Structure-guided secretome analysis of gall-forming microbes offers insights into

effector diversity and evolution

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ABSTRACT

Phytopathogens secrete effector molecules to manipulate host immunity and metabolism. Recent advances in structural genomics have identified fungal effector families whose members adopt similar folds despite sequence divergence, highlighting their importance in virulence and immune evasion. To extend the scope of comparative structure-guided analysis to more evolutionarily distant phytopathogens with similar lifestyles, we used AlphaFold2 to predict the 3D structures of the secretome from selected plasmodiophorid, oomycete, and fungal gall-forming pathogens. Clustering protein folds based on structural homology revealed species-specific expansions and a low abundance of known orphan effector families. We identified novel sequence-unrelated but structurally similar (SUSS) effector clusters, rich in conserved motifs such as 'CCG' and 'RAYH'. We demonstrate that these motifs likely play a central role in maintaining the overall fold. We also identified a SUSS cluster adopting a nucleoside hydrolase-like fold conserved among various gall-forming microbes. Notably, ankyrin proteins (ANK) were significantly expanded in gall-forming plasmodiophorids, with most being highly expressed during clubroot disease, suggesting a role in pathogenicity. Subsequently, we screened ANK proteins against Arabidopsis immunity hubs using AlphaFold-Multimer and verified one of the positive results by Y2H and BiFC assays to show that the ankyrin effector PBTT_00818 targets host MPK3 and a zinc-binding dehydrogenase. These findings suggest a potential new mechanism in which ANK effectors target multiple host proteins involved in stress sensing, opening a novel avenue to study the role of ANK in host–pathogen interactions. Altogether, this study advances our understanding of secretome landscapes in gall-forming microbes and provides a valuable resource for broadening structural phylogenomic studies across diverse phytopathogens.

KEYWORDS: Effector biology, AlphaFold, Plasmodiophorid, Gall-forming pathogens, SUSS

INTRODUCTION

The evolutionary arms race between host plants and their microbial pathogens is a fascinating example of adaptation and counteradaptation. Central to this battlefield are the effectors — secreted proteins from pathogens that manipulate host cellular processes to facilitate infection and colonization [1]. Effectors can also be recognized by plant receptor and trigger immunity and defense responses in the host [2]. Due to their central role in pathogen-host interactions, effectors must continually evolve to evade detection by the host's immune system [3]. This arms race drives rapid changes in effector sequences, often resulting in high mutation rates and diversification [4]. Additionally, effectors should maintain structural integrity for functionality while altering surface residues to avoid immune recognition [5]. Recent studies have defined these groups of effectors as Sequence-Unrelated Structurally Similar (SUSS), which despite lacking sequence similarity, share significant structural homology [6,7]. For example, the MAX effector family, which includes proteins from various fungal pathogens like *Magnaporthe oryzae* and *Pyrenophora tritici-repentis*, exhibits a conserved β-sandwich fold[8]. Other examples include the RXLR-WY effector families in oomycetes [9,10], the LARS effectors in *Cladosporium fulvum* and *Leptosphaeria maculans* [11], the RALPH effectors in *Blumeria graminis* [12], and the FOLD effectors in *Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. lycopersici* (D. S. Yu et al., 2024) demonstrating structural conservation. FOLD effectors have also recently been found in the secretome of unrelated pathogenic and symbiotic fungi, pointing to the fold's relevance in plant colonization and expansion in different evolutive groups [14]. A recent study that classified orphan effector candidates (OECs) from Ascomycota into 62 main structural groups, proposes that such structural conservation can be explained by changes in thermodynamic frustration at surface residues, which increase the robustness of the protein structure while altering potential interaction sites [5].

Some of the discussed studies have been fueled by the emergence of machine-learning tools like AlphaFold [15], which has revolutionized the field of protein modeling and enabled the computational prediction of pathogen effector structures. The utility of AlphaFold in plant-microbe interactions has been further demonstrated by its ability to predict the structure of the highly conserved AvrE-family of effector proteins [16]. These proteins are crucial in the pathogenesis of various phytopathogenic bacteria but are challenging to study due to their large size, toxicity to plant and animal cells, and low sequence similarity to known proteins [17]. The

structure prediction revealed β-barrel structures similar to bacterial porins, allowing to modulate

host cell functions by facilitating the movement of small molecules across plasma membrane.

AlphaFold Multimer [18], an extension of AlphaFold designed to predict in-silico protein-protein

interactions, has been recently used to identify 15 effector candidates capable of targeting the

active sites of chitinases and proteases [19], expanding the applicability of these tools to advance

the tailored functional characterization of effector proteins.

Recent advances in structure-guided secretome analysis have mostly focused on fungal

pathogens due to their significant economic impact and the availability of robust genomic and

transcriptomic resources. However, in recent years, there is a growing interest in protist

pathogens, which are quickly becoming a threat to agriculture and environment [20]. For example,

the gall-forming *Plasmodiophora brassicae*, a protist belonging to the class Plasmodiophorid, can

cause significant yield loss in canola fields [21,22]. Moreover, these obligate biotrophic protists are

impossible to culture in axenic media and therefore difficult to transform [23]. Although the effector

repertory for some of these protists has been predicted, the majority of their secretome remains

uncharacterized due to the absence of known protein domains [20]. To gain more insights into the

secretome composition and effector biology of these understudied pathogens, we conducted

structural similarity-based clustering of the predicted effectors of selected plasmodiophorid,

oomycete, and fungal gall-farming pathogens. Here we examined (*i*) if the primary secretome

families present in each pathogen share common folds with known fungal effector families; (*ii*) if

they share common folds that could be associated to their biotrophic lifestyle and gall- forming

pathogenicity strategy; and (*iii*) if some of the known effectors from these pathogens are part of

SUSS effector families. By comparing the secretome of gall-forming pathogens from distant

lineages, we provide a comprehensive overview of the uniqueness and commonality of the

secretome landscape and offers more insights into the protist effector families by bringing them

into the structural genomics era.

RESULTS

Secretome prediction and structural modeling of gall forming pathogens

Based on genome availability, phylogenetic distance, and economic significance, six gall-

forming pathogens were selected for secretome analysis- two plasmodiophorids, *Plasmodiophora*

brassicae and *Spongospora subterranea*, oomycete *Albugo candida*, and three fungi from
different lineages, *Taphrina deformans*, *Ustilago maydis*, and *Synchytrium endobioticum* (**Fig. 1a**).
To gain better understanding of plasmodiophorids, for which structural data is scarce, we also
included *Polymyxa betae*, a non-gall-forming plasmodiophorid vector of the beet necrotic yellow
vein virus, causing Rhizomania disease [24] (**Fig. 1a**). To identify the putative secretome of these
plant pathogens, we first employed SignalP [25] to predict sequences with N-terminal signal
peptide. Sequences carrying a signal peptide were subjected to DeepTMHMM [26] search to
remove sequences with transmembrane domains. Mature protein sequences greater than 1000
amino acid length were also removed (**Fig. 1b**). The *Ustilago maydis* secretome and
corresponding structures were obtained from a recent study [7] using similar filtering steps. This
resulted in a total of 4197 proteins from seven gall-forming or related plant pathogens (**Table S1**).
Next, the structures of 3575 proteins, excluding the *U. maydis* secretome which was already
available, were modeled using AlphaFold2. InterproScan [27] was performed on all 4197 proteins
against pfam, Gene3D and SUPERFMAILY databases, identifying 41.59% of the proteins analyzed
carrying a known protein domain (**Table S1**). Next, 2349 structures with pLDDT > 65 were selected
for further analysis (**Table S1**). Although pLDDT > 70 is recommended as the threshold for
structures with reliable confidence by AlphaFold developers, we selected a score of 65 or higher
to include *AvrSen1* (pLDDT 67), the only known *S. endobioticum* avirulent gene [28] (**Fig. 1c**). This
resulted in the inclusion of 298 candidate effectors which would have otherwise been excluded
(**Table S1**). IUPred3 [29] was also used to score the proteins as disordered or not based on whether
50% of the sequence position was predicted to be disordered (Table **S1**). Most of the proteins
(97%) with pLDDT > 70 were not disordered, while 26% of the secretome with pLDDT < 70 was
disordered, thus showing the limitation of Alpahfold2 in modelling such effectors (**Table S1**).

Structure-based clustering reveals species-specific folds and low homology with known fungal
effector families
Structural similarity among the predicted structures were assessed using TMAlign [30] by scoring
all structures against each other. To study the similarity with known effector families, we also
included 19 crystal structures from the DELD, FOLD, LARS, MAX, KP6, RALPH, NTF2-like, ToxA, C2-
like, and Zn-binding effector families, as previously utilized in a recent study [14] (**Table S2**).

Additionally, we also included 62 structural families of orphan candidate effectors (OCE) recently identified in the Ascomycota lineage [5] (**Table S2**). Comparisons with TMScore greater than 0.5 were considered positive for structural similarity. Markov clustering [31,32] with an inflation value of two was applied to cluster the secretome based on structural similarity score. This resulted in 254 structural clusters with at least two members (**Fig. 2**, **Table S3**).

Ankyrin repeat containing proteins were the largest cluster for plasmodiophorid *P. brassicae* (n=42) and *S. subterranea* (n=39) (**Fig. 2**). The largest cluster detected on *A. candida* secretome is formed by 'CCG' [33] class of effectors (n=48), while *U. maydis* largest cluster was composed of the Tin2-like proteins [34] (n=31). For *S. synchytrium*, the largest cluster (n=64) contains AvrSen1 virulence factor (**Fig. 2a**). *P. betae* and *T. deformans* do not carry large (n > 30) effector clusters which could be due to *P. betae's* vector-like nature and *T. deformans's* reduced genome size compared to other fungi [35]. *T. deformans's* largest cluster is primarily composed of various Glycoside hydrolases while *P. betae's* largest cluster consists of orphan helical proteins (**Table S3**). A 20-member Kinase family (cluster 13) was noted in *P. brassicae* which was absent in *A. candida* and 3 other fungi. Chitin deacetylases, which have been reported to convert chitin to less immunogenic chitosan [36] was expanded (n=11) in *P. brassicae* (**Table S3**). Chitin deacetylases were found in 5 out of 7 pathogens tested, except in oomycete *A. candida* and ascomycete *T. deformans*, which despite being a fungus contains very little chitin in the cell wall [37] (**Table S3**). In *S. subterranea* and *P. brassicae*, a unique TauD/TfdA protein cluster was also identified, typically found in bacteria for taurine utilization as a sulfur source [38]. *P. betae* carries a 6 member G-domain protein cluster, with similarity to it's host *Beta vulgari's* GTPases (**Fig. S1**, **Table S3**). Among the well characterized fungal effector families, only three KP6 fold [39] and one RALPH like fold were found in *U. maydis* (**Fig. S1**, **Table S3**). *T. deformans* carry 2 ToxA homologs (**Fig. S1**, **Table S3**).

Effector folds conserved across kingdoms

Six protein folds—Hydrolases (clusters 2, 8, 9), Carboxypeptidases (cluster 12), Aspartyl proteases (cluster 3), Lectins (cluster 38), SCP domain (cluster 24), and an orphan group (cluster 5)—contained proteins from all the pathogens investigated in this study, indicating deep evolutionary conservation of these folds across kingdoms (**Table S3**). In fact, 20 out of 62

Ascomycete orphan effector groups had at least one structural homolog in plasmodiophorids and
oomycetes tested in this study, although a complete evolutionary connection would require the
comparison of a much larger number of pathogens (**Table S3**). We didn't find any specific fold (n >
1 per species) conserved only among the gall-forming pathogens studied, indicating that this
virulence strategy can be achieved by different mechanisms without necessarily converging onto
common effector folds.

Structural search identifies a nucleoside hydrolase-like fold conserved in some gall-forming
pathogens

Effectors are notorious for carrying unknown domains, making it difficult to predict the putative
function of promising candidates [41]. We searched for uncharacterized *P. brassicae* candidate
effectors within the same cluster that were also overexpressed during infection. Two candidate
effectors, PBTT_09143 and PBTT_07479, which are the first and fifth most expressed proteins at
16 days post inoculation (dpi) during clubroot disease, belong to the cluster 21 grouping with
PBTT_0412, none of which carries a known domain (**Fig. 3a-c**). Interestingly, the cluster also
includes ten members from *A. candida* secretome, with eight carrying a predicted nucleoside
hydrolase domain (**Table S4**). We subjected the three *P. brassicae* candidates to a FoldSeek-
mediated [42] structural search against the PDB100 and AFD-proteome databases. Nucleoside
hydrolases always emerged as the top hit (E-value < 10^-5, Prob ~1, TMscore >=0.5) (**Table S4**).
Next, searching AFDB cluster webtool [43], which allows for the identification of structural
homologs across the known protein space, AFDB clusters A0A0G4IP88 and A0A024FV66 emerged
as the top hits. The members of these clusters are often gall-forming, carry predicted signal
peptide and belong to various biotrophs *like Melanopsichium pennsylvanicum, Ustilago maydis,*
Albugo candida, Sporisorium scitamineum, Testicularia cyperi, Colletotrichum orbiculare, among
others (**Fig 3b, d**). Some of the members also do not carry identifiable domains (**Table S4**) and
show limited sequence similarity among themselves (**Fig 3b**, **Table S4**). Interestingly, the cluster
also includes bacterial Type III effector HopQ1 from *Pseudomonas syringae* (**Table S4**). Unlike *P.*
brassicae effectors, HopQ1 is predicted to carry a nucleoside hydrolase domain, although the
domain has been reported to be unable to bind standard nucleosides [44]. HopQ1 has been
reported to be associated with 14-3-3 plant proteins to promote virulence [44]. Thus, it's possible

that the nucleoside hydrolase-like fold present in various gall-forming fungal, protist, and
oomycete pathogens might have also neo-functionalized and be involved in new molecular
strategies during the infection.

A fungal effector family shows structural homology despite extreme sequence diverge

The Mig1 protein in *Ustilago maydis* is a maize-induced effector that plays a crucial role in the
biotrophic interaction between the fungus and its host [45]. It is specifically induced during the
biotrophic phase, contributing to the fungus's pathogenicity. Cluster 30, specifically found in
Ustilago maydis, contains this effector (**Table S5**). Upon examining the sequence and structural
similarities between the members of the cluster, we discovered instances of structural homology
(TMScore > 0.5) despite pairwise sequence identity being as low as 0.6% and no higher than 30%
(**Fig. 4a-d**, **Table S5**). When aligning the protein sequences of 13 members, four cysteine residues
were found to be strongly conserved (**Fig. 4e**). These four residues form two disulfide bridges (**Fig.**
4f), likely playing a crucial role in maintaining the overall fold despite significant sequence
dissimilarity. All 13 members of the cluster were expressed upon infection (**Table S6**). A variable
expression was observed for the *Mig1*-like genes located in the same genomic region, including
members with completely opposite patterns of induction (**Table S6**), suggesting a possible
regulatory role or the acquisition of new functions.

Identification of new SUSS effector families enriched in known motifs

The fungi *S. endobioticum* and *A. candida* encode large effector clusters which included
previously identified avirulent factors AvrSen1 and CCG28/31/33/70, respectively (**Table S7**) [46]. It
was previously shown that the N-terminal region of the CCG28 ,33 and 70 share structural
homology [46]. To examine if these clusters represent SUSS families, we carried out the sequence-
based clustering of the 4197 proteins from the seven pathogens investigated here. We performed
BlastP search in all-vs-all mode and kept only those results with E-value lower than 10^-04 and
bidirectional coverage of 50%. Markov clustering revealed 642 sequence-based clusters with at
least two members (**Table S7**). We searched for sequence clusters having members from the
same structural clusters. This revealed the presence of 12 sequence-related clusters associated
with AvrSen1 structural cluster and 11 sequence-related clusters associated with CCG structural

cluster (**Fig. 5a**, **Table S7**). It was previously reported that CCG containing effectors share limited similarity around the CCG motif and can be grouped in several clades based on sequence similarity [33]. Thus, AvrSen1 and CCG represent novel SUSS effector families whose similarities can't be delineated by sequence search alone. Integration of sequence and structure data increased the member count of AvrSen1 and CCG clusters to 124 and 50 from previous 64 and 48, respectively (**Table S8**).

It has been reported that *S. endobioticum* secretome is enriched in RAYH [47]. While it is understood that the CCG class of effectors derived its name due to the presence of the CCG motif, it was not immediately clear if Avrsen1 cluster was also the source of the conserved RAYH motif. To verify that, we subjected the mature protein sequences of the two pathogen secretome to motif search using MEME [48]. Here we identified a 16 amino acid long RAYH motif present in 118 *S. endobioticum* proteins and 15 amino acid long 'CCG' motif present in 74 *A. candida* proteins (E < 0.1, combined match p < 0.001) (**Fig. 5b**, **Fig. S2, S3, Table S8**). Of the 118 sequences proteins carrying the RAYH motif, 79 were members of the AvrSen1 cluster in *S. endobioticum* (**Table S8**). Thus, the expansion of SUSS effectors in *A. candida* and *S. synchytrium* has resulted in the enrichment of common motifs, something that has recently been observed for the Y/F/WxC motif in *Blumeria graminis* RNA-like effector cluster [7].

Selection pressure analysis on *A. candida* CCG members shows that both cysteine residues in the 'CCG' motifs and two additional cysteine residues within 50 amino acids of the motif are often under purifying selection. (**Fig. S4, S5**). Visualizing these four cysteines on the predicted structure shows that they form disulfide bridges and probably play a crucial role in overall maintenance of the fold (**Fig. 5c**). The CCG motif seems to be a crucial part of a module consisting of two parallel alpha-helices joined to a beta-sheet and CCG effectors are often composed of several of these modules (**Fig. 5c**). The RAYH motif was also found to be part of the core structure of most AvrSen1-like effectors, forming a long alpha-helix (**Fig 5d**). Apart from the RAYH motif region, several surrounding hydrophobic residues were also strongly conserved, likely playing a role in maintaining the structure (**Fig. S6**). Examining the sequence-related subclusters of the AvrSen1-like family we found that the effectors are evolving by keeping the core alpha-helix bundle fixed while diversifying the peripheral stretches (**Fig 5d**).

Ankyrin repeat containing proteins are a common feature of gall forming plasmodiophorids

The largest structural cluster in *P. brassicae* and *S. subterranea* consists of ankyrin repeat-containing proteins (hereafter ANK proteins) (**Fig. 6a**). The presence of only five members in the non-gall-forming plasmodiophorid *P. betae*, in contrast to over 40 members in the gall-forming *P. brassicae* and *S. subterranea*, highlights the importance of this domain in their pathogenicity strategies (**Table S9**). Interestingly, InterProScan identified 32 additional *P. brassicae* proteins with ANK domains, while only two *S. subterranea* ANK proteins could be identified outside of the cluster (**Table S9**). We found that *P. brassicae* secretome is richer in repeat proteins compared to *S. subterranean* ANK proteins repertory (**Fig 6a**), with 19 additional leucine-rich repeats (LRRs), ten tetratricopeptide repeats, and three MORN repeats (**Table S9**). Although 40 out of 74 ankyrins are over expressed (TPM >10) at 16- and 26 dpi in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, only five LRRs are induced (**Table S9**). Notably, 17 ankyrin-repeat proteins also carry the SKP1/BTB/POZ domain, which is often involved in ubiquitination [49] (**Fig. 6b**, **Table S9**).

A MEME motif scan with the members of the ankyrin cluster identified a 33 amino acid long motif in *P. brassicae* and a 32 amino acid length motif in *S. spongospora* (**Fig 6c**, **Table S9**). Aligning the MEME profile of the two identified ankyrin motifs shows a strong conservation of two Leucine and one Alanine residues (**Fig. 6d**) and upon visualization, those residues form the hydrophobic pocket between the two alpha helices of the ankyrin repeat, stabilizing the structure (**Fig 6d**). The rest of the non-conserved residues were found to be highly polymorphic (**Fig. 6d**).

Ankyrin repeat containing proteins interact with multiple host targets

Finally, to have an idea of the possible role of ANK proteins in plasmodiophorid virulence, we selected 70 ankyrin domain-containing proteins from *P. brassicae* and screened them against 20 key immune-related genes in *Arabidopsis* using AlphaFold-Multimer (**Table S10**). Protein-protein interactions were considered significant if the inter-chain Predicted Aligned Error (PAE) value was below 10, and the iPTM+pTM score was 70 or higher. Among the identified interactions, MPK3, MAPK4, MAPK6 SnRK1, NPR1, XCP1, CNGC4, and BAK1 were targeted by a total of ten ankyrin domain proteins (**Fig. 6e**, **Table S11**). This dataset should serve as a valuable starting point for further understanding the role of ANKs in the virulence mechanisms of plasmodiophorids.

To experimentally validate the AlphaFold-Multimer predictions, we selected the PBTT_00818–
MPK3 pair for targeted yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) assays. This pair was prioritized due to its high
combined iPTM+pTM confidence score (0.82). Surprisingly, the one-on-one Y2H assay did not
detect an interaction between PBTT_00818 and MPK3 (**Fig. 7a**). To broaden our search, we next
employed a large-scale Y2H screen using PBTT_00818 as bait against a randomly primed
Arabidopsis seedling cDNA library, screening approximately 60 million clones. From this screen,
98 His[+] colonies were recovered on selective medium lacking tryptophan, leucine, and histidine,
and supplemented with 50 mM 3-aminotriazole to suppress bait autoactivation. Among the
recovered clones, several candidate interactors of PBTT_00818 were identified, with the GroES-
like zinc-binding alcohol dehydrogenase (AT3G56460) emerging as the top candidate (**Table S12**).
The PBTT_00818–GroES-like interaction was subsequently confirmed via one-on-one Y2H assay
(**Fig. 7b**). To further investigate these interactions in planta, we performed bimolecular
fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assays in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves. These assays
confirmed that PBTT_00818 interacts with both MPK3 (**Fig. 7c, Fig. S7**) and GroES-like (**Fig. 7d,
Fig. S8**), with both interactions occurring in the nucleus. Together, these findings illustrate how in
silico protein–protein interaction predictions can serve as a powerful tool to generate testable
hypotheses about effector functions in host-pathogen systems.
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DISCUSSION
This study identified the primary protein folds in gall-forming pathogens secretome supporting
the idea that pathogen secretome are often dominated by expansion of specific folds which have
been adopted and diversified over the course of evolution. Characterizing these primary effector
folds in understudied plasmodiophorids like *P. brassicae* and *S. subterranea* would offer valuable
insights into their virulence strategies, which remain largely enigmatic [20,50]. Here we found that
the ankyrin proteins, which are significantly expanded in gall-forming plasmodiophorids but less
so in the related species *P. betae*, may be key to their ability to manipulate host immune
responses and promote gall formation (**Fig. 2**, **Fig. 6**). This finding aligns with previous research
indicating the importance of repeat-containing proteins in the virulence of plant pathogens [51].
Example of that are *Phytophthora* spp. effectors containing tandem repeats of the "(L)WY" motif,
whose modularity and elaborate mimicry of a host phosphatase helps to promote infection [52].

ANK motifs are well-known for mediating protein-protein interactions [53], and have been identified

as type IV effectors in the intracellular human pathogens *Legionella pneumophila* and *Coxiella*

burnetii [54]. Thus, based on the predicted structure and the validated interactions, we hypothesize

that the highly polymorphic surface residues of plasmodiophorid ANK motifs, along with their

variable frequency of occurrence across effector proteins, result in diverse binding interfaces for

distinct host targets. However, further studies are needed to elucidate the mechanistic basis of

how ANK proteins can engage multiple targets, including those reported here like MPK3 involved

in immunity [55] and GroES-like protein implicated in peroxisomal functions [56].

This study also identified conserved protein folds across multiple kingdoms, particularly the

hydrolase, carboxypeptidase, and aspartyl protease folds (**Table S3**). These folds appear to play a

fundamental role in the virulence strategies of these pathogens, likely due to their ability to

perform essential biochemical functions that facilitate infection [57]. The conservation of these

folds across diverse species highlights their evolutionary significance and suggests that they may

represent mechanisms of host manipulation that have been retained through speciation. We also

identified a nucleoside hydrolase like fold in evolutionary distant gall-forming pathogens which

has homology to bacterial effector HopQ1 (**Fig. 3**). Nucleoside hydrolases are involved in the

purine salvage pathway in various pathogens [58], but similar to HopQ1's mode of action, these gall-

forming biotrophs might also be targeting 14-3-3 proteins, which are implicated in hormonal

signaling [59]. Although HopQ1 is widely conserved within the *Pseudomonas* species complex, our

FoldSeek-mediated search identified hits in *Pseudomonas savastanoi* isolates, some of which are

known to form galls on woody plants [60,61]. It remains to be seen if some of the HopQ1 homologs

have been specifically adapted in these bacteria to support a particular lifestyle.

Here we also provided further evidence for the divergent evolution model of effector evolution,

which describes how members of the same effector family can exhibit extreme sequence

dissimilarity over a long period while retaining the core fold intact [7]. We show that this evolution

mechanism occurs in both fungi and oomycetes and often involves the conservation of cysteine

or hydrophobic residues to maintain the original fold (**Fig. 4**, **Fig. 5**). Given that sequence

dissimilarity between homologs can be extreme, as exemplified by the Mig1 family in *U. maydis*,

it would become common practice among researchers to incorporate structural knowledge into

sequence searches to accurately gauge the diversity of the effector families (**Fig. 4**).

Overall, our study underscores the power of structural genomics and machine learning tools
like AlphaFold2 in uncovering the complexities of pathogen effector repertoires. The findings
presented here open new avenues for research into the evolution of virulence strategies in
phytopathogens and highlight the potential for these insights to inform the development of novel
approaches to plant disease management. As we continue to expand our understanding of
effector biology, particularly in under-studied pathogens, it will be crucial to integrate these
structural insights with functional studies to fully elucidate the roles of these proteins in host-
pathogen interactions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Secretome prediction

The proteome of *P. brassicae* was derived from our recent study generating the first complete
genome of the clubroot pathogen [62]. We are thankful to Prof. Anne Legrève for providing the
updated annotation of the *P. betae* genome and proteome previously published by them [63,64]. The
rest of the proteome for *S. subterranea* [65], *A. candida* [66], *S. endobioticum* [47], *U. maydis* [67] and *T.*
deformans [35] were downloaded from Uniprot database. SignalP 6 was utilized to identify
sequences with predicted signal peptides, which were subsequently removed. DeepTMHMM was
run through pybiolib package. InterProScan 5.61-93.0 was used to confirm the presence of known
domains using the Pfam, Gene3D, and SUPERFAMILY databases.

Structure prediction

A total of 3615 mature protein sequences were selected to be modeled using AlphaFold 2, but
40 predictions repeatedly failed at the MSA construction step, resulting in 3575 structures. To
expedite the process, ParaFold 2.0 [68] was used, which employs AlphaFold 2.3.1 internally but
distributes the CPU and GPU tasks to facilitate parallelization. 'Valeria' compute cluster
(https://valeria.science/accueil) of Université Laval was used for the structure prediction. The full
database was used to construct the MSA (multiple sequence alignment), and models were
predicted in 'monomer' mode, resulting in five PDB structures sorted by pLDDT scores. The
Rank_0 PDB was used for subsequent studies. Finally, 2000 models with pLDDT scores over 65
were selected for downstream analysis.

Similarity search, clustering, and network plots

TM-Align was used to perform an all-versus-all structural comparison of 2000 models, and

those comparisons with a normalized TM-score above 0.5 were considered significant. All-versus-

all sequence comparison was performed using BlastP [69] with an E-value < 10^-4 and bidirectional

coverage of at least 50%. Structure and sequence similarity data, represented by three columns

with the first two as target and source IDs, and the third one being TM-score/E-value, were

clustered using the Markov clustering with an inflation value of two. For sequence clustering, E-

values were loaded following the recommendation of the MCL workflow [mcxload -abc seq.abc --

stream-mirror --stream-neg-log10 -stream-tf 'ceil(200)']. Custom Python scripts were written to

find the sequence-related subclusters belonging to the same structural cluster and to count the

occurrence of cluster members (https://github.com/Edelab). Plots were generated using Chiplot

(https://www.chiplot.online/) and ggplot2 [70].

Sequence Alignment

404 Pairwise alignment of protein sequences was done by EMBOSS Needle [71]. Clustal Omega was

405 used to generate multiple protein sequence alignment [72]. Kalign 3.4.0 [73] was used to generate

406 alignment of extremely divergent Mig1 cluster.

Selection pressure analysis and structure visualization

Coding sequences (CDS) were obtained from the Ensembl Fungi/ENA database. Multiple

nucleotide sequences were aligned using the Kc-Align codon-aware aligner [74]. Positions with

more than 50% gaps were removed using the Clipkit [75] online tool in 'gappy' mode. The trimmed

alignments were manually analyzed using Geneious (http://www.geneious.com/) for correct

codon alignment. The resulting alignment was uploaded to the Datamonkey server

(http://www.datamonkey.org/), which hosts the HyPhy package [76]. All the branches were used as

input for FEL [77] to identify sites under purifying selection (p < 0.01). The ESPript 3.0 web server

was used to generate multiple sequence alignments [78]. Multiple structures were aligned using

mTm-Align [79]. PyMOL 3.0.4 [80] was used to visualize the PDB files and color conserved sites or

disulfide bridges.

Expression analysis

Datasets for the RNA-Seq reads obtained at 16- and 26 dpi during P. brassicae infection were downloaded from the EBI server (accession number PRJEB12261). The reads from the infected samples were mapped to the *A. thaliana* genome TAIR10 (Genbank accession number GCF_000001735.4) using HiSAT2 [81] to remove host contaminant sequences. To use Salmon [82], an index file was created by concatenating the *P. brassicae* genome and CDS sequences. The remaining RNA-Seq reads were quasi-mapped to the index using Salmon 1.10.0 to generate normalized transcripts per million (TPM) counts for all 10,521 genes. TPM values from three replicates were averaged. Pre-processed gene expression data for *U. maydis* was publicly available [83].

Motif scanning

MEME 5.5.5 was used to scan the list of amino acid sequences in '-anr' mode (E < 0.1) to discover motifs of any length and frequency. MAST 5.5.5 was used to protein sequences with MEME motifs. Sequence profiles of *P. brassicae* and *S. subterranea* ANK motifs were aligned using Tomtom 5.5.5 [84].

Structural homology search

FoldSeek (https://search.foldseek.com/search) was used to search for structural homology against Uniprot50, Swiss-Prot, the AlphaFold proteome, and PDB. The AFDB cluster database (https://cluster.foldseek.com/) was searched to find cluster members in the AlphaFold database.

In-Silico protein-protein interaction prediction

ANK proteins were screened for interaction against a list of *A. thaliana* immune genes using AlphaPulldown v1.0.4 [85]. It utilizes AlphaFold Multimer but separates the CPU and GPU jobs and reuses the MSA to reduce compute time. The full AlphaFold 2.3.0 database was used for MSA creation. The resulting models from the AlphaPulldown run were parsed with the supplied singularity image alpha-analysis_jax_0.4.sif to produce the final iPTM+pTM score table. ChimeraX

1.8 [86] was used to visualize the predicted aligned error for residue pairs under 4 Ångströms at the

interface between the two chains produced by AlphaFold-Multimer.

Yeast Two-Hybrid assay

Yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) screenings were performed by Hybrigenics Services (https://hybrigenics-

services.com/). The coding sequence of *Plasmodiophora brassicae* PBTT_00818 (amino acids 1–

490) was synthesized by Twist Biosciences (https://www.twistbioscience.com) and cloned into the

pTwist ENTR vector. This construct was then used as a template to amplify and subclone the gene

into the pB66 vector as a C-terminal fusion to the Gal4 DNA-binding domain (Gal4-bait). All

constructs were verified by sequencing. The bait construct was used to screen a random-primed

Arabidopsis thaliana seedling (one-week-old) cDNA library [ATH], cloned into the pP6 vector. For

the PBTT_00818 screen, approximately 60 million clones, equivalent to six times the complexity

of the library, were screened using a mating-based approach with the CG1945 yeast strain,

following previously described protocols[87]. A total of 98 His⁺ colonies were selected on selective

medium lacking tryptophan, leucine, and histidine, and supplemented with 50 mM 3-

aminotriazole (3-AT) to suppress bait autoactivation. Prey fragments from positive colonies were

PCR-amplified and sequenced at both 5▯ and 3▯ ends, and the resulting sequences were used to

identify corresponding proteins via automated BLAST searches against the GenBank (NCBI)

database.

For one-by-one (1-by-1) Y2H assays, bait and prey constructs were transformed separately into

CG1945 and YHGX13 yeast strains, respectively. Interaction tests were performed using the HIS3

reporter gene system, with growth assays on selective media. As negative controls, bait plasmids

were tested with empty prey vectors (pP7), and prey plasmids with empty bait vectors (pB66).

The SMAD–SMURF interaction served as a positive control[88]. Each interaction and control were

assessed using streaks of three independent yeast clones. Two selective media were used: DO-2

(lacking tryptophan and leucine) served as a control to confirm the presence of both bait and

prey plasmids, while DO-3 (lacking tryptophan, leucine, and histidine) was used to detect

protein–protein interactions. Increasing concentrations of 3-AT were added to the DO-3 plates to

enhance stringency and reduce false positives due to bait autoactivation. All 1-by-1 Y2H

experiments were performed in triplicate to ensure reproducibility.

BiFC assay

Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assays were performed by PronetBio (https://www.pronetbio.com). The coding sequences of *P. brassicae* PBTT_00818 and Arabidopsis genes AT3G45640 and AT3G56460 were synthesized and subcloned into the BiFC expression vectors pCAMBIA1300-nYFP and pCAMBIA1300-cYFP, respectively. Recombinant plasmids were first transformed into *Escherichia coli* TOP10 cells for propagation and then introduced into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3101 via electroporation.

Nicotiana benthamiana plants (4–6 weeks old, five-leaf stage) were cultivated under greenhouse conditions with a 14-hour light/10-hour dark photoperiod (22–25°C Day / 18–20°C night). For transient expression, healthy leaves (3rd to 6th from the apex) were infiltrated with 30–50 µL of Agrobacterium suspension per site using a needleless syringe to apply the mixture to the abaxial surface. Following infiltration, plants were incubated for 36–48 hours before leaf samples were excised from the marked infiltration zones. Fluorescence signals indicative of protein–protein interaction was detected and imaged using a laser scanning confocal microscope. All BiFC experiments were performed in triplicate to ensure reproducibility. In each assay the positive control used was the interactive pair HAI1–MPK6 as previously described [89].

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COMPETING INTERESTS

None declared.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

S.M., M.A.J. and E.P.L. conceived the research; S.M. conducted the research; S.M., and E.P.L.

wrote the manuscript and prepared figures; S.M., M.A.J., J.W and E.P.L. edited the manuscript;

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DATA AVAILABILITY

The datasets used in this study can be downloaded from Zenodo:

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11152389 , and the scripts from GitHub:

https://github.com/Edelab.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. Description of the pathogens included in the study, workflow overview and statistics of
structure prediction. A, Cladogram of the pathogens used in the study. The schematics represent
the disease symptoms on their respective hosts, with the white areas representing galls. The
secretome count indicates the number of proteins per species predicted to be secreted, and the
functional annotation shows the percentage of the secretome predicted to contain a known
protein domain in the Pfam, SUPERFAMILY, or Gene3D databases. **B**, Flowchart of the workflow
used to predict the secretome and the corresponding 3D structures. **C**, Raincloud plot showing
the median and density distribution of pLDDT scores of the predicted structures in each
pathogen.

Fig. 2. Visualization of dominant protein folds present in each pathogen. A, Network plot of
structurally similar secretome clusters with at least 15 members. Not all 255 clusters are shown to
reduce complexity. Each node represents a single protein, and an edge between two nodes
represents structural similarity (TMScore > 0.5). **B**, Representative structure of the dominant fold
in each pathogen. Since Ankyrin repeats are common in both *P. brassicae* and *S. subterranea*,
they are represented only once.

Fig. 3. Sequence and structural similarity among HopQ1 homologs in *U. maydis*, *A. candida* and
***P. brassicae.* A**, Network plot showing the structural similarity between the members of cluster
21. Edges denote structural similarity (TMScore > 0.5). **B**, Pairwise sequence identity between

selected HopQ1 structural homologs from plasmodiophorids, oomycetes, and fungi, illustrating

sequence dissimilarity between some proteins despite structural homology. **C**, Gene expression

values (log2 TPM) of two highly induced *P. brassicae* genes at 16 and 26 dpi. **D**, 3D structure of

the mature protein sequences, assuming a HopQ1-like fold.

Fig. 4. Sequence and structural similarity among Mig1 homologs in *Ustilago maydis*. A,

Similarity matrix showing the pairwise sequence identity (%) between Mig1 cluster members. **B**,

Similarity matrix showing the pairwise structural homology scores (TMScore) between Mig1

cluster members. **C**, Superimposition of two Mig1 homologues, illustrating structural similarity

despite extreme sequence divergence. **D**, Differential gene expression patterns of two Mig1

tandem duplicates. **E**, Multiple alignment of protein sequences, highlighting the conservation of

cysteine residues (marked in yellow). **F**, Visualization of the conserved cysteine residues forming

disulfide bridges.

Fig. 5. SUSS effector families are enriched in common motifs. A, Network plots demonstrating

that the two primary effector families in *A. candida* and *S. endobioticum* can only be grouped

together when structural data is incorporated into the sequence-based clustering. The plots also

indicate which sequence-based clusters contain the known effectors from these groups. **B**, 'RAYH'

and 'CCG' motif patterns identified by MEME scan. **C**, Disulfide bridges in the 'CCG' motif, likely

playing a pivotal role in structural maintenance, are highlighted in the virulence factor CCG30. A

zoomed-in view of the 'CCG module' shows the four conserved cysteine residues forming

disulfide bridge. **D**, The 'RAYH' motif, occupying the central position in the core alpha-helix

bundle, is highlighted in six sequence-based subclusters within the AvrSen1-like cluster in *S.*

endobioticum.

Fig. 6. Diversity, structural features and host immune targets of ankyrin repeats in

Plasmodiophorids. A, Frequency of repeat-containing proteins in *P. brassicae* and *S. subterranea*.

B, Network plot showing structural homology within *P. brassicae* Ankyrin repeats, also

highlighting the Ankyrin repeats with SKP1/BTB/POZ superfamily domains. **C**, Alignment of

Ankyrin motifs from *P. brassicae* and *S. subterranea*. **D**, Visualization of conserved hydrophobic

residues in a single Ankyrin repeat module. **E**, Number of Ankyrin repeat proteins predicted to

target *Arabidopsis* immune proteins. **F**, AlphaFold Multimer predicted complex of MPK3 and

PBTT_00818, highlighting the predicted aligned errors of surface contacts under 4 Ångströms.

Fig. 7. Validation of PBTT_00818-MPK3 and PBTT_00818-GroES-like interactions through Yeast

two-hybrid (Y2H) and bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC). **A**, 1-by-1 Y2H assay

results evaluating the interaction PBTT_00818-MPK3 (AT3G45640) predicted through AlphaFold-

Multimer. N = 3. **B**, 1-by-1 Y2H assay results evaluating the interaction PBTT_00818-GroES-like

(AT3G56460) predicted through a Y2H screening of an Arabidopsis seedling library. *N* = 3. **C**, BiFC

assay results evaluating the interaction PBTT_00818-MPK3. *N* = 3, presented in Fig. S7. Bar = 50

μm. **D**, BiFC assay results evaluating the interaction PBTT_00818- GroES-like. *N* = 3, presented in

Fig. S8. Bar = 50 μm.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Table S1. Detailed information about the pathogens investigated in this study and their

secretome composition with pLDDT scores, IUPred3 results, and InterproScan identity.

Table S2. Known/orphan effector families searched in gall-forming secretome investigated in this

study.

Table S3. Structural clusters generated in this study; ID of the top 26 clusters detected; and

frequency of clusters, orphan effectors and known fungal effectors per species studied here.

Table S4. Detailed information of cluster 2, FoldSeek search results, AFDB cluster webtool, and

sequence identity matrix with HopQ1.

Table S5. Sequence identity matrix of *Ustilago maydis* Mig1 protein with other members of

cluster 30.

Table S6. Expression of *Ustilago maydis mig1* and members of the cluster 30 in axenic, 1, 2, 4, 6,
8, and 12 dpi.

Table S7. Detailed information of the new SUSS effector families identified in this study. Structure
based and Sequence based clustering of CCG effectors. Structure based and Sequence based
clustering of AvrSen1-like effectors. MEME output of CCG and RAYH motif scan. Selection of one
representative member (highest pLDDT) from each sequence-based cluster for selection pressure
analysis in CCGs. Selection of one representative member (highest pLDDT) from each sequence-
based cluster to examine RAYH motif conservation in AvrSen1-like cluster.

Table S8. Sequence clusters generated in this study.

Table S9. Detailed information of proteins containing repeats. Ankyrin repeat containing proteins,
leucine-rich repeats, and Ankyrin repeat containing proteins with SPK1 domains in *P. brassicae*
and *S. subterranean*. Expression of *P. brassicae* ankyrin repeat containing proteins and leucine-
rich repeats at 16- and 26 dpi in *A. thaliana*. *P. brassicae* and *S. subterranean* ankyrin repeat
containing proteins MEME scan.

Table S10. List of *A. thaliana* and *P. brassicae* proteins used to study modeled interactions with
AlphaFold-Multimer.

Table S11. Output of the AlphaFold-Multimer predicting interaction between *A. thaliana*
immunity hubs and *P. brassicae* Ankyrin repeat containing proteins.

Table S12. Detailed list of PBTT_00818 His+ clones resulted from a yeast two-hybrid screen versus
an Arabidopsis seedling library

Fig. S1. The structures of *Beta vulgari*'s GTPases, KP6 fold, RALPH-like fold and ToxA fold share
structural similarity with candidate effectors found in P. *betae*, *U. maydis* and *T. deformans*,,

respectively. The number of clusters where proteins share structural similarities with these folds

is provided.

Fig. S2. Location of CCG motifs identified by MEME scan.

Fig. S3. Location of RAYH motifs identified by MEME scan.

Fig. S4. Analysis evidencing purifying selection in the CCG effector family. Plots have been

downloaded from the Datamonkey server, which hosts the FEL package. The indicated codons are

numbered according to the codon-aligned nucleotide alignment file, where positions with 50%

gaps have been trimmed.

Fig. S5. Multiple alignment of representative members of CCG sequence-based clusters.

Conserved residues (>70% similar by biochemical properties in ESPript3.0) are highlighted.

Fig. S6. Multiple alignment of representative members of AvrSen1-like sequence-based clusters.

Conserved residues (>70% similar by biochemical properties in ESPript3.0) are highlighted.

Fig. S7. Extended BiFC assay results evaluating the interaction PBTT_00818-MPK3 presented in

Fig. 7c including the three replicates, empty vectors and positive controls.

Fig. S8. Extended BiFC assay results evaluating the interaction PBTT_00818-GroES-like presented

in Fig. 7d including the three replicates, empty vectors and positive controls.

Legend:
- P. betae
- P. brassicae
- S. subterranea
- U. maydis
- A. candida
- T. deformans
- S. endobioticum

1 PBTT_04511 Ankyrin repeats

4 A0A507CY85 AvrSen1-like

2 R4XM90 CAZYmes

11 UMAG_05302 Tin-2-like

6 A0A024FTM3 CCG family

5 JG262 Helical

(a)

Cluster 21

- *U. maydis*
- *A. candida*
- *P. brassicae*

(b)

Sequence Identity (%)

(c)

(d)

P. brassicae
PBTT_09143

P. syringae
HopQ1

A. candida
A0A024FXU1

U. maydis
A0A0D1E2J4

C. orbiculare
N4USF2

M. pennsylvanicum
A0A077RCL5

S. scitamineum
A0A0F7S5Z6

T. cyperi
A0A317XP18

(a)

Sequence similar cluster
Singleton
Structural similarity

Seq cluster 18 with AvrSen1

Seq cluster 43 with CCG 28/33/71

A. candida CCG cluster

Seq cluster 201 with CCG 30

S. endobioticum Avrsen1-like cluster

(b)

RAYH motif

CCG motif

(c)

Disulfide bridges

A. candida CCG30 (A0A024FTM3)

Cys 73   Cys 19

Cys 67   Cys 22

(d) RAYH motif

A0A507BZL2 seq cluster 2

A0A507C8C0 seq cluster 40

A0A507CJ21 seq cluster 96

A0A507CLL0 seq cluster 98

A0A507CHN9 seq cluster 306

A0A507D0R9 seq cluster 69

(a) S. subterranea   P. brassicae

Leucine-rich repeat

Tetratricopeptide repeat

(b) Ankyrins   Ankyrins with SKP1/BTB/POZ

Cluster 1 P. brassicae members

SKP1/BTB/POZ domain

Ankyrin domain

(c) S. subterranea   P. brassicae

(d) Hydrophobic residues

Ala 153   Ile 161

Leu 150   Leu 165

PBTT_00818

(e) MPK3/4/6

SnRK1

NPR1

BAK1

XCP1

CNGC4

Effector count

MPK3   PBTT_00818

PAE scale
0 5 10 15 20