Herbivorous insects independently evolved salivary effectors to regulate plant immunity by destabilizing the malectin-LRR RLP NtRLP4

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Abstract

Plants utilize on receptor-like proteins and receptor-like kinases (RLPs/RLKs) to perceive and respond to a wide variety of invading pathogens and insect herbivores. While the strategies employed by microbial pathogens to suppress plant immunity have been well characterized, it remains unclear how herbivorous insects counteract receptor-mediated defenses. Here, we show that salivary effectors evolve independently in whiteflies and planthoppers to dampen RLP4-mediated plant immunity. RLP4, as a leucine-rich repeat RLP (LRR-RLP), confers plant resistance against herbivorous insects by forming the RLP4/SOBIR1 complexes. In the whitefly *Bemisia tabaci*, BtRDP, the Aleyrodidae-specific salivary sheath protein, interacts with RLP4 from multiple plant species and promotes its ubiquitin-dependent degradation. Overexpression of NtRLP4 in transgenic plants exerts a detrimental effect on *B. tabaci* by exploiting the crosstalk between the salicylic acid (SA) and jasmonic acid (JA) pathways. Conversely, overexpression of BtRDP or silencing of NtRLP4 effectively alleviates such negative effects. In planthopper *Nilaparvata lugens*, the

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28   Delphacidae-restricted salivary protein NlSP104 also targets and promotes the degradation of

29   OsRLP4 from rice plants. These findings reveal convergent evolution of salivary proteins in insects,

30   and underscore the complex interactions between plants and herbivorous insects.

32   **Keywords**

33   salivary effector, insect-plant interaction, receptor-like protein, convergent evolution

Introduction

Plants have evolved sophisticated defense systems to withstand continuous threats from

microbial pathogens and herbivorous insects. These defenses function at multiple levels,

encompassing physical barriers such as the cuticle and cell wall, chemical defenses that include

toxic secondary metabolites and anti-nutritive compounds, and indirect defenses involving the

emission of herbivore-induced volatiles to attract natural enemies of the herbivores [1, 2]. Beyond

these general strategies, plants also rely on the highly specialized molecular immune responses to

detect and rapidly respond to invaders. The activation of innate immunity by membrane-localized

receptors is a highly conserved mechanism among eukaryotes [3]. In sessile plants, the first line of

defense against potential pathogenic microbes or insects relies on cell surface pattern-recognition

receptors (PRRs) [4]. The plant genome can encode hundreds of PRRs, including receptor-like

kinases (RLKs) and receptor-like proteins (RLPs) [4]. RLKs are consisted of different types of N-

terminal ectodomains, a single transmembrane domain, and a cytoplasmic protein kinase domain,

while RLPs possess a similar structure but lack the kinase domain [5, 6]. As RLPs lack the

intracellular signaling domains, they are anticipated to associate with adaptor kinases to form the

bimolecular receptor kinases. For example, suppressor of BAK1-interacting receptor-like kinase 1

(SOBIR1) is reported to act as a common adaptor for most, if not all, of the leucine-rich repeat RLP

(LRR-RLP) [6]. Despite the large number of PRRs encoded by plant genomes, only a few of them

have been well characterized for their functions in recognizing microbial-associated molecular

patterns (MAMPs), damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), and herbivore-associated

molecular patterns (HAMPs) [5, 7]. For instance, FLS2 is known to recognize bacterial flagellin [8],

EFR can recognize the bacterial elongation factor Tu [9], and EIX2 is responsible for the recognition

of the fungal ethylene-inducing xylanase [10].

Piercing-sucking insects, such as whiteflies, aphids, and planthoppers, can damage plants by

feeding or transmitting viruses. They inject a mixture of saliva into plant tissues, which enhances

their feeding efficiency by binding to leaked calcium, degrading extracellular DNA, and regulating

plant hormonal signals [11-14]. In response, plants have evolved the ability to detect herbivores by

sensing HAMPs present in insect saliva [7, 15]. This triggers pattern-triggered immunity (PTI),

including mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascades, reactive oxygen species (ROS), and

hormone signaling [16-18]. A few salivary proteins have been reported to activate plant PTI, but the

specific PRRs that recognize these proteins and trigger plant immunity remain largely unexplored

[19-21]. One exception is the inceptin receptor (INR), which is a legume-specific LRR-RLP that

can recognize the Vu-In in insect oral secretions [7]. Moreover, plant PRRs have been extensively

reported to be targeted by pathogen effectors [22-24]. However, it remains largely unknown how

insects cope with plant PRRs.

The whitefly *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) and brown planthopper *Nilaparvata*

lugens (Hemiptera: Delphacidae) are notorious pests globally. During their feeding process, both

insects secrete abundant species-specific salivary proteins into host plants [25, 26]. It is reported

that plants initiate defense responses upon the recognition of insect feeding [19, 27]. However, the

specific PRRs responsible for this process are still unknown. Both insects can successfully ingest

phloem saps with limited plant defenses. At present, it remains unknown how insects attenuate plant

defenses. Given that numerous defense mechanisms are conserved across plants [3, 28], it is

interesting to investigate whether insect evolves a similar strategy to aid feeding during convergent

evolution. In this study, the functions of RLPs in the plant immunity responsive to piercing-sucking

insects were investigated, and *B. tabaci* and *N. lugens* were demonstrated to independently evolve

salivary proteins to regulate the post-translational modification of RLPs.

Results

BtRDP is most abundantly expressed in salivary glands and secreted into host plants

Based on the transcriptomic analysis, BtRDP (*B. tabaci* RLP-degrading protein; GenBank

accession: MN738093) was identified as the most abundantly expressed gene in salivary glands [26].

It was a secretory protein featuring an N-terminal signal peptide at the N-terminal, and 6 unique

peptides from BtRDP were detected in the *B. tabaci* watery saliva (Fig. S1). As there was no gene

homolog identified in the NCBI nr database, BtRDP was subjected to BLAST analysis against the

transcriptomic or genomic data of 30 insect species. RDP was distributed in all the analyzed

Aleyrodidae species, while no RDP homolog was detected in other species (Table S1). Phylogenetic

analysis indicated that RDPs from five *B. tabaci* cryptic species were clustered in the same clad (Fig.

S2).

A group of *B. tabaci* were allowed to feed on *Nicotiana tabacum* plants for 24 h, and the

presence of BtRDP in the infested and non-infested samples were assayed. One band between 26-

33 kDa was detected in the *N. tabacum* plants infested by *B. tabaci*, but not in the non-infested

plants (Fig. 1a). This band matched the molecular weight of BtRDP identified in the salivary glands,

suggesting BtRDP as a salivary protein. According to Western-blotting, qPCR and transcriptomic

analysis, BtRDP was nearly exclusively expressed in the salivary glands (Fig. 1b, c; Fig. S3a; Fig.

S4). In addition, BtRDP was highly expressed in the adult stages, but lowly expressed in the egg,

nymph, and pseudopupa stages (Fig. 1d; Fig. S3b). According to immunohistochemical (IHC)

staining, BtRDP was specifically distributed in the principle salivary gland, but not in the accessory

salivary gland or other tissues (Fig. 1e). For most piercing-sucking insects, two types of saliva (gel

and watery saliva) are secreted into plant tissues   . The salivary sheath, formed from gel saliva,

serves as an insoluble lining along the stylet path, potentially providing a scaffold for effector

delivery [29]. The salivary sheath secreted by *B. tabaci* was also stained with the anti-BtRDP serum.

The BtRDP signal was mainly detected in the protuberant structure of sheath (Fig. 1f), suggesting

that BtRDP attaches to salivary sheath after secretion.

BtRDP is important for *B. tabaci* feeding on tobacco plants

RNA interference was conducted to investigate the role of BtRDP in whitefly feeding.

Treatment with ds*BtRDP* efficiently and specifically suppressed the target gene at both the transcript

and protein levels (Fig. 2a; Fig. S5). There was no significant difference in the salivary sheath

morphology between ds*BtRDP*-treated and ds*GFP*-treated *B. tabaci* (Fig. S6a). However, the

salivary sheath length of ds*BtRDP*-treated *B. tabaci* was significantly shorter than that of the

ds*GFP*-treated control (Fig. S6b). Furthermore, treatment with ds*BtRDP* did not affect the

survivorship of whiteflies (Fig. S6c). A reproduction analysis was conducted, which indicated that

the ds*BtRDP*-treated whiteflies oviposited fewer eggs than the control (Fig. 2b). The feeding

behavior of whiteflies was monitored using the electrical penetration graph (EPG) technique, which

distinguishes nonpenetration (np), pathway (C), phloem salivation (E1), and phloem ingestion (E2)

phases [30] (Fig. S7). Compared to the ds*GFP* control, ds*BtRDP*-treated *B. tabaci* exhibited a

significant reduction in phloem ingestion and an extended pathway duration, indicating that BtRDP

is necessary for efficient feeding (Fig. 2c).

Salivary proteins are reported to function in intercellular space and/or extracellular space after

being secreted into host plants [29, 31]. To investigate the role of BtRDP in different subcellular

locations of host plants, we constructed two transgenic *N. tabacum* lines overexpressing BtRDP:

one carrying the full-length coding sequence that included the signal peptide (oeBtRDP), which is

expected to be secreted into the apoplast (extracellular space), and the other one lacking the signal

peptide (oeBtRDP^{-sp}), which is likely to be retained in the cytoplasm. Transgenic plants containing

the empty vector (EV), which exerted no significant influence on insect performance compared with

the WT (Fig. S8), were used as negative controls. Fecundity and two-choice assays demonstrated

that BtRDP, whether localized in the apoplast (oeBtRDP) or cytoplasm (oeBtRDP^{-sp}), enhanced

whitefly settling and oviposition relative to the EV controls (Fig. 2d-i; Fig. S9), indicating that

BtRDP promotes whitefly feeding behavior irrespective of its subcellular location.

BtRDP interacts with the NtRLP4/NtSORBIR1 complex

To investigate the underlying mechanism of BtRDP in improving whitefly feeding, yeast two-

hybrid (Y2H) screening against a *N. benthamiana* cDNA library was conducted using BtRDP^{-sp} as

a bait. Totally seven proteins were found to potentially interact with BtRDP^{-sp} (Table S2), including

an NbRLP4 (accession Niben261Chr07g1310001.1 in Niben261 genome). NbRLP4 possesses a

predicted N-terminal signal peptide, a malectin-like domain, a LRR domain, and a transmembrane

domain. NbRLP4 and its closest homology in *N. tabacum* (NtRLP4; GenBank accession:

XM_016601109) did not contain the kinase domain (Fig. 3a).

The relative expression of *NtRLP4* in response to *B. tabaci* infestation was investigated. Based

on qRT-RCR results, the transcript level of *NtRLP4* was not significantly influenced by *B. tabaci*

(Fig. S10). However, a decrease in the protein level of NtRLP4 was detected by Western-blotting

assay (Fig. 3b). Pairwise Y2H assays revealed that NtRLP4$_{(23-541)}$ (a truncated version lacking the

signal peptide and transmembrane domains) interacted with BtRDP^{-sp} (Fig. 3c). To investigate the

specificity of the NtRLP4-BtRDP interaction, another RLP protein NtCf9 with the highest sequence

similarity to tomato resistance protein Cf9 (Fig. S11) [32], as well as three randomly selected

salivary proteins from *B. tabaci* (BtFTSP, QHB15613; BtSP16.3, MN738005; BtSP37.4,

MN738158), were used as controls. As a result, BtRDP^{-sp} did not interact with the truncated NtCf9

construct, in which the signal peptide and transmembrane domains were removed (Fig. 3c). Also,

NtRLP4$_{(23-541)}$ could not interact with the other three salivary proteins without signal peptides (Fig.

S12a, b). These findings raise the question of which domain of NtRLP4 is responsible for binding

to BtRDP, as identifying the interacting domain can help to infer where the salivary protein contacts

the receptor in plants. We therefore dissected the NtRLP4 domains accordingly. The results showed

that it was the LRR domain, rather than the malectin-like domain or the short intercellular region,

that was required for the NtRLP4-BtRDP interaction (Fig. 3c). To investigate the shortest LRR

sequence responsible for BtRDP interaction, the LRR domain was divided into three segments.

However, none of these segments interacted with BtRDP^{-sp} (Fig. S12a). Co-immunoprecipitation

(Co-IP) assays further confirmed the specific interaction between BtRDP and NtRLP4 (Fig. 3d). It

was the C-terminal myc tag-fused NtRLP4 (NtRLP4-myc), but not the NtCf9 (NtCf9-myc), that

could be immunoprecipitated by the C-terminal flag tag fused BtRDP (BtRDP-flag). In the

bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assay, YFP fluorescence was observed upon co-

expression of the N-terminal nYFP tag fused NtRLP4 and N-terminal cYFP tag fused BtRDP^{-sp} (Fig.

S12c). Furthermore, in oeBtRDP transgenic plants, endogenous NtRLP4 was specifically

immunoprecipitated with BtRDP-flag, which was significantly different from the control (Fig.

S12d). These results suggest that BtRDP interacts with NtRLP4.

The absence of kinase motifs in the C-terminal region of NtRLP4 suggests that it may function

in the cooperation with other proteins to initiate signaling. The receptor-like kinase SOBIR1, which

contained a kinase domain (Fig. S13a), has been widely reported to be required for the function of

LRR-RLPs in the innate immunity [6]. However, whether SOBIR1 interacted with malectin-LRR

RLP remains largely unknown. Through Co-IP assays, our study demonstrated that NtSOBIR1 was

capable of interacting with NtRLP4 but not BtRDP (Fig. S13b, c).

NtRLP4 and NtSOBIR1 confer resistance to *B. tabaci* infestation

The transgenic *N. tabacum* overexpressing NtRLP4 (oeRLP#1 and oeRLP#2, without any tags)

was constructed (Fig. 3e). Compared with the EV control, both oeRLP lines were less attractive to

B. tabaci, alongside less settling and ovipositing insects (Fig. 3f; Fig. S14a). Also, *B. tabaci* had a

significantly decreased fecundity in oeRLP plants (Fig. 3g; Fig. S14b). Similar results were

observed after transient overexpression of NtRLP4-GFP in *N. tabacum* (Fig. S14c, d), indicating

that NtRLP4 is resistant to *B. tabaci* infestation.

Thereafter, the EV and oeRLP#1 plants underwent transcriptomic sequencing (Fig. S15a). A total

of 729 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified, comprising 423 up-regulated and 306

down-regulated genes (Table S3). Enrichment analysis demonstrated that the majority of up-

regulated DEGs were associated with plant-pathogen interaction, environmental adaptation, MAPK

signaling pathway, and signal transduction (Fig. S15b). In contrast, the glutathione metabolism,

carbohydrate metabolism, and amino acid metabolism pathways were significantly enriched in

down-regulated DEGs (Fig. S15c). Noteworthily, numerous DEGs were annotated as RLK/RLP or

WRKY transcription factor, with the majority of them being significantly upregulated (Fig. S15d,

e). These results suggest an enhanced defense response in oeRLP plants. The crosstalk between

salicylic acid (SA) and jasmonic acid (JA) pathways is critical for plant defenses [14]. The increased

defense of oeRLP transgenic plants was partially caused by the altered hormonal signaling. The JA-

associated gene *FAD7* was significantly induced, while the SA-associated genes *PAL* and *NPR1*

were repressed in oeRLP plants (Fig. 3h). Transient overexpression of NtRLP4-GFP in *N. tabacum*

plants via *Agrobacterium* infiltration exerted similar effects (Fig. S14e). Furthermore, NtRLP4-GFP

significantly enhanced H_2O_2 accumulation (Fig. S14f).

The function of NtSOBIR1 was also investigated by transient overexpression and hairpin RNAi

(Fig. S16). Overexpression of NtSOBIR1-GFP induced the cell death phenotype five days post agro-

injection (Fig. S16). Insects preferred to settle and oviposit on GFP-expressed *N. tabacum* than on

NtSOBIR1-GFP-expressed control, even though no obvious death phenotype was observed two

days post agro-injection (Fig. S16c, d). For NtSOBIR1 silencing, no cell death phenotype was

observed, while the NtSOBIR1-silenced leaves exhibited reduced growth (Fig. S16f). Compared

with the EV-silenced control, NtSOBIR1-silenced *N. tabacum* was slightly attractive to *B. tabaci*

(Fig. S16g, h). Collectively, these results demonstrate that NtSOBIR1 confers resistance to *B. tabaci*

infestation.

BtRDP attenuates plant defenses by promoting the degradation of host RLP4

To investigate the interplay between NtRLP4 and BtRDP, transgenic *N. tabacum* silencing

NtRLP4 (*RNAi-RLP*#1 and *RNAi-RLP*#2) plants were constructed. Both *RNAi-RLP* lines showed

reduced NtRLP4 levels compared with EV plants, with *RNAi-RLP*#2 exhibiting a stronger silencing

effect (Fig. S17a). Compared with EV plants, *B. tabaci* showed a tendency to settle on NtRLP4-

silenced plants and lay more eggs (Fig. S17b, c). Thereafter, ds*GFP*- and ds*BtRDP*-treated *B. tabaci*

were reared on EV, *RNAi-RLP*#1, and *RNAi-RLP*#2, respectively. The ds*BtRDP*-treated *B. tabaci*

produced less offspring than the control (decreased by 28.3%; P=0.0007) on EV plants (Fig. 4a),

consistent with the results obtained from WT plants (Fig. 2b). On the *RNAi-RLP*#1 plant, the

impaired insect reproduction was still observed after ds*BtRDP* treatment, but the extent was slightly

reduced (decreased by 23.7%; P=0.002) (Fig. 4a). On the *RNAi-RLP*#2 plant, there was no

significant difference between ds*GFP* and ds*BtRDP* treatments (Fig. 4a). The differential rescue

effect between the two RNAi lines might result from their different NtRLP4 silencing efficiencies,

with the lower NtRLP4 level in *RNAi-RLP*#2 leading to the more complete rescue phenotype (Fig.

S17a; Fig. 4a). Collectively, these results suggest that *RNAi-RLP* plants are beneficial for insects

and can partially, but not completely, rescue the impaired feeding performance of ds*BtRDP*-treated

insects.

To investigate the influence of BtRDP on NtRLP4, GFP-tagged NtRLP4 (NtRLP4-GFP) was

transiently co-expressed with mCherry-tagged BtRDP (BtRDP-mCherry), red fluorescent protein

(RFP)-mCherry, and BtFTSP1-mCherry through agroinfiltration, respectively. All tags were fused

with the C-terminal region. As discovered, BtRDP-mCherry did not influence the location patterns

of NtRLP4-GFP (Fig. S18). However, a significant reduction in the fluorescent signal of NtRLP4-

GFP was detected after co-expression with BtRDP-mCherry, but not with the controls (Fig. S18).

Besides, co-expression with BtRDP-mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP significantly reduced H_2O_2

accumulation (Fig. 4b), suppressed the expression of JA-associated genes *FAD7* and *PDF.12*, and

induced that of the SA-associated genes *PAL* and *NPR1* (Fig. 4c). It was discovered by insect

bioassays that, transient overexpression of BtRDP-mCherry rescued the negative effects on whitefly

performance caused by NtRLP4-GFP overexpression (Fig. 4d, e). In the host choice experiments,

B. tabaci displayed a preference for settling on *N. tabacum* leaves co-expressing BtRDP-

mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP over those co-expressing RFP-mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP (Fig. 4d). However,

almost no preference was observed in *B. tabaci* feeding on *N. tabacum* plants co-expressing BtRDP-

mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP and plants expressing GFP alone (Fig. S19).

The attenuated NtRLP4-GFP fluorescent signal (Fig. S18), along with the observed decrease

in the NtRLP4 protein level during *B. tabaci* infestation (Fig. 3b), led us to speculate on whether

BtRDP influenced the accumulation of NtRLP4. To this end, the BtRDP^{-sp}-his and GFP-his proteins

were prokaryotically expressed in *Escherichia coli*. Different concentrations of purified BtRDP^{-sp}-

his and GFP-his proteins were infiltrated into *N. tabacum* plants overexpressing NtRLP4-myc.

Interestingly, the protein level of NtRLP4-myc slightly decreased with the increasing amount of

BtRDP^{-sp}-his, while no such effect was observed with GFP-his (Fig. S20). Moreover, the BtRDP^{-sp}-

his protein did not have any significant effect on the accumulation of another RLP NtCf9-like (Fig.

S20). We further assessed the impact of BtRDP on NtSOBIR1 following NtRLP4 destabilization.

As the BtRDP-flag amount increased, NtRLP4-myc accumulation was markedly reduced, while

NtSOBIR1-flag levels remained unchanged (Fig. S21).

Then, the NtRLP4 levels in oeBtRDP and oeBtRDP^{-sp} plants were detected. Compared with

the EV control, a reduced NtRLP4 abundance was observed in both oeBtRDP#1 and oeBtRDP#2

transgenic lines, but not in the oeBtRDP^{-sp} plants (Fig. 4f), suggesting the importance of BtRDP

secretion in extracellular space. BtRDP attached to salivary sheath localized in plant apoplast (Fig.

1f). The presence of signal peptide promoted the secretion of BtRDP into the extracellular space.

Therefore, the complete coding region of *BtRDP* was used in subsequent experiments. The NtRLP4-

myc and BtRDP-flag were transiently co-expressed in *N. benthamiana* plants through

Agrobacterium infiltration. As a result, BtRDP-flag significantly decreased the protein level of

NtRLP4-myc, but not NtCf9-myc (Fig. 4g). qRT-PCR analyses demonstrated that the transcript

level of *NtRLP4* remained unchanged (Fig. S22). These findings indicate that the reduction in the

protein level of NtRLP4 is not caused by transcriptional changes but rather by degradation.

The ubiquitin system and autophagy are two major pathways regulating protein degradation

[33]. At first, MG132, a 26S proteasome inhibitor known to inhibit the degradation of ubiquitin-

conjugated proteins, was employed [34]. The results showed that MG132 efficiently prevented the

degradation of NtRLP4-myc by BtRDP-flag (Fig. 4h). Then, the autophagy inhibitor 3-

Methyladenine (3-MA) and bafilomycin A1 (BAF) that can block autophagy in plants were used

[35]. However, the decreased protein level of NtRLP4-myc was still observed in the presence of 3-

MA or BAF (Fig. S23). Additionally, NtRLP4-myc and HA-tagged ubiquitin (HA-UBQ) were co-

expressed in *N. benthamiana*. Total proteins were extracted from *N. benthamiana* leaves and then

subjected to immunoprecipitation with anti-myc beads. The ubiquitin attached to NtRLP4 was

determined by immunoblot using the anti-HA antibody. Leaves expressing NtRLP4-myc or UBQ-

HA along were used as negative controls. The results showed that a strong UBQ signal was detected

in the immunoprecipitated product only when NtRLP4-myc and UBQ-HA were co-expressed (Fig.

4i). The molecular weight of UBQ-attached NtRLP4-myc was remarkably larger than that of

NtRLP4-myc itself (Fig. 4i). These results suggest that BtRDP promotes NtRLP4 degradation

through the ubiquitin system, but not the autophagy pathway.

278   Degrading plant RLP4s by salivary effectors is a common strategy for insects

To investigate the ability of BtRDP to degrade RLPs from other host plants of *B. tabaci*,

Solanum lycopersicum RLP4 (SlRLP4; GenBank accession: XP_004232910) was selected for

further analysis. Sequence analysis revealed a similar gene structure between SlRLP4 and NtRLP4

(Fig. S24; Fig. S25a). Moreover, the interaction between BtRDP and SlRLP4 was confirmed

through Y2H and Co-IP assays (Fig. S25b, c). Additionally, SlRLP4-myc and SlCf9-like-myc were

transiently co-expressed with varying concentrations of BtRDP-flag or GUS-flag, with the myc and

flag tags fused with the C-terminus. The results showed that BtRDP-flag exerted no influence on

the accumulation of SlCf9-like-myc protein. In contrast, the protein level of SlRLP4-myc was

significantly reduced in the presence of BtRDP-flag (Fig. S25d), indicating the conserved function

of BtRDP in *B. tabaci* adaptation to different host plants.

BtRDP was a gene specific to the Aleyrodidae family, lacking homologues in other species.

To explore whether the degradation of RLPs by salivary effectors was a conserved mechanism

among different herbivorous insects, a RLP4 homology from *Oryza sativa* (OsRLP4; GenBank

accession: XP_015645303; Fig. 5a) and twenty salivary proteins from planthopper species lacking

signal peptides were paired to identify the potential interactions using Y2H assays. As a result, only

the salivary protein NlSP104^{-sp} (*N. lugens* salivary protein consisting of 104 amino acids, GenBank

accession: MF278694) interacted with OsRLP4$_{(29-551)}$ (OsRLP4 lacking signal peptides and

transmembrane domains), while the other salivary proteins tested did not show any interaction (Fig.

5b, c; Fig. S26). NlSP104 did not exhibit any sequence or structural similarity to BtRDP (Fig. S27).

Truncation analysis revealed that NlSP104^{-sp} interacted with both the LRR domain and the malectin-

like domain of OsRLP4 (Fig. 5c), which was slightly different from the BtRDP-NtRLP4 interaction

(Fig. 3c). Given that both BtRDP and NlSP104 interacted with the LRR domain of RLP4, further

investigation focused on the specific region of the LRR domain responsible for NlSP104 binding.

The LRR domain of OsRLP4 was divided into three segments, mirroring the division of the LRR

domain in NtRLP4 (Fig. S12a). NlSP104^{-sp} interacted with the truncated LRR domain (OsRLP4$_{(480-}$

$_{526)}$) (Fig. 5c). In contrast, none of the truncated LRR domain of NtRLP4 interacted with BtRDP^{-sp}

(Fig. S12a). Collectively, these findings suggest that the binding sites for salivary proteins to RLP4

may differ between *N. lugens* and *B. tabaci*.

NlSP104 was a planthopper-specific salivary protein nearly exclusively expressed in salivary

glands (Table S1; Fig. 5d; Fig. S28). The function of NlSP104 or its gene homologs in other

planthopper species has not been well investigated in previous studies. Silencing NlSP104 did not

affect insect survivorship (Fig. 5e). However, significant reductions in honeydew excretion and

impaired fecundity were observed in ds*NlSP104*-treated *N. lugens* (Fig. 5f, g), indicating the

importance of NlSP104 in insect feeding.

Subsequently, OsRLP4-myc was transiently co-expressed with a complete coding region of

NlSP104 (C-terminal flag tagged, NlSP104-flag). Another salivary protein NlSP7-flag and NtCf9-

myc were used as negative controls. It was found that NlSP104-flag specifically and significantly

decreased the protein level of OsRLP4-myc, which differed significantly from that of the NlSP7-

flag (Fig. 5h). Additionally, NlSP104-flag failed to decrease the protein level of NtCf9-myc (Fig.

5h). These findings suggest that *N. lugens* potentially evolves salivary effectors to target rice RLPs.

Discussion

Plants have evolved a complex innate immune system to protect themselves against

pathogen/insect invasion, and the cell surface-localized PRRs function on the frontline [4]. To

counteract this response, the pathogens have developed various strategies to avoid plant PRR-

mediated PTI for their own advantage [36]. However, it remains unknown whether insects take the

similar strategy to sabotage plant immunity. In this study, we demonstrate that the RLP4 confer plant

resistance against herbivorous insects. In response, both planthoppers and whiteflies secrete salivary

effectors to facilitate the degradation of defensive RLP4, leading to the attenuated plant immunity.

Our results suggest that manipulation of PRRs may be a conserved strategy for herbivorous insects.

PRRs detect modified-self or non-self patterns and initiate a cascade of immune signaling

events, which subsequently regulate downstream defense responses, conferring plant resistance

against invaders [4, 5]. Although various insect salivary components have been identified as triggers

for plant immune responses, the specific PRRs involved in this process remain unclear. Our study

indicates that RLP4 significantly influences insect performance by modulating plant hormones and

ROS (Fig. 3f-h; Fig. S14), highlighting the critical role of RLP4 in plant immunity. However, the

precise ligand for RLP4 has yet to be identified. The malectin-LRR receptor RLP4 may respond to

the DAMPs or HAMPs released during insect feeding [37], a hypothesis that warrants further

investigation. RLP4 lacks an intracellular kinase domain, and instead forms bimolecular receptor

kinases by interacting with SOBIR1 (Fig. S13). Silencing of NtRLP4 or NtSOBIR1 in *N. tabacum*

attracts *B. tabaci* and promotes insect reproduction, whereas overexpression of either gene exerts

the opposite effect (Fig. S14-S17). The association between RLPs and SOBIR1 protein kinases is

structurally and functionally analogous to that of genuine receptor kinases [6]. Therefore,

destabilizing the RLP4/SOBIR1 complex can potentially disrupt the immune recognition processes.

Noteworthily, although NtRLP4 interacts with SOBIR1, this alone does not confirm that it operates

strictly through this canonical module. Evidence from other RLPs shows that co-receptor usage can

be flexible, and some RLPs function partly or conditionally independent of SOBIR1 [38]. Therefore,

a more definitive assessment of NtRLP4 signaling will therefore require genetic dissection of its co-

receptor dependencies, including but not limited to SOBIR1.

As pivotal regulators in immune signaling, PRRs are frequently targeted by multiple pathogens

through diverse mechanisms. For example, *Pseudomonas syringae* hampers the functionality of

receptor complexes by disrupting the ligand-dependent association between receptor-like kinase

BAK1 and the flagellin receptor FLS2 [24], while *Phytophthora infestans* promotes alternative

splicing of the host RLPKs to enhance infection [23]. PRRs are usually subjected to degradation via

post-translational modifications [39]. In plants, the activity and stability of PRRs are under stringent

regulation since excessive activation of PRRs could be detrimental [22, 40]. One prevalent

regulatory mechanism involves ubiquitination followed by subsequent degradation mediated by the

26S proteasome [39]. Mounting evidence has demonstrated that bacteria, fungi, viruses, and

oomycetes exploit such mechanisms to facilitate PRR degradation [41-44]. Nevertheless, the

occurrence of effector-mediated PRR degradation in insects is unreported. Our study reveals that

the salivary effectors BtRDP from *B. tabaci* and NlSP104 from *N. lugens* interacts with plant RLP4s,

resulting in their degradation in a ubiquitin-dependent manner (Fig. 4f-i).

Notably, BtRDP and NlSP104 exhibit neither sequence nor structural similarity and do not

resemble the known eukaryotic ubiquitin-ligase domains. Their interaction with RLP4s occurs in

the extracellular space (Fig. 3d; Fig. 5c), whereas the ubiquitin-proteasome system primarily

functions within the cytosol and nucleus [45]. Furthermore, NtRLP4 reduction is observed only in

oeBtRDP transgenic plants, not in oeBtRDP^{-sp} plants (Fig. 4f), indicating that BtRDP exerts its

influence on NtRLP4 in the extracellular space. These observations collectively refute the

possibility that BtRDP or NlSP104 possesses the intrinsic E3 ligase activity capable of directly

ubiquitinating RLP4s within plant cells. Importantly, the reduced NtRLP4 levels may not stem from

a direct physical interaction between BtRDP and NtRLP4. Instead, BtRDP may indirectly affect

RLP4 post-translational modification, thereby accelerating its degradation, which warrants further

investigation. Additionally, the independent evolution of RLP4-targeting effectors in various insect

lineages may expedite plant-insect co-evolution. Plants with robust RLP4-mediated defenses can

select for herbivores carrying effective effectors, driving an evolutionary "arms race". Conversely,

insects targeting similar host proteins may exert parallel selective pressures on unrelated plant

species, potentially shaping defense diversification across plant communities. Understanding these

dynamics provides insight into how molecular interactions scale up to influence herbivore

adaptation, host range, and the ecological outcomes of plant-insect interactions.

Herbivorous insects employ a mix of salivary components to ensure successful feeding [29].

Previous research has indicated that *B. tabaci* suppresses plant defenses by utilizing SA-JA crosstalk,

with the salivary protein Bt56 playing a crucial role in this process [14]. Bt56 activates the SA-

signaling pathway by directly interacting with a KNOTTED 1-like homeobox transcription factor

[14]. This study investigates the effects of another salivary effector, BtRDP, on plant hormones, and

finds that it elicits similar effects to Bt56, albeit primarily impacting the signal recognition process

(Fig. 3h; Fig. S14e). This leads us to speculate that different salivary effectors from the same insect

species may simultaneously target the same signaling pathway to ensure effective immune

suppression. Our analysis reveals that BtRDP interacts with other host genes apart from NtRLP4

(Table S2), and silencing NtRLP4 cannot completely rescue the impaired feeding performance of

ds*BtRDP*-treated insects (Fig. 4a). Salivary proteins exert a crucial effect on mediating the

interactions between herbivores and plants. The dynamic interplay between plants and insects may

be highly complex, one salivary protein can target multiple plant pathways, and one plant pathway

is influenced by multiple salivary proteins.

Together, this study reveals that suppressing PRR-mediated plant immunity may be a

conserved strategy employed by herbivorous insects for successful feeding. We demonstrate that

whiteflies and planthoppers have independently evolved salivary effectors that facilitate the

ubiquitin-dependent degradation of defensive RLP4 in host plants, thereby dampen RLP4-mediated

plant immunity (Fig. 6). Nevertheless, the precise mechanism by which RLP4 contributes to plant

defense warrants further consideration. While it may function as a canonical PRR that perceives

insect-derived molecular patterns, several lines of evidence point to an alternative interpretation.

Structurally, RLP4 differs from classical LRR-RLP: it contains a malectin-like domain and a

relatively small LRR domain, contrasting with typical LRR-RLPs that often possess large LRRs

dedicated to ligand binding. Functionally, NtRLP4 overexpression lines exhibit significantly altered

transcriptional profiles and dysregulated SA/JA pathways even in the absence of insect infestation,

a phenotype inconsistent with canonical PRRs, which typically remain quiescent until ligand

perception. These findings point to an alternative explanation: rather than functioning as a classical

PRR that recognizes insect-derived molecules, RLP4 may act as a regulatory component within

plant immune signaling networks. Elucidating the precise mechanism of RLP4 in conferring plant

defense against herbivorous insects will therefore be an important focus of future research.

Material and methods

Insects and plants

A colony of *B. tabaci* (cryptic species MED) was originally collected from a soybean field in

Suzhou, Anhui Province, China. The insects were subsequently maintained on *N. tabacum* cv. K326

plants under controlled laboratory conditions (25 $\pm$ 1 °C, 50–70% relative humidity, 16:8 h

light:dark photoperiod). For experimental use, *N. benthamiana* and *N. tabacum* plants were grown

in a climate-controlled growth chamber (23 ± 1 °C, 16:8 h light: dark cycle).

Phylogenetic analysis of RDP

To identify potential RDP homologs across insect species, we performed a BLASTp search using

the BtRDP protein sequence as a query against the predicted proteomes of 30 insect species. Hits

were filtered using an E-value cutoff of 10^{-5}. The retrieved RDP homologs were aligned using

MAFFT (v7.310) with default parameters [46]. To improve alignment quality, we removed

ambiguously aligned regions using Gblocks with default settings. The optimal amino acid

substitution model (JTT+G) was determined using ModelTest-NG (v0.1.6). Phylogenetic

relationships were inferred using maximum likelihood analysis in RAxML (v0.9.0) with 1000

bootstrap replicates to assess branch support [47]. The final tree was visualized and annotated using

iTOL (https://itol.embl.de/).

Preparation of anti-BtRDP and anti-NtRLP4 serum

The coding sequence of BtRDP (excluding the signal peptide) was PCR-amplified and cloned

into the pET-28a vector (Novagen) to generate a C-terminal 6×His-tagged fusion protein. The

recombinant plasmid was transformed into *Escherichia coli* Transetta (DE3) competent cells

(TransGen Biotech, Beijing, China). Protein expression was induced with 0.5 mM isopropyl-β-D-

thiogalactoside (IPTG) at 28°C for 8 h. Bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation and lysed

via ultrasonication for 30 min. The recombinant BtRDP^{-sp}-His protein was purified under native

conditions using Ni-NTA agarose (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's

protocol.

Purified BtRDP^{-sp}-His protein was used to immunize rabbits (Hua'an Biotechnology,

Hangzhou, China) for custom polyclonal antibody production. The anti-NtRLP4 serum, prepared

by immunizing rabbits with peptide GQNSDRPISTKNST, was produced via the custom service of

Genscript Biotechnology Company (Nanjing, China). The anti-BtRDP serum was subsequently

conjugated to Alexa Fluor™ 488 NHS Ester (#A20000, Thermo Fisher Scientific) following

standard labeling protocols.

The specificity of anti-BtRDP serum was tested by comparing ds*GFP*- and ds*BtRDP*-treated

Bemisia tabaci. The results showed that ds*BtRDP* significantly reduced the target gene. Similarly,

the specificity of anti-NtRLP4 serum was tested by comparing RNAi-EV and RNAi-NtRLP4 plants,

which showed a reduced NtRLP4 expression in *RNAi-NtRLP4* plants.

Immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining

Dissected *B. tabaci* heads with attached salivary glands and Parafilm-embedded salivary sheaths were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (#E672002, Sango Biotechnology, Shanghai) for 30 min. Salivary sheaths adherent to Parafilm were similarly excised and fixed under identical conditions. After fixation, samples were washed three times with PBST (PBS containing 0.1% Tween-20) and blocked with 10% FBS for 2 h at room temperature. The tissues were then incubated overnight at 4°C with Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated anti-BtRDP serum (1:200 dilution), followed by co-staining with phalloidin-rhodamine (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 30 min and 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) solution (#ab104139, Abcam, Cambridge, USA) for nuclear visualization. Fluorescent images were acquired using a Leica SP8 confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems) to examine BtRDP localization patterns

Protein extraction and Western-blotting assays

To identify secreted salivary proteins in *N. tabacum* plants, approximately 200 *B. tabaci* adults were confined in a 3-cm diameter feeding cage and allowed to feed on host plants for 24 h. After feeding, the eggs deposited on the infested tobacco leaves were removed. The leaves showing no visible insect contamination were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and ground to a fine powder. The powdered tissue was then homogenized in RIPA Lysis Buffer (#89900, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for protein extraction. To examine the effects of insect feeding on NtRLP expression, groups of approximately 200 *B. tabaci* were allowed to feed on 4-5 true-leaf stage tobacco plants for 12, 24, or 48 h, with uninfested plants serving as controls. For silencing/overexpression efficiency tests, leaf samples were collected at 48 h post-*Agrobacterium* infiltration, along with transgenic tobacco plants at the 4-5 true-leaf stage. For insect tissue analysis, various *B. tabaci* organs were carefully dissected in 1×PBS buffer, including carcasses (20), fat bodies (20), guts (40), salivary glands (60), and ovaries (10), with sample sizes indicated in parentheses. All dissected tissues were transferred to lysis buffer for protein extraction. Total protein concentrations in both insect and plant homogenates were quantified using a BCA Protein Assay Kit (#CW0014S, CwBiotech, Taizhou, China). Equal protein amounts were separated by SDS-PAGE and electro-transferred to PVDF membranes.

Membranes were probed with the following primary antibodies: anti-FLAG (1:10,000, #MA1-

91878, Thermo Fisher Scientific), anti-MYC (1:10,000, #MA1-21316, Thermo Fisher Scientific),

anti-GFP (1:10,000, #MA5-15256, Thermo Fisher Scientific), anti-NtRLP4 (1:5,000, GenScript

Biotechnology, Nanjing, China), and anti-BtRDP serum (1:5,000, Huaan Biotechnology, Hangzhou,

China). Following primary antibody incubation, membranes were treated with HRP-conjugated

secondary antibodies: goat anti-mouse IgG (1:10,000, #31430, Thermo Fisher Scientific) or goat

anti-rabbit IgG (1:10,000, #31460, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Protein bands were visualized using

an AI 680 image analyzer (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Buckinghamshire, UK), with Ponceau S

staining used to verify equal protein loading.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis

To prepare tissue-specific samples from *B. tabaci*, adult females were dissected to isolate

carcasses (10), fat bodies (10), guts (20), salivary glands (40), and ovaries (10). Additionally,

different developmental stages, including eggs (50), nymphs (20), pupae (20), and adult males (20)

and females (20), were collected for analysis. The number of insects in each sample is indicated in

parentheses. To extract RNA from *N. tabacum* plants, the samples were grinded using liquid

nitrogen after collection. Total RNA was extracted using the TRIzol Total RNA Isolation Kit (#9109,

Takara, Dalian, China) following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA purity and concentration

were assessed using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). First-strand cDNA

was synthesized from equal amounts of RNA (1 μg) using the HiScript II Q RT SuperMix (#R212-

01, Vazyme, Nanjing, China). Gene expression analysis was performed using a Roche LightCycler®

480 system (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) with SYBR Green Supermix (#11202ES08,

Yeasen, Shanghai, China). The thermal cycling protocol consisted of initial denaturation at 95°C for

5 min, and amplification for 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 s and 60°C for 30 s. Primers were designed

with Primer Premier v6.0 (Table S4). *B. tabaci Tubulin* and *N. tabacum Tubulin* served as internal

controls for normalization. Relative gene expression was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method [48].

Three to six independent biological replicates, each repeated twice, were performed.

RNA interference

The target gene DNA sequences were amplified using primers listed in Table S4 and

subsequently cloned into the pClone007 Vector (#TSV-007, Tsingke Biotechnology, Beijing, China).

For dsRNA production, PCR-generated DNA templates containing T7 promoter sequences were

transcribed *in vitro* using the T7 High Yield RNA Transcription Kit (#TR101-01, Vazyme Biotech,

Nanjing, China). The RNAi experiments were performed according to established methods [49].

Briefly, newly emerged adult whiteflies were anesthetized with carbon dioxide for 5-10 seconds.

Approximately 50 nL of dsRNA solution (2 μg/μL) was microinjected into the mesothorax of each

insect using a FemtoJet microinjection system (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). Following

injection, the whiteflies were maintained on healthy *N. tabacum* leaves under standard rearing

conditions. Only actively moving insects were selected for subsequent analyses. Gene silencing

efficiency was evaluated on day 4 post-injection using both qRT-PCR and Western-blotting

approaches.

Generation of transgenic plants

We generated two transgenic *N. tabacum* lines expressing different BtRDP variants: one

containing the full coding sequence (oeBtRDP) and another lacking the signal peptide (oeBtRDP^{-}

^{sp}), which may affect protein secretion. The target sequences, along with the full-length NtRLP4

coding sequence and an NtRLP4 hairpin RNAi construct, were each cloned into the pBWA(V)HS

vector. The oeBtRDP and oeBtRDP^{-sp} were fused with C-terminal flag tags, while no tag was fused

to oeNtRLP4. All constructs were transformed into *A. tumefaciens* strain GV3101 and used to

generate transgenic tobacco plants (K326 background) through *Agrobacterium*-mediated

transformation performed by Wuhan Boyuan Biological Company. Transgenic lines were verified

by qRT-PCR and western blotting, with empty vector-transformed plants serving as controls, and

two independent lines for each construct were selected for further experiments.

Target gene silencing in plants

The hairpin RNAi construct targeting *NtSOBIR1* was generated by cloning the specific

fragment into the pBWA(V)HS plasmid using BsaI and Eco31I restriction enzymes. The

recombinant vector was then transformed into *A. tumefaciens* strain GV3101 and subsequently

infiltrated into *N. tabacum* leaves using the agroinfiltration method. Following a 48-h incubation

period under standard growth conditions, silencing efficiency was quantitatively evaluated by qRT-

PCR analysis.

Transcriptomic sequencing

To investigate the transcriptional effects of NtRLP4, BtRDP, and BtRDP^{-sp} in *N. tabacum*, leaf samples from EV, oeRLP4#1, oeBtRDP#1, and oeBtRDP^{-sp}#1 transgenic plants were homogenized in TRIzol Reagent (#10296018, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) for total RNA extraction following the manufacturer's protocol. Afterwards, total RNA was extracted according to the instructions of the manufacturer, and the RNA samples were sent to Novogene Institute (Novogene, Beijing, China) for transcriptomic sequencing. Briefly, poly(A)+ RNA was isolated from 20 μg pooled total RNA using oligo(dT) magnetic beads, followed by fragmentation in divalent cation buffer at 94°C for 5 min. First-strand cDNA synthesis was performed using N6 random primers, with subsequent second-strand synthesis to generate double-stranded cDNA. After end-repair and Illumina adapter ligation, the products were PCR-amplified (15 cycles) and purified using a QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (#28104, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). The resulting cDNA libraries were quantified and quality-checked before paired-end sequencing on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform. All raw sequencing data were deposited in the National Genomics Data Center under accession number PRJCA025907.

Analysis of transcriptomic data

The raw sequencing reads were quality-filtered using Illumina's internal software, and the resulting clean reads from each cDNA library were aligned to the *N. tabacum* reference genome in Sol Genomics Network (https://solgenomics.net/ftp/genomes/Nicotiana_tabacum/edwards_et_al_2017/) using HISAT v2.1.0 [50]. Low-quality alignments were removed using SAMtools (v1.7) with default parameters [51]. Transcript abundance was quantified as Transcripts Per Million (TPM) using Cufflinks (v2.2.1) [52]. Differential expression analysis was performed with DESeq2 (v2.2.1) [53], identifying significantly DEGs using thresholds of $|log2(fold change)| > 1$ and adjusted *p*-value < 0.05. PCA of transcriptome profiles was conducted using a custom R script plotPCA (github.com/franco-ye/TestRepository/blob/main/PCA_by_deseq2.R). For functional annotation, KEGG pathway enrichment analysis was performed in TBtools (v2.083) using a one-sided hypergeometric test:

567    $P = 1 - \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \left(\frac{\binom{M}{i}\binom{N-M}{n-i}}{\binom{N}{n}} \right)$, [54]. In this software, enriched *P*-values were calculated according to

568   one-sided hypergeometric test: with *N* representing the number of gene with KEGG annotation, *n*

569   standing for the number of DEGs in *N*, *M* indicating the number of genes in each KEGG term, and

570   *m* suggesting the number of DEGs in each KEGG term.

Insect bioassays

To survivorship analysis, newly emerged *B. tabaci* adults were microinjected with dsRNA and

placed on *N. tabacum* leaves. After 24 h, any dead individuals (potentially due to injection injury)

were removed. For each treatment, 20-30 surviving adults were transferred to leaf cages, and

mortality was recorded daily for 10 days. Three independent biological replications were performed.

For fecundity analysis, dsRNA-treated virgin females were paired with untreated males   in

leaf cages. Five such pairs were maintained per cage (n=10-12 cages per treatment). Egg deposition

was quantified daily for 3 consecutive days under controlled conditions. Each male-female pair was

considered an experimental replicate.

For host preference test, detached *N. tabacum* leaves with moist cotton-wrapped petioles were

arranged in a 50-cm diameter choice arena with a central release chamber. Forty adult whiteflies

were released per chamber, and settling preference was recorded at 3, 6, 12, 24, 36, and 48 h post-

release. The experiment included 10-12 replicates per treatment, with leaf positions randomized

between replicates to eliminate positional bias.

EPG recording and analysis

Feeding behavior of *B. tabaci* was monitored using a GiGA-8d EPG amplifier (Wageningen

Agricultural University; 10 TΩ input resistance, <1 pA input bias current) with 50× gain and ±5 V

output range. Prior to recording, dsRNA-treated whiteflies were starved for 12 h on moist filter

paper, briefly anesthetized with CO_2 (10 s), and connected to the amplifier via a gold wire electrode

(20 μm diameter × 5 cm length) attached to the pronotum using conductive silver glue. Plant

electrodes consisted of copper wires (2 mm diameter × 10 cm length) inserted into the soil of potted

N. tabacum. Recordings were conducted for 8 h in a Faraday cage (120×75×67 cm; Dianjiang,

Shanghai), with only insects surviving the full duration retained for analysis.

Recorded waveforms were processed using PROBE 3.4 software (Wageningen Agricultural

University) and categorized into four distinct feeding phases: nonpenetration (np), pathway duration

(C), phloem salivation (E1), and phloem ingestion (E2) as defined in a previous study [30]. Each

treatment included ≥ 10 biological replicates, with dsGFP-injected and untreated whiteflies

serving as controls.

Agrobacterium*-mediated plant transformation in *N. tabacum* and *N. benthamiana

The recombinant expression vectors were introduced into *A. tumefaciens* strain GV3101 via

heat shock transformation. Transformed cells were selected on LB agar plates supplemented with

50 μg/mL kanamycin and 10 μg/mL rifampicin, followed by incubation at 28°C for 60 h. Positive

colonies were inoculated into liquid LB medium with the same antibiotics and grown to log phase.

Bacterial cells were then pelleted by centrifugation at 2,400 g for 2 min and resuspended in induction

buffer (10 mM MgCl$_2$, 10 mM MES [pH 5.6], 200 μM acetosyringone) adjusted to specific OD$_{600}$

values depending on the experiment.

For standard experiments, bacterial suspensions were normalized to OD$_{600}$ = 1.0, while

degradation assays used three concentrations (OD$_{600}$ = 0.05, 0.3, and 1.0). Equal volumes of selected

bacterial suspensions were mixed and infiltrated into leaves of 4–5-week-old *N. tabacum* and *N.*

benthamiana plants using a needleless syringe. Infiltrated plants were maintained under controlled

conditions for subsequent analysis.

Diaminobenzidine (DAB) staining

To detect H$_2$O$_2$ accumulation in *N. tabacum* leaves, leaf samples were immersed in 1 mg/mL

3,3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (DAB-HCl, #D8001, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO,

USA) solution (pH 3.8) for 6 hours at room temperature, allowing H$_2$O$_2$-dependent brown

polymerization to occur. Following incubation, the DAB solution was replaced with 100% ethanol

for chlorophyll removal, and samples were decolorized overnight at 65°C. The destained leaves

were then photographed under standardized conditions using a Canon EOS 80D digital camera

(Canon Inc., Tokyo, Japan).

Interaction assays between two proteins

In the Y2H screening assay, the coding sequence of BtRDP^{-sp} was cloned into the pGBKT7

bait vector (Clontech, USA), while a *N. benthamiana* cDNA library was constructed in the pGADT7

prey vector (Biogene Biotech, Shanghai, China). These recombinant vectors were co-transformed

into yeast strain Y2HGold and plated on QDO medium (SD/-Ade/-His/-Leu/-Trp, #630428, Takara)

for 3 days at 30°C. Positive colonies were cultured in QDO liquid medium, and plasmids were

extracted using a yeast DNA kit (#DP112-02, TIANGEN, Beijing, China) before transformation

into E. coli DH5α (#TSC-C14, Tsingke) for sequencing (YouKang Biotech, China) to identify

interacting partners.

In the pairwise Y2H verification assay, BtRDP^{-sp} and NlSP104^{-sp}, and mutant variants of

NtRLP4/SlRLP4/OsRLP4 were cloned into either pGBKT7 or pGADT7 vectors using primers from

Table S4. Given that Y2H is generally difficult to identify membrane receptors, the truncated

versions of NtRLP4/SlRLP4/OsRLP4 lacking the signal peptide and transmembrane domains were

used. Yeast co-transformants were first selected on DDO medium (SD/-Leu/-Trp) (#630417, Takara)

for 3 days at 30°C, then spotted onto QDO medium to confirm interactions through growth after

another 3 days of incubation.

In the Co-IP assays, Full-length sequences of *BtRDP*, *NlSP104*, *NtSOBIR1*, *NtRLP4*, *SlRLP4*,

and *OsRLP4* were cloned into lic-myc or lic-flag vectors for C-terminal tagging, with BtFTSP-flag

serving as a negative control. Five-week-old *N. benthamiana* leaves were agroinfiltrated with these

constructs or collected from oeBtRDP transgenic plants. Total proteins were extracted from 1 g

frozen tissue in IP lysis buffer (#87788, Thermo Scientific) with protease inhibitors (#56079200,

Roche, Switzerland), followed by centrifugation at 1,000 × *g* for 20 min. Cleared lysates were

incubated with anti-flag beads (#L00432-1, GenScript, Nanjing, China) for 4 h at 4°C, washed with

PBS, and eluted in 2× SDS-PAGE buffer (500 mM Tris-HCl, pH=6.8, 50% glycerin, 10% SDS, 1%

bromophenol blue, and 2% β-mercaptoethanol) for Western-blotting assay.

In the BiFC assay, BtRDP^{-sp}, BtFTSP^{-sp}, NtRLP4, and NtCf9-like were cloned into the pCV-

cYFP or pCV-nYFP vectors, respectively. After transforming *A. tumefaciens* GV3101, pairwise

combinations were co-infiltrated into *N. benthamiana* leaves. Following 36-48 h incubation in a

growth chamber, reconstituted YFP fluorescence was visualized using a Leica SP8 confocal

microscope with standard filter sets for YFP detection.

RLP degradation by salivary effectors among different herbivorous insects

To examine salivary protein effects on RLPs, we co-infiltrated *A. tumefaciens* GV3101 strains carrying various constructs into *N. benthamiana* leaves. The recombinant vectors expressed C-terminally tagged proteins: BtRDP-flag, NlSP104-flag, GUS-flag, NlSP7-flag, and myc-tagged RLPs (NtRLP4, SlRLP4, OsRLP4, SlCf9, NtCf9). Bacterial suspensions were mixed at predetermined OD_{600} ratios before infiltration, with leaf samples collected 48 hours post-infiltration for subsequent analysis.

For confocal microscopy studies, *N. benthamiana* leaves were co-infiltrated with *A. tumefaciens carrying*: (1) NtRLP4-GFP plus BtRDP-mCherry, (2) NtRLP4-GFP plus RFP-mCherry, or (3) NtRLP4-GFP plus BtFTSP-mCherry. The samples were imaged by confocal microscopy at 48 h post injection. The same parameters were used in photographing.

This study also conducted a treatment on *N. benthamiana* plants that were overexpressing NtRLP4-myc using purified proteins. Briefly, the BtRDP^{-sp} and GFP coding sequences were cloned into pET-28a for 6×His-tagged expression in *E. coli* Transetta (TransGen Biotech). Protein expression was induced with 0.5 mM IPTG at 25°C for 8 h, followed by purification using Ni-NTA agarose and buffer exchange into PBS using a 3-kDa molecular-weight cutoff Amicon Ultra-4 Centrifugal Filter Device (Millipore, MA, USA). Different concentrations of purified proteins were infiltrated into leaves of *N. benthamiana* plants stably expressing NtRLP4-myc, with samples collected 24 h post-treatment.

To investigate degradation pathways, we infiltrated *N. benthamiana* leaves with: 50 μM MG132 (#M7449, Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany), 5 μM 3-MA (#M9281, Sigma-Aldrich,), or 10 nM BAF (#BML-CM110-0100, Enzo Life Sciences, Farmingdale, USA) at 24 h post-agroinfiltration. The samples were incubated for additional24 h. Protein levels were detected using Western-blotting assay.

***In planta* ubiquitination assay**

Ubiquitination detection in *N. benthamiana* was performed according to the methods previously reported [55]. The recombinant vector for transient expression of the HA-fused ubiquitin protein was kindly provided by Dr. Chao Zheng (Ningbo University). Myc-tagged proteins were co-expressed with HA-UBQ by agroinfiltration, and 50 μM MG132 was injected into the *N.*

benthamiana leaves one day post *A. tumefaciens* infiltration. Immunoprecipitation was performed

using anti-myc beads (ytma-20, ChromoTek , Planegg-Martinsried, Germany). Ubiquitination

signals were detected by immunoblot with anti-HA antibody (HT301, TransGen Biotech, Beijing,

China).

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

B. tabaci adults were allowed to feed on artificial diet solutions for 24 h. Parafilm sections

containing salivary sheaths were carefully excised and rinsed with $1\times$ PBS (pH 7.4) to remove

residual diet. The samples were mounted on aluminum stubs, desiccated under vacuum, and sputter-

coated with gold before imaging with a TM4000 II Plus SEM (Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan). Salivary

sheath length (from apex to base) was measured, with 20 sheaths analyzed per treatment to ensure

statistical reliability.

Statistical analysis

The log-rank test (SPSS Statistics 19, Chicago, IL, USA) was used to determine the statistical

significance of survival distributions. Two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test (comparisons between

two groups) or one-way ANOVA test followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test (comparisons

among three groups) was used to analyze the results of qRT-PCR, fecundity analysis, and host choice

analysis. The EPG data were first checked for the normality and homogeneity of variance, and those

not fitting a normal distribution were $\log_{10}$ transformed before Student's *t* test, as described in

previous studies [30]. Statistical tests, including Student's *t*-test and one-way ANOVA, and data

visualization were conducted in GraphPad Prism 9.

Data availability

All data is included in the manuscript and/or supporting information. The transcriptomic data have

been submitted to the National Genomics Data Center under accession number PRJCA025907. The

original blot images have been displayed in Fig. S29-S32.

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Author Contributions Statement

H-JH, J-ML, C-XZ, and J-PC planned and designed the research. XW, J-BL, Y-ZW, and H-JH

performed experiments and analyzed data. X-HZ provided the EV plants. H-JH and XW drafted the

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Competing Interests Statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. BtRDP is a salivary protein and secreted into plants. (**a**) Detection of BtRDP in *Nicotiana tabacum* plants. The untreated and *Bemisia tabaci*-infested tobacco plants, as well as the salivary gland samples, are collected for western-blotting assays. Asterisk indicates non-specific binding. Rubisco staining (RbcL) is conducted to visualize the amount of sample loading. (**b**, **c**) Detection of BtRDP in different tissues by western-blotting and qRT-PCR assays. Ov, ovary; SG, salivary gland; Ca, carcass; FB, fat body. Silver staining and anti-actin serum are used to visualize the sample loading. (**d**) Expression patterns of BtRDP in different development stages. Ny, nymph; Ps, pseudopupa; Fe, female; Ma, male. *B. tabaci tubulin* is used as an internal control. The relative quantitative method ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$) is used to evaluate the quantitative variation. Data are presented as mean values ± SEM (n= 3 independent biological replicates). Different lowercase letters indicate statistically significant differences at the $P < 0.05$ level according to one-way ANOVA test followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test. (**e, f**) Immunohistochemical staining of BtRDP in salivary glands (**e**) and salivary sheath secreted from *B. tabaci* (**f**). The salivary gland and its nearby tissues

are dissected and incubate with anti-BtRDP serum or pre-immune serum conjugated with Alexa

Fluor™ 488 NHS Ester (green) and actin dye phalloidinrhodamine (red). The nucleus is stained

with DAPI (blue). PSG, principal salivary gland; ASG, accessory salivary gland. The lower images

represent the enlarged images of the boxed area in the upper image. Experiments are repeated thrice

for (**a** and **b**), while twice for (**e** and **f**). Similar results are observed and representative images are

displayed.

Fig. 2. Effects of BtRDP on *Bemisia tabaci*. (**a**) Treating *B. tabaci* with ds*BtRDP* significantly

reduces the transcript and protein level of target gene. The ds*GFP*-treated *B. tabaci* is used as a

control. (**b–c**) Effects of *BtRDP* knockdown on insect reproduction (**b**) and feeding behavior (**c**).

Electrical penetration graph (EPG) is used to monitor the insect feeding behavior, which can be

classified into nonpenetration (np), pathway duration (C), phloem salivation (E1) and phloem

ingestion (E2) phases. All EPG recordings are performed for 8 h. Typical EPG waveforms are

displayed in Fig. S7. (**d-f**) Insect performance on transgenic plants overexpressing BtRDP

(oeBtRDP). (**d**) Detection of BtRDP in transgenic *Nicotiana tabacum* overexpressing a complete

coding region of *BtRDP*. The empty vector (EV) plants are used as the control. The flag tag is fused

to the C-terminal ends of recombinant proteins. **(e)** Comparison of insect reproduction on

oeBtRDP#1 and EV plants. Five *B. tabaci* individuals are confined to indicated plants for 3 days,

and the oviposited eggs are counted. **(f)** Attraction of oeBtRDP#1 and EV leaves to *B. tabaci* in a

two-choice equipment. A group of 40 female *B. tabaci* are released into a device containing

oeBtRDP#1 and EV leaves. The number of insects settling on each leaf is counted. After 48 h, the

number of eggs on each leaf is counted. **(g-i)** Insect performance on transgenic plants overexpressing

BtRDP^{-sp} (oeBtRDP^{-sp}). **(g)** Detection of BtRDP^{-sp} in transgenic *N. tabacum* overexpressing BtRDP

without a signal peptide. The insect reproduction **(h)** and settlement **(i)** on oeBtRDP^{-sp} transgenic

plants are recorded. The EPG data are first checked for normality and homogeneity of variance, and

data not fitting a normal distribution are subjected to log10 transformation. Data are presented as

mean ± SEM. Statistical significance in panels **(a)**, **(b)**, **(c)**, **(e)**, **(f)**, **(h)**, and **(i)** was assessed using

two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-tests. ***$P < 0.001$; **$P < 0.01$; *$P < 0.05$; ns, not significant.

Western-blotting assays are repeated thrice with the similar results.

Fig. 3. NtRLP4 interacts with BtRDP and confers plant resistance to *Bemisia tabaci*. (a)

Domain organization of NtRLP4. NtRLP4 contains a predicted N-terminal signal peptide (SP), a

malectin-like domain, a LRR domain, and a transmembrane domain (TM). **(b)** The protein level of

NtRLP4 in response to *B. tabaci* infestation. The untreated *Nicotiana tabacum* is used as a negative

control. Four independent biological replicates are performed, and the representative images are

displayed. The band density is measured using ImageJ. The density values from 4 biological

replicates are calculated and the mean value in the controls is set at 1.0. **(c)** Yeast two hybrid assays

showing the interaction between BtRDP and NtRLP4. The different combinations of constructs are

transformed into yeast cells, and are grown on the selective medium SD/-Trp/-Leu (DDO), and the

interactions are tested with SD/-Trp/-Leu/-His/-Ade (QDO). **(d)** Co-immunoprecipitation assay

showing the interaction between BtRDP and NtRLP4. Total proteins are extracted from *N.*

benthamiana leaves transiently co-expressing NtRLP4-myc/NtCf9-myc with BtFTSP-flag/BtRDP-

flag. All genes are expressed with a complete coding region, and the myc/flag tags are fused at the

C-terminus. Precipitation is performed using flag beads. The samples are probed with anti-flag and

anti-myc antibodies for immunoblotting analysis. **(e–h)** Analysis of transgenic *N. tabacum*

overexpressing NtRLP4 (oeRLP). **(e)** Detection of NtRLP4 level in oeRLP plants. The empty vector

(EV) plant is used as a control. Two independent oeRLP lines are selected. The samples are probed

with an anti-NtRLP4 antibody. Rubisco staining (RbcL) is used to visualize the amount of sample

loading. **(f)** Attraction of oeRLP#1 and EV leaves to *B. tabaci* in a two-choice equipment. A group

of 40 female *B. tabaci* are released into a device containing oeRLP#1 and EV leaves. The number

of insects settling on each leaf is counted at each time point. After 48 h, the number of eggs on each

leaf is counted. **(g)** Comparison of insect reproduction on oeRLP#1 and EV plants. Five *B. tabaci*

individuals are confined to indicated plants for 3 days, and the oviposited eggs are counted. **(h)**

Relative transcript levels of salicylic acid (SA)- and jasmonic acid (JA)-associated genes in

oeRLP#1 and EV plants. PAL, phenylalanine ammonia lyase; NPR1, nonexpressor of pathogenesis-

related protein 1; FAD7, fatty acid desaturase 7; PDF1.2, plant defensin 1.2. Two independent

biological replicates are performed in **(d)** and **(e)**. Data in **(f)**, **(g)**, and **(h)** are presented as mean

values $\pm$ SEM. For insect bioassays in **(f)** and **(g)**, n= 10 independent biological replicates. For qRT-

PCR in **(h)**, n= 3 independent biological replicates. *P*-values are determined by two-tailed unpaired

Student's *t* test. ***$P < 0.001$; **$P < 0.01$; *$P < 0.05$; ns, not significant.

Fig. 4. BtRDP suppress plant defenses by promoting NtRLP4 degradation. (a) Effects of

ds*BtRDP* suppression on insect reproduction (n= 10 independent biological replicates) when

feeding on empty vector (EV) and NtRLP4-silenced (*RNAi-RLP*) transgenic *Nicotiana tabacum*. **(b)**

Transient overexpressing BtRDP-mCherry attenuates H_2O_2 accumulation caused by NtRLP4-GFP

overexpression. *N. tabacum* co-expressing RFP-mCherry and NtRLP4-GFP is used as a control. All

genes are expressed with a complete coding region. The experiment is repeated 5 times with the

similar results. **(c)** Relative transcript level of salicylic acid (SA)- and jasmonic acid (JA)-associated

genes in BtRDP-mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP and RFP-mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP plants (n=3 independent

biological replicates). PAL, phenylalanine ammonia lyase; NPR1, nonexpressor of pathogenesis-

related protein 1; FAD7, fatty acid desaturase 7; PDF1.2, plant defensin 1.2. **(d)** Comparison of

insect reproduction (n= 16 independent biological replicates) on transient-expressed BtRDP-

mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP and RFP-mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP plants. **(e)** Attraction of BtRDP-

mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP and RFP-mCherry/NtRLP4-GFP leaves to *B. tabaci* in a two-choice

equipment (n= 16 independent biological replicates). The number of eggs on each leaf is counted at

48 h post insect release. (**f**) Effects of BtRDP and BtRDP^{-sp} overexpression on NtRLP4

accumulation. Transgenic oeBtRDP (left) and oeBtRDP^{-sp} (right) plants are probed with anti-

NtRLP4 and anti-flag antibodies for immunoblotting analysis. The experiments are repeated twice

with the similar results. (**g**) Degradation of NtRLP4 by BtRDP in *N. benthamiana* leaves. NtRLP4-

myc and BtRDP-flag are transiently co-expressed in *N. benthamiana* plants through *Agrobacterium*

infiltration. *Agrobacterium* carrying NtCf9-myc and GUS-flag are used as negative controls. (**h**)

Effects of 26S proteasome inhibitor (MG132) on NtRLP4 accumulation. Co-infiltrated leaves are

treated with MG132 at 24 h post injection. The samples are probed with anti-flag and anti-myc

antibodies for immunoblot analysis. Rubisco staining (RbcL) is conducted to visualize the amount

of sample loading. The small triangle indicates the different concentrations of *Agrobacterium*

(OD_{600} = 0.05, 0.3, and 1.0). (**i**) NtRLP4 is ubiquitinated *in planta*. NtRLP4-myc is co-expressed

transiently with HA-UBQ in *N. benthamiana* leaves. Extracted total proteins are

immunoprecipitated by anti-myc beads and immunoblotted with anti-myc or anti-HA antibody.

Experiments are repeated thrice for (**g**) and (**h**), while twice for (**i**). Band density is measured using

ImageJ. The density values from three biological replicates are calculated and the mean value in the

first lane is set at 1.0. Data are presented as mean values ± SEM. *P*-values are determined by two-

tailed unpaired Student's *t* test. ***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.05; ns, not significant.

Fig. 5. Rice RLP4 are targeted by salivary protein NlSP104 from *Nilaparvata lugens*. (a)
Domain organization of *Oryza sativa* RLP4 (OsRLP4). **(b, c)** Yeast two-hybrid and Co-IP assays
showing the interaction between OsRLP4 and NlSP104. All genes are expressed with a complete
coding region in Co-IP assays, while NlSP104 without a signal peptide is used in yeast two-hybrid
assays. Experiments in **(b)** are repeated twice with the similar result. **(d)** The expression patterns of
NlSP104 in different *N. lugens* tissues. Te, testis; Ov, ovary; SG, salivary gland; Ca, carcass; FB, fat
body. Data are presented as mean values ± SEM (n= 3 independent biological replicates). Different
lowercase letters indicate statistically significant differences at *P* < 0.05 level according to one-way
ANOVA test followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test. **(e-g)** Effects of dsRNA treatment on
insect survivorship **(e)**, reproduction **(f)**, and honeydew excretion **(g)**. For survivorship analysis, a
group of 30 *N. lugens* are reared in a cage. Three independent biological replications are performed.
Differences in survivorship between the two treatments are tested by log-rank test. ns, not significant.

For reproduction analysis, n= 10 and 13 individuals are tested in ds*GFP*- and ds*NlSP104*-treatment, respectively. The sterile females are excluded from data analysis. For honeydew analysis, n= 10 independent biological replicates. *P*-values in **(f)** and **(g)** are determined by two-tailed unpaired Student's *t* test. ***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01. **(h)** Effect of NlSP104 on the accumulation of transient-expressed OsRLP4. OsRLP4-myc is agro-injected into *Nicotiana benthamiana* together with different concentrations of NlSP104-flag and NlSP7-flag. NtCf9-myc is used as a negative control. The small triangle indicates the different concentrations (OD$_{600}$ = 0.05, 0.3, and 1.0) of *Agrobacterium*. Rubisco staining (RbcL) is conducted to visualize the amount of sample loading. Experiments are repeated three times with the similar results. Band density is measured using ImageJ. The density values from three biological replicates are calculated with the mean value in the first lane being set at 1.0.

Fig. 6. The proposed model for the suppression of receptor-like proteins (RLPs)-mediated plant defenses by salivary effectors. Host plants employ pattern-recognition receptors (PRRs) to detect various damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) and herbivore-associated molecular patterns (HAMPs) triggered by insect feeding. The RLP4/SOBIR1 complex plays a vital role in initiating pattern-triggered immunity (PTI), including H$_2$O$_2$ burst, upregulation of jasmonic acid (JA), and downregulation of salicylic acid (SA), which hinders insect feeding. The whitefly *Bemisia tabaci* and planthopper *Nilaparvata lugens* independently evolved salivary proteins that targeted

plant RLP4. *B. tabaci* salivary sheath protein BtRDP interacts with the leucine-rich repeat (LRR)

domain of RLP4 from *Nicotiana tabaci* and *Solanum lycopersicum*, while *N. lugens* NlSP104 targets

both the LRR domain and the malectin-like domain of *Oryza sativa* RLP4. These interactions

promote the ubiquitin-dependent degradation of RLP4, thereby disrupting the stability of the

RLP4/SOBIR1 complex. The presence of salivary effectors causes a hormonal shift and suppresses

the H_2O_2 burst, finally favoring insect feeding.

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