The Proteomics Landscape of Pattern Triggered Immunity in the Arabidopsis Leaf Apoplast

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Short title: PTI proteomics in Arabidopsis leaf apoplast

(i) Summary

The apoplast is a critical interface in plant-pathogen interactions particularly in the context of

pattern-triggered immunity (PTI), which is initiated by recognition of microbe-associated

molecular patterns (PAMPs). Our study characterizes the proteomic profile of the Arabidopsis

apoplast during PTI induced by flg22, a 22 amino acid bacterial flagellin epitope, to elucidate the

output of PTI. Apoplastic washing fluid (AWF) was extracted with minimal cytoplasmic

contamination for LC-MS/MS analysis. We observed consistent identification of PTI enriched

and depleted peptides across replicates with limited correlation between total protein abundance

and transcript abundance. We observed topological bias in peptide recovery of receptor-like

kinases with peptides predominantly recovered from their ectodomains. Notably, tetraspanin 8,

an exosome marker, was enriched in PTI samples. We additionally confirmed increased

concentrations of exosomes during PTI. This study enhances our understanding of the proteomic

changes in the apoplast during plant immune responses and lays the groundwork for future

investigations into the molecular mechanisms of plant defense under recognition of pathogen

patterns.

Key words: Pattern-triggered immunity (PTI), Microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs),

Apoplast, Proteomics, Extracellular vesicle, Tetraspanin, flg22

(ii) Introduction

Plants are constantly exposed to microbial pathogens, necessitating the evolution of sophisticated defense mechanisms to ensure survival (Boller and He, 2009; Mott et al., 2014). Pattern-triggered immunity (PTI) represents the first layer of inducible defense, activated by the recognition of conserved microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs) through pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) (Boller and He, 2009). These recognition events trigger a complex regulatory network that initiates a variety of defense responses, including the production of reactive oxygen species, transcriptional reprogramming, and callose deposition (Mott et al., 2014; DeFalco and Zipfel, 2021)PTI serves as a critical barrier to pathogen invasion and underscores the importance of studying the molecular mechanisms that underpin this process (Boller and He, 2009; DeFalco and Zipfel, 2021).

The apoplast is the intercellular space that contains gas and water, situated between cell membranes and within cell wall matrix (Farvardin et al., 2020). This compartment serves as a critical battleground for plant-microbe interactions and is the location of colonization by foliar bacteria and many other pathogens (Roussin-Léveillée et al., 2024). The apoplast of plants is typically characterized by limited water and nutrient availability, presenting a challenging environment for microbial proliferation (Freeman and Beattie, 2009; O'Leary et al., 2016; Xin et al., 2016; Aung et al., 2018; Gentzel et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Lovelace et al., 2022). The alteration of the apoplastic environment has been proposed to impact pathogen resistance (Roussin-Léveillée et al., 2024). Studies of apoplastic secreted proteins, peptides, and specialized metabolites have provided some insights into apoplastic defense (Anderson et al., 2014; Delaunois et al., 2014; Martínez-González et al., 2018; Gentzel et al., 2022; Serag et al., 2023).

Apoplastic proteins have been found to perform diverse functions, including reinforcing the plant

cell wall, signal transduction, and inhibition of microbial growth (Alexandersson et al., 2013;

Munzert and Engelsdorf, 2025). Secreted proteins include Pathogenesis-related proteins (PRs),

enzymes for cell wall modification, enzymes for generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS)

and redox regulatory proteins (van Loon et al., 2006; Camejo et al., 2016; Nishimura, 2016),

Secreted proteases, chitinases, and other hydrolytic enzymes can mediate defense by

modification of plant or pathogen structural targets or the virulence factor targets such as

pathogen effector proteins (Van Der Hoorn, 2008). In addition to secreted proteins, plant

extracellular vesicles (P-EVs) are emerging as crucial players in immunity. P-EVs are

membrane-bound nanostructures classified into MVBs (multivesicular bodies), EXPO (exocyst-

positive organelle), Penetration 1 (Pen1)-positive EVs, vacuoles, and autophagosomes based on

their biogenesis (Nemati et al., 2022). They facilitate intercellular and interkingdom

communication by transporting bioactive molecules, including proteins and RNAs (Rutter and

Innes, 2017; Cai et al., 2019). EVs are implicated in enhancing plant defense through the

delivery of immune-related cargo, such as small RNAs and proteins, and contribute to systemic

immune signaling (Liu et al., 2021). Exosomes, a type of MVB with a median size of

approximately 30-150 nm in *Arabidopsis*, have been characterized as a major subtype of P-EVs

(Huang et al., 2021). Notably, markers such as tetraspanin-8 (TET8) have been identified in

defense-associated exosomes, highlighting their potential role in coordinating immune responses

(Wang et al., 2023).

Proteomics approaches using suspension cell culture systems have provided important

information of extracellular proteins for understanding the molecular mechanisms involved in

pathogen infections (Kaffarnik et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2009). While suspension cell culture

systems offer the advantage of limiting cytoplasmic contamination, they do not fully replicate the

actual conditions of infection or the specific cellular responses observed in intact tissue apoplast,

which are critical for understanding the spatial and temporal dynamics upon pathogens interact.

Characterization of apoplastic proteomics typically involve isolating apoplastic washing fluid

(AWF), followed by protein identification using techniques such as liquid chromatography-

tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) (Jung et al., 2008). Isolation of AWF is typically

conducted using vacuum or pressure infiltration followed by low-speed centrifugation (Agrawal

et al., 2010). This technique is efficient in extracting apoplastic contents while minimizing

cytoplasmic contamination. To evaluate potential contamination from cytoplasmic components,

several assessments are employed using enzymatic assay or immunoblotting to ensure the purity

of the AWF (Delaunois et al., 2013; O'Leary et al., 2016). The dynamic nature of the apoplastic

proteome and its response to MAMPs remains an active area of research. The Arabidopsis

apoplastic proteomic profile during PTI is not well described. Further investigation into the

apoplastic proteome under pre-activated PTI will provide crucial insights into the complex

interplay of antimicrobial barrier, ultimately leading to the development of more effective

strategies for disease control.

In this study, we report the apoplastic proteome of *Arabidopsis thaliana* during PTI induced by

flg22 a twenty-two amino acid peptide epitope derived from bacterial flagellin and well-studied

MAMP. Apoplastic washing fluid (AWF) was extracted by low-speed centrifugation with

minimal cytoplasmic contamination and analyzed using liquid chromatography-tandem mass

spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Our analyses identified proteins significantly enriched or depleted

during PTI. We also compared these proteome profiles with publicly available transcriptomics

time-course data, providing insights into the dynamics of early and late PTI outputs. Notably, we

observed a marked increase during PTI in the tetraspanin 8 exosome marker and an increased

exosomes based on nanoflow cytometry. This study provides a detailed snapshot of the

proteomic changes in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* apoplast during PTI elicited by flg22, offering a

foundation for understanding the molecular mechanisms governing plant immune responses.

(iii) Results

Apoplastic washing fluid isolation

A total of 130–150 leaves were collected for apoplastic washing fluid (AWF) isolation from each

sample. 3.5–5.0 mL of AWF was recovered per sample across both mock and flg22 treatments.

Cytoplasmic contamination was assessed by measuring glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase

(G6PDH) activity in the AWF, compared to total leaf extracts (Figure S1). The average G6PDH

activity in the mock treatment was 0.55 mU/mL, and in the flg22 treatment was 0.16 mU/mL,

compared to 14.6 mU/mL in the total leaf extract. Both mock and flg22 samples exhibited <5%

G6PDH activity relative to the total leaf extract with no statistic difference between mock and

flg22 treatments, indicating minimal cytoplasmic contamination.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of flg22 and mock samples

The peptide abundances were analyzed across the eight combined samples (Figure S2). The

overall distribution of log-transformed peptide abundances showed consistency across replicates.

Median $\log_{10}$ peptide abundances were similar between the flg22-treated and mock-treated

samples, indicating a reliable dataset for further multivariate analysis. Principal Component

Analysis (PCA) was used to examine the proteomic differences between flg22-treated and mock-

treated samples (Figure 1). The first two components, Dim1 and Dim2, explained 27.9% and

25.9% of the total variance, respectively. The PCA plot revealed clustering based on sample

types.

Comparison of PTI apoplastic proteins enrichment relative to time course transcript

profiles

A total of 108 proteins were identified as significantly enriched in flg22-treated samples

compared to mock controls (Figure 2). We manually classified these proteins into six groups

based on protein annotations in Araport: (1) RLKs/RLPs (Receptor-Like Kinases/Receptor-Like

Proteins), (2) redox and redox-associated proteins, (3) hydrolytic enzymes, (4) peptides, (5)

extracellular vesicles, and (6) others. To better understand to what degree transcriptional

regulation relates to protein abundance we integrated our proteomic data with a published

Arabidopsis transcriptomics time course from by Hillmer et al., 2017. Within each category,

proteins were ranked by their log$_2$ fold change (log2FC) from highest to lowest abundance. IOS1

and SIF2 were among the most abundant in the RLK/RLP category. Other immune-associated

RLKs like RLK902 and several CRKs (Cysteine-rich receptor-like protein kinases) were also

enriched (Gao et al., 2024). A considerable number of redox-related proteins, such as

peroxidases (PERs) and glutathione-S-transferases (GSTFs) were prominent. Several hydrolytic

enzymes were identified in the apoplast during flg22-induced PTI in *Arabidopsis*. Enzymes

involved in carbohydrate metabolism, including chitinase family proteins (At1g02360), and beta-

hexosaminidase 3 (HEXO3), were enriched. Subtilisin-like protease SBT3.3 and glucan endo-

1,3-beta-glucosidase 14 (At2g27500) were also identified, along with related beta-glucosidases.

Enzymes involved in cell wall modifications, such as pectin methylesterases (PMEs) and

xyloglucan endotransglucosylases, were present in the enriched profile. EARLI1 gene in

Arabidopsis encodes a lipid transfer protein-like protein that plays a crucial role in mediating

systemic defense mechanisms, specifically systemic acquired resistance (SAR) and induced

systemic resistance (ISR) were also enriched by flg22 (Vlot et al., 2021). Notably, in flg22-

enriched profile, three proteins associated with vesicle trafficking were identified as significantly

enriched under PTI conditions. The enriched proteins include Syntaxin of Plants-122 (SYP122),

a Qa-SNARE which functions in vesicle fusion with the plasma membrane peptidyl-prolyl cis-

trans isomerase FKBP15-1 (FKBP15-1), which may contribute to protein folding within vesicles

and tetraspanin-8 (TET8), associated with exosome extracellular vesicle structural integrity

(Boavida et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2020; Rubiato et al., 2022).

The heatmap (Figure 2) illustrates how the transcript abundance changes over time, providing

insights into the continuity or discontinuity between transcription and protein accumulation in

response to flg22 treatment. The transcriptomic analysis revealed distinct patterns of gene

expression in response to flg22 treatment, corresponding with the functional roles of the

identified proteins in PTI. There are 21 receptor-like kinases and receptor-like proteins

(RLK/RLP) identified in the enriched profile and 10 of them displayed rapid upregulation at the

first hours then the expression level gradually decreased. Several redox-related proteins and

hydrolytic enzymes, such as peroxidases (PER21, PER52, and PER71) and Glutathione S-

Transferase (GSTF6 and GSTF7) showed sustained transcriptional upregulation at a relatively

later time point. Overall, within each functional group, protein abundance ratios did not

necessarily align with transcriptional trends in a time-course manner.

Recovered peptides of RLKs are heavily biased to ectodomains.

RLKs membrane proteins were enriched in the apoplastic proteome after flg22 treatment.

Considering that these are transmembrane proteins, we would not expect them be found in the

free extracellular fraction. We investigated the topological distribution of detected peptides in 18

identified RLKs in our dataset enriched under PTI conditions (Figure 3). This detection pattern

shows a notable bias toward the extracellular region, suggesting that portions of these

membrane-associated proteins are accessible or released into the apoplast under PTI conditions.

Very few peptides were captured close to the cytoplasmic regions. The extracellular bias aligns

with the apoplast-specific protein collection procedure. The limited peptide coverage in

cytoplasmic regions further emphasize the specificity of the apoplast isolation protocol.

flg22 depleted apoplastic proteins displayed limited functional clustering and transcript-

protein abundance discrepancies.

A total of 255 proteins were identified as significantly depleted following flg22 treatment

compared to mock conditions (Figure 4). Unlike the distinct functional clustering observed in the

flg22-enriched protein profile, the flg22-depleted proteins did not exhibit clear patterns linked to

PTI or disease response functions. However, based on molecular function GO analysis, these

proteins were categorized into 10 functional groups. We observed some genes displaying high

transcript levels post-flg22 treatment despite their decreased protein abundance in the apoplast,

indicating some discontinuity between transcript and protein abundances.

Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of the enriched protein profile under the flg22 treatment

We performed Gene Ontology (GO) analyses of the 108 significantly enriched proteins in flg22

treatment with TAIR GO Term Enrichment platform. The GO analysis identified significant

enrichment of multiple biological processes in flg22-enriched proteins (Figure 5). Processes with

the highest gene number include response to stimulus and response to stress, suggesting that

many enriched proteins are involved in both general and specific stress responses. More specific

processes, such as response to biotic stimulus, defense response to Gram-negative bacterium, and

defense response to fungus, highlight these proteins' roles in responding to presence of

pathogens. Specific processes such as response to oxygen levels and response to oxidative stress

are also enriched, suggesting that these proteins may play roles in reactive oxygen species (ROS)

production, which are commonly associated with plant immune responses signaling (Torres et

al., 2006). Notably, highly representative pathway with higher fold enrichment like defense

response to Gram-negative bacterium align with the expected response to the bacterial elicitor

flg22.

The molecular function analysis for flg22-enriched proteins revealed significant enrichment in

various catalytic and kinase activities. Nearly 25% of the proteins identified in the GO analysis

were annotated for catalytic activity. The enrichment of oxidoreductase activity, including

peroxidase and lactoperoxidase functions, suggests roles associated with redox reactions and

potential oxidative stress responses. Proteins with kinase and transferase activities, particularly

those transferring phosphorus-containing groups, were also prominent. Specifically, protein

kinase activity and protein serine/threonine kinase activity were enriched, indicating involvement

in phosphorylation cascades.

Consistent with an apoplastic proteome, the cellular component analysis for flg22-enriched

proteins revealed significant enrichment in regions associated with the cell periphery,

extracellular region, and membrane. Nearly 15% of the proteins identified in the GO analysis

were localized to the cell periphery, suggesting a strong role in cell surface interactions. Notably,

vesicles and components associated with the secretory pathway were also prominent in the

dataset. The presence of proteins localized to vesicles, including secretory and cytoplasmic

vesicles, underscores their potential involvement in protein trafficking and secretion.

PTI is associated with increased numbers of exosomes in leaf apoplast

Several studies have reported the enrichment of plant extracellular vesicles during pathogen

infection (Rutter and Innes, 2017; Cai et al., 2019). In our dataset, we observed significantly

enriched proteins associated with vesicular export, including SYP122, TET8, and FKBP15-1.

SYP122 and TET8 show increased change of 8.0 and 5.2-fold, respectively, relative to the mock

condition. Notably, TET8 is an exosome marker involved in exosome stability (Cai et al., 2019;

Liu et al., 2024). Exosomes are one of several classes of extracellular vesicle are typically

between 50nm-150nm in dimeter and have been associated with the cross-kingdom delivery of

small RNA for RNAi. We isolated plant extracellular vesicles (EVs) using ultracentrifugation

and quantified them using Nano-flow cytometry. The analysis of EV in both flg22-treated and

mock samples reveals that the median size of EVs in flg22-treated samples is 67.8 nm, compared

to 70.7 nm in mock samples (Figure 6A). This similarity in size indicates no significant

difference between the two conditions, suggesting that the majority of these vesicles fall within

the size range characteristic of plant exosomes (Rutter and Innes, 2017; Cai et al., 2019).

Exosomes were found at 5.1×10^9 particles/mL in the flg22-treated samples, nearly three times

higher than the 1.7×10^9 particles/mL observed in the mock samples (Figure 6C). This increased

concentration in the flg22 condition aligns well with the 5-fold higher protein levels identified in

the flg22/mock proteomics analysis. Exosomes presence in the extracted apoplastic wash fluid

(AWF) was confirmed by staining with the lipid dye, CFSE, which highlighted the shape and

size characteristic of exosomes (Figure 6D).

(iv) Discussion

GO analysis of the PTI enriched apoplastic proteome revealed significant enrichment in

predicted biological processes such as defense responses to Gram-negative bacteria and

oxidative stress. The molecular functions enriched in flg22-treated samples included both kinase

and oxidoreductase activities, consistent critical roles of PRRs and redox regulation in plant

defense mechanisms. The cellular component GO terms, as would be expected, emphasized the

extracellular localization of both enriched and depleted proteins, including the cell wall, plasma

membrane, secretory vesicles, and extracellular regions. Unlike the PTI-enriched proteins, which

were prominently associated with defense signaling and oxidative stress management, the PTI-

depleted proteins displayed functions more broadly related to cellular homeostasis and general

secretion mechanisms. This may be due to less cytoplasmic leakage in flg22-treated samples

during the collection process (Figure S1) or may reflect an overall shift in molecular function.

Notably, more than 18% of depleted proteins were associated with functions related to cell

organization and biogenesis, including BRI1 (BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE 1),

indicating the stabilization of BR signaling under naïve conditions, this can potentially be a

consequence of the growth-defense trade-off (Huot et al., 2014).

We defined five functional categories of apoplastic proteins enriched during flg22-triggered PTI,

including RLK/RLPs, redox-associated proteins, hydrolytic enzymes, peptides, extracellular

vesicle (EV) associated proteins. Among the RLKs, IOS1 (Impaired Oomycete Susceptibility 1)

and SIF2 (Stress Induced Factor 2) were highly enriched. These two malectin-domain RLKs

have both been observed previously to play roles in PTI signaling. IOS1, a malectin-like leucine-

rich repeat RLK, modulates *Arabidopsis* immunity by forming complexes with FLS2 and BAK1

to amplify pathogen recognition and defense responses. Loss-of-function mutants of IOS1

demonstrate increased susceptibility to bacterial pathogens (Yeh et al., 2016). Similarly, SIF2

also interacts with FLS2 and BAK1 and has been implicated in early flg22-triggered immune

signaling, contributing to downstream defense activation (Chan et al., 2020). The peptide

recovery analysis of RLKs demonstrated a marked bias toward the receptor extracellular regions,

with minimal peptides detected in their cytoplasmic regions. The limited recovery of cytoplasmic

peptides further aligns with the low levels of cytoplasmic contamination in the apoplastic wash

fluid, emphasizing the effectiveness of the apoplast isolation protocol as described by Lovelace

et al., 2022. The recovery of free ectodomains in the apoplast may be an artifact of the sampling

procedure or could indicate that these ectodomains are endogenously released into the apoplast

under the tested conditions through an unknown mechanism.

A comparative analysis of transcriptome and proteome profiles revealed a complex relationship

between transcriptional regulation and endpoint protein abundance during flg22-triggered PTI.

For high-abundance proteins, several displayed consistent trends between transcript levels and

protein accumulation over the time course. For example, IOS1 and SIF2, both receptor-like

kinases (RLKs), exhibited rapid transcriptional upregulation within the first few hours of flg22

treatment. This aligns with their role in early pathogen recognition and activation of downstream

signaling pathways (Bigeard et al., 2015). Similarly, Peroxidases such as PER15 (Peroxidase

15), showed a strong correlation between transcript and protein levels, consistent with its

involvement in reactive oxygen species (ROS) management and oxidative stress responses

during PTI. However, other high-abundance proteins demonstrated protein enrichment despite

declining transcript levels over time. Cysteine-Rich RLKs, another set of RLKs, have distinct

patterns of expressions despite their role in response to flg22 perceptions (Yadeta et al., 2017).

For instance, CRK11 and CRK12 remained abundant in the apoplast even as their transcript

levels decreased after the initial hours of flg22 exposure. On the other hand, CRK13 exhibited

decreased transcript levels over time but maintained a high expression pattern and protein

abundance during late PTI, suggesting its crucial role in enhanced resistance to bacterial

pathogen and is salicylic acid (SA) dependent (Acharya et al., 2007). These suggested post-

transcriptional regulatory mechanisms, such as enhanced mRNA stability or protein stabilization,

which might prolong the functional presence of critical immune components. Such discrepancies

reflect the likely importance of post-transcriptional regulation and protein turnover dynamics in

fine-tuning the immune response.

The enrichment of various hydrolytic enzymes in apoplast in response to flg22 treatment

suggested a multifaceted response to PTI. Several enzymes involved in plant cell wall

modification were found to be enriched including pectin methyl-esterases (PME3, PME17),

xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase (XTH23), and β-1,3-glucanases (At2g27500 and

At5g56590) (Bethke et al., 2014; Perrot et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022). These enzymes

collectively suggest that the plant is actively remodeling its cell wall during PTI, possibly to

enhance its barrier function against potential pathogens. Several hydrolytic enzymes capable of

N-glycosylation of immune receptor and degrading pathogen-associated targets (especially

fungal cell wall) were enriched, such as β-hexosaminidase 3 (HEXO3) and endochitinases

(At2g43620 and At1g02360) (Liebminger et al., 2011; Fiorin et al., 2018). These enzymes

suggest that the plant is actively degrading potential pathogen-derived molecules, which could

both weaken a broad-spectrum of pathogens and generate additional immune-stimulating signals.

Various proteases and protein-modifying enzymes were also enriched. Metalloendoproteinases

(2-MMP and 3-MMP) and subtilisin-like protease (SBT3.3) may be involved in processing

defense-related proteins within the extracellular matrix or degrading pathogen-derived proteins

(Flinn, 2008; Ramírez et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2017). Plant aspartyl proteases (MMG4.12 and

At3g02740) and cathepsin B-like protease 2 (CATHB2) were also found. These proteases

contribute to plant immunity through various mechanisms, from immune signaling activation and

systemic resistance to direct cleavage of pathogen proteins (McLellan et al., 2009; Figueiredo et

al., 2021). The presence of these proteases suggests active protein processing and turnover,

which could be important for the homeostasis of defense signaling molecules and limiting

pathogen fitness. Other metabolic enzymes, such as NUDT6 and NUDT7, members of the nudix

hydrolase family, were enriched by flg22. They play crucial roles in regulating plant immunity

and stress responses by maintaining the redox balance of NADH and acting as ADP-ribose

pyrophosphatases (Fonseca and Dong, 2014). The coordinated action of these hydrolytic

enzymes with various types of substrates likely contributes to the rapid and effective immune

response against potential pathogens, highlighting the sophisticated defense mechanisms

employed in pathogen recognition and immune activation.

The observation of pathogenesis-related 1 (PR1) protein enrichment in the flg22 treatment

profile, with a notable 4.67-fold change, strongly aligns with key findings in induced pattern-

triggered immunity (PTI). PR1 is a well-established marker for salicylic acid (SA)-regulated

plant immunity, and its secretion is critical for activating systemic acquired resistance (SAR).

Upon flg22 treatment, plants exhibit increased PR1 expression as part of their PTI

response (Djamei et al., 2007). The significant enrichment of PR1 protein abundance observed in

this study confirms its responsiveness to PTI triggered by flg22 treatment and further

demonstrates the effectiveness of the experimental conditions in inducing a robust immune

response.

For depleted proteins, inconsistencies with transcript levels were even more pronounced. Many

of these proteins, such as certain housekeeping enzymes and stress-related factors, exhibited little

to no transcriptional change over the time course. Their reduced abundance in the apoplast may

result from active degradation, inhibited secretion, or preferential retention in intracellular

compartments. Unlike high-abundance proteins, these low-abundance factors were associated

with less PTI-relevant processes, further indicating that their depletion may reflect cellular

reorganization rather than active participation in immune responses. The integration of

transcriptomics and proteomics provides additional insights into the temporal coordination of

immune responses. Further time-resolved multi-omics studies could elucidate the functional

significance of these regulatory discrepancies, revealing additional layers of complexity in plant

immunity.

Several extracellular vesicle(EVs) -associated proteins exhibited a notable increase in flg22-

treated apoplast samples. In particular, tetraspanin-8 (TET8), a well-established exosome marker,

was enriched fourfold compared to mock-treated samples. Cai et al., 2018 previously identified

TET8 as a core component of exosomes involved in stress responses, and pathogen defense as

mediators of interkingdom RNAi. Additionally, the concentration of exosome particles in flg22-

treated samples was approximately three times higher than in mock-treated samples. This

increase in exosome production suggests enhanced trafficking of defense molecules and

signaling factors to the apoplast. The enrichment of Syntaxin-122 (SYP122), a SNARE protein

involved in vesicle fusion, supports the idea that vesicle-mediated transport is a key component

of the immune response (Waghmare et al., 2018). These results underscore the importance of

EVs as critical components of PTI, facilitating intercellular communication and the targeted

delivery of antimicrobial proteins and signaling molecules. The substantial enrichment of TET8

and the increased exosome particle concentration suggest that EVs play a pivotal role in

coordinating and amplifying defense responses during pathogen attack.

Overall, our study provides a snapshot of the apoplastic proteome in *Arabidopsis* during the later

phases of flg22-induced pattern-triggered immunity (PTI). A total of 108 significantly enriched

proteins were identified and categorized into key functional groups, including receptor-like

kinases/receptor-like proteins (RLK/RLPs), redox-related proteins, hydrolytic enzymes, small

peptides, and extracellular vesicle (EV)-associated proteins. Our results highlight the complexity

of the apoplastic immune response, where proteins function in distinct stages of PTI activation,

defense reinforcement, and signaling. Notably, exosome-associated proteins such as tetraspanin-

8 (TET8) were enriched fourfold, and exosome particles increased by approximately threefold.

The integration of proteomic and transcriptomic data revealed that transcriptional trends do not

always align with protein abundance. This research advances our understanding of the dynamic

changes occurring in the apoplast during PTI and underscores the multi-faceted strategies plants

employ to defend against pathogen attack. These findings provide a valuable foundation for

future investigations into the molecular mechanisms of PTI.

(v) Materials and methods

Plant Tissue Preparation

A. thaliana Col-0 seeds suspended in sterile 0.1% agarose were sown in SunGrow 3B

Professional potting mix and stratified in darkness for 2 day at 4°C before being grown in a

growth chamber (Conviron A1000) with 14-h light (70 μmol) at 22°C. Plants were removed

from the chamber at 4 weeks and kept at 12-h day and 12-h night conditions in the growth room

prior to apoplastic wash fluid extractions (4.5 weeks).

Extraction of Apoplastic Wash Fluid and Cytoplasmic Contamination Measurement

Apoplastic wash fluid (AWF) was crude extracted using vacuum infiltration as described by

(Lovelace et al., 2022). 130-150 *A. thaliana* leaves were cut and placed into a 500 mL beaker

filled with iced-cold distilled water to top. Repeated cycles of vacuum at 95 kPa for 2 min

followed by slow release of pressure were applied until leaves were fully infiltrated. Excess

water was blotted from plant tissue before rolled into Saran wrap which were placed into 50 mL

conical tubes. Tubes were centrifuged at 1,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C and the fractions were

pooled and stored at -80°C. Cytoplasmic contamination in our AWF samples was examined by

comparisons of cytosolic marker glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase- G6PDH activity in

sampled AWF extracts to the total leaf extracts using standard kit (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,

MO, USA). Leaves were homogenized at 4°C. G6PDH activity was assayed

spectrophotometrically every 5 min at 37°C where each reaction contained 50 µL of AWF and

the activity was calculated according to manufacturer's instructions (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,

MO, USA).

Sample Preparation and Mass Spectrometry Analysis - LC-MS/MS

Samples were filtered through a 3 kDa Amicon spin filter to approximately 50 µL. The retentate

was collected via reverse centrifugation, washed with 50 µL of 50 mM Ammonium bicarbonate,

and combined. Total protein content was measured using the Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit

(ThermoFisher Scientific) and quantified at 550 nm based on a BSA standard curve.

For digestion, 100 µg of protein from each sample was prepared with the EasyPep Mini MS

Sample Prep Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific). After reduction and alkylation at 95°C, samples

were digested with Trypsin/LysC (0.2 µg/µL) at 37°C for 2 hours. Digestion was stopped,

contaminants removed using peptide cleanup columns, and the eluate was dried and resuspended

in 3% acetonitrile/0.1% formic acid. Peptide concentration was measured at 205 nm on a

NanoDrop, calculated using an extinction coefficient (Scopes, 1974). Reverse-phase

chromatography was performed with water + 0.1% formic acid (A) and 80% acetonitrile + 0.1%

formic acid (B). A total of 1 µg of peptides was enriched using a PepMap Neo C18 column,

followed by separation on a Vanquish Neo system (Thermo Scientific) with a C18 nanospray

column at 45°C. The 90-minute gradient ranged from 1% to 45% B at a flow rate of 300 nL/min,

with a final wash at 500 nL/min. Peptides were eluted directly into an Orbitrap Eclipse mass

spectrometer with a Nanospray Flex ion source and analyzed in Data Dependent Acquisition

mode. MS spectra were collected over m/z 375–2000 in positive mode, with ions of charge state

+2 or higher selected for MS/MS. Dynamic exclusion was set to 1 MS/MS per m/z with a 60 s

exclusion. MS detection was performed in FT mode at 240,000 resolution, and MS/MS in ion

trap mode with HCD collision energy at 30%.

Data Analysis and Statistics

Data processing was conducted in Proteome Discoverer (PD) 3.0 (Thermo Scientific). A

precursor detector node (S/N=1.5) was used to identify additional precursors within the isolation

window for chimeric spectra. Sequest HT searched spectra with methionine oxidation as a

dynamic modification and cysteine carbamidomethylating as a fixed modification. An intensity-

based rescoring (INFERYS node) using deep learning predicted fragment ion intensities (Zolg et

al., 2021). Data were matched against the Arabidopsis thaliana Uniprot proteome

(UP000006548) and cRAP contaminants. Searches used a fragment ion tolerance of 0.60 Da and

parent ion tolerance of 10 PPM. PSMs were validated by Percolator with FDR ≤1% and protein

IDs confirmed by at least one peptide. Log2 fold changes (FC) identified proteins with higher

(Log2 FC ≥ 1) or lower (Log2 FC ≤ -1) abundance in flg22 vs. mock, with significance tested

using t-tests and Benjamini-Hochberg adjustments.

Gene Ontology (GO) Analysis

To identify functional categories enriched in the proteomic data, both significantly enriched

proteins and significantly depleted proteins were analyzed using the Gene Ontology (GO)

analysis The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR) GO Term Enrichment tool version 2.

The analysis was conducted using the TAIR10 genome as the reference dataset to determine

over- and under-representation of specific biological processes, molecular functions, and cellular

components. Enriched GO terms were considered significant based on a Bonferroni-corrected p-

value cutoff of <0.05. The results provided insight into functional trends within the identified

apoplastic proteome, including processes associated with plant defense and signal transduction.

Transcriptomics analysis

To investigate the transcriptional profiles of Arabidopsis thaliana proteins identified as

significantly enriched abundant or significantly depleted abundant in response to flg22 treatment,

Tag-Seq data for wild-type Col-0 plants were downloaded from Gene Expression Omnibus

(GEO, accession number GSE78735) as described by Hillmer et al., 2017. This dataset included

transcriptome profiles collected at seven time points (0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, and 18 hours post-

infiltration) with three biological replicates per time point. For each gene, the read counts from

the three biological replicates were averaged at each time point, normalized to the 0-hour time

point by calculating fold changes relative to the average 0-hour value, and log10-transformed.

These processed values were visualized as a heatmap using the pheatmap function from the

pheatmap package (version 1.0.12) in R.

Topology analysis

To analyze the topological distribution of receptor-like kinases (RLKs) in the high-abundance

protein profile in response to flg22/mock treatment, peptides identified via Proteome Discoverer

(PD) 3.0 were mapped to specific domains or positions within each RLK. Protein domain

annotations for the RLKs were obtained from UniProt. Identified peptides corresponding to

RLKs were selected and extracted, and their positions were aligned to the respective RLK

sequences. This mapping allowed for the determination of peptide coverage within specific

protein domains, including extracellular, transmembrane, and intracellular regions.

Plant Extracellular vesicle isolation and quantification

The plant extracellular vesicles (P-EVs) isolation was modified from previous studies (Huang et

al., 2021). Briefly, the crude AWF was centrifuged for 30 min at 4 °C at 2,000 × g to remove

large cell debris, and then the supernatant was further centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 30 minutes at

4 °C to remove large insoluble particles. The supernatant (the clean AWF) was then collected

and further processed by ultracentrifugation at 100,000 g for 1 hour at 4 °C (Optima™ TLX

Ultracentrifuge, Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN) to purify and concentrate P-EVs. Each P-

EV pellet was gently resuspended in 50 µL of 0.22nm-filtered PBS, and all samples were

aliquoted and stored at -80 °C until further use. Nano-flow cytometry (NFC, NanoFCM, China)

was used to analyze P-EVs isolated from both flg22 and mock samples, following the

manufacturer's instructions. For each sample, a 0.2 µL aliquot of P-EVs was diluted in 50 µL of

filtered PBS (1:250 dilution) for analysis. Particle concentration and size distribution were

measured in triplicates. To evaluate differences in exosome biogenesis between the flg22 and

mock groups, exosomes yield was calculated as the number of exosomes per gram of leaf tissue

used for AWF collection. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA to

determine exosome yield differences between groups (*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, NS: not

significant).

Exosomes from mock treatment samples were stained with CFSE dye and examined under

confocal microscope. The fluorescence signals were observed by using Zeiss LSM 880 confocal

laser-scanning microscopy. FITC filter (Excitation: 460–500 nm; Emission: 510–560 nm) (Zeiss,

Germany) was used to detect the GFP signal (Excitation: 530–560 nm) (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan).

Images were generated and merged using The Zen 2.3 imaging software.

(vi) Data statement

The mass spectrometry proteomics data was deposited to the ProteomeXchange with the dataset

identifier pending. Details regarding experimental design, sample preparation, and LC-MS/MS

parameters are described in the Materials and Methods section of this manuscript.

(vii) Author contributions

HCC, YY, and BHK designed the research; HCC, FK, YZ conducted experiments; HCC, CJN,

YZ analyzed the data; and HCC, FK, YZ, and BHK wrote the paper.

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(xi) Figure legends

Figure 1. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of flg22 and mock samples. Clustering of

samples indicates distinct profiles between the flg22 and mock treatments with 27.9%variance in

dimension 1 and 25.9% in dimension 2.

Figure 2. PTI-enriched proteins ranked by functional groups and relative to transcriptome

profiles. The heatmap presents flg22-enriched protein abundances on a red scale. The

corresponding transcriptome profiles are displayed on a blue-yellow scale, with data are shown

at 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, and 18 hours post flg22 treatment relative to mock treatment. Transcriptome

data were obtained from study of Hillmer et al., 2017. GEO data series GSE78735.

Figure 3. Peptide distribution analysis of receptor-like kinases (RLKs) in flg22-enriched

proteins. Identified peptides mapping to PTI enriched receptor-like kinases (RLKs). The

majority of peptides are detected from the extracellular regions, while very few are observed in

the cytoplasmic regions.

Figure 4. PTI-depleted proteins ranked by functional groups and relative to transcriptome

profiles. The heatmap illustrates flg22-depleted protein abundances represented on a green scale.

Corresponding transcriptomic changes are shown on a yellow-blue scale. Data are displayed

across 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, and 18 hours post flg22 treatment relative to mock treatment. Proteins with

GO stress responses are bold in font.

Figure 5. Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of enriched abundance protein profile. Dot plot

represents significant GO terms of 108 significantly- enriched proteins categorized into cellular

component, molecular function, and biological process. The x-axis represents the gene number

of each category, while the size of the circles indicates fold enrichment.

Figure 6. Plant extracellular vesicles are enriched in flg22 treatment. (A) Size distribution of

flg22-plant EVs identified by Nano-flow cytometry (NFC). (B) Size distribution of mock-P-EVs

identified by Nano-flow cytometry (NFC). (C) Comparison of P-EV production between the

flg22 and mock groups, showing a significant increase in exosome production in the flg22 group.

(D) Confocal images of CFSE-stained exosomes from mock samples. Scale bar=50μm

(xii) Figures

Proteins

Locus-ID/Gene

At1g51800 IOS1

At5g63410 MLE2_4

At1g51850 SIF2

At4g23190 CRK11

At3g17840 RLK902

At1g51890

At1g66920 LRK10L-2.4

At1g51820

At4g23210 CRK13

At4g08850 MIK2

At2g37710 LECRK41

At1g61380 SD129

At4g21390 B120

At3g45860 CRK4

At4g23300 CRK22

At4g23200 CRK12

At1g51790

At4g21380 SD18

At1g70250 LTPG32

Protein domains/regions

■ Lipid transfer		■ Thaumatin		■ Malectin	
■ LRR		■ Legume-lectin like	■ CaM-binding	
■ Protein kinase		■ Bulb-type lectin	■ Extracellular region	
■ Disordered		■ EGF-like	■ Cytoplasmic region	
■ Gnk2 homologous		■ PAN			

Supporting figures/legends:

Figure S1. Cytoplasmic contamination detection of AWF. Glucose-6-phosphate

dehydrogenase (G6PDH) enzymatic activity of apoplastic washing fluid was tested for

cytoplasmic contamination in mock (blue stripe) or flg22 (red stripe) treatment compared to

macerated sample (solid).

Figure S2. Normalized protein abundances (Log10 transformed data) per sample. Mock

treatments are represented in blue boxes (M1-M4) and flg22 treatments are represented in pink

boxes (F1-F4). Y-axis represented the log10 transformed of protein abundance.

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