) (Marsh, 1996), meaning that d18:0 may be able to adsorb into natural plant membranes.

Lipid specificity of the interaction was also studied by an *in silico* approach using the Hypermatrix docking method. This method calculates the energy of interaction between d18:0 and individual plant lipids at a hydrophilic/hydrophobic interface, indicating whether this interaction is energetically favorable or not (Brasseur *et al.*, 1987; Deleu *et al.*, 2014). Results showed that the interaction between d18:0 and all plant lipids was favorable as all interaction energies are negative (Figure 10B). Interestingly, the interaction energies between d18:0 and plant lipids were more favorable than those observed for d18:0 with itself. With this method, interaction between d18:0 and PLPC or GluCer appeared to be more favorable than with β-sitosterol.

Altogether, these data showed that d18:0 is attracted by and could interact with lipids of plants. There is however no clear trend to determine a preferential interaction of d18:0 with a particular lipid.

3.10 Modification of the organization and mechanical properties of plant plasma membrane-mimicking models induced by sphinganine

Since d18:0 can interact with lipids found in plant PMs, additional experiments were conducted to investigate how these interactions could impact the mechanical properties and the organization of plant PMs.

Two aspects of membrane mechanics were considered: membrane fluidity and membrane elasticity. Membrane fluidity refers to the degree of lipid packing and the mobility or dynamics of lipids within the membrane, which can be characterized by the order level parameter (Gerbeau-Pissot *et al*., 2014). Membrane elasticity corresponding to the resistance of a material to deformation when subjected to an applied force was determined by measuring the Young's modulus. The higher the Young's modulus, the stiffer and less deformable the object is (Magazzu and Marcuello, 2023). Although membrane fluidity can be influenced by the membrane elasticity, there is no direct quantitative relationship between Young's modulus and membrane fluidity or order level and therefore must be considered as separate aspects of membrane behavior.

To analyze the order level of *Arabidopsis* PM in response to d18:0, *Arabidopsis* leaf protoplasts were stained with the dye di-4-ANEPPDHQ. The order level of the membrane, revealed by fluorescence imaging, was quantified using the red/green ratio of the membrane (RGM) (Dinic *et al*., 2011; Gerbeau-Pissot *et al*., 2014). Observations of protoplasts indicated a significant decrease in RGM compared to controls (from 0.99 to 0.80 and 0.74 for concentrations of 2 µM and 5 µM d18:0, respectively) (Figure 11A-D), with no statistical difference between the two concentrations of d18:0. The RGM profile of a 4 µm fragment of PM from controls appeared homogenous whereas those from sphingolipid-treated protoplasts is more heterogenous (Figure 11E-G). These

findings suggest that the order level increased in response to the LCB. This increase in membrane order level in the presence of d18:0 was confirmed by the greater variation in the generalized polarization of Laurdan on biomimetic liposomes compared to the control ethanol, and this as soon as d18:0 came in contact with the lipid bilayer (Figure 11H). Laurdan is a fluorescent probe sensitive to membrane lateral packing, a higher generalized polarization corresponding to a greater lipid packing (Parasassi *et al*., 1991).

Young's modulus was measured by recording force-distance curves using AFM (Supp data) on leaf protoplasts. In the presence of d18:0, Young's modulus decreased (Figure 11I) indicating a reduction in membrane elasticity and a lower resistance to membrane deformation. Again, there is no concentration dependence.

Using the Big Monolayer simulation method, which is useful for studying the lateral distribution of molecules based on their mutual interaction energies, we observed that d18:0 preferentially interacted with the lipid domains initially formed by β-sitosterol and GluCer (Figure 11J left), resulting in their fragmentation as shown in Figure 11J right. Accordingly, fluorescence images of di-4-ANEPPDHQ-stained protoplasts (Figure 11 A to C and E to G) demonstrated an increase in the number of small ordered domains in the presence of d18:0 compared to its absence.

4. Discussion

The roles of sphingolipids during PCD in response to biotic stress are still not fully understood (Berkey *et al*., 2012; Huby *et al*., 2020). Previous studies showed that co-infiltration of *Pst AvrRpm1* with the LCB d18:0 or t18:0 on *Arabidopsis* leaves did not trigger an HR on the treated leaves, with no evidence of cell death, indicating the conservation of plant PM integrity and absence of cell lysis following the co-infiltration (Glenz *et al*., 2022; Magnin-Robert *et al*., 2015). In the present work, we show that the levels of all plant immunity markers in response to co-infiltration, including those related to the plasma membrane, are similar to the control plants, despite the fact that the bacterium still develops inside plant tissues. We also report a similar effect with *Pst* expressing the effector AvrB or AvrPphB. AvrRpm1, AvrB and AvrPphB need to be myristoylated to be active. This process is disturbed during co-infiltration leading to an absence of plant defense response activation. Finally, interaction of d18:0 with lipids of the plant PM was demonstrated.

In vitro tests showed that this LCB does not have an antibacterial effect on *Pst AvrRpm1*, *Pst AvrB* and *Pst AvrPphB*, similarly to results obtained with *P. aeruginosa* (Fischer *et al*., 2012). t18:0 was shown to inhibit *Pst* growth (Glenz *et al*., 2022). However, the authors used a smaller bacterial concentration and LB medium to perform their tests. Here, by using a higher bacterial concentration and a medium more favorable to *Pst* growth, the bacterial pressure was more important in our tests, which could explain the discrepancy with the data published by Glenz and colleagues. *In planta* experiments showed that, even though *Pst AvrRpm1* is not capable of inducing an HR when co-infiltrated with d18:0, it is still present inside the plant and even continues to thrive, confirming the non-detrimental effect of d18:0 on the bacterium. In contrast, a pre-treatment with FB1, in order to promote endogenous LCB accumulation,

inhibit *Pst* DC3000 but not *Pst AvrRpm1* growth (Saucedo-García *et al.*, 2023). Moreover, *loh1* plants that accumulate endogenous levels of LCBs together with *PR1* enhanced expression, displays spontaneous cell death (Ternes *et al.*, 2011). The localization (apoplastic *vs* cytoplasmic) of the LCB and the fact that FB1 or *loh1* induces or displays higher LCB but also LCB-P, ceramide or GluCer accumulation (Chen *et al.*, 2008; Kimberlin *et al.*, 2016; Saucedo-García *et al.*, 2011) could explain this discrepancy. This could also suggest that interaction of d18:0 with the PM and its presence within the PM when infiltrated could be essential in the cell death induction. Previous results showed that co-treatment of d18:0 with *Pst* DC3000 or with *Pst AvrRpm1* drastically reduced extracellular ROS production by *Arabidopsis* (Magnin-Robert *et al.*, 2015). Our results demonstrate that d18:0 reduces ROS production in response to bacteria that induce symptoms *in planta* but also to bacteria that do not induce symptoms (*Pst AvrRps4* and *Pst AvrRpm1, Pst AvrB, Pst AvrPphB,* respectively). This production remained unchanged when plants are treated with *Pst AvrRpt2*. The hypothesis that LCBs could impact ROS production by plants has already been put forward in several studies, although some of them are somewhat contradictory. Coursol *et al.* (2015) showed that exogenous addition of 20 µM LCBs reduced tobacco ROS production in response to cryptogein. In *Arabidopsis*, LCBs can induce both intracellular as well as extracellular ROS production (Glenz *et al.*, 2019; Peer *et al.*, 2011; Shi *et al.*, 2007; Saucedo-Garcia *et al.*, 2023). ROS production can be detected during both PTI and ETI (Torres, 2010). In *Arabidopsis,* it is mainly related to RbohD located in lipid microdomains of the plant PM (Hao *et al.*, 2014; Mongrand *et al.*, 2004). A number of studies have suggested that RbohD-derived ROS production is not directly involved in plant cell death, but rather in the signaling pathways associated with plant defense responses (Lherminier *et al.*, 2009; Torres *et al.*, 2005).

This means that even though d18:0 could alter ROS production, it may not have any

impact on PCD and would therefore not be responsible for the absence of HR.

Additionally, it has been already demonstrated that a lipidic elicitor is able to interact

with lipid membrane microdomains (Rossard *et al*., 2010). These data suggest that

LCBs might interact with and thus disturb the PM organization of *Arabidopsis* leading

to the reduction of RbohD activity.

SA pathway is triggered in response to hemibiotrophic pathogens, such as *Pst*,

whereas JA and its active form JA-Ile are involved in infection by necrotrophic

pathogens (Li *et al*., 2019). In our study, *PR1* is significantly down-regulated upon co-

infiltration with d18:0 and *Pst* DC3000, and even more so upon *Pst AvrRpm1,* which

coincides with lower SA accumulation. SA repression is commonly associated with

promotion of bacterial development and/or enhancement of a JA-dependent pathway

(Brooks *et al*., 2005; Moore *et al*., 1989; Zhou *et al*., 1998). *P. syringae* produces

coronatine, a phytotoxin that mimics JA-Ile and acts by inhibiting the accumulation of

SA in order to promote bacterial growth (Zheng *et al*., 2012). Conversely, in

Arabidopsis, coronatine-insensitive mutants that are resistant to *Pst* display higher

levels of SA (Block *et al*., 2005). In *Arabidopsis*, the SA and JA pathways antagonize

each other (Li *et al*., 2019; Mur *et al*., 2006). However, JA pathway markers are also

down-regulated in response to d18:0/*Pst AvrRpm1* infiltration. Considering these

results, we could conceive that co-infiltration represses or does not activate both SA

and JA pathways in response to the avirulent bacterium because of a lowered bacterial

virulence, a decreased susceptibility, and/or an altered perception of the pathogen.

AvrRpm1, AvrB, and AvrPphB effectors all possess a consensus N-terminal

myristoylation sites which are required for full avirulence function (Nimchuk *et al*.,

2000). Myristoylation process occurs inside the plant cell (Nimchuk *et al*., 2000) and is

catalyzed by NMT (*N*-myristoyltransferase) enzymes (Pierre et al., 2007). Here, *NMT1*

expression is significantly reduced at 24 and 48 hpi when *Pst* AvrRpm1 is co-infiltrated

with d18:0. d18:0 co-infiltration could thus interfere with the myristoylation of these

effectors. As a consequence, it prevents them from being redirected to the PM where

their targets are and consequently preventing their activity in *Arabidopsis*. Recently, a

mis-localization of RPM1 at the PM, due to a depletion in anionic phospholipids in the

PM, inhibits its cell death activity (Saile et al., 2021). Since cell death is still induced,

such depletion does not affect RPS5 function, which is constitutively PM localized due

to the presence of myristoylation motifs in its sequence. RPS5 mediates the recognition

of AvrPphB. Co-infiltration of this effector with d18:0 results in an absence of HR, thus

excluding the involvement of a PM phospholipid dependent mechanism. PM

localization and stability of NLRs is essential for their activity in the induction of cell

death and immune responses (Saile et al., 2021). Effector localization into plant cell is

also essential for their interaction with their targets and subsequent activity (Nimchuk

et al., 2000). The inability for AvrRPM1 to interact with its target implies not only that

all the downstream plant defense responses are not activated but also the absence of

RPM1 degradation after co-infiltration. Moreover, mutation of consensus myristoylation

sites of *AvrRPM1* or *AvrB* leads to a highly reduction of HR events and an unhindered

pathogen growth (Nimchuk et al., 2000), consistent with our results.

All the effects of d18:0 previously mentioned, and its amphiphilic nature suggest that

the molecule can interact with the plant PM. It was thus hypothesized that it could insert

into the lipid fraction of the PM, as already suggested for other molecules such as fatty

acid hydroperoxides, rhamnolipids, lipopeptides that interact with lipids of plant PMs

(Cordelier et al., 2022; Deboever *et al*., 2022; Deleu *et al*., 2013, 2008; Henry *et al*.,

2011; Nasir *et al*., 2010; Schellenberger et al., 2021). Here, biophysical studies have

shown that d18:0 was attracted by, interacted with and stayed in biomimetic plant PMs. These findings were further supported by *in silico* and *in vitro* analyses as well as microscopic observations that notably showed d18:0 could disturb the lateral organization and mechanical properties of plant PM and more specifically of its microdomains. While it was suggested that exogenous LCB could cross the PM by passive diffusion (Glenz *et al*., 2019), our results suggested that d18:0 has no propensity to go into the intracellular medium but actually possesses a flip-flop potential within the PM meaning that exogenous addition of d18:0 could disturb the PM. As previously stated, this interaction could eventually disturb defense-related proteins located within its domains (Gronnier *et al*., 2018, 2016; Huby *et al*., 2020; Mamode Cassim *et al*., 2019; Nagano *et al*., 2016), which could explain the absence of extracellular ROS production observed in response to *Pst*. Lipid composition and organization of the PM influence PM localization and stability of NLRs and consequently their activity in cell death inducing (Saile et al., 2021). By disturbing the PM organization, exogenous addition of d18:0 could also influence NLR localization and function.

Collectively, our results demonstrated that d18:0 could have a dual effect on the PM when co-infiltrated with *Pst AvrRpm1* by disturbing the organization and mechanical properties of the PM and the myristoylation process, and thus the redirection of effectors to the PM. Both actions prevent the interactions of NLR with its effector and subsequent defense responses.

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Conflict of interest statement

820 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data availability statement

823 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding

824 author upon reasonable request.

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 Figure legends

 FIGURE 1 Effect of co-infiltration of *Pst* and d18:0 on cell death. (A)

 Representative leaves of Col-0 WT 48 hours after infiltration with either *Pst* DC3000,

 Pst AvrRpm1, *Pst AvrRpt2, Pst AvrRps4* alone or co-infiltrated with d18:0. The

 experiment was repeated at least 5 times with similar results (n=5). (B) Ion leakage

 measurements over 24 hours following infiltration with *Pst AvrRpm1*, *Pst AvrRpt2* or

 Pst AvrRps4, alone or with d18:0. Data are reported as means ± SD (n=3). The

 experiment was repeated three times with similar results.

 FIGURE 2 *In vitro* and *in planta* bacterial growth in presence of sphinganine. (A)

 Growth rate was estimated from bacterial growth curve data (OD_{600}) over 48 hours,

 ±SD in King's B medium. Asterisks indicate significant differences between each

 bacterium co-infiltrated with d18:0 or not (Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney, *, $p<0.05$). (B)

 Bacterial growth ±SD (n = 3) at 0 and 48 hpi in *Arabidopsis* WT Col-0 leaves infected

 by bacteria alone or with d18:0.

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 (Relative Light Units) ± SEM (n = 6) over 90 min. The experiment was performed three

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 FIGURE 4 Late plant defense events in response to bacterial infiltration. *Pst*

 DC3000 or *Pst AvrRpm1* were co-infiltrated with or without d18:0. (A) Camalexin was

quantified at 0 and 48 hpi (FW: fresh weight). Different letters indicate significant

differences (ANOVA, $p<0.05$, one way, n=5). (B) Representative leaves of *PR1::GUS*

lines 48 hpi. (C) and (D) Relative expression of *PR1* and *VSP1*, respectively, followed

6 and 48 hpi. Results are expressed as the fold increase in transcript level compared

with the untreated control (0h), referred to as the x1 expression level. Experiments

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FIGURE 5 Involvement of RPM1 in the absence of defense responses. (A)

Photographs represent symptoms observed 72 hpi in WT, *rpm1-3*, *rpm1-rps2-rin4* and

RPM1-myc rpm1 lines treated with or without d18:0. (B) Western blot of RPM1 protein

in WT and *RPM1-myc rpm1* line at 2, 6 or 24 hpi. Normalization was carried out with

Actin. NT refers to non-treated samples. All experiments were repeated at least 3 times

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FIGURE 6 Effect of *Pst AvrB* and *Pst AvrPphB* co-infiltration with d18:0 on plant

defense responses. (A) Photographs represent symptoms observed 48 hours after

WT plant infiltration with either *Pst AvrB* or *Pst AvrPphB* alone or with d18:0. The

experiment was repeated at least 3 times with similar results (n = 3). (B) Growth rate

estimated from bacterial growth curve data (OD_{600}) over 48 hours, ±SD in King's B

medium. (C) ROS production measurement in presence of *Pst AvrB* or *AvrPphB* with

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FIGURE 7 *NMT1* expression in response to co-infiltration of bacteria and

sphinganine. Relative expression of *NMT1*, (N-*myristoyltransferase 1*) was followed

at 6, 24 and 48 hpi of *Pst* DC3000 or *Pst AvrRpm1* with or without d18:0. Results are

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FIGURE 8 Interaction of sphinganine with an implicit modeled bilayer. (A) The

Impala simulation calculates the energy restraints of a lipid bilayer as d18:0 goes

through it. The X-axis corresponds to the position of the center of mass along the Z-

axis. From left to right: the interface between the bilayer and the aqueous phase

(orange), the interface between the polar head and the alkyl chain (pink) and the center

of the bilayer (green). (B) The most energetically favorable orientation of d18:0 in the

modeled bilayer. The lines represent the same planar surfaces as in A.

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FIGURE 9 Interaction of sphinganine with plant-like liposomes. (A) Raw data from

ITC experiments at 26°C. Each peak corresponds to a single injection of a 1 mM PLPC,

glucosylceramide and sitosterol (60:20:20, molar ratio) LUV suspension into a solution

containing 20 μM of d18:0. (B) Calculated thermodynamic parameters for this

interaction. These values are means of two independent experiments. K represents

the binding coefficient (the affinity of d18:0 for the LUVs), ΔG represents the molar free

energy, ΔH, the molar enthalpy change, and TΔS, the molar entropy change.

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representative of the plant plasma membrane. (A) Adsorption of d18:0 into

monolayers of plant PM lipids: PLPC, glucosylceramide (GluCer) and β-sitosterol

(Sito). d18:0 was injected at 1.25 µM in a subphase (Tris HCl, 10 mM, pH 7.4),

underneath the lipid monolayer. The maximal insertion pressure (MIP) reflects the

penetration power of d18:0 into the lipid monolayer and the differential Π (dΠ0)

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d18:0 alone or with lipids representative of the plant plasma membrane were calculated

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Figure 11 Mechanical properties and organization of the plant plasma membrane

in response to sphinganine treatment. (A) to (C) Fluorescence red/green ratio

images by multispectral confocal microscopy of a single-cell PM labeled with di-4-

ANEPPDHQ after control (A), 2 µM d18:0 (B) or 5 µM d18:0 (C) treatment. (D) Red to

green ratio of the PM (RGM) labeled with di-4-ANEPPDHQ treated with control (Ctrl),

2 µM or 5 µM d18:0. The asterisk indicates a significant difference compared to the

control (P value < 0.05). (E) to (G) RGM profile on a 4 µm distance on PM from

protoplasts after control (E), 2 µM d18:0 (F) or 5 µM d18:0 (G) treatment. (H) Variation

of laurdan generalized polarization (ΔGP) measured in PM-mimicking liposomes (50

µM PLPC:Glucosylceramide:b-sitosterol (60:20:20 molar ratio)) at several time points

after control (white bars) and 20 µM d18:0 treatment (grey bars). A positive ΔGP

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differences with control, *P<0.05, **P<0.01, two-way ANOVA and Sidak's multiple

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from three independent experiments. (J) Monolayer simulations of lipid-d18:0

interactions performed with Big Monolayer where each pixel represents a molecule.

(Left) Plant lipid model with PLPC in green, glucosylceramide (GluCer) in blue and

sitosterol (sito) in orange (60:20:20, molar ratio). (Right) The same lipids after addition

of d18:0 in pink (88% lipids, 12% d18:0).

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Supporting Information

FIGURE S1 Adsorption behaviour of d18:0 into lipid monolayer mimicking plant

plasma membrane (A) Kinetics of d18:0 (1.25 µM in the subphase Tris HCl, 10 mM,

pH 7.4) adsorption to a bare interface or to the lipid monolayer (here the example of

PLPC monolayer) at different initial surface pressures (Π_i). The arrow indicates the

time at which d18:0 was injected underneath the bare interface or the PLPC monolayer.

(B) Surface pressure variation following adsorption of d18:0 versus the initial surface

pressure (Π_i) of the PLPC monolayer.

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B	Mean Values	Standard deviations
K (m/M)	86.80	18.99
ΔG (J/mol)	-16.09	0.55
ΔH (J/mol)	-1.39	0.26
TΔS (J/mol)	14.70	0.29

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