Effector-triggered processing body formation attenuates host translation via ER stress
responses and autophagy upon bacterial infection

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Abstract

Compartmentalization of transcripts in biomolecular condensates allows rapid and cost-
efficient responses to environmental stimuli. Processing bodies (P-bodies) are dynamic
ribonucleoprotein condensates formed by phase separation in the cytosol. P-bodies are involved
in translational arrest and mRNA decay and regulate several developmental processes and stress

responses. Pathogens have evolved strategies to exploit host degradation pathways for their own benefit, however little is known about how they impact translation. Here we show that upon infection with pathogenic bacteria *Pseudomonas syringae* pathovar *tomato* (*Pst*), P-body assembly is enhanced in an effector-dependent manner. Moreover, a P-body-defective mutant is more tolerant to bacterial infection due to altered endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress responses, suggesting a role of P-bodies as novel susceptibility hubs. *Pst* infection is accompanied by a general host translation attenuation, which is both effector-dependent, and deregulated in the P-body-defective mutant. This indicates that P-bodies are required for the bacterial modulation of the plant translation, probably to hinder the defense responses. Additionally, host autophagy is also exploited by the bacteria to modulate P-body dynamics and its subsequent translation attenuation, revealing a complex interplay between P-body formation and disassembly during infection. Altogether, our discoveries provide novel insights on how host translation is targeted by bacteria via effector-triggered P-body formation to promote disease and uncover unknown connections between ER stress responses and autophagy with P-body dynamics.

Introduction

Maintaining a proper balance between protein synthesis and degradation is crucial for all aspects of life. Protein homeostasis, or proteostasis, determines the proper functioning of living organisms as it is key throughout all developmental stages and allows coordinated and timely responses to environmental stimuli and threats (*1*). Given this vital importance, disequilibrium of proteostasis is severely detrimental to all kinds of living organisms, from limiting cell viability in prokaryotes (*2*), to causing aging and neurodegenerative diseases in humans (*3*). It is thus not striking that proteostasis is targeted by pathogens in their efforts to modulate the host physiology to accommodate their own needs (*4*). A wide range of pathogens interfere with proteolytic pathways such as proteasomal or vacuolar degradation (*5–7*), as well as biosynthetic pathways such as transcription, translation or protein folding (*8–10*).

Plants are no exception when it comes to the importance of proteostasis. Considering the current context of climate change, an increasingly large number of environmental threats such as temperature imbalances, water unavailability, increased salinity or expanding geographic distribution of pathogens menaces the maintenance of proteostasis in plants (*11*). This does not only impact their mere ability to survive and thrive, but also inexorably affects crop yields thus threatening food security worldwide (*12*). Phytopathogens also target plant proteostasis to

promote the infection. Many pathogens modulate plant proteolytic pathways such as the

ubiquitin proteasome system and associated components (*1*, *13*, *14*), endomembrane trafficking

(*15*, *16*), or autophagy (*1*, *17–20*). Similarly, most stages of biosynthetic pathways are also

modulated by plant pathogens, particularly viruses, as expected considering their absolute

reliance on the host translation machinery (*21–24*) .Other pathogens like bacteria, oomycetes

and fungi can also target protein synthesis to promote disease: from modifying chromatin

accessibility (*25*) or directly hijacking the transcription machinery (*26*, *27*), to modulating the

maturation and post-transcriptional processing of mRNAs (*28–30*). However, despite the

reported importance of translation for mounting adequate plant defense responses (*31*), little is

known about whether and how pathogens manipulate their host translation.

Mature mRNAs in eukaryotes are exported from the nucleus to the cytosol, where they are

sequentially bound to different eukaryotic initiation factors (eIFs) that ultimately mediate the

association with both ribosomal subunits to form translationally active polysomes (*32*). Defects

in translation caused by internal cues or external stimuli such as certain types of cellular

stresses, can cause the association of polysome-bound mRNAs to translation inhibitors (*33*, *34*).

Translationally inactive mRNAs bind additional cytosolic proteins that mediate their phase

separation into ribonucleoprotein condensates such as processing bodies (P-bodies) or stress

granules, processes highly conserved among eukaryotes (*35*). In addition to the reversible

sequestration of translationally inactive mRNAs (*33*), P-bodies have the particularity of

harboring the mRNA decay machinery as well (*34*, *36*). P-bodies are involved in many

developmental processes (*37–44*), abiotic stress responses (*43–48*), and plant-virus interactions

(*23*, *49*) in animals, fungi and plants. Moreover, plant P-bodies disassemble during the first

layers of plant immunity (*29*). Nevertheless, to date it remains elusive whether P-bodies can be

targeted by pathogens in their efforts to modulate the host physiology to accommodate their

needs.

Here we report that *Pseudomonas syringae* pathovar *tomato* (*Pst*), the causal agent of bacterial

speck of tomato (*50*), deploys two effectors with liquid-like properties to induce the formation

of plant P-bodies and promote disease, revealing P-bodies as a novel susceptibility hub for

pathogenic bacteria. Using a P-body formation-defective mutant, we revealed that P-bodies are

required for the ability of one of the P-body-inducing effectors to repress the plant endoplasmic

reticulum (ER) responses and attenuate protein translation, both processes important for

mounting adequate defense responses (*31*, *51*, *52*). Furthermore, we showed that autophagy is

also implicated in the *Pst*-mediated formation of P-bodies and attenuation of translation,

revealing a so far unknown interplay between autophagy, ER stress responses and P-bodies.

Overall, this study uncovers a new role for P-bodies as modulators of the host protein

translation, and targets of effector-mediated manipulation by a pathogen.

Results

***Pseudomonas syringae* induces P-body formation in an effector-dependent manner**

While pathogens have evolved strategies to target proteolytic pathways, it remains elusive

whether they can also exploit protein translation to cause disease. Considering the importance

of biomolecular condensates in modulating translation, we sought to investigate the behaviour

of P-bodies upon bacterial infection. We observed a mild reduction in the number of P-body

marker DCP1-GFP foci at an early stage of *Pseudomonas syringae* pathovar *tomato* strain

DC3000 (*Pst*) infection of *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaves (Fig. 1A). This evokes the reported P-

body disassembly during pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP)-triggered immunity

(PTI)(*29*). However, a later stage of infection was marked by a significant increase in the

number of DCP1-GFP foci (Fig. 1A). Interestingly, this increase was compromised when using

the type III secretion system-defective strain Δ*hrcC* (Fig 1B), indicating that the translocation

of bacterial type III effector proteins was required for the increase in number of DCP1-GFP

foci. To rule out that this increase was caused by *Pst* ability to inhibit PTI responses, we used

the bacterial double Δ*avrPto/avrPtoB* mutant, which is unable to block the first stages of PTI

signalling (*53*). The increase in DCP1-GFP foci number was not compromised upon infection

with Δ*avrPto/avrPtoB* (Fig. S1A), indicating that inhibition of PTI is not the major cause of

Pst-mediated increase in DCP1-GFP foci number. Similar behaviours were observed with

additional GFP-tagged P-body components DCP5, VCS and LSM1A (Fig. 1C-E and S1B-C).

Moreover, both basal and *Pst*-induced DCP1-GFP and DCP5-GFP foci were sensitive to

cycloheximide (CHX; Fig. S1D-E), suggesting that these condensates are *bona fide* P-bodies

(*54*). Altogether, these results show that *Pst*, through its type III effectors, induces the formation

of Arabidopsis P-bodies.

HopM1 and HopN1 induce the formation and associate with P-bodies

To identify the effector(s) responsible for *Pst*-mediated increase in P-body number, ten single

Pst effectors were transiently expressed to test their individual impact on YFP-DCP1 foci

formation in *Nicotiana benthamiana* (Fig. 2A and S2A-B). Among the effectors screened, only

three showed a significant increase in YFP-DCP1 foci number: Hrp outer protein M1 (HopM1),

HopN1 and HopO1. For the first two, the P-body induction effect was further confirmed in a more natural infection of *A. thaliana* using singly delivered effectors through an effectorless *Pst* polymutant (*55*) (Fig. 2B). Additionally, in the case of HopM1, the opposite effect was observed when using the single Δ*hopM1* mutant (Fig. S2C). Altogether, these results point towards a specific role of certain effectors (i.e. HopM1, HopN1 and HopO1) as inducers of P-body formation upon *Pst* infection.

To test whether the induction of P-body formation mediated by *Pst* effectors could occur in a direct or indirect way, we tested if P-body-inducing effectors HopM1 and HopN1 could associate with known P-body components. HA-tagged HopM1 co-immunoprecipitated with YFP-DCP1 and not with DCP5-GFP, whereas HopN1-HA showed an opposite result (Fig. 2C). Similarly, YFP-DCP1 foci co-localized with HopM1-RFP signal, whereas DCP5-GFP foci did not (Fig. 2D). On the other hand, YFP-HopN1 foci seemed to partially co-localize with DCP1-RFP foci while it co-localized with RFP-DCP5 in larger condensates (Fig. 2F). Both HopM1-RFP and YFP-HopN1 presented liquid-like properties, as they both partially recovered their fluorescent signal upon photobleaching (Fig. 2E & 2G). Altogether, these results suggest that HopM1 and HopN1 associate specifically to different P-body components and are thus recruited to P-body-like structures likely through phase separation.

As HopN1 is a reported cysteine protease (*56*), we tested whether its P-body inducing ability was dependent on its enzymatic activity. Interestingly, a catalytic mutant version of HopN1, HopN1^{D299A} (*56*), was not able to induce YFP-DCP1 foci when transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* (Fig. S2D-E), while partially retaining the ability to co-localize with P-bodies (Fig. SF). Nevertheless, YFP-HopN1^{D299A} foci did not present liquid-like properties (Fig. S2G), indicating that HopN1 protease activity might not be required to associate with P-body components, but is indispensable for the recruitment of HopN1 to functional P-bodies and for the increase of their number. This strengthens the notion that prokaryotic effectors can undergo phase separation and that this is required for executing their proper mode of action (*57*).

P-bodies are positive regulators of susceptibility via an altered endoplasmic reticulum stress response

As P-body formation was induced in a compatible interaction and is not compromised upon inhibition of PTI (Fig. 1 and S1), we hypothesized that P-body formation might be a consequence of the bacterial manipulation of the host to accommodate *Pst* needs, rather than a plant defense response. To test this, we evaluated the bacterial multiplication in a P-body

formation-defective mutant *dcp5-1* (*58*). *dcp5-1* fostered a significantly lower bacterial multiplication than wild-type plants when naturally infecting with *Pst* (Fig. 3A). A similar pattern was observed when *Pst* was inoculated by mesophyll-infiltration, which bypasses the first layers of pre-invasive immunity (Fig. S3A). Furthermore, the canonical PTI defence response, flg22-induced reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, was not altered in *dcp5-1* (Fig. S3B). Altogether, these results suggest that P-bodies might be positive regulators of plant susceptibility and that the bacteria might actively induce their formation to their own benefit, beyond immunity suppression.

To further investigate the role of P-bodies during infection, we conducted transcriptomic analyses on the Arabidopsis PB-defective mutant *dcp5-1* and wild-type Col-0 upon infection (Table 1). Generally, the effect of the mutations was minimal compared to the effect of the bacterial infection, as the number of differentially expressed genes of *dcp5-1* in both mock and infected conditions was considerably small (Fig. 3B). Interestingly, when we compared the genes differentially regulated upon infection in both genotypes, we observed very similar tendencies (Fig. 3C and S3C). Therefore, it seems that P-bodies are not responsible for major changes during the transcriptional reprogramming occurring upon infection. However, when carefully examining the differences between *dcp5-1* and Col-0 upon infection, we observed certain pathways were distinctly regulated. For instance, abscisic acid (ABA) signalling, a known susceptibility hub to *Pst* (*59*), was differentially up-regulated in *dcp5-1* as further corroborated at the protein level with the ABA receptor PYRABACTIN RESISTANCE 1 (PYR1; Fig. S3C-D). Among the differentially down-regulated genes upon infection, we observed that endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress responsive genes were strongly down-regulated in Col-0, but to a lesser extent in *dcp5-1* (Fig. 3D). This tendency was mirrored at the protein level using the ER luminal BINDING PROTEIN 1 and 2 (BIP1/2) as ER stress response markers (Fig. 3E). ER stress responses have emerged as novel and not-well understood susceptibility hubs (*51*), and ER exit sites have been recently linked to P-body organization in *Drosophila* (*60*). Therefore, we decided to further investigate the role of ER stress responses in modulating P-body dynamics upon infection.

In coherence with the differential regulation of ER stress responses in *dcp5-1* (Fig 3D-E), this mutant was found to be hypersensitive to ER stress-inducing drugs dithiothreitol (DTT) and tunicamycin (TM) when applied in seedlings (Fig. S3E). Moreover, TM had a negative effect on the number of YFP-DCP1 foci observed in seedling roots (Fig. S3F), evidencing a link between ER stress and P-bodies in plants. Indeed, chemical induction of ER stress in adult

plants prevented *Pst* from inducing P-bodies (Fig. 3F and S3G). Additionally, while TM had a deleterious effect in bacterial multiplication in Col-0, PB-defective *dcp5-1* showed the opposite, mirroring ER stress irresponsive double mutants *bzip17/60* and *bzip28/60* (Fig. 3G) (*61*). Altogether, these results points towards a deregulation of ER stress responses as a potential cause of the reduced susceptibility to *Pst* of the P-body-defective *dcp5-1*, and evidence a tight link between P-bodies and ER stress responses in plants, as recently suggested in animals (*62*).

To further investigate the strong down-regulation of ER stress responses upon infection observed in Col-0 but absent in *dcp5-1* (Fig. 3D-E), and to evaluate the impact of *Pst* effectors therein, we blotted ER stress response markers BIP1/2 upon infection with the wild-type and effectorless polymutant *Pst* strains. As previously observed (Fig. 3E), *Pst* reduced the accumulation of BIP1/2, but the effectorless polymutant did not (Fig. 3H). This suggests a role for type III effectors in mediating the repression of ER stress responses. Analysing published transcriptomic data of the single Δ*hopM1 Pst* mutant (*59*), we observed that ER stress responsive genes were up-regulated (Fig. S3H), revealing a possible role for HopM1 as a suppressor of the host ER stress responses. Previous work indicated that HopM1 associates with trafficking components at the ER (*63*), strengthening our hypothesis that HopM1 may modulate ER stress responses. Indeed, we confirmed that *Pst* but not Δ*hopM1* repressed several ER stress responsive genes (Fig. S3I). Moreover, translocation of HopM1 alone was able to partially revert the BIP1/2 accumulation triggered by the effectorless polymutant (Fig. 3H). We then had a look at the subcellular localization of the ER stress responsive transcription factor BZIP28, which is imported into the nucleus upon ER stress (*64*). Indeed, HopM1 reduced the nuclear translocation of RFP-BZIP28 (Fig. 3I), evidencing its role as major repressor of ER stress responses upon *Pst* infection, and suggesting a possible molecular mechanism for this repression. Interestingly, the compromised induction of P-bodies by the Δ*hopM1* strain was not observed when plants were treated with TM (Fig. S3J), suggesting that ER stress repression is required for HopM1-mediated induction of P-bodies. On the other hand, HopN1 did not induce any visible change in terms of ER stress responses when individually delivered through the effectorless polymutant (Fig. 3I-J), suggesting that the mechanisms to induce P-bodies employed by these two effectors might be different, reminiscent of their different association pattern (Fig. 2C).

P-bodies are required for *Pst*-mediated attenuation of the host translation

To understand the role and protein composition of P-bodies during infection, different proteomic approaches combining classical immunoprecipitation and proximity labelling coupled with mass spectrometry were conducted to determine the protein composition of *Pst*-induced P-bodies (Tables 2-3, Fig. 4A-B and S4C-D). Several known P-body components were identified validating our different proteomic datasets (Fig. 4A-B and S4E). Interestingly, the protein composition of *Pst*-induced P-bodies was quite different from the composition of basal P-bodies (Table 2), suggesting that these biomolecular condensates are not mere "kidnappers" of translationally inactive transcripts, but that they can also sequester proteins to modulate their function/accessibility in the cytosol (*65*). Several proteins never previously reported to associate with P-bodies were identified (Table 2). For their possible interconnections with protein homeostasis, among the newly identified P-body associated proteins, we confirmed the co-localization with P-body marker DCP1 and liquid-like properties of three: an uncharacterized protein hereafter referred as DCP1/5-INTERACTING PROTEIN 1 (DIP1; AT1G27752), the PROTEASOME SUBUNIT ALPHA TYPE 2-B (PAB2; AT1G79210) and the putative E3 ligase IAN9-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 1 (IAP1; AT1G18660; Fig. S4A-B) (*66*).

Additionally, several proteins with links to translation were identified in our proteomics analyses (Table 3 and Fig. S4E). This is in accordance with the function of P-bodies as recruiters of translationally inactive transcripts in the cytosol (*34*). To test whether *Pst*-mediated induction of P-bodies had an impact on the host translation, we monitored translation activity using SUrface SEnsing of Translation (SUnSET) assays (*67*). Indeed, we observed that at the same timepoint at which *Pst* infection produced a major induction of P-bodies, there was a considerable reduction of newly synthesized polypeptides (Fig. 4C). To evaluate whether this phenomenon was caused by the sequestration of transcripts to P-bodies, we conducted a similar experiment with the PB-defective mutant *dcp5-1*. Interestingly, *Pst*-mediated attenuation of translation was compromised in *dcp5-1* (Fig. 4D and S4F), suggesting a possible role of P-bodies in modulating general translation. As an additional proxy for evaluating general translation, we monitored the phosphostatus of the RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN S6A (RPS6A). RPS6A is a downstream target of the master energy sensor TARGET OF RAPAMYCIN (TOR) involved in ribosome biogenesis and thus translation (*68*). Similarly to puromycin incorporation, RPS6A phosphorylation was severely reduced upon *Pst* infection, but to a lesser extent in *dcp5-1* (Fig. 4E and S4G), suggesting deregulation of the *Pst*-mediated attenuation of translation in this background. To test whether this observed *Pst*-mediated attenuation of

translation was type III effector-dependent, we conducted a SUnSET assay with the effectorless

polymutant and single-effector-complemented strains. Indeed, the attenuation of translation

was reverted when inoculating the effectorless polymutant (Fig. 4F and S4H), indicating that

one or several effectors of *Pst* are responsible for its translational inhibition. This is coherent

with the reported role of translation during plant immune responses (*52*). P-body-inducing

effectors HopM1 and HopN1 reverted the translation induction triggered by the effectorless

polymutant, evidencing their role as inhibitors of translation (Fig 4F and S4H). Interestingly,

HopM1 was not able to repress translation in the PB-defective *dcp5-1*, indicating that HopM1

requires P-bodies to attenuate translation. On the other hand, HopN1 did repress translation

both in *dcp5-1* and Col-0, decoupling P-body formation from translation for this particular

effector and strengthening the notion that these two effectors might work in different and

complementary mechanisms. Since HopM1was shown to suppress proteasome activity by

inducing autophagy (*69*), we sought to investigate whether the effect of *Pst* on protein

translation was dependent on both degradation pathways. We observed that, *Pst*-mediated

attenuation of translation, evaluated by both puromycin incorporation and RPS6A

phosphorylation, was not majorly altered in the proteasomal mutant *rpt2a-2* (*70*), but it was

completely deregulated in the autophagy-deficient mutant *atg5-1* (*71*)(Fig. S4F-H). Altogether,

these results highlight P-bodies as possible mediators of the general attenuation of translation

that occurs as a virulence strategy of *Pst*.

Pst utilizes autophagy to modulate P-body dynamics

As autophagy is required to attenuate protein translation (Fig. S4F-H) and promote disease (*69*),

and based on a recent report linking autophagy with P-body dynamics (*72*), we sought to study

whether there is an interplay between these two processes upon bacterial infection in plants.

Using the autophagy-deficient mutant *atg5-1*, we observed an increase both basally and upon

Pst infection in the number of YFP-DCP1 foci (Fig. 5A), indicating a role of autophagy in

modulating P-body dynamics. This increase in YFP-DCP1 foci in *atg5-1* was accompanied by

an increase in protein accumulation of YFP-DCP1 (Fig. 5B and S5B), suggesting that DCP1

might be a target of autophagic degradation. Indeed, upon *Pst* infection, an established

autophagy-inducing condition (*69*), DCP1 protein levels were decreased (Fig. 5B and S5B).

This phenomenon was reverted when vacuolar degradation was chemically inhibited by

concanamycin A treatment (Fig. S5C). Moreover, YFP-DCP1 co-localizes with mCherry-

ATG8E-labelled autophagosomes in different autophagy-inducing conditions (Fig. 5C and

S5F), supporting the notion that DCP1 is a *bona fide* target of autophagic degradation. However,

additional P-body components DCP5, LSM1A or VCS were not visibly degraded upon *Pst*

infection, although DCP5 protein levels were basally stabilized in *atg5-1* (Fig. S5D-E). This

suggests that P-bodies, in the context of *Pst* infection, might not be targets of autophagic

degradation themselves, but specific components thereof might be. Interestingly, the YFP-

DCP1 foci observed in *atg5-1*, both in mock and infected conditions, were also considerably

larger in size (Fig. 5A) and insensitive to the translation inhibitor CHX (Fig. S5A-B). This

suggests that although increased in number, these P-bodies might not be completely functional

or might not sequester translationally inactive transcripts anymore. Additional lines of evidence

toward this hypothesis include that these enlarged P-bodies are not sensitive to neither *Pst*-

mediated induction nor TM-mediated repression (Fig. 5D and S5G). Furthermore, as described

before, although *atg5-1* is marked by an increased number of P-bodies, translation does not

seem to be attenuated but rather induced in this background (Fig. S4E). Interestingly, the P-

body- and autophagy-inducing effector HopM1 (*69*), seems to require autophagy for its

translational repression activity (Fig. S4G). Altogether, these results points towards a complex

interplay between P-bodies and autophagy, which is required for both *Pst*-mediated induction

of P-bodies and subsequent translation attenuation, and for their proper functioning and

turnover.

Since not all P-body components seem to be degraded via autophagy (Fig. S5E-D), suggesting

substrate specificity, we sought to investigate whether some of the newly identified P-body-

associated proteins (Fig. 4A-B and S4A-B, Table 2-3), could be also degraded via autophagy.

Among the described candidates, we identified DIP1 which contains a Coupling of Ubiquitin

conjugation to ER degradation (CUE) domain (Fig. 4A-B & S4A-B). As this domain is known

to bind ubiquitin (*73*), a common tag for autophagic degradation (*1*), we explored whether DIP1

could be involved in the interplay between autophagy and P-bodies. We confirmed that DIP1

co-localizes and co-immunoprecipitates with P-body components DCP1 (Fig. S4A and S5H).

Moreover, similarly to DCP1, DIP1 is also degraded by autophagy as its protein levels are

stabilized upon inhibition of vacuolar degradation or autophagy by concanamycin A treatment

and co-expression of AIM peptide (*74*), respectively (Fig. S5I-J). Additionally, DIP1 protein

levels were decreased upon chemical induction of autophagy with AZD8055 (Fig. S5K).

Altogether, these results show that DIP1, similarly to its associating protein DCP1, is also a

target of autophagic degradation and suggest that DIP1 might be involved in the interplay

between autophagy and P-body homeostasis.

Discussion

Environmental perturbations can disrupt proteostasis, negatively impacting stress responses and causing proteotoxicity (*75*, *76*). To mitigate proteotoxicity, cells employ the ubiquitin-proteasome system and the autophagy pathway (*1*). Additionally, eukaryotes utilize the compartmentalization of translationally inactive mRNAs into cytosolic ribonucleoprotein condensates such as P-bodies, providing an extra layer of regulation at the protein synthesis level (*77*). Maintaining the balance between the synthesis and degradation of regulatory proteins is essential to enable the induction and maintenance of stress responses. In turn, pathogens have evolved strategies to manipulate the host proteostasis, particularly targeting the proteasome and autophagy pathways (*5–7*, *13*, *18*, *78*), thus perturbing this balance. However, how pathogens manipulate the other half of the proteostasis balance, notably at the translation level, is poorly understood. Here we show that *Pst* drives an enhanced condensation of P-bodies to attenuate protein translation via two effectors with liquid-like properties. Moreover, we showed that *Pst*-mediated repression of ER stress response and induction of autophagy is required for P-body assembly and translation attenuation (Fig. 6).

The ability to induce phase separation is emerging as a strategy employed by pathogens to form biomolecular condensates (*79*). Recent studies indicate that pathogenic bacteria effectors exhibit high propensity for phase separation and drive condensation (*57*, *80*), although their exact mechanisms remain unclear. We provide novel insights into how effectors with such properties might induce the condensation and assembly of P-bodies to attenuate protein translation during host-microbe interactions. But why is it beneficial for the pathogen to modulate a process as essential as translation? It has been shown that the modulation of other aspects of proteostasis benefits pathogens. Pathogenic effectors have been shown to mimic degradation pathway components (e.g., E3 ligases) to eliminate immune factors or directly manipulate processes like proteasomal or autophagic degradation (*5*, *7*, *13*, *81*, *82*). However, our findings provide the first evidence that bacteria can attenuate host protein translation by inducing P-bodies to the pathogen own benefit. While we show that P-body induction leads to translational arrest, we cannot exclude that their condensation may also sequester proteins to render them nonfunctional or to neo-functionalize them, as suggested by studies on an insect effector associating P-bodies with immune components to suppress plant immunity (*83*). Given that protein translation is fine-tuned upon pathogen perception (*31*), it is unsurprising that pathogens have evolved strategies to manipulate this process by targeting P-bodies. Our findings also imply that other mechanisms are utilized by *Pst* to dampen host translation (e.g.

TOR activity inhibition). Future research will focus on other strategies to target host translation
and on identifying specific mRNAs affected in translation efficiency, potentially uncovering
whether they include immune components, susceptibility hubs or other pathways critical to
limit the infection.

The molecular mechanisms behind P-body assembly are less understood. For decades,
researchers have debated the factors driving P-body formation, which involves the aggregation
of smaller ribonucleoprotein particles, protein-RNA interactions, low-complexity protein
sequences, and liquid-liquid phase separation (*34*). While some P-body components are
required for their maintenance, it is unclear how they are formed or their implications in
pathologically relevant stress conditions (*48*). Our findings show that *Pst* triggers P-body
formation in an effector-dependent manner and highlight novel mechanistic insights into how
ER stress responses control P-body assembly. Considering the association between P-bodies
and the ER (*62*), as well as the role of ER contact and exit sites in regulating P-body
organization (*60*), targeting the ER and dampening ER stress responses appear to be efficient
strategies for inducing P-body assembly. Additionally, we provide evidence that *Pst*-mediated
induced autophagy regulates P-body assembly and disassembly, as analogously observed in
studies on Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (*84*). Emerging evidence highlights the
roles of the ubiquitin-proteasome system and autophagy in controlling the assembly and
disassembly of biomolecular condensates like stress granules and P-bodies (*85–87*). These
findings underscore the significance of protein degradation pathways as regulators of stress-
responsive biomolecular condensates.

But why does *Pst* degrade P-bodies? We speculate that the proper function of P-bodies requires
their recycling. This is supported by our observation that autophagy deficiency makes P-bodies
resistant to CHX treatment, which generally leads to a reduction of untranslated mRNAs (*88*).
P-bodies typically form only in the presence of untranslated mRNAs (*34, 36*). As such our
findings strongly suggest that without recycling, P-bodies cannot effectively sequester mRNAs.
Alternatively, it is possible that selective autophagy of P-bodies is necessary to eliminate
translationally inactive mRNAs, preventing them from re-entering new cycles of translation.

Collectively, our study reveals that *Pst* manipulates protein translation by inducing P-body
condensation via the concerted action of at least two bacterial effector proteins. Utilizing these
effectors as cellular probes, we uncover a previously unknown connection between the ER
stress response and P-bodies, identifying the pathways and factors required for P-body

formation. Considering that protein translation and P-bodies are conserved across kingdoms, our findings suggest that similar mechanisms may operate in other host-microbe interactions.

Material and methods

Plant material and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Col-0 wild-type and its derived T-DNA mutants: *dcp5-1* (SALK_00881; (*58*)), *bzip17-2/60-1* (SALK_004048 & SALK_050204; (*61*)) , *bzip28-2/60-1* (SALK_132285 & SALK_050204; (*61*)), *atg5-1* (SAIL_129_B07; (*71*)), *rpt2a-2* (SALK_005596; (*70*)), and transgenic plants listed in Table S1, were grown under either short day or long day conditions (light/dark cycles: 16h 22°C/8h 20°C, 130µmol.mm².s^{-1} light intensity, 70% relative humidity) for *in vitro* experiments and seed propagation, or short day conditions (light/dark cycles: 12h 22°C/ 12h 20°C, 90µmol.mm².s-1 light intensity, 70% relative humidity) for bacterial infection assays. For *in vitro* experiments, seeds were sterilized with 70% ethanol and sown on solid 1% sucrose-supplemented ½ Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium. For experiments with adult plants, seeds were sown on individual 6-cm-diameter pots filled with soil and, for infection assays, plants were grown for 4-5 weeks. Seeds for both experiments *in vitro* and with adult plants were stratified for 2 days at 4ºC.

Nicotiana benthamiana plants were grown under long day conditions (light/dark cycles: 16h/8h, at 21°C and 70% humidity) in 6-cm-diameter individual pots filled with perlite-supplemented soil for 4-6 weeks.

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Pseudomonas syringae pathovar *tomato* wild type strain DC3000 (*89*), and its derived mutants: Δ*hrcC* (*90*), Δ*avrPto/avrPtoB* (*53*), Δ*hopM1* (*91*), Δ*hopQ1* (*92*), Δ*36E::EV*, Δ*36E::hopM1* & Δ*36E::hopN1* (*55*, *93*); were grown in King's B (KB) medium supplemented with 100 mg/L rifampicin (plus 25 mg/L kanamycin and 50 mg/L spectinomycin for the Δ*36E* strains) at 28ºC. *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* C58C1 derived strains listed in Table S2 were grown in Luria-Bertani broth (LB) medium supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics (i.e. 150 mg/L kanamycin, 300 mg/L gentamycin, 100 mg/L spectinomycin, 5 mg/L tetracycline and 50 mg/L rifampicin) at 28ºC. *Escherichia coli* TOP10 and DB3.1 derived strains used for molecular cloning with the plasmids listed in Table S3 were grown in LB medium supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics (i.e. 150 mg/L kanamycin, 300 mg/L gentamycin, 100 mg/L spectinomycin, 25 mg/L chloramphenicol and 50 mg/L carbenicillin).

Molecular cloning

The list of plasmids used and generated in this study are listed in Table S3. The list of primers used to amplify the coding sequences from *A. thaliana* genes are listed in Table S4. For Gateway® cloning, attB1 and attB2-flanked proof-reading PCR products were introduced into entry plasmids using BP clonase™ II enzyme mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Expression vectors were generated using LR clonaseTM II enzyme mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Chemically competent *E. coli* TOP10 cells were transformed by heat shock (45 seconds at 42ºC, 2 min at 4ºC and 1h recovery at 37ºC prior to plating on antibiotic-supplemented plate). Positive clones were verified by colony PCR and Sanger sequencing (Eurofins).

Plant inoculation and bacterial growth assays

Overnight *Pst* cultures were centrifuged for 7 minutes at 4,000 rpm. Pellets were washed twice with 10 mM $MgCl_2$ prior to measuring the optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}). For P-body quantification and transcriptomic, proteomic and gene expression analyses, *Pst* inocula were prepared at a final OD_{600} of 0.1 in 10 mM $MgCl_2$. For bacterial growth assays, the inocula were prepared at a final OD_{600} of 0.0001 in 10 mM $MgCl_2$. The bacterial inocula were infiltrated with a needleless syringe into the abaxial side of fully developed leaves from 4-5-week-old *A. thaliana* plants. For bacterial growth assays upon dipping inoculation, the final OD_{600} was adjusted to 0.1 in 10 mM MgCl2 and 0.025% Silwet L-77. Plants were fully dipped in the bacterial solution for 1 minute. After inoculation, all plants were well-watered and put in covered trays to reach nearly saturated humidity conditions. Unless stated otherwise, plants were used for experiments 24 hours after inoculation for P-body quantification and transcriptomic, proteomic and gene expression analyses, or 3 days post inoculation for bacterial growth assays. Bacterial populations were estimated by plating serial dilutions of bacteria extracted from two 6-mm-diameter leaf discs in 200 μL 10 mM $MgCl_2$ homogenized with a tissue lyser (Retsch). Colony forming units were manually counted 48 hours after plating.

Transient expression in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves

Overnight *A. tumefaciens* cultures were centrifuged for 7 min at 4,000 rpm. Pellets were washed twice with agroinfiltration buffer (10mM $MgCl_2$, 10mM MES pH 5.7) prior to measuring OD_{600}. Inocula were prepared at a final OD_{600} of 0.1-0.5 in 200μM acetosyringone-supplemented agroinfiltration buffer and incubated at room temperature and darkness for 2

441 hours before infiltration with a needleless syringe into the abaxial side of 4 to 6-week-old *N.*

442 *benthamiana* leaves. Plants were used for further experiments 24-48 hours after infiltration.

Laser scanning confocal microscopy and image analysis

Images were taken with a confocal laser scanning microscope (STELLARIS 8; Leica) using a

water-immersed objective (HC PL APO CS2 63×/1.20 W) with a resolution acquisition set to

512 x 512 (P-body quantification and FRAP analyses) or 1024×1024 (for subcellular

localization analyses) and a line average of 2-3. For GFP, excitation was set to 488 nm and

emission was recorded at 500–560 nm. For YFP, excitation was set to 514 nm and emission was

recorded at 530–570 nm. For RFP and mCherry, excitation was set to 587 nm and emission was

recorded at 600–640 nm. Chlorophyll autofluorescence was visualized in the far-red

wavelength. After acquisition, images were processed using Application Suite X (LASX; Leica)

and ImageJ. For clarity purposes, contrast on the individual channels was manually adjusted.

For P-body quantification (number and size), the analyze particle tool of ImageJ was used,

counting for particles whose intensity threshold were between 70 and 255 on images taken with

identical acquisition setup. Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) assays were

conducted using the FRAP-wizard from the Application Suite X (LASX; Leica). The recovery

overtime of independent photobleached foci was recorded and averaged before plotting. For

RFP-BZIP28 nuclear translocation analyses, several images were taken with an identical

acquisition setup. Afterwards, the signal around/inside every imaged nucleus was manually

assigned as either excluded from the nucleus or imported into the nucleus as depicted in Fig. 3.

Immunoblotting

Proteins were extracted in extraction buffer (100 mM Tris pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 3% SDS) and

mixed with 4X Laemmli buffer (BioRad) prior to boiling at 95ºC for 10 minutes and clearing

by centrifugation of 1 minute at 13000 rpm. Total protein extracts were separated by SDS–

PAGE, visualized with the Stain-Free Imaging Technology in a ChemiDoc Imaging System

(BioRad), transferred to PVDF membranes (BioRad), blocked with 5% skimmed milk in TBS

(200 mM Tris and 1500 mM NaCl), for 1 hour at room temperature and incubated with the

correspondent antibody listed in Table S4 for 1-2 hours at room temperature or overnight at

4ºC. For the detection, the immunoreaction was developed using an ECL Prime Kit (GE

Healthcare) and detected with a ChemiDoc Imaging System (BioRad). When the Stain-Free

images of the total protein extracts were not taken, Ponceau S staining (0.1% Ponceau Red and

5% acetic acid) was performed on the membranes after revelation instead. The relative

quantification of the protein band intensities and ratios was performed using the Image Lab
software (BioRad).

Co-immunoprecipitation

Plant tissue was grinded with a mortar and liquid nitrogen and then extracted in 1ml/g of GTEN
buffer (10% glycerol, 25 mM Tris pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 1X
Protease inhibitor Cocktail (Merck) and 0.5% Triton X,). The solution was vortexed until
homogenized and incubated at 4ºC with rotation for 10min following centrifugation for 30
minutes at 4000 g and 4°C. Supernatant was filtered with three layers of Miracloth (Merck).
50µl of the filtrate was sampled as input, supplemented with 12.5µL Laemmli buffer 4X
(BioRad) and boiled for 10 minutes at 95°C. Next, 10µl/g of GFP-Trap® Agarose beads
(ChromoTek) were added to the remaining filtrate and incubated for 2 hours at 4ºC. The filtrates
were then centrifuged at 800 g for 1 minute, the supernatants were carefully removed, and the
pelleted beads were transferred to new 1.5mL microcentrifuge tubes in 1mL of GTEN buffer.
Five steps of washing were performed by centrifuging at 800 g for 1 minute using 1mL GTEN
buffer. After the last washing, 2X Laemmli buffer (BioRad) was added to equal amounts of
beads and the samples were boiled 10min at 95°C prior to immunoblotting as previously
described.

Measurement of ROS production

16 4-mm-diameter leaf discs were harvested for each condition and individually incubated
overnight in a 96-well plate (Pierce™; Thermo Scientific) containing 100 µL of distilled water.
For ROS production measurements, water was replaced by 100 µL of elicitor mix (50 nM flg22,
100 µM luminol, 20 µg/mL horseradish peroxidase) or mock (elicitor mix without flg22) and
relative luminescence was quantified in each well every minute during 1 h, using a plate reader
(Brand?). The total amount of luminescence per condition was calculated as the average of the
sums of all measurements taken during the recorder hour per sample.

RNA extraction and quantitative real-time PCR

Total RNA from plant samples was extracted following the manufacturer instructions with
either the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) for RNA sequencing, or with the NucleoZOL reagent
(Macherey-Nagel) for the rest of applications. After extraction, 500 ng of total RNA per samples
were treated with DNase I (Thermo Scientific) prior to the cDNA synthesis using the
LunaScript® RT SuperMix Kit (New England Biolabs), in both cases following the

manufacturer instructions. Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using 2X MESA Blue

qPCR Master Mix (Eurogentec) using a 2-step protocol for 40 cycles and melting curve

analysis. The relative gene expression was then calculated following the $\Delta\Delta$Ct method.

RNA sequencing

Sequencing libraries were prepared from the extracted RNA using the NEBNext® Ultra™ II

RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina® and Dual Index Primers (New England Biolabs) following

the manufacturer instructions. The quality of the libraries was verified with a Bioanalyzer

(Agilent) prior to send for Illumina® sequencing at the NovaSeq PE150 Platform of Novagene

(Cambridge, UK). After quality control, reads were mapped to the A. thaliana TAIR10 reference

genome. The mapped reads were counted with *htseq-count* for subsequent analysis. The $\log_2$ of

the fold change (log2FC) and false discovery rate (FDR) were determined using R package

DEseq2 (*94*) with default settings. A gene is considered significantly differentially expressed

when its FDR < 0.05.

IP-MS/MS and proximity labelling

IP-MS/MS analyses were conducted as previously described (*75*). Biotinylation test and

proximity labelling assays were also conducted as previously described (*95*). For the

downstream analysis, $\log_2$(fold change) and false discovery rate (FDR) for each protein group

were determined as described previously (*75, 81*). In the case of the proximity labelling

proteome analysis, conduced in *N. benthamiana*, to each protein group a unique Agi-code was

assigned by blasting every *N. benthamiana* protein present in the protein group against *A.*

thaliana proteome and taking the most frequent Agi-code with the best E-value. An E-value

threshold of e^{-10} was used, in case of absence of *A. thaliana* the protein group was not considered

for downstream analysis.

SUrface SEnsing of Translation (SUnSET) assays

SUnSET assays were conducted similarly to previously described (*31*). Briefly, two 6-mm-

diameter-long leaf discs were individually incubated in 50 μM puromycin (Merck) in 24-well-

microplates for 1 hour with mild shaking. Afterwards, the two discs per sample were pooled,

dried with tissue paper and deep-freeze in liquid nitrogen. Protein extraction and

immunoblotting using anti-puromycin antibody (Merck) was conducted as previously

described. Relative lane intensities were calculated using the Image Lab software (BioRad).

Omics downstream analysis: Gene ontology and protein Network

For Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment, the lists of *A. thaliana* genes were uploaded into ShinyGO software (*96*). Table of annotations was extracted for further analysis. For the generation of protein networks, the lists of *A. thaliana* genes were provided to the STRING database (*97*). For purposes of clarity, network nodes were manually arranged. Clusters were automatically generated using the k-mean clustering tool, and representative GO terms were manually assigned based on the enrichment test automatically conduced within the STRING software.

Data Availability

The mass spectrometry data from this publication will be made available on the PRIDE archive (*98*), with the identifiers PXDXXXXX and PXDXXXX. All relevant transcriptomic and proteomic data are made available in the supplemental information.

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Author Contribution

Conceptualization: M.G.F and S.Ü. Investigation: M.G.F, S.Ü., N.S., S.Z., G.L., G.I., P.G. Visualization: M.G.F and S.Ü. Resources: A.A., A.H., Y.D., Funding acquisition: M.G.F and S.Ü. Project administration: M.G.F and S.Ü. Supervision: M.G.F, S.Ü. and B.M. Writing – original draft: M.G.F and S.Ü.

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Figure 1. *Pseudomonas syringae* **induces P-body formation in an effector-dependent manner.**

(A-E) Confocal microscopy pictures of epidermal cells of 4-week-old *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaves expressing P-body markers DECAPPING 1 (DCP1)-GFP (A-B), DCP5-GFP (C), GFP-VARICOSE (VCS) (D) and SM-LIKE 1A (LSM1A)-GFP (E) infected with *Pseudomonas syringae* pathovar *tomato* DC3000 (*Pst*) wild-type and mutant strains or 10 mM MgCl$_2$ mock at different timepoints (A) or 24 hours (D-E) after mesophyll-infiltration at a bacterial concentration of approximately 10^7 CFUs/mL, equivalent to OD$_{600}$=0,1. Accompaning boxplots represent the number of fluorescent foci (particles defined by an intensity threshold of 70-255) present per focal plane from at least two independent experiments. Scale bars depict 50 μm. Different letters indicate statistical groups determined using Student *t*-test (p-value < 0.05).

Figure 2. HopM1 and HopN1 induce the formation and associate with P-bodies.

(A-B) Boxplots representing the number of fluorescent foci per plane observed in epidermal cells of 5-week-old *N. benthamiana* leaves transiently expressing YFP-DCP1 and HA-tagged *Pst* effectors Hrp outer protein M1 (HopM1), HopN1, HopX1 or HA-tagged β-glucuronidase (GUS) as negative control (A) or 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves expressing DCP1-GFP infected with *Pst* wild-type and mutant strains or 10 mM MgCl₂ mock at 24 hours post mesophyll-infiltration with 10^7 CFUs/mL (B). Data from at least two independent experiments. Different letters indicate statistical groups determined using Student *t*-test (p-value < 0.05).

(C) Coimmunoprecipitation of YFP-DCP1, DCP5-GFP or GFP with HA-tagged HopM1 or HopN1 transiently expressed in 5-week-old *N. benthamiana* leaves 24 hours after inoculation. Total proteins (input) were subjected to immunoprecipitation (IP) with GFP-Trap beads,

followed by immunoblot analysis using either anti-GFP or anti-HA antibodies. GFP blot was
split for visualization purpose. Representative result from two independent experiments.

(D & F) Confocal microscopy pictures of transiently co-expressed YFP-DCP1 and DCP5-GFP
with HopM1-RFP (D) or DCP1-RFP and RFP-DCP5 with YFP-HopN1 (F) in 5-week-old *N.*
benthamiana epidermal cells. Images were taken 30–48 h after infiltration. Scale bars represent
5 μm.

(E & G) Representative confocal microscopy images and time-course plot of the fluorescence
signal recovery of HopM1-RFP (E) and YFP-HopN1 (G) foci after photobleaching. Recovery
was quantified as the percentage of fluorescence intensity compared to before photobleaching.
The data represented is the mean and error bars represent the standard error of the mean (n >
10). Scale bars represent 5 μm.

Figure 3. P-bodies are positive regulators of susceptibility via an altered ER stress response.

(A) Bacterial population in 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves of wild type Col-0 and *dcp5*-1 plants dipped in *Pst* solution at 10^7 CFU/mL three days post-inoculation. Data from three independent

experiments. Different letters indicate statistical groups determined using Student *t*-test (p-
value < 0.05).

(B) Number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) for each condition (i.e. treatment effects:
Pst vs. mock-treated plants in Col-0 and *dcp5-1* plants, and genotype effects: *dcp5-1* vs. Col-0
in mock and *Pst*-treated samples). 4-week-old *dcp5-1* and Col-0 plants were mesophyll-
infiltrated with 10 mM MgCl$_2$ mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst* and samples were harvested 24 hours
after inoculation. Total number of DEGs per condition is indicated. Colors indicate the
proportion of DEGs up-regulated (red) and down-regulated (blue). DEGs are considered when
| log$_2$(fold change) | > 1.5 and adjusted p-value < 0.05.

(C-D) Heatmap representing the log$_2$(fold change) of all mapped *A. thaliana* genes (C) or a
fraction of ER stress response-related genes (D) for each condition in (B).

(E) Immunoblot analysis of ER stress response marker BINDING PROTEIN 1 and 2 (BIP1/2)
present in 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves 24 hours after mesophyll-infiltration with either 10
mM MgCl2 mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst*. The large subunit of the Rubisco visible after Ponceau
S (PS) staining serves as loading control. Numbers indicate the band intensity of the BIP1/2
immunoblot normalized to each sample loading.

(F) Boxplot representing the number of fluorescent foci per plane observed in epidermal cells
of 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves expressing DCP1-GFP infected with either 10 mM MgCl2
mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst* and either 10 μM tunicamycin (TM) or equivalent Dimethyl
sulfoxide (DMSO) volume, 24 and 8 hours prior imaging, respectively. Data from two
independent experiments. Different letters indicate statistical groups determined using Student
t-test (p-value < 0.05).

(G) Bacterial population in 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves of wild type Col-0 and *dcp5*-1 plants
mesophyll-infiltrated with *Pst* solution at 10^4 CFUs/mL and either 6 μM tunicamycin (TM) or
equivalent DMSO. Bacteria were extracted for counting three days post bacterial inoculation
and two days post TM/DMSO treatment. Data from four independent experiments. Different
letters indicate statistical groups determined using Student *t*-test (p-value < 0.05).

(H) Immunoblot analysis of ER stress response marker BIP1/2 present in 4-week-old *A.*
thaliana leaves 24 hours after mesophyll-infiltration with either 10 mM MgCl2 mock or 10^7
CFUs/mL of either wild-type *Pst*, single Δ*hopM1* mutant, the empty vector-complemented
effectorless polymutant (Δ*36E::EV*) or the *hopM1*-complemented polymutant (Δ*36E::hopM1*).
The large subunit of the Rubisco visible through Stain-Free imaging (BioRad) revelation serves
as loading control. Numbers indicate the band intensity of the BIP1/2 immunoblot normalized
to each sample loading.

(I) Stacked barplot representing the percentage of imaged nuclei based on the RFP-BZIP28
signal in/around them. RFP-BZIP28 was transiently expressed in 5-week-old *roq1 N.*
benthamiana leaves for 36 hours, and then mesophyll-infiltrated either 10 mM MgCl2 mock or
10^7 CFUs/mL of either wild-type *Pst*, single Δ*hopM1* mutant, the empty vector-complemented
effectorless polymutant (Δ*36E::EV*) or the *hopM1*-complemented polymutant (Δ*36E::hopM1*)
or 10 μM TM for 8 hours prior to imaging acquisition. Total number of nuclei per condition
appears at the base of the barplot. The two categories were manually assigned as "nuclear

excluded" (dark grey) or "nuclear imported" (magenta), as depicted in the accompanying figures, based on the intensity ratio between nuclear and perinuclear regions. The scale bar represents 10 μm. White error bars depict the standard error of the mean. Data from two independent experiments. Different letters indicate statistical groups determined using Student t-test (p-value < 0.05).

(J) Immunoblot analysis of ER stress response marker BIP1/2 and RFP-BZIP28 present in 5-week-old *roq1 N. benthamiana* plants transiently expressing RFP-BZIP28 for 36 hours, and then mesophyll-infiltrated either 10 mM MgCl2 mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL of either wild-type *Pst*, single Δ*hopM1* mutant, the empty vector-complemented effectorless polymutant (Δ*36E::EV*) or the *hopM1*-complemented polymutant (Δ*36E::hopM1*) or 10 μM TM for 8 hours prior to sample harvesting. The large subunit of the Rubisco visible through Stain-Free imaging (BioRad) revelation serves as loading control. Numbers below the BIP1/2 immunoblot indicate the band intensity of the BIP1/2 immunoblot normalized to each sample loading.

Figure 4. P-bodies are required for *Pst*-mediated attenuation of general translation.

(A-B) Volcano plots representing the results of the IP-MS/MS proteome analysis of proteins enriched in either DCP1-GFP (A) or DCP5-GFP (B)-expressing plants, compared to GFP control 24 hours upon vacuum-infiltration with either 10 mM $MgCl_2$ mock (left) or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst* infection. Highlighted in purple are known P-body components, and in green, candidates further studied in this work. Details are shown in Table 2.

(C) Immunoblot analysis of puromycin-labelled peptides present in 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves 24 hours after mesophyll-infiltration with either 10 mM MgCl2 mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst* and 4 hours after 20μM cycloheximide (CHX) or equivalent water treatment. The large subunit of the Rubisco visible through Stain-Free (SF) imaging revelation serves as loading control. Numbers indicate the lane intensity of the puromycin-labelled peptide immunoblot normalized to each sample loading.

(D) Immunoblot analysis of puromycin-labelled peptides present in 4-week-old Col-0 and *dcp5-1 A. thaliana* leaves 24 hours after mesophyll-infiltration with either 10 mM MgCl2 mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst*. The large subunit of the Rubisco visible through Stain-Free (SF) imaging revelation serves as loading control. Numbers indicate the lane intensity of the puromycin-labelled peptide immunoblot normalized to each sample loading.

(E) Immunoblot analysis of the phosphorylation status at Ser237 and Ser240 of RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN S6A (RPS6A) in 4-week-old Col-0 and *dcp5-1 A. thaliana* leaves 24 hours after mesophyll-infiltration with either 10 mM MgCl2 mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst*. The large subunit of the Rubisco visible through Stain-Free (SF) imaging revelation serves as loading control. Numbers indicate the band intensity ratios between the phosphorylation-specific RPS6A immunoblots and its respective phosphorylation-insensitive RPS6A blots, normalized to each sample loading.

(F) Immunoblot analysis of puromycin-labelled peptides present in 4-week-old Col-0 and *dcp5-1 A. thaliana* leaves 24 hours after mesophyll-infiltration with either 10 mM MgCl2 mock or CFUs/mL of either wild-type *Pst*, the empty vector-complemented effectorless polymutant (Δ*36E::EV*) or the *hopM1-* and *hopN1*-complemented polymutant (Δ*36E::hopM1* and Δ*36E::hopN1* respectively). The large subunit of the Rubisco visible through Stain-Free (SF) imaging revelation serves as loading control. Numbers indicate the lane intensity of the puromycin-labelled peptide immunoblot normalized to each sample loading.

Figure 5. *Pst* utilizes autophagy to modulate P-body dynamics.

(A) Confocal microscopy pictures and boxplots representing the number and size of fluorescent
foci per plane observed in epidermal cells of 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves expressing YFP-
DCP1 in the Col-0 and *atg5-1* background at 24 hours post mesophyll-infiltration with 10^7
CFUs/mL *Pst* or 10 mM MgCl$_2$. Scale bars depict 50 μm. Data from two independent
experiments. Different letters indicate statistical groups determined using Student *t*-test (p-
value < 0.05).

(B) Immunoblot analysis of YFP-tagged protein levels in 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves
expressing YFP-DCP1 in the Col-0 and *atg5-1* background mesophyll-infiltrated with 10 mM
MgCl$_2$ mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst* at 24 hours post mesophyll-infiltration. The large subunit of
the Rubisco visible through Stain-Free (SF) imaging revelation serves as loading control.
Number indicate the band intensity of YFP-DCP1 normalized to each sample loading (top) and
the ratio of YFP/YFP-DCP1 band intensity, also normalized to each sample loading (bottom).

(C) Confocal microscopy pictures of epidermal cells of 4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves
expressing YFP-DCP1 and mCherry-ATG8E mesophyll-infiltrated with 10 mM MgCl$_2$ mock
or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst* 24 hours prior imaging. Scale bars depict 5 μM. White arrows highlight
co-localization of YFP-DCP1 and mCherry-ATG8E foci.

(D) Quantification of the number of fluorescent foci per plane observed in epidermal cells of
4-week-old *A. thaliana* leaves expressing YFP-DCP1 in the Col-0 and *atg5-1* background
infected with either 10 mM MgCl$_2$ mock or 10^7 CFUs/mL *Pst* 24 hours before imaging, and 6
μM TM or equivalent DMSO volume 8 hours before imaging. Data from two independent

experiments. Different letters indicate statistical groups determined using Student t-test (p-
value < 0.05).

Figure 6. Model for *Pst*-mediated induction of P-body formation and attenuation of translation.

Pst translocates effectors HopM1 and HopN1 that associate with host P-body components DCP1 and DCP5 respectively, to induce P-body assembly and attenuate protein translation. Additionally, *Pst* represses the host ER stress responses and induces autophagy, both processes required for induction of P-bodies and translation attenuation.