Salivary proteins of *Phloeomyzus passerinii*, a plant-manipulating aphid, and their impact on early

gene responses of susceptible and resistant poplar genotypes

Luis Portillo Lemus [1, 2] *, Jessy Tricard [1, 2] *, Jérôme Duclercq [2], Quentin Coulette [2], David Giron [3],

Christophe Hano [1], Elisabeth Huguet [3], Frédéric Lamblin [1], Anas Cherqui [2 °], Aurélien Sallé [1 °†]

[1] Laboratoire de Biologie des Ligneux et des Grandes Cultures, INRA, Université d'Orléans, 45067,

Orléans, France

[2] Ecologie et Dynamique des Systèmes Anthropisés, EDYSAN UMR CNRS-UPJV 7058, Université de

Picardie Jules Verne, Amiens, France

[3] Institut de Recherche sur la Biologie de l'Insecte, UMR 7261, CNRS/Université François-Rabelais de

Tours, Tours, France

* L. Portillo Lemus and J. Tricard should be considered joint first author

° A. Cherqui and A. Sallé should be considered joint senior author

[†] corresponding author

Declarations of interest: none

Authors' contribution

20• AC, AS and DG conceived the ideas. JD, AC and AS designed methodology. LPL, JD and FL collected the

plant-related data. JT, QC, CH and EH collected the insect-related data. LPL and JT analyzed the data. AC

and AS led the writing of the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Abstract

Plant manipulation by herbivores requires fine-tuned reprogramming of host metabolism, mediated by

effector molecules delivered by the parasite into its host. However, secretomes of plant-manipulating

animals and their impact on host-plants have been rarely studied. Using transcriptomic and enzymatic

approaches, we characterized salivary glands and saliva of a plant-manipulating aphid, *Phloeomyzus*

passerinii. Plant genes responses to aphid saliva were assessed *in vivo*, with poplar protoplasts of a

susceptible and a resistant genotype, and *in planta* in a heterologous *Arabidopsis* system. Responses to

salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* were compared to those of *Myzus persicae*, a sap-feeder which does not

feed on poplars. Effectors potentially interfering with plant signaling have been identified in the salivary

glands, including binding proteins, oxidoreductases, and phosphatidylinositol phosphate kinases. Gene

expression profiles markedly differed between aphid species, and according to plant genotype for

protoplasts exposed to the saliva of *P. passerinii*. Compatible interactions between *P. passerinii* and the

susceptible poplar genotype affected cytokinin signalization and auxin homeostasis, potentially leading

to an intracellular accumulation of auxin, which was further supported by *in planta* assays, and triggering

a change in developmental cell fate. The overall response to *P. passerinii* during compatible interactions

suggests congruent manipulation mechanisms with gall-inducing nematodes.

Keywords

Effector, *Myzus persicae*, *Phloeomyzus passerinii*, plant-insect interaction, *Populus*, resistance

   1   Introduction

Nutritional imbalance and defense mechanisms are major hurdles hampering plant resources exploitation by animals [1]. To cope with this, some herbivores have evolved strategies consisting in remodeling plant tissues to turn them into optimal substrates for their development and fitness [2], with sometimes spectacular and complex tissue reorganization resulting in new plant organs, within which parasites feed and grow [3, 4, 5]. To adapt plant tissues to nutritional requirements of parasites and to circumvent plant defenses, manipulation implies fine-tuned metabolism reprogramming, and direct modulations of both primary and secondary metabolisms of host plants have been reported for plant-manipulating organisms [5]. More specifically, since they are important regulators of plant growth, differentiation and defense, phytohormones are classical targets of plant-manipulating organisms, and considered key factors intimately involved in the success or failure of manipulation [5, 6].

Host metabolism hijacking by plant-manipulating organisms is considered to be mediated by effector molecules delivered into the host-plant [5, 7]. Effector proteins secreted by herbivores in general have various functions, including suppression of plant defense, alteration of plant development, and manipulation of plant resources [5, 7]. For plant-manipulating organisms, similar functions are expected, especially disruption or diversion of hormone-dependent pathways [6] and inactivation of second messengers involved in stress signaling like Ca^{2+}, reactive oxygen species (ROS) and extracellular ATP for instance [8, 9]. While there is a growing literature dealing with the identification of these effectors in herbivores, like aphids [e.g. 10, 11, 12, 13], few investigations have been performed on secretions of plant-manipulating animals, with notable exceptions of the Hessian fly (*Mayetiola destructor* (Say)) and root-knot nematodes (*Meloidogyne* spp.) for instance [e.g. 14, 15]. So far, the Hessian fly is the only member of plant-manipulating insects with a sequenced genome, and whose salivary gland transcriptome and proteome have been studied [14, 16]. Candidate genes with effector functions have

been detected and gene-for-gene interaction between insect strains and host-plant genotypes has been

demonstrated [14, 16, 17]. How these effectors contribute to manipulation is still unclear, but it is

hypothesized that they interfere with downstream signaling and phytohormone pathways [5].

To validate the relevance of candidate effectors for plant-insect interactions, several approaches have

been used. *In planta* modulation of candidate effectors expression allowed to highlight impacts of

effector proteins on physiological traits and behavior of insects and plant responses [e.g. 17, 18, 19].

Alternatively, direct applications of oral secretions and saliva infiltration into host plants also gave

conclusive results [e.g. 20, 21]. Nonetheless, probably because of their complex life cycles and often

concealed endophytic development, very few functional validation experiments have been performed

with plant-manipulating insects [e.g. 17]. In-depth functional molecular approaches would allow to

unravel the mechanisms that contribute to plant manipulation by these organisms and could possibly

lead to identification of convergent mechanisms among them [5].

Here, we report the characterization of salivary proteins of *Phloeomyzus passerinii* Sign., a plant-

manipulating aphid colonizing poplars [22]. This aphid feeds on cell contents in the cortical parenchyma

of its host-trees [22, 23, 24]. In susceptible hosts, aphid probing triggers cell multiplication in cortical

parenchyma and, later, thin-walled hypertrophied cells differentiate while starch and vacuolar phenolic

compounds disappear, and amino acids accumulate [24, 25]. Consequently, infestations by *P. passerinii*

induced peculiar anatomical and biochemical modifications in host tissues, different from those

observed following mechanical injuries [24]. In addition, further experiments also showed that insect

performance was enhanced and feeding behavior was optimized on manipulated cortical tissues [26]. It

is therefore considered that *P. passerinii* manipulates the cortical parenchyma of its susceptible hosts,

and induces a pseudogall, i.e. a swelling of preexisting plant tissues, to improve the nutritional value of

its host tissues [22, 24]. In resistant host genotypes, lignin, tannins and flavanols accumulate at the

probing site one week after the onset of probing and no pseudogall differentiation occurs subsequently

[24]. As a consequence, *P. passerinii* cannot develop on these genotypes [24].

As this insect can be easily handled under laboratory conditions, and its saliva can be collected on

artificial medium, we performed innovative functional validation assays to address the impact of the

saliva of a plant-manipulating organism on gene responses of its host-plant. Our objectives were (i) to

characterize with transcriptomic and enzymatic approaches the salivary glands and saliva, respectively,

of *P. passerinii*, (ii) to assess *in vivo*, with a RT-qPCR approach, early responses of poplar genes belonging

to different metabolic and signaling pathways using protoplasts exposed to aphid saliva, and (iii) to

investigate the impact of salivary extracts on specific gene expression *in planta*, in a heterologous

Arabidopsis system. For all these steps comparative approaches have been used. The determined

salivary proteins of *P. passerinii* were compared with those of a sap-feeding aphid, *Myzus persicae*

(Sulzer) [10, 20], in order to identify proteins common to both aphid species as well as proteins specific

to *P. passerinii*. To get insight into how *P. passerinii* affects host metabolism and stress responses to

perform manipulation, the impact of salivary extracts on gene expression has been assessed with poplar

genotypes either susceptible or resistant to *P. passerinii*, i.e. during compatible and incompatible

interactions, respectively. These poplar genotypes have also been exposed to salivary extracts of *M.*

persicae, which led to non-host interactions since *M. persicae* does not feed on poplar.

2   Materials and Methods

2.1 Plant and insect material

All individuals of *P. passerinii* used either for transcriptomic analyses of salivary glands or saliva collection

originated from the same monoclonal colony established from an apterous parthenogenetic female,

collected in 2013 in Brézé (France, 47°16'36'' N 0°06'84'' W, WGS-84). The colony was maintained in the

laboratory on potted stem cuttings of I-214, a *Populus x canadensis* Moench. genotype, under 20 ± 1 °C,

70 ± 10% relative humidity and 16/8 h light/dark cycles. The green peach aphid, *M. persicae* is a sap-

feeder. Both *P. passerinii* and *M. persicae* are Aphididae, but belong to different subfamilies (*P. passerinii*

is the only member of the Phloeomyzinae while *M. persicae* is an Aphidinae), which diverged at 137 Ma

[27]. *Myzus persicae* is a generalist aphid but its host range does not include poplars, and preliminary

establishment attempts confirmed that it cannot settle and develop on poplars (data not shown).

Therefore non-host interactions are expected between this aphid species and poplar genotypes.

Individuals of *M. persicae* originated from a monoclonal colony established from an apterous

parthenogenetic female collected in 1999 on a potato plant in Loos-en-Gohelle (France, 50°27'44" N

2°46'45" E, WGS-84). The colony was maintained under the same controlled conditions as *P. passerinii*,

on turnips (Vilmorin).

For the protoplasts production, stem-cuttings of two *P. x canadensis* genotypes commonly planted in

France, I-214 and Koster, were used for the experiments. I-214 is highly susceptible to *P. passerinii*,

whereas aphids cannot settle on Koster which is consequently considered to be highly resistant to *P.*

passerinii [22]. Consequently, compatible and incompatible interactions are expected between *P.*

passerinii and I-214 and Koster, respectively, and non-host interactions should take place between *M.*

persicae and both poplar genotypes. Stem cuttings (ca. 25 cm long, 2 cm diameter) were provided by the

experimental nursery of Guéméné-Penfao (Office National des Forêts, France). They were collected in

the autumn of 2016, and kept at 2°C, in dry conditions until use. In January 2017, the stem-cuttings were

removed from storage and planted in 0.4 L pots, filled with a sterile sand-compost (50:50) mixture

(Klasmann substrate 4 no. 267). The cuttings were then transferred to a growth chamber (20 ± 1°C, 70 ±

10% relative humidity, 16/8 h light/dark photoperiod, 2.65 kLx, and watered three times a week).

For *in planta* functional validation of the effects of salivary proteins, two transgenic lines of *Arabidopsis*

thaliana (L.) Heynh. were used. The transgenic line *pIAA2*::GUS [28] was used to assess the auxin

response, with its auxin-responsive promoter, while the cytokinin response was evaluated with

pARR16::GUS, with its cytokinin-responsive promoter [29].

Seeds were sterilized with chloral gas, sown in Petri dishes on 0.8% (w/v) agar with 1% (w/v) sucrose-

containing 0.5 Murashige and Skoog medium (MS), stored for 2 days at 4°C, and grown on vertically

oriented plates in growth chambers under a 16/8 h light/dark photoperiod at 18°C.

2.2 Salivary transcriptome

2.2.1 Sample collection, RNA isolation and *de novo* transcriptome assembly

About 500 adults of apterous parthenogenetic *P. passerinii* aphids, collected directly on their host-plant,

were dissected to collect pairs of salivary glands. Total RNA was extracted using the GeneJET RNA

Purification kit (Thermo Fischer Scientific), according to manufacturer's instructions. RNA was DNase

treated using RNase-Free DNase Set (Qiagen). RNA concentration was measured using the Qubit® RNA

Assay Kit (Life Technologies) and a Qubit® 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen). Construction of cDNA-library and

sequencing were performed by Eurofins® Genomics using a MiSeq v3 Reagent Kit (600 Cycles PE,

Illumina, USA) and a MiSeq sequencer (Illumina), with 12.5 µg of total RNA. For the *de novo*

transcriptome assembly, 15,453,942 pair-ended reads were sequenced and assembled using Velvet

(v1.2.10; [30]) and Oases (v0.2.8; [31]) software tools (table S1). A multi-kmer approach was applied.

Separate assemblies with different kmer lengths have been conducted and the individual assemblies

have been merged to a final assembly. Kmer lengths of 69, 89, 109 and 129 were used. The separate

assemblies were merged following the filter1-CD-HIT-EST procedure proposed in Yang & Smith [32]. A

completeness assessment was performed using gVolante (v1.2.1; [33]) with the pipeline BUSCO v2/v3

and the reference dataset Arthropoda (table S1). This Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly project has been

deposited at DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank under the accession GHDF00000000. The version described in this

paper is the first version, GHDF01000000.

2.2.2 Annotation, secreted proteins detection and identification

To perform comparisons with *M. persicae* the transcriptome of this aphid was retrieved on NCBI

(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/, accession numbers: DW010205 - DW015017, EC387039 -

EC390992, EE570018 - EE572264, EE260858 - EE265165, ES444641 - ES444705, ES217505 - ES226848,

and ES449829 - ES451794). Salivary transcriptomes have been annotated using the pipeline described in

figure S1. Transcripts were first translated into amino acid sequences using Prodigal (v2.5; [34]). We then

used the SignalP 4.0 Server (v4.1) to predict the presence of signal peptides and cleavage sites in the

amino acid sequences [35]. To predict transmembrane domains, we submitted each amino acid

sequence with a signal peptide to the TMHMM Server (v. 2.0; [36]). Putative proteins with a signal

peptide and no transmembrane domain were considered to be potential secreted proteins. The

sequences of complete ORFs without signal peptide were analyzed again with SecretomeP (v2.0; [37]).

To remove mitochondrial proteins with a signal peptide, which are not secreted in the saliva, sequences

were analyzed with TargetP (v1.1; [38]). Likewise, to remove proteins of the endoplasmic reticulum with

a signal peptide, sequences were analyzed with PS-scan (Prosite pattern: PS00014), and with PredGPI

[39] for glycosylphosphatidylinositol-anchor signals.

The remaining proteins were first mapped against the non-redundant protein sequences (nr) using

Blastp (v2.3.0, NCBI, accessed on 03/30/2016), with an E-value cutoff at 1^{e-3}. Protein domains were

annotated with Blast2Go (v3.3; [40]), and InterProScan (v5.30-69; [41]). Whenever possible, protein

sequences were assigned to Gene ontology (GO) terms with an E-value cutoff at 1^{e-6}, enzyme codes (EC)

and KEGG pathways.

OrthoVenn (http://aegilops.wheat.ucdavis.edu/OrthoVenn; [42]) has been used to identify orthologous

proteins within and between salivary transcriptomes of the two aphids. Intraspecific orthologous

proteins are first grouped into clusters, which are then compared between species. Each cluster has

been annotated with the Uniprot database (http://www.uniprot.org; [43]) and the nr peptide sequence

database (NCBI, accessed on 03/30/2016).

To detect proteins orthologous to salivary effectors of aphids, protein sequences of known aphid

effectors, i.e. C002, ACE1, ACE2, ACYPI39568, ACYPI00346, MpC002, Mp1, Mp2, Mp42, Mp55, Me10,

Me23 [44, 45, 46], have been compared to the salivary transcriptome of *P. passerinii* with Blastp (E-value

≤ 1^{e-3}).

2.3 Functional validation assays

2.3.1 Aphid saliva collection

Aphids secrete two types of saliva within their host-plants, liquid and solid saliva [8]. The solid saliva is

secreted during probing. It hardens rapidly and forms a solid sheath encasing aphid stylets within the

host-plant, while the liquid saliva is secreted within cells and sieve tubes [8]. Both types of saliva contain

effectors [e.g. 8, 47], and have been collected in our experiments. Because of the particular trophic

substrates of *M. persicae* and *P. passerinii* (i.e. sap and galled tissues, respectively), a special protocol has

been used for each species. The saliva of *P. passerinii* was collected after incubation of 30 to 40

individuals of 2nd and 3rd instars aphids on sachets of Parafilm$^{©}$ membranes containing an artificial diet

[48]. The artificial diets were constituted by a disc of 0.5% (w/v) agar completed with 150 µL of 15%

(w/v) sucrose. The saliva of *M. persicae* was collected after incubation of 30 to 40 individuals, of 3rd and

4th instars, on artificial diet containing 120 µL of a 15% (w/v) sucrose as previously described by Cherqui

& Tjallingii [48]. Aphids were deposited in a feeding chamber during 24 h at 20°C, 60 ± 1% relative

humidity and a 16/8 h light/dark period with 2.65 kLx. Feeding chambers containing the artificial diets,

incubated in the absence of aphids, were used as control samples.

For *P. passerinii*, after 24 h aphid salivation, artificial diet discs were collected and transferred into 100

µL of TE buffer (10 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8). The salivary proteins were released from the artificial

diet according to Yang et al. [49], with slight modifications. The tubes containing artificial diet discs were

frozen in liquid nitrogen for 1 min, immediately thawed at 70°C for 3 min and then centrifuged at 11,000

x *g* for 20 sec. To discard the excess of agar, salivary extracts were centrifuged in Sartorius tubes with

filters of 0.22 µm. The supernatant containing salivary proteins of *P. passerinii* were collected, pooled

and then stored at -20°C. For *M. persicae,* after 24 h salivation, aphid saliva was collected according to

Harmel et al. [10]. The artificial diet is collected containing soluble saliva. The solid saliva was collected

during the rinsing of each lower Parafilm membrane with TE buffer containing 0.1% (w/v) of Tween 20

(TE/Tween). The extracts were centrifuged at 10,000 x *g* for 15 min. The salivary proteins in the pellet

were collected, pooled with the soluble saliva and then stored at -20°C.

The sample containing protein saliva extracts were concentrated using 2 mL Vivaspin[©] tube (Sartorius)

with 3kDa cut-off. The tubes were then centrifuged at 5,000 x *g* for 70 to 120 min according to sample

volumes, and proteins adhering to membranes were recovered by 100 µL of TE/Tween buffer. Control

samples were prepared with artificial diets from feeding chambers without aphids. The protein

quantification was performed by measuring absorbance at 280 nm with the NanoDrop[©] 1000

(ThermoScientific).

2.3.2 Enzyme activities

Several enzyme substrates were added to the previously described artificial diets with or without

agarose to detect enzymatic activities present in saliva excreted from the aphid. To visualize proteins in

the salivary sheaths, the lower Parafilm[©] membranes were stained by adding a drop of 0.01% (w/v)

Coomassie blue in 10% (v/v) glycerol for 2 h. Dihydroxyphenylalanine (DOPA), 0.1% (w/v) was added to

identify phenoloxidase activity (PO; catechol oxidase, EC 1.10.3.1). The enzymatic product, melanin,

should stain salivary sheaths and halos around the sheaths. To detect peroxidase (EC 1.11.1.7) activity,

artificial diets were immersed for some minutes in 0.1% (w/v) diaminobenzidine (DAB, Sigma) in 50 mM

Tris (pH 7.5) containing 0.1% (v/v) H_2O_2 (Sigma). The enzymatic product should induce reddish staining of

salivary sheaths and halos. For identification of pectinase activity, 0.1% (w/v) of pectin (Sigma) was

added to the medium. After exposure to aphids, the gel was transferred for 3 h into a Petri dish

containing 50 mM citrate-phosphate buffer, at pH 5.0 to detect pectin (methyl) esterase (PME, EC

3.1.1.11) and at pH 6.4 to detect polygalacturonase (PG, EC 3.1.1.15). The gel was then stained with a

solution of 0.01% (w/v) ruthenium red (Sigma) for 1 h, and then washed several times with distilled

water. At pH 6.4, red halos around the salivary sheaths indicate PME activity, while non-staining halos at

pH 5 in the pink pectin indicate PG activity. Finally, for proteinase activity (EC 3.4.99), 0.5% (w/v) of

gelatin (Sigma) was added to the medium. After exposure to aphids, the medium was incubated

overnight in a solution of 50 mM Tris (pH 8) containing 100 mM NaCl and 10 mM $CaCl_2$, then stained with

Coomassie blue. An absence of blue staining shows proteinase activity. All observations of proteins and

enzymatic activities were performed by light microscopy (Axioplan 2, Zeiss, Jena, Germany).

2.3.3 Poplar protoplast preparations and treatments

We wanted to assess early poplar gene responses to aphid saliva, as interactions between elicitors and

effectors of herbivores and plant receptors occur readily after the onset of probing or feeding [50]. Once

deposited on their plant material, adults and nymphs of *P. passerinii* can wait for several hours before

probing and delivering saliva into host tissues, inject probably a varying amount of saliva and presumably

affect a limited number of host cells [22, 26]. Therefore, we used protoplasts as plant material in order

to (i) have a sufficient amount of plant material exposed to treatments for the RT-qPCR experiments and

(ii) have an identical exposure duration and intensity to salivary extracts among biological replicates. This

also allowed to compare the effects of saliva alone from different aphid species on gene expression, *P.*

passerinii having a quite unique feeding behavior compared to other aphid species [23]. Mesophyll

protoplasts of the two poplar genotypes were obtained from young leaves as described in Wu et al. [51].

Leaves were cut into 1–2 mm fine strips in 0.3 M sorbitol and 66.67 mM $CaCl_2$ (pH 5.6) and lysed in an

enzyme solution (0.6 M mannitol, 0.25% (w/v) cellulase Onozuka R-10, 0.05% (w/v) macerozyme R-10) in

the dark for 16 h with gentle shaking (30 rpm) at room temperature. Protoplasts were collected by

filtering the lysate suspension through a 70 µm cell strainer (Falcon®) and concentrated by spinning

down at ≈ 800 x *g* for 10 min at 4 °C. The pellet was washed twice with W5 buffer (154 mM NaCl, 125

mM $CaCl_2$, 5 mM KCl, 5 mM glucose, 0.03% (w/v) MES, pH 5.8) and then resuspended in 0.6 M mannitol

to a final concentration of 1×10^6 protoplasts per mL. Protoplasts (1.10^6) were incubated at 20°C with

gentle shaking (40 rpm) for 3 h with aphid salivary proteins or with protein extraction buffer (control).

RNA extraction was done just after the saliva or control treatment (see 2.3.4). Preliminary experiments

investigating expression of 5 poplar genes, and conducted with 1, 10, 20, 40 or 80 µg of salivary proteins,

indicated that the optimal response (i.e. the maximum fold change) was observed with 1 µg of salivary

proteins of *P. passerinii* and that responses with a similar magnitude were observed with 10 µg of

salivary proteins of *M. persicae* (Fig. S2). Protoplast viability, before and after treatment with aphid

saliva, was assessed using 0.005% (w/v) fluorescein diacetate (FDA). After 5 min of incubation

protoplasts were observed under blue light epifluorescence, and cell viability was estimated as the

percentage of fluorescent cells. Most protoplasts were intact and viable after enzymatic digestion with

cellulase and macerozyme (98%), as well as after incubation with salivary proteins (95%; Fig. S3).

2.3.4 Quantitative RT-PCR

After the aphid saliva treatments, protoplasts were centrifuged at ≈ 800 x *g* for 2 min. Total RNAs were

then immediately extracted with the RNeasy® Plant Kit Mini Kit (Qiagen). A DNase treatment with the

RNase-free DNase Set (Qiagen) was carried out for 15 min at 25°C. Total RNA concentration was

determined using a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer. All RNA samples were rejected if they did

not reach a minimum concentration of 100 ng μL^{-1}, a 260 nm/280 nm ratio between 1.8 and 2.0. Poly(dT)

cDNA was prepared from 1 µg total RNA using the iScriptTMcDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad) and quantified

with a LightCycler 480 (Roche) and SYBR GREEN I Master (Roche), according to the manufacturer's

instructions. PCR was carried out in 384-well optical reaction plates heated for 10 min to 95°C to activate

hot start Taq DNA polymerase, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation for 60 sec at 95°C and

annealing/extension for 60 sec at 58°C. The distribution of the quantitative RT-PCR mix containing SYBR

Green I Master (Roche), cDNAs and primers was performed using the EVO150$^{©}$ (Tecan) pipetting robot in

a 384-well plate. The expression of 43 genes, belonging to eight different physiological processes or

metabolic pathways (i.e. auxin, cytokinins, jasmonates, ethylene, salicylic acid, phenolic compounds,

reactive oxygen species (ROS), cell-division cycle), was quantified with specific primer pairs designed by

Quant-Prime [52] based on the *Populus trichocharpa* sequence (v3.0) from Phytozome

(https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/pz/portal.html; Table S2). Expression levels were normalized to the

levels of *PtUBIQUITIN10* (*PtUBQ10*), commonly used as a reference gene in plants [e.g. 53]. All RT-qPCR

experiments were done with three independent biological replicates, with two technical replicates each.

One of the biological replicates of the *M. persicae* – Koster interaction has been excluded from the

analyses because of technical issues during quantification. Relative gene expression was calculated

according to the $^{\Delta\Delta}$Ct method, with protoplasts incubated with protein extraction buffer as controls.

Primers used for gene expression analysis are listed in Table S2.

2.3.5 Histochemical analysis of GUS activity

Transgenic seedlings of *A. thaliana* (five-day-old and eight-day-old for *pIAA2*::GUS and *pARR16*::GUS, respectively) were incubated with 2 mL of liquid MS containing 1 µg and 10 µg of aphid salivary proteins (in TE/Tween buffer) of either *P. passerinii* or *M. persicae* for 3 h and 4 h for *pIAA2*::GUS and *pARR16*::GUS, respectively. Positive controls were incubated with 20 µM of indole acetic acid (IAA) (Sigma-Aldrich), and 20 µM of 6-benzylaminopurine (BAP) (Sigma-Aldrich). Negative controls were incubated in liquid MS and corresponding volumes of TE/Tween buffer. Five seedlings were used for each modality. Seedlings were then incubated in reaction buffer containing 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7), 2 mM ferricyanide, 2 mM ferrocyanide, 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 and 1 mg ml^{-1} X-Gluc for 1 up to 24 h in dark at 37 °C. Afterwards, chlorophyll was removed by destaining in 70% ethanol and seedlings were cleared as described by Malamy and Benfey [54]. GUS expression was monitored by differential interference contrast microscopy.

2.4 Data analysis

All tests were carried out with the statistical software R 2.11.0 [55]. RT-qPCR results have been expressed as fold-changes in gene expression compared to the reference gene *PtUBQ10*. Fold-changes have been log$_2$ - transformed. Following this transformation, fold-changes varied between -∞ and +∞, with negative values corresponding to gene underexpression, positive values to overexpression and zero, to no change in gene expression. To visualize similarities and differences in fold-changes a heatmap was built, with genes in columns and modalities in lines. The heatmap was built with a Z-score, i.e. log$_2$ – transformed fold changes which have been normalized and centered per column. Hierarchical clustering, using Pearson correlation as similarity metric, was performed to visualize the proximity among genes in columns and among modalities in lines. The uncertainty of hierarchical clustering of modalities was

assessed with approximately unbiased p-values calculated with a multiscale bootstrap resampling, with

10,000 bootstrap replications, using the function pvclust() [56]. T-tests were performed with $^{\Delta}$Ct values

to detect significant changes in expression for each saliva treatment vs. controls. An analysis of variance,

followed with a Tukey test when significant, was also performed to compare the effect of treatment

modalities (i.e. aphid species and host genotype combinations) on $\log_2$-fold changes of each gene.

3 Results

3.1 Annotation, secreted proteins detection and identification

From 36,312 and 3,233 transcripts, 1,243 and 221 transcripts were predicted to encode for secreted

salivary proteins in *P. passerinii* and *M. persicae*, respectively. About half of them (604) have been

annotated for *P. passerinii* and 190 for *M. persicae*. Using OrthoVenn, 121 and 58 protein clusters have

been identified for *P. passerinii* and *M. persicae*, respectively. About 17% of these clusters were common

between the two aphids (Table S3).

Blast2GO determined that *P. passerinii* salivary proteins were predominantly binding proteins and

enzymes (Fig. 1, table S4). The most common enzymes were peptidases (especially serine-type and

cysteine-type endopeptidases), kinases (especially phosphatidylinositol phosphate (PIP) kinases) and

hydrolases. Several enzymes involved in the degradation of carbohydrates (i.e. cellulase, trehalase, β-

glucuronidase, mannosidase and glucosylceramidase), and of phenolic compounds (i.e. peroxidase and

oxidoreductase) were also identified (Fig. 1, table S4). Among binding proteins, dimerization protein,

nucleic acids binding (especially DNA binding), nucleotide binding (especially ATP binding) and cation-

binding (mostly calcium ion-binding and zinc-binding proteins) were the most commonly found (Fig. 1,

table S4). Proteins related to hormone activity were also identified. Glucose dehydrogenases were also

detected with OrthoVenn (table S3). Among the 12 aphid salivary effectors considered, five were

identified in *P. passerinii*, with low E-values (< 7 e^{-71}): Mp10, ARMET, ACE 1, ACE2 and ACE3.

3.2 Enzyme activities

Staining with Coomassie blue confirmed the protein nature of the salivary sheath material (Fig. 2A) and

DOPA staining indicated a phenoloxidase activity in the sheaths (Fig. 2B). Black halos were also observed

around some sheaths (Fig. 2B). Likewise, peroxidase activity was found in salivary sheaths and halos

around sheaths (Fig. 2C). However, no pectinesterase, polygalacturonase and proteinase activity was

detected.

3.3 Quantitative poplar gene expression

An overview of poplar genes responses to aphid saliva is presented in figure 3. The hierarchical clustering

of modalities (left dendrogram) showed that all biological replicates of non-host interactions (i.e. *M.*

persicae – Koster and *M. persicae* – I-214) were grouped within a significant cluster, in which a majority

of poplar genes were upregulated following incubation with salivary proteins. Within this cluster,

replicates were not arranged according to poplar genotype. Biological replicates of the incompatible

interaction (i.e. *P. passerinii* – Koster) also clustered together, although the cluster was significant for

only two replicates. In this group, a majority of genes were weakly expressed and upregulated. For

biological replicates of the compatible interaction (i.e. *P. passerinii* – I-214), a majority were weakly

expressed and downregulated. Nonetheless, these replicates were not significantly clustered together.

The hierarchical clustering of genes (upper dendrogram) showed that there was no clustering of genes

according to physiological process or metabolic pathway.

For the auxin pathway, during non-host interactions (i.e. *M. persicae* – poplars) biosynthesis genes were

either not affected (*PtYUCCA*) or downregulated (*PtNIT1*) while *PtGH3*, which is involved in auxin inaction

via conjugation, was upregulated (Fig. 4). *PtAPB1* (signaling) and *PtPIN1* (auxin efflux carrier) were also

significantly upregulated, but only during the non-host interaction with I-214. No change was observed

in the expression of the auxin influx carrier *PtAUX1*. During incompatible interactions (i.e. *P. passerinii* –

Koster) these genes displayed an expression profile quite similar to that observed during non-host

interactions, except for *PtNIT1* whose expression was not affected by the salivary extracts of *P.*

passerinii. The expression of *PtGH3* was significantly downregulated during the compatible interaction,

and *PtGH3*, *PtAPB1* and *PtPIN1* were differentially expressed during the compatible interaction

compared to non-host interactions, and the incompatible interaction for *PtAPB1* only (Fig. 4).

For the cytokinin pathway, during non-host interactions with the poplar genotype I-214 *PtIPT*

(metabolism), *PtAHK4* (perception) and *PtARR2* (signaling) were upregulated while *PtLOG5* (metabolism)

was significantly downregulated (Fig. 4). A similar expression profile was observed during non-host

interactions with the poplar genotype Koster, but only *PtAHK4* and *PtLOG5* were significantly affected.

These genes were not significantly affected during the incompatible interaction. In contrast, *PtARR2* was

strongly repressed during the compatible interaction and *PtAHK4* and *PtARR2* were differentially

expressed during the compatible interaction compared to both non-host and incompatible interactions

(Fig. 4).

Regarding biotic stress signaling (i.e. jasmonates, salicylic acid, ethylene and ROS), non-host interactions

were characterized by a marked upregulation of a majority of genes, which was more frequently

significant for interactions with I-214 than for interactions with Koster (Fig. 5). Few genes in jasmonate

ethylene and ROS pathways were not affected by salivary extracts of *M. persicae* (i.e. *PtAOS*, *PtJAZ1*,

PtEIN2, *PtETO1*, *PtCAT* and *PtSOD*), and, in the salicylic acid pathway, *PtPR5* was significantly

downregulated. For interactions with *P. passerinii*, all genes were weakly downregulated during

compatible interactions. In contrast, during incompatible interactions most genes were either not

affected or evolved as during non-host interactions, with weak upregulations. Nonetheless, for these

modalities, no gene expression significantly differed from the controls (Fig. 5). In most situations, gene

expressions during compatible interactions were significantly lower than during non-host interactions

with I-214, and, in fewer situations, lower than during non-host interactions with Koster. Only *PtCOI1*

and *PtEIN3* genes were differentially expressed between compatible and incompatible interactions.

Conversely, since gene expressions during incompatible interactions were weakly upregulated, they

generally did not differ from those observed during non-host interactions with Koster, and differed from

non-host interactions with I-214 for only several genes (i.e. *PtCOI1*, *PtEDS1*, *PtNPR1*, *PtNDR1*, *PtEIN3*,

PtADMS1). Nonetheless, *PtPR5* and *PtSOD* were clearly differentially expressed between incompatible

and non-host interactions with Koster.

For genes involved in the phenolic compounds pathway (Fig. 5), non-host interactions led to an

upregulation of all the considered genes, especially for interactions with I-214. All genes were weakly,

but not significantly, downregulated or upregulated during compatible and incompatible interactions,

respectively. For all genes, expression was always significantly lower during the compatible interaction

compared to the non-host interaction with I-214. For *PtF5H*, expression was also significantly lower

during the compatible interaction compared to both non-host and incompatible interactions.

Finally, regarding genes involved in cell-division cycle, *PtCDK5*, *PtPCNA*, *PtCDK20 and PtE2F* were

significantly upregulated during non-host interactions, and while *PtCAK1* was significantly downregulated

(Fig. 6). *PtCYCD5* and *PtACO1* were also upregulated but only during non-host interactions with I-214.

Likewise, *PtCDK5* and *PtCDK20* were also significantly upregulated during the incompatible interaction,

as well as *PtCAK1*, conversely to non-host interactions. Expression of *PtMCM2* and *PtRBR* was not

affected by salivary extracts. *PtCDK20* was differentially expressed during the compatible interaction,

with a lower expression, compared to both incompatible and non-host interactions. Likewise, during the

incompatible interaction the expression of *PtCTR1* was much lower compared to non-host ones and

expression of *PtE3UL*, *PtE2F* and *PtACO1* were lower compared to expression during non-host

interactions with I-214. For *PtCAK1*, the expression was higher during the incompatible interaction than

during non-host ones.

3.4 Histochemical analysis of GUS activity

Salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* increased *pIAA2*::GUS signals (Fig. 7E, 7F, 7I, 7J), which were similar to

those caused by an exogenous application of auxin (Fig. 7A and 7B). Incubation with salivary proteins of

M. persicae resulted in faint colorations (Fig. 7G, 7H, 7K, 7L), similar to those of negative controls (Fig. 7C

and 7D).

Positive controls of *pARR16*::GUS were characterized by a strong staining in the middle part of root

central cylinder (Fig. 8A and 8B), which was weak in negative controls as well as with *M. persicae* salivary

proteins (Fig. 8G, 8H, 8K, and 8L). No coloration was visible in the roots of seedlings incubated with

salivary proteins of *P. passerinii* (Fig. 8E, 8F, 8I and 8J).

4 Discussion

Plant manipulation by parasites requires a finely tuned reprogramming of host metabolism, achieved

through secretion of effectors into the host plant [5, 7]. Using an *in vivo* approach with protoplasts, we

confirmed that salivary proteins impact plant gene transcription, strongly suggesting they mediate the

interactions between *P. passerinii* and its host-tree. This was further supported with a heterologous *in*

planta assay, with *A. thaliana*. Salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* weakly affected gene expression of the

two host-plant genotypes considered, but in a different way. During compatible interactions, in all the

metabolic pathways and physiological processes investigated, gene expressions were either unaffected

or weakly downregulated, except for the significant downregulation of two genes involved in

phytohormone pathways. Conversely, incompatible interactions generally led to weak upregulations,

significant for some genes related to cell-division cycle. As a result several genes involved in cytokinin

perception and signaling (*PtAHK4*, *PtARR2*), biotic stress signaling (*PtCOI1*, *PtEIN3*), defense (*PtF5H*) and

cell-division cycle (*PtCDK20*) were differentially expressed between compatible and incompatible

interactions. This supports the hypothesis that the saliva of *P. passerinii* includes effectors proteins

affecting plant signaling and defense mechanisms.

Several of the detected salivary proteins may interfere with plant signaling. PIP kinases were quite

abundant in the saliva of *P. passerinii*, but have not been previously reported from any aphid saliva.

These enzymes catalyze phosphorylation of phosphatidyl-inositol into phosphatidylinositol-4-5-

biphosphate (PIP_2). Hydrolysis of PIP_2 produces secondary messengers like diacylglycerol and inositol-1-

4-5-triphosphate (IP_3), which can in turn be hydrolyzed into phosphatidic acid (PA), considered an

important signaling molecule in plants, triggered in response to various biotic and abiotic stresses [57].

Likewise, PIP_2 and IP_3 can affect cellular oscillations of Ca^{2+} and are involved in multiple processes

including cell cycle and phytohormone regulation [58]. Other proteins, frequently detected in aphids,

may also interfere with secondary messengers like calcium-binding, ATP-binding, and GTP-binding

proteins or with hormone signaling like hormone-binding proteins [5, 12]. Likewise, it has been

hypothesized that trehalase may interfere with trehalose-based defense responses in *A. thaliana* [11],

and cellulases may also contribute to the degradation of oligogalacturonides involved in damage

signaling pathways [48]. Nucleic acid-binding proteins and protein-binding proteins could also participate

in the manipulation of host-plant metabolism [12]. Finally, oxidoreductases, especially peroxidases and

phenoloxidases could degrade phenolic compounds of the host plant [48; 59]. Pseudogall induction by *P.*

passerinii in susceptible host genotypes is characterized by transient accumulation of phenolic

compounds [24], and oxidoreductases could help aphids to cope with these secondary metabolites.

Glucose dehydrogenases may similarly help aphids to detoxify defensive compounds of the host-plant

[11, 59].

Many of the proteins detected in our study (e.g. calcium-binding, DNA-binding, ATP-binding, GTP-binding

proteins, glucose dehydrogenases, oxidoreductases, trehalases and phosphatases) have also been

previously identified in the saliva of different aphid species, which were sap-feeders [10, 11, 12, 47].

Therefore, although these proteins probably contribute to plant manipulation by aphids [47], they are

probably not specifically involved in pseudogall induction by *P. passerinii*. Interestingly, calcium-binding

proteins are supposedly key components of sap-feeding aphids' saliva, preventing the plugging of sieve

tubes [8]. Since *P. passerinii* does not feed on sap [23], it suggests that these proteins also play other

crucial roles during aphid-plant interactions. Several proteins detected in the saliva of *P. passerinii* such

as serine proteases, acid phosphatases, lipases and metalloproteases have been proposed as potential

effectors involved in formation and/or maintenance of fig wasps galls [60].

In situ biochemical assays confirmed the presence of peroxidases in both solid and soluble saliva of *P.*

passerinii. The phenoloxidase activity is also congruent with the numerous oxidoreductase sequences

identified in the salivary transcriptome. Likewise, the absence of pectin (methyl) esterase and

polygalacturonase activity during *in situ* bioassays is consistent with their absence in the salivary

transcriptome. However, while numerous proteases were identified among the salivary proteins of *P.*

*passerin*ii, no activity was observed during *in situ* bioassays. Gelatin was probably not the adequate

substrate to detect the protease activity of *P. passerinii*. Additional *in situ* assays could be conducted to

detect, in *P. passerinii* saliva, the activity of the proteases and possibly other enzymes like cellulases [43].

A proteomic analysis of salivary extracts should also confirm and complement the predictions of our

transcriptomic approach [13, 61].

To knock-down or divert stress signaling and/or ensure finely-tuned reprogramming of host metabolism

and anatomical transformation of host tissues, plant manipulation by herbivores or pathogens generally

requires reconfiguration of phytohormone pathways and signaling [62, 63]. Both RT-qPCR experiments

and histochemical assays confirmed that *P. passerinii* can actively manipulate phytohormone pathways

during compatible interactions. This is in line with the numerous proteins potentially interfering with

plant signaling and metabolism found in the aphid saliva. Salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* did not affect

either auxin biosynthesis or auxin transporter genes such as *PtPIN1* and *PtAUX1*, but significantly

downregulated *PtGH3*, which is involved in the homeostasis of auxin active forms [64]. This could lead to

intracellular accumulation of active auxin forms, and result in the targeted cell hypertrophy and

multiplication commonly observed during pseudogall differentiation by *P. passerinii* [24]. The activation

of the auxin-responsive promoter *IAA2* during *in planta* assays with transgenic seedlings of *A. thaliana*

further supports this hypothesis of an intracellular accumulation of auxin during gall initiation by *P.*

passerinii. Auxin accumulation, as a result of a reduction in both *GH3* activity and auxin transport, is also

probably involved in the initiation and development of root galls by cyst and root-knot nematodes [65].

Interestingly, the interaction between these plant-manipulating nematodes and their host-plants is also

rather associated with gene repression than with gene activation [15], as observed during compatible

interactions in our study, suggesting a potentially convergent manipulation strategy between these

organisms. As genes related to cytokinin biosynthesis (*PtIPT*) and activation (*PtLOG5*) were not affected

by salivary proteins of *P. passerinii*, the downregulation of cytokinin perception and signaling genes

(*PtAHK4* and *PtARR2* during the assays with protoplasts and *ARR16* during the assay with *A. thaliana*)

upon treatment during compatible interactions could correspond to an auxin accumulation-induced

regulation loop [66, 67]. Consequently, it could be hypothesized that *P. passerinii* manipulates auxin and

cytokinin plant responses to promote the host division cycle [62], leading to the formation of pseudogalls

(Fig. 9).

Apart from the Mp10 effector, the saliva of *P. passerinii* and *M. persicae* shared few similarities. The

transcriptomes of *P. passerinii* and *M. persicae* have been obtained with a different sequencing and

assembly methods [68]. This probably explains the difference in transcripts amounts gathered for both

aphids and several salivary proteins of *M. persicae* might be missing in its transcriptome, leading to an

apparently low similarity between secretomes. Likewise, the lack of biological replicates for both

transcriptomes might have also led to an underestimation of the similarity between secretomes.

However, previous comparisons among salivary proteins of aphid species also indicated that aphids with

different host species and / or feeding strategies exhibited very different salivary protein profiles [12,

69]. In addition to their difference in feeding strategy, the two aphid species are also phylogenetically

distant [27], which should further increase the dissimilarity of their secretomes. This is in agreement with

the markedly different gene expression profiles obtained for both aphid species.

Gene expression profiles of non-host interactions were significantly clustered together, independently of

poplar genotype. Conversely, gene expression profiles for interactions with salivary extracts of *P.*

passerinii differed according to host genotype, and incompatible interactions with Koster were grouped

together, apart from compatible interactions with I-214. In spite of the marked effect of aphid species,

gene expression profiles of poplar protoplasts during incompatible interactions with *P. passerinii* shared

many similarities with those observed during non-host interactions with *M. persicae*. Both types of

interactions were characterized by an overall upregulation of host genes, which was generally more

important during non-host interactions than during incompatible ones, for which only few significant

upregulations were observed. For most genes, expression during incompatible interactions did not differ

from those during non-host interactions with the same poplar genotype, Koster, but was occasionally

significantly lower than gene expression during non-host interactions with the other poplar genotype.

During both non-host and incompatible interactions, most genes involved in jasmonates, ethylene and

salicylic acid pathways tended to be upregulated, with significant upregulations for non-host interactions

only. All of these pathways can be activated following aphid feeding, together or separately, depending

on the aphid – plant interaction system considered [70, 71, 72]. Due to the salicylic acid - jasmonates

cross-talk, a differential gene expression between the two pathways could be expected [73], and this

could explain the downregulation of *PtPR5* during non-host interactions, but not the upregulation of

other genes related to the salicylic acid pathway. However, this may occur later during the interaction,

since in our experiments we only considered early gene responses [71]. As a consequence of activation

of plant defense signaling, genes related to secondary metabolism, i.e. *PtF3'5'H, PtANT* and *PtF5H* were

also upregulated during non-host interactions, and slightly upregulated during the incompatible

interactions. Conversely, the expression of these genes was either unaffected or slightly downregulated

during compatible interactions, which led to significantly lower expressions compared to the other

interactions. This is in agreement with previous histochemical analyses showing a light and transient

accumulation of phenolic compounds followed by their marked disappearance in manipulated tissues

during a compatible interaction, while their accumulation was strong and continuous during an

incompatible interaction [24].

Interestingly, two of the three genes that were differentially expressed during non-host and

incompatible interactions on the same poplar genotype (i.e. *PtPR5* and *PtSOD* – with a similar trend for

PtCAT) were related to biotic stress signaling, and were slightly upregulated during incompatible

interactions while they were significantly downregulated during non-host interactions. A similar

repression of *SOD* and *CAT* genes, leading to an increase in H_2O_2 content, together with an upregulation

of *PR1*, has been reported in potato leaves infested by *M. persicae* [71].

The putative intracellular accumulation of auxin during compatible interactions could also interfere with

salicylic acid signaling and defense responses [64], which is congruent with the overall absence of

response of genes related to the salicylic acid pathway. The downregulation of *PtAHK4* and *PtARR2* could

also interfere with stress signaling by preventing both accumulation of jasmonates and activation of

PtPR1 [74], which is consistent with our observations during compatible interactions. As a result, the

effectors of *P. passerinii* saliva, in addition to modifying phytohormonal contents, probably down-

regulate the plant defenses to allow plant manipulation.

One of the first visible symptoms of pseudogall differentiation is cell multiplication in the cortical

parenchyma [24]. Nonetheless, exposure to the saliva of *P. passerinii* during compatible interactions did

not affect expression of genes involved in the cell-division cycle, or weakly downregulated them, while

most of these genes were upregulated during incompatible and non-host interactions. This is however

congruent with the fact that gall differentiation during the interactions between root-knot nematodes

and their host-plants is rather associated with gene repression than with gene activation [15]. The weak

downregulation might promote cell hypertrophy during compatible interactions. Additional experiments

considering genes coding for cell wall remodeling enzymes, activated early during giant cells

differentiation, or for cytoskeleton should provide further insight into the mechanisms associated with

the differentiation of hypertrophied cells [15].

In conclusion, our transcriptomic analysis of the saliva of *P. passerinii* and *M. persicae* showed that *P.*

passerinii probably secretes a highly peculiar saliva, filled with potential effectors that may interfere with

several plant secondary messengers and signaling pathways. Our *in vivo* approach with protoplasts and

in planta approach with a heterologous *A. thaliana*-system confirmed the ability of salivary extracts of

plant-manipulating insects to interfere with host response during compatible interactions. As expected

phytohormones pathways were affected, probably to impair biotic stress signaling but also to

reconfigure host metabolism and anatomy. Although the saliva of *P. passerinii* and *M. persicae* were very

different, incompatible and non-host interactions led to quite similar host responses, with a different

intensity however, and few differences in biotic stress signaling and cytokinin metabolism. Additional

modalities including different populations of *P. passerinii*, different poplar genotypes with intermediate

resistance levels, leading for instance to semi-compatible interactions [22], and additional host metabolic

pathways could be considered in future experiments. For instance, investigating how genes coding for

nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat (NB-LRR) proteins involved in the recognition of pathogens

effectors in poplar [75], and aphids in general [76], respond to salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* should

give further insights into the molecular processes underpinning failed and successful host manipulation

by a plant-manipulating organism.

Funding

This work was supported by the Région Centre-Val de Loire Project no. 2014 00094521 (InsectEffect)

coordinated by D. Giron.

Acknowledgements

We thank Léa Fléchon for her assistance with transcriptome analyses.

References

[1] L.M. Schoonhoven, J.J.A. Van Loon, M. Dicke, Insect–Plant Biology, Oxford University Press, 2005.

[2] F. Lieutier, K. Bermudez-Torres, J. Cook, M.O. Harris, L. Legal, A. Sallé, B. Schatz, D. Giron, From plant

exploitation to mutualism, in: N. Sauvion, D. Thiéry, P.A. Calatayud (Eds.), Insect-Plant Interactions in a

Crop Protection Perspective, Elsevier, 2017, pp. 55-109.

[3] G.N. Stone, K. Schönrogge, The adaptive significance of insect gall morphology. Trends Ecol. Evol., 18

(2003), 512-522.

[4] J.D. Shorthouse, D. Wool, A. Raman, Gall-inducing insects – nature's most sophisticated herbivores.

Basic Appl. Ecol., 6 (2005), 407-411.

[5] D. Giron, E. Huguet, G.N. Stone, M. Body, Insect-induced effects on plants and possible effectors

used by galling and leaf-mining insects to manipulate their host-plant. J. Ins. Physiol., 84 (2016), 70-89.

[6] J.F. Tooker, A.M. Helms, Phytohormone dynamics associated with gall insects, and their potential

role in the evolution of the gall-inducing habit. J. Chem. Ecol., 40 (2014), 742–753.

[7] S.A. Hogenhout, J.I. Bos, Effector proteins that modulate plant–insect interactions. Curr. Opin. Plant

Biol., 14 (2011), 422-428.

[8] T. Will, W.F. Tjallingii, A. Thönnessen, A.J. van Bel. Molecular sabotage of plant defense by aphid

saliva. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., 104 (2007), 10536-10541.

[9] A. Guiguet, G. Dubreuil, M.O. Harris, H. Appel, J.C. Schultz, M.H. Pereira, D. Giron, Shared weapons of

blood- and plant-feeding insects: surprising commonalities for manipulating hosts. J. Ins. Physiol., 84

(2016), 4–21.

[10] N. Harmel, E. Létocart, A. Cherqui, P. Giordanengo, G. Mazzucchelli, F. Guillonneau, E. De Pauw, E.

Haubruge, F. Francis, Identification of aphid salivary proteins: a proteomic investigation of *Myzus*

persicae. Ins. Mol. Biol., 17 (2008), 165–174.

[11] Nicholson S.J., Hartson S.D. & Puterka G.J. (2012). Proteomic analysis of secreted saliva from Russian

Wheat Aphid (*Diuraphis noxia* Kurd.) biotypes that differ in virulence to wheat. *Journal of Proteomics*, 75,

2252–2268.

[12] S. Vandermoten, N. Harmel, G. Mazzucchelli, E. De Pauw, E. Haubruge, F. Francis. Comparative

analyses of salivary proteins from three aphid species. Ins. Mol. Biol., 23 (2014), 67-77.

[13] H. Boulain, F. Legeai, E. Guy, S. Morlière, N.E. Douglas, J. Oh, M. Murugan, M. Smith, J. Jaquiéry, J.

Peccoud, F.F. White, J.C. Carolan, J.-C. Simon, A. Sugio,. Fast evolution and lineage-specific gene family

expansions of aphid salivary effectors driven by interactions with host-plants. Genome Biol. Evol., 10

(2018), 1554-1572.

[14] C. Zhao, L.N. Escalante, H. Chen, T.R. Benatti, J. Qu J., S. Chellapilla, …, S. Richards, A massive

expansion of effector genes underlies gall-formation in the wheat pest *Mayetiola destructor*. Curr. Biol.,

25 (2015), 613-620.

[15] B. Favery, M. Quentin, S. Jaubert-Possamai, P. Abad. Gall-forming root-knot nematodes hijack key

plant cellular functions to induce multinucleate and hypertrophied feeding cells. J. Ins. Physiol., 84

(2016), 60-69

[16] J.J. Stuart, M.S. Chen, R. Shukle, M.O. Harris, Gall midges (Hessian flies) as plant pathogens. Ann.

Rev. Phytopathol., 50 (2012), 339-357.

[17] C. Zhao, R. Shukle, L. Navarro Escalante, M.S. Chen, S. Richards, J.J. Stuart, Avirulence gene mapping

in the Hessian fly (*Mayetiola destructor*) reveals a protein phosphatase 2C effector gene family. J. Ins.

Physiol., 84 (2016), 22-31.

[18] N.S. Mutti, J. Louis, L.K. Pappan, K. Pappan, K. Begum, M.S. Chen, Y. Park, N. Dittmer, J. Marshall, J.C.

Reese, G.R. Reeck. A Protein from the salivary glands of the pea aphid, *Acyrthosiphon pisum*, is essential

in feeding on a host plant. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., 105 (2008), 9965-9969.

[19] H.S. Atamian, R. Chaudhary, V. Dal Cin, E. Bao, T. Girke, I. Kaloshian, *In planta* expression or delivery

of potato aphid *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* effectors Me10 and Me23 enhances aphid fecundity. Mol.

Plant-Microbe Int., 26 (2013), 67–74.

[20] De Vos M. & Jander G. (2009). *Myzus persicae* (green peach aphid) salivary components induce

defence responses in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant Cell & Environment*, 32, 1548–1560.

[21] R. Chaudhary, H.S. Atamian, Z. Shen, S.P. Briggs, I. Kaloshian, GroEL from the endosymbiont

Buchnera aphidicola betrays the aphid by triggering plant defense. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., 111 (2014),

8919-8924.

[22] A. Sallé, S. Pointeau, S. Bankhead-Dronnet, C. Bastien, F. Lieutier, Unraveling the tripartite

interactions among the woolly poplar aphid, its host tree, and their environment: a lead to improve the

management of a major tree plantation pest? Ann. For. Sci., 74 (2017), 79.

[23] S. Pointeau, A. Ameline, F. Laurans, A. Sallé, Y. Rahbé, S. Bankhead-Dronnet, F. Lieutier, Exceptional

plant penetration and feeding upon cortical parenchyma cells by the woolly poplar aphid. J. Ins. Physiol.,

58 (2012), 857–866.

[24] F. Dardeau, E. Deprost, F. Laurans, V. Lainé, F. Lieutier, A. Sallé, Resistant poplar genotypes inhibit

pseudogall formation by the wooly poplar aphid, *Phloeomyzus passerinii* Sign., Trees, 28 (2014), 1007-

1019.

[25] F. Dardeau, M. Body, A. Berthier, F. Miard, J. P. Christidès, M. Feinard-Duranceau, F. Brignolas, D.

Giron, F. Lieutier, A. Sallé, Effects of fertilisation on amino acid mobilisation by a plant-manipulating

insect. Ecol. Entomol., 40 (2015), 814-822.

[26] F. Dardeau, S. Pointeau, A. Ameline, F. Laurans, A. Cherqui, F. Lieutier, A. Sallé, Host manipulation by

a herbivore optimizes its feeding behaviour. Anim. Behav., 95 (2014), 49-56.

[27] Z. Ren, A.J. Harris, R.B. Dikow, E. Ma, Y. Zhong, J. Wen, Another look at the phylogenetic

relationships and intercontinental biogeography of eastern Asian–North American Rhus gall aphids

(Hemiptera: Aphididae: Eriosomatinae): Evidence from mitogenome sequences via genome skimming.

Mol. Phylogenet. Evol., 117 (2017), 102-110.

[28] A. Bishopp, S. El-Showk, D. Weijers, B. Scheres, J. Friml, E. Benková, A. Pekka Mähönen, Y. Helariutta,

A mutually inhibitory interaction between auxin and cytokinin specifies vascular pattern in roots. Curr.

Biol., 21 (2011), 917-926.

[29] T. Kiba, H. Yamada, T. Mizuno, Characterization of the ARR15 and ARR16 response regulators with

special reference to the cytokinin signaling pathway mediated by the AHK4 histidine kinase in roots of

Arabidopsis thaliana. Plant Cell Physiol., 43 (2002), 1059-1066.

[30] D. Zerbino, E. Birney, Velvet: algorithms for de novo short read assembly using de Bruijn graphs.

Gen. Res., (2008), gr-074492.

[31] M.H. Schulz, D.R. Zerbino, M. Vingron, E. Birney, Oases: robust *de novo* RNA-seq assembly across the

dynamic range of expression levels. Bioinformatics, 28 (2012), 1086-1092.

[32] Y. Yang, S.A. Smith, Optimizing *de novo* assembly of short-read RNA-seq data for phylogenomics.

BMC Genomics, 14 (2013), 328.

[33] O. Nishimura, Y. Hara, S. Kuraku S. gVolante for standardizing completeness assessment of genome

and transcriptome assemblies. Bioinformatics, 33 (2017), 3635-3637.

[34] D. Hyatt, G.L. Chen, P.F. LoCascio, M.L. Land, F.W. Larimer, L.J. Hauser, Prodigal: prokaryotic gene

recognition and translation initiation site identification. BMC Bioinformat., 11 (2010), 119.

[35] T.N. Petersen, S. Brunak, G. von Heijne, H. Nielsen, SignalP 4.0: discriminating signal peptides from

transmembrane regions, Nat. Methods, 8 (2011), 785.

[36] R. Ji, H. Yu, Q. Fu, H. Chen, W. Ye, S. Li, Y. Lou, Comparative transcriptome analysis of salivary glands

of two populations of rice brown planthopper, *Nilaparvata lugens*, that differ in virulence. PloS One, 8

(2013), e79612.

[37] J.D. Bendtsen, L.J. Jensen, N. Blom, G. von Heijne, S. Brunak, Feature-based prediction of non-

classical and leaderless protein secretion. Prot. Eng. Des. Sel., 17 (2004), 349-356.

[38] O. Emanuelsson, H. Nielsen, S. Brunak, G. von Heijne, Predicting subcellular localization of proteins

based on their N-terminal amino acid sequence. J. Mol. Biol., 300 (2000), 1005-1016.

[39] A. Pierleoni, P.L. Martelli, R. Casadio, PredGPI: a GPI-anchor predictor. BMC Bioinformat., 9 (2008),

392.

[40] A. Conesa, S. Götz, J.M. García-Gómez, J. Terol, M. Talón, M. Robles, Blast2GO: a universal tool for

annotation, visualization and analysis in functional genomics research. Bioinformat., 21 (2005), 3674–

3676.

[41] P. Jones, D. Binns, H.Y. Chang, M. Fraser, W. Li, C. McAnulla, H. McWilliam, J. Maslen, A. Mitchell, G.

Nuka, S. Pesseat, A.F. Quinn, A. Sangrador-Vegas, M. Scheremetjew, S.-Y. Yong, R. Lopez, S. Hunter,

InterProScan 5: genome-scale protein function classification. Bioinformat., 30 (2014), 1236-1240.

[42] Y. Wang, D. Coleman-Derr, G. Chen, Y.Q. Gu. OrthoVenn: a web server for genome wide comparison

and annotation of orthologous clusters across multiple species. Nucleic Acids Res., 43 (2015), W78-W84.

[43] S. Pundir, M.J. Martin, C. O'Donovan, Uniprot protein knowledgebase, in: C. Wu, C. Arighi, K. Ross

(Eds). Protein Bioinformatics. Methods in Molecular Biology, vol 1558. Humana Press, New York, 2017,

41-55.

[44] K. Guo, W. Wang, L. Luo, J. Chen, Y. Guo, F. Cui, Characterization of an aphid-specific, cysteine-rich

protein enriched in salivary glands. Biophys. Chem., 189 (2014), 25–32.

[45] M. Jaouannet, P.A. Rodriguez, P. Thorpe, C.J.G. Lenoir, R. MacLeod, C. Escudero-Martinez, J.I.B. Bos,

Plant immunity in plant–aphid interactions. Front. Plant Sci., 5 (2014), 663.

[46] Y. Pan, J. Zhu, L. Luo, L. Kang, F. Cui, High expression of a unique aphid protein in the salivary glands

of *Acyrthosiphon pisum*. Physiol. Mol. Plant Pathol., 92 (2015), 175–180.

[47] D.A. Elzinga, G. Jander, The role of protein effectors in plant–aphid interactions. Curr. Opin. Plant

Biol., 16 (2013), 451-456.

[48] A. Cherqui, W.F. Tjallingii, W.F. Salivary proteins of aphids, a pilot study on identification, separation

and immunolocalisation. J. Ins. Physiol., 46 (2000), 1177–1186.

[49] J.L. Yang, R. Yang, A.C. Cheng, R.Y. Jia, M.S. Wang, S.H. Zhang, Five-minute purification of PCR

products by new-freeze-squeeze method. J. Food Agric. Environ., 8 (2010), 32–33.

[50] M.E. Maffei, A. Mithöfer, W. Boland, Insects feeding on plants: rapid signals and responses

preceding the induction of phytochemical release. Phytochemistry, 68 (2007), 2946-2959.

[51] F.H. Wu, S.C. Shen, L.Y. Lee, S.H. Lee, M.T. Chan, C.S. Lin, Tape-*Arabidopsis* Sandwich-a simpler

Arabidopsis protoplast isolation method. Plant Meth., 5 (2009), 16.

[52] S. Arvidsson, M. Kwasniewski, D.M. Riaño-Pachón, B. Mueller-Roeber, QuantPrime--a flexible tool

for reliable high-throughput primer design for quantitative PCR. BMC Bioinformat., 9 (2008), 465.

[53] Z. Tong, Z. Gao, F. Wang, J. Zhou, Z. Zhang, Selection of reliable reference genes for gene expression

studies in peach using real-time PCR. BMC Mol. Biol., 10 (2009), 71.

[54] J.E. Malamy, P.N. Benfey, Organization and cell differentiation in lateral roots of *Arabidopsis*

thaliana. Development, 124 (1997), 33-44.

[55] R Core Team (2013). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for

Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL http://www.R-project.org/.

[56] R. Suzuki, H. Shimodaira, Pvclust: an R package for assessing the uncertainty in hierarchical

clustering. Bioinformatics, 22 (2006), 1540-1542.

[57] C. Testerink, T. Munnik, Phosphatidic acid: a multifunctional stress signaling lipid in plants. Trends

Plant Sci., 10 (2005), 368-375.

[58] H.W. Xue, X. Chen, Y. Mei, Function and regulation of phospholipid signalling in plants. Biochem. J.,

421 (2009), 145–156.

[59] J.C. Carolan, C.I.J. Fitzroy, P.D. Ashton, A.E. Douglas, T.L. Wilkinson, The secreted salivary proteome

of the pea aphid *Acyrthosiphon pisum* characterised by mass spectrometry. Proteomics, 9 (2009), 2457–

2467.

[60] E.O. Martinson, J.D. Hackett, C.A. Machado, A.E. Arnold, Metatranscriptome analysis of fig flowers

provides insights into potential mechanisms for mutualism stability and gall induction. PloS One, 10

(2015), e0130745.

[61] J.C. Carolan, D. Caragea, K.T. Reardon, N.S. Mutti, N. Dittmer, K. Pappan, F. Cui, M. Castaneto, J.

Poulain, C. Dossat, D. Tagu, J.C. Reese, G.R. Reeck, T.L. Wilkinson, O.R. Edwards, Predicted effector

molecules in the salivary secretome of the pea aphid (*Acyrthosiphon pisum*): a dual

transcriptomic/proteomic approach. J. Proteome Res., 10 (2011), 1505–1518.

[62] D. Giron, E. Frago, G. Glevarec, C.M. Pieterse, M. Dicke. Cytokinins as key regulators in plant–

microbe–insect interactions: connecting plant growth and defence. Funct. Ecol., 27 (2013), 599-609.

[63] J.F. Tooker, C.M. De Moraes Gall insects and indirect plant defenses: A case of active manipulation?

Plant Signal. Behav., 3 (2008), 503-504.

[64] J.E. Park, J.Y. Park, Y.S. Kim, P.E. Staswick, J. Jeon, J. Yun, S.-Y. Kim, J. Kim, Y.-H. Lee, C.M. Park. GH3-

mediated auxin homeostasis links growth regulation with stress adaptation response in *Arabidopsis*. J.

Biol. Chem., 282 (2007), 10036–10046.

[65] A. Karczmarek, H. Overmars, J. Helder, A. Goverse, Feeding cell development by cyst and root-knot

nematodes involves a similar early, local and transient activation of a specific auxin-inducible promoter

element. Mol. Plant Pathol., 5 (2004), 343-346.

[66] B. Jones, S.A. Gunnerås, S.V. Petersson, P. Tarkowski, N. Graham, S. May, K. Dolezal, G. Sandberg, K.

Ljung, Cytokinin regulation of auxin synthesis in *Arabidopsis* involves a homeostatic feedback loop

regulated via auxin and cytokinin signal transduction. The Plant Cell, 22 (2010), 2956-2969.

[67] G.E. Schaller, A. Bishopp, J.J. Kieber, The yin-yang of hormones: cytokinin and auxin interactions in

plant development. The Plant Cell, 27 (2015), 44-63.

[68] J.S. Ramsey, A.C.C. Wilson, M. de Vos, Q. Sun, C. Tamborindeguy, A. Winfield, G. Malloch, D.M.

Smith, B. Fenton, S.M. Gray, G. Jander, Genomic resources for *Myzus persicae*: EST sequencing, SNP

identification, and microarray design. BMC Genom., 8 (2007), 423–423.

[69] W.R. Cooper, J.W. Dillwith, G.J. Puterka, Comparisons of salivary proteins from five aphid

(Hemiptera: Aphididae) species. Environ. Entomol., 40 (2011), 151-156.

[70] I. Morkunas, V.C. Mai, B. Gabryś, Phytohormonal signaling in plant responses to aphid feeding. Acta

Physiol. Plant., 33 (2011), 2057–2073.

[71] P.I. Kerchev, B. Fenton, C.H. Foyer, R.D. Hancock, Infestation of potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) by

the peach-potato aphid (*Myzus persicae* Sulzer) alters cellular redox status and is influenced by

ascorbate. Plant Cell Environ, 35 (2012), 430-440.

[72] J. Louis, J. Shah. *Arabidopsis thaliana—Myzus persicae* interaction: shaping the understanding of

plant defense against phloem-feeding aphids. Front. Plant Sci., 4 (2013), 213.

[73] S.I. Zarate, L.A. Kempema, L.L. Walling. Silverleaf whitefly induces salicylic acid defenses and

suppresses effectual jasmonic acid defenses. Plant Physiol., 143 (2007), 866-875.

[74] J.A. O'Brien, E. Benková, Cytokinin cross-talking during biotic and abiotic stress responses. Front

Plant Sci., 4 (2013), 451.

[75] S. Hacquard, B. Petre, P. Frey, A. Hecker, N. Rouhier, S. Duplessis, The poplar-poplar rust interaction:

insights from genomics and transcriptomics. J. Pathogens, 2011 (2011), 1-11.

[76] F.L. Goggin, Plant—aphid interactions: molecular and ecological perspectives. Current opinion in

plant biology, 10 (2007), 399-408.

Figure 1: Gene Ontology treemap for the salivary transcriptome of *Phloeomyzus passerinii*. The box size

correlates to the number of sequences isolated. Numbers between brackets indicate the number of

sequences identified. Green boxes indicate binding proteins, purple boxes indicate enzymes, red boxes

indicate structural constituents, the blue box indicates transporters and the brown box molecular

transducers. The treemap was created with the treemap() function in R. A Detailed list of the proteins

can be found in the table S4.

Figure 2: Representative salivary sheaths secreted in artificial diets by *Phloeomyzus passerinii*. Sheaths

stained and observed after 24 h probing in an agarose diet: (A) sheath stained with Coomassie blue; (B)

black stained sheaths in diet containing 0.1% DOPA, indicating a phenoloxidase activity, note the dark

halo surrounding the upper sheath; (C) reddish stained sheath in diet immersed with 0.1% DAB and 0.1%

H_2O_2, indicating a peroxidase activity. Black bars represent 10 μm.

Figure 3: Heatmap of log$_2$-fold changes of 43 poplar genes belonging to eight different physiological processes or metabolic pathways (lower left box), after incubation of poplar protoplasts of two poplar genotypes (Koster and I-214) with salivary proteins of two aphids (*Myzus persicae* (*M. pers.*) and *Phloeomyzus passerinii* (*P. pass.*)). Non-host interactions are expected between both poplar genotypes and *M. persicae*, while incompatible interactions are expected between *P. passerinii* and Koster and compatible interactions between *P. passerinii* and I-214. Downregulation appears in blue and upregulation in red. Gene code is presented below the heatmap, modalities (i.e. aphid x poplar genotype combinations are presented on the right of the heatmap). Hierarchical clustering has been built with distances based on Pearson correlations. Approximately unbiased p-values (%) are indicated for the hierarchical clustering of modalities, red boxes indicate significant clusters at α = 0.05.

Figure 4: Mean (± SE) $\log_2$-fold changes of genes involved in auxin (left) and cytokinin (right) pathways of

poplar protoplasts collected from two poplar genotypes (I-214 and Koster), after incubation with salivary

proteins of two aphids (*Myzus persicae* and *Phloeomyzus passerinii*), resulting in compatible,

incompatible and non-host interactions. Stars indicate modalities for which a significant upregulation or

downregulation of gene expression vs. controls was observed, using $^{\Delta}$Ct values (t-test). ***, ** and *

indicate a significant effect with P < 0.001, P < 0.01 and P < 0.05, respectively. Different letters indicate

significantly different groups (Tukey test) of $\log_2$-fold changes among modalities, for each gene.

830
831

Figure 5: Mean (± SE) log$_2$-fold changes of genes involved in jasmonate, salicylic acid, ethylene pathways,

ROS responses and phenolic compounds of poplar protoplasts collected from two poplar genotypes (I-

214 and Koster), after incubation with salivary proteins of two aphids (*Myzus persicae* and *Phloeomyzus*

passerinii), resulting in compatible, incompatible and non-host interactions. Stars indicate modalities for

which a significant upregulation or downregulation of gene expression vs. controls was observed, using

$^{\Delta}$Ct values (t-test). ***, ** and * indicate a significant effect with P < 0.001, P < 0.01 and P < 0.05,

respectively. Different letters indicate significantly different groups (Tukey test) of log$_2$-fold changes

among modalities, for each gene.

Figure 6: Mean (± SE) $\log_2$-fold changes of genes involved in cell-division cycle of poplar protoplasts

collected from two poplar genotypes (I-214 and Koster), after incubation with salivary proteins of two

aphids (*Myzus persicae* and *Phloeomyzus passerinii*), resulting in compatible, incompatible and non-host

interactions. Stars indicate modalities for which a significant upregulation or downregulation of gene

expression vs. controls was observed, using $^\Delta$Ct values (t-test). ** and * indicate a significant effect with

$P < 0.01$ and $P < 0.05$, respectively. Different letters indicate significantly different groups (Tukey test) of

$\log_2$-fold changes among modalities, for each gene.

Figure 7: Representative GUS assays of transgenic seedlings of *Arabidopsis thaliana pIAA2*::GUS, showing

whole plants (A, C, E, G, I and K), and root tips (B, D, F, H, J and L), after 3 h of incubation in 20 µM of IAA

(A and B), TE/Tween buffer (C and D), and 1 and 10 µg of salivary proteins of *Phloeomyzus passerinii* (E, F,

I and J) or *Myzus persicae* (G, H, K and L). Black bars represent 1 mm for whole plants (A, C, E, G, I and K)

and 10 µm for root tips (B, D, F, H, J and L). Five seedlings were used for each modality.

Figure 8: Representative GUS assays of transgenic seedlings of *Arabidopsis thaliana pARR16*::GUS,

showing whole plants (A, C, E, G, I and K), and root tips (B, D, F, H, J and L), after 4 h of incubation in 20

µM of BAP (A and B), TE/Tween buffer (C and D), and 1 and 10 µg of salivary proteins of *Phloeomyzus*

passerinii (E, F, I and J) or *Myzus persicae* (G, H, K and L). Black bars represent 1 mm for whole plants (A,

C, E, G, I and K) and 10 µm for root (B, D, F, H, J and L). Five seedlings were used for each modality.

Figure 9: Graphical summary of effects of salivary extracts of *Phloeomyzus passerinii* on gene expression

in auxin and cytokinin pathways during a compatible interaction based on observations with *in vivo* RT-

qPCR assays with protoplasts (bold green) and heterologous *in planta* assay (bold orange).

Appendices

Table S1. Illumina MiSeq sequencing and assembly statistics for *Phloeomyzus passerinii* salivary

transcriptome.

Number of raw read-pairs	15,453,942
Number of read-pairs after quality check*	11,578,269
Number of assembled transcripts	36,312
Average transcript length (bases)	858
N50 (bases)	1273
Transcriptome completeness (%)**	86.0 complete + 4.4 partial

874   * the reads were quality-clipped before performing the assembly with Trimmomatic v0.32. (Bolger *et al*. 2014).

875   ** assessed on 1066 core genes

876 Table S2. Genes considered for RT-qPCR, their sequence code in Phytozome and primers sequences.

Physiological process	Gene code	Sequence code	Protein	Primer fwd sequence	Primer rev sequence	Amplicon length	Tm	GC (%)	Optimal annealing temperature
Auxin	APB1	POPTR_0013s04160	Actin-binding protein ABP140	TCGTTTCCACCCATTCTTCTGTG	CACCACCCTCTTTAACATCTGAGG	128	61.3	48.9	60.3
Auxin	PIN1	POPTR_0007s14010	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase NIMA-interacting 1	GGGACTCAAGTTCGAGCATCACAC	TGGGTCTTTCCATGATGCCTTCC	75	63.6	53.2	60.1
Auxin	YUCCA	POPTR_0005s20840	Indole-3-pyruvate monooxygenase YUCCA11-related	CTGTACTGGATTGGCTGAAGGATG	CAGCACAGTAAAGCCCATTTCCC	65	61.7	47.9	58.2
Auxin	GH3	POPTR_0003s15970	Auxin-responsive GH3 family protein	GCCTTCGACTGCTGAAGAATTGG	TGGTCCAAGCCATCAACATACTTG	90	62.2	49.0	58.4
Auxin	AUX1	POPTR_0005s16020	Auxin influx carrier (AUX1 LAX family)	TGGCATGGTGGTTCAGTATGTG	TGAGAAGCACTTGTGCAACCTG	65	61.8	50.0	59.4
Auxin	NIT1	POPTR_0004s21160	Nitrilase-like protein 1	TGGTCTCCGCTCTCCAATTTGC	AGCAGCTCTAACCAATCTTTCAGC	80	62.6	50.2	61.4
Cytokinin	IPT	POPTR_0014s13540	TRNA delta 2-isopentenylpyrophosphate transferase related	AGCAGAGCATGCCTGGGAAATG	AGAGGAGTTGTCCCACAATGGC	65	63.4	54.5	62.1
Cytokinin	AHK4	POPTR_0010s11350	Histidine kinase 4	GTGCTGACAGTGGTAAAGAAGCAC	GATACGACGTGTAGCCTCAAACCC	114	62.7	52.3	60.8
Cytokinin	LOG5	POPTR_0004s18850	Cytokinin riboside 5'-monophosphate PHOSPHORIBOHYDROLASE LOG5	TCTGCACCAAGTGCCAAAGAACTC	ATCATGCACAGGCACGTACTCCTC	60	64.6	52.1	59.0
Cytokinin	ARR2	POPTR_0014s12030	RESPONSE REGULATOR OF TWO-COMPONENT SYSTEM	GAAATGGATTTGCCTGTCGTCATC	AGCACCCTGAAGAACACCCTTC	78	62.0	50.2	58.1
Cell cycle	CDK5	POPTR_0006s05850	CDK5 REGULATORY SUBUNIT-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 3	TTCATCATGGCCAAAGCAGGAAG	CATCAAACATGGACGAGAGTGTCC	79	62.5	51.0	60.8
Cell cycle	CAK1	POPTR_0018s09000	Pt-CAK1.2	AGCCTGCCTCCCTAATCATTCC	AGCTGGGTCATAGCAGACAAGC	70	62.6	54.5	60.8
Cell cycle	E3UL	POPTR_0003s20350	E3 UBIQUITIN LIGASE BIG BROTHER	ACTTGAATTAGGCGAGACAGTTGG	TGGCAAATGACACACCTCTCAC	138	61.4	47.9	60.8
Cell cycle	CYCD5	POPTR_0014s01700	CYCLIN-D5-1	GGCTAATCGAGAGCCTCATCAAGG	CAAGCGGGCAGTTCTAACGAG	79	62.8	54.4	59.5
Cell cycle	PCNA	POPTR_0001s25490	PROLIFERATING CELL NUCLEAR ANTIGEN	ACACCACAGTTGATAAGCCGGAAG	GAAGGAGTTCATGTACCTCAGTGC	62	62.9	50.0	59.2
Cell cycle	MCM2	POPTR_0006s02620	MINICHROMOSOME MAINTENANCE (MCM2/3/5) FAMILY PROTEIN	AGGAATAAACCCAATTCCCAACGC	AGTGTGCTTCCCTCTACCACTTC	77	62.8	49.0	60.0
Cell cycle	RBR	POPTR_0001s06870	RETINOBLASTOMA-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN RB –RELATED	TGCTGGTGGATGTTGGTTCTGC	AGGTGATGCAGGACATTGACCATC	95	63.7	52.3	60.3
Cell cycle	CDK20	POPTR_0091s00250	CYCLIN-DEPENDENT KINASE 20	TGGAGATAAGCTGGTGCTCACTG	CCTATACGCAATGGTAGTGACCTG	97	61.9	51.1	61.6
Cell cycle	E2F	POPTR_0015s08160	E2F TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR-LIKE E2FE	ATCTCACTCGATGAATCTGCCAAG	CTTGTATCAGCAGTGTGGGTCTTC	146	61.4	47.9	60.2

884   Table S2 cont.

Physiological process	Gene code	Sequence code	Protein	Primer fwd sequence	Primer rev sequence	Amplicon length	Tm	GC (%)	Optimal annealing temperature
Ethylene	CTR1	POPTR_0016s11050	serine/threonine-protein kinase CTR1	TGAGTCTTGCTGGGCCA ATGAAC	TCATGCCTGCAAGACC AGGTTG	113	63.8	53.4	63.0
Ethylene	ACO1	POPTR_0004s00460	Aminocyclopropanecarboxylate oxidase	TGGAGGTGATCAATGATG CCTGTG	ATCCCATGGTTCACCAAC TCAAAG	60	62.4	48.9	58.7
Ethylene	EIN3	POPTR_0001s05360	ETHYLENE-INSENSITIVE3-like 3 protein	AACTGCAGCGCAACCATT TCTG	ACAACTGTTAAGGCAGC ACCTC	74	62.3	50.0	58.9
Ethylene	ADMS1	POPTR_0014s11000	S-adenosylmethionine synthetase 1	TCGTAGGTGCATTGTGCA AGTC	TGCCATAGGTGTCCACAA AGACAG	79	62.5	50.0	60.8
Ethylene	ERF1	POPTR_0001s36610	Ethylene responsive element binding factor 3	CTTCTTCTTTGTGCCGCA AGCC	ATCACCAGAGCCCAAGTC AACC	80	63.2	54.5	61.3
Ethylene	EIN2	POPTR_0016s09210	ethylene-insensitive protein 2	TAAGCGAGGAGAGTGTGTT TGCC	ATTTGGTGGTCCCTGATGT TGCAG	109	63.6	52.2	61.7
Ethylene	ETO1	POPTR_0016s13180	ETO1-LIKE PROTEIN 2-RELATED	CTCTATAAGAGAGCACGGGA ACGG	TTTCCCTGAGGAACACTGG CTCTC	67	63.6	54.2	59.6
Jasmonic acid	AOS	POPTR_0004s15600	allene oxide synthase	TGAACCTCCGGTTCCATT CCAG	ATAGGCCGCGTGATGA CTTTCG	73	63.1	54.5	61.0
Jasmonic acid	JAZ1	POPTR_0001s16640	jasmonate ZIM domain-containing protein	TGAAGCGCCTAACGGTTC AGATG	GGAGAAGAACCGATGAAG TGATGC	64	62.9	51.1	59.8
Jasmonic acid	MFP	POPTR_0010s01570	MULTIFUNCTIONAL PROTEIN	GGAAGGAAGCAGGACTAAG GGAAG	GTCCTTCAAGCTGTACAA CACGTC	124	62.6	52.1	61.9
Jasmonic acid	JAR1	POPTR_0014s09120	jasmonic acid-amino synthetase	GAGTGTTGCAATTGCCTG GATCG	ATGGCCTTCACCTTCCG TGAAC	71	63.3	53.4	60.6
Jasmonic acid	MYC2	POPTR_0002s17750	transcription factor MYC2	CGTGAACAGAAGAACGCT CGTG	AAGACAGGCCTGGTTTA TTAGCG	70	62.0	51.2	58.1
Jasmonic acid	COI1	POPTR_0008s06460	CORONATINE INSENSITIVE 1	AGCACTTCCGCTCTAGGT ACAC	AGGTTAAGCTAACTGCCA CAGACG	61	62.7	52.3	58.8
Jasmonic acid	OPR3	POPTR_0018s07120	12-oxophytodienoate reductase	ACAAGATGTAGGGCGTTG AATGGG	TTCCAGGCACATGAGGA AACCC	142	63.4	52.3	65.7
Phenolics	F3'5'H	POPTR_0007s06300	Flavonoid 3',5'-hydroxylase / F3'5'H	GCTGCGAAGCATATCTCTT ACGTG	ACGCATGCCCTCATGAA TCAC	139	62.4	52.3	61.6
Phenolics	ANT	POPTR_0001s40590	Anthocyanin 5-O-glucoside 6'''-O-malonyltransferase	AAGTCGTTTAGACCCTCCT CTTCC	ATGTGACGAGCCACAAC AGTATC	63	61.6	48.9	57.9
Phenolics	F5H	POPTR_0007s13720	ferulate-5-hydroxylase	TGATGTTTGGTGGGACAG AGACG	TCTTCATTAGCTCCGCC ATGACC	66	63.0	52.2	61.6
ROS	SOD	POPTR_0005s09190	SUPEROXIDE DISMUTASE	GATTTCAACAATGCTGCC CAGGTC	TGCCAAGTTCTGGCAT GTCTCC	66	62.7	51.1	57.8
ROS	CAT	POPTR_0005s27300	CATALASE 3	TTCTGCTGTCTGCAGTG GAAGG	CGAACGAAACGTTCTTGC CTGTC	113	62.9	54.5	62.9
Salicylic acid	PR1	POPTR_0001s29530	Pathogenesis-related protein	CTACGTCAATGCCCACAAT AATGC	CTGCCACATTAGTGTCC CAGAC	74	61.2	50.2	59.6
Salicylic acid	EDS1	POPTR_0015s08100	ENHANCED DISEASE SUSCEPTIBILITY 1	GAATGACCTAGGCCTGAGT GAAAG	TTCTCTAACGCTTCAG CAGCAC	63	61.4	50.0	59.7
Salicylic acid	NPR1	POPTR_0014s11120	NPR1 interacting (NPR1_interact)	CCCTGCATACAACAACCA ACAAC	TCGCGAATGCCCTTGA TGAG	137	61.2	51.4	60.2
Salicylic acid	PR5	POPTR_0005s26240	receptor serine/threonine kinase PR5K	ACAGCTACACACCACTCG TCAAC	AGATGGCGATGCTCCAT TCTGG	71	63.4	53.4	60.6
Salicylic acid	NDR1	POPTR_0012s12790	NDR1/HIN1-LIKE	GCAACAACTGCAGGCTG GAATC	AGCTTGATTCTCACAGG CTGGTC	62	62.9	54.5	60.2

887   Table S3 Number of orthologous proteins between the salivary transcriptomes of *Phloeomyzus passerinii*

888   and *Myzus persicae*.

Proteins	*P. passerinii*	*M. persicae*
phosphatidylinositol-4-phosphate 5-kinase	16	0
Glucose dehydrogenase [FAD, quinone]	8	0
Gut esterase 1	8	0
Serine protease	7	0
Furin-like protease	6	0
Transcription factor SPT20 homolog	6	0
Phospholipase A1	5	0
Probable serine/threonine-protein kinase nek3	5	0
cuticle precursor	4	0
Protein Toll	4	0
tyrosine kinase receptor	4	0
Acetylcholine receptor	3	0
Activating signal cointegrator 1 complex subunit 2 homolog	3	0
Down syndrome cell adhesion molecule-like protein Dscam2	3	0
Fibroin heavy chain	3	0
leucine-rich repeat containing G-coupled receptor	3	0
Peritrophin-1	3	0
zinc metallo ase nas-13-like	2	0
60S ribosomal protein L27a	2	0
AF4 FMR2 family member 4-like	2	0
Basement membrane proteoglycan	2	0
cell wall DAN4	2	0
C-type lectin-like precursor	2	0
Cuticle protein	2	0
Cuticle protein 19	2	0
Diuretic hormone	2	0
DNA-directed RNA polymerase II subunit RPB1-like	2	0
Dolichyldiphosphatase 1	2	0
endocuticle structural glyco bd-8-like	2	0
Endocuticle structural glycoprotein SgAbd-2	2	0
Endoglucanase	2	0
Extensin	2	0
glia-derived nexin	2	0
Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein A1	2	0
Hypertrehalosaemic prohormone	2	0
hypothetical protein WALSEDRAFT_31439	2	0
Low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein	2	0
Maltase A2	2	0
mesencephalic astrocyte-derived neurotrophic factor homolog	2	0
multiple epidermal growth factor-like domains 10	2	0
Neurogenic locus Notch protein	2	0
Neuropeptide CCHamide-1	2	0
nose resistant to fluoxetine 6- partial; nose resistant to fluoxetine 6-like	2	0
odorant binding 10	2	0
odorant binding 9	2	0
PREDICTED: meteorin-like protein	2	0
PREDICTED: spondin-1-like	2	0
Probable G-protein coupled receptor Mth-like 1	2	0
probable serine threonine- kinase nek3	2	0

 Table S3 cont.

Protein		
Protein yellow	2	0
proto-oncogene tyrosine- kinase ROS	2	0
Putative UDP-glucuronosyltransferase ugt-47	2	0
synaptic vesicular amine transporter isoform X1	2	0
Thioredoxin domain-containing protein	2	0
transmembrane emp24 domain-containing bai-like isoform X2	2	0
Transmembrane emp24 domain-containing protein A	2	0
uncharacterized family 31 glucosidase KIAA1161-like	2	0
Angiotensin-converting enzyme	1	0
Beta-amyloid-like protein	1	0
canopy homolog 4-like precursor	1	0
Cathepsin L	1	0
flocculation FLO11-like	1	0
prostatic spermine-binding -like	1	0
Protein 60A	1	0
Putative acid phosphatase 5	1	0
Slit homolog 1 protein	1	0
sulfhydryl oxidase 2-like	1	0
Translocon-associated protein subunit alpha	1	0
Cathepsin B-like cysteine proteinase 4	5	1
Chorion peroxidase	5	2
esterase E4-like isoform X1	5	1
carbonic anhydrase 7-like	3	1
Collagen alpha-1(IV) chain	2	1
cathepsin D	2	1
Vitellogenin-1	2	1
Ejaculatory bulb-specific protein 3	1	3
Protein takeout	1	1
15 kDa seleno -like precursor	1	1
Probable sodium/potassium/calcium exchanger CG1090	1	1
Phosphatidylethanolamine-binding protein homolog F40A3.3	1	1
Neuroglian	1	1
Cuticle protein 18.6, isoform B	1	1
WD repeat-containing 18	1	1
transmembrane emp24 domain-containing eca	1	1
Translocon-associated protein subunit beta	1	1
PREDICTED: uncharacterized protein LOC100160421	1	1

892   Table S4

893   Gene ontology annotations of genes from salivary glands of *Phloeomyzus passerinii*. All genes belonged

894   to the Molecular Function category.

Gene Ontology (GO)	Number of sequences
protein binding	55
nucleic acid binding	19
structural constituent of cuticle	16
phosphatidylinositol phosphate kinase activity	15
serine-type endopeptidase activity	15
zinc ion binding	13
chitin binding	13
DNA binding	13
metal ion binding	12
calcium ion binding	12
odorant binding	9
ATP binding	9
hydrolase activity	7
protein dimerization activity	7
hormone activity	6
oxidoreductase activity	6
cysteine-type endopeptidase activity	6
peroxidase activity	5
metalloendopeptidase activity	5
nucleotide binding	5
heme binding	5
carboxylic ester hydrolase activity	4
DNA-binding transcription factor activity	4
peptide-methionine (S)-S-oxide reductase activity	4
protein-hormone receptor activity	3
triglyceride lipase activity	3
nuclease activity	3
RNA binding	3
N-acetyltransferase activity	3
catalytic activity	3
transporter activity	3
acetylcholine-gated cation-selective channel activity	3
transferase activity, transferring hexosyl groups	3
hydrolase activity, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl compounds	3
peptidase activity	3
chitinase activity	3
metallopeptidase activity	3
aspartic-type endopeptidase activity	2
3'-5' exonuclease activity	2
serine-type endopeptidase inhibitor activity	2
hydrolase activity, acting on glycosyl bonds	2
oxidoreductase activity, acting on CH-OH group of donors	2
cellulase activity	2
leucine-tRNA ligase activity	2
structural constituent of cell wall	2
acid phosphatase activity	2
G-protein coupled receptor activity	2
heparin binding	2
scavenger receptor activity	2
sulfuric ester hydrolase activity	2
cation binding	2
protein tyrosine kinase activity	2
growth factor activity	2
transferase activity	2

Table S4 cont.

extracellular matrix structural constituent	2
transition metal ion binding	2
carbohydrate binding	2
obsolete signal transducer activity	2
cholinesterase activity	2
RNA-DNA hybrid ribonuclease activity	2
iron ion binding	2
aminoacyl-tRNA editing activity	2
serine-type peptidase activity	2
GTP binding	2
transferase activity, transferring glycosyl groups	2
flavin adenine dinucleotide binding	2
structural constituent of ribosome	2
G-protein beta/gamma-subunit complex binding	1
cysteine-type peptidase activity	1
mRNA binding	1
DNA-directed 5'-3' RNA polymerase activity	1
transmembrane receptor protein serine/threonine kinase activity	1
lysozyme activity	1
unfolded protein binding	1
omega peptidase activity	1
iron-sulfur cluster binding	1
alpha,alpha-trehalase activity	1
protein kinase binding	1
sequence-specific DNA binding	1
voltage-gated potassium channel activity	1
endopeptidase inhibitor activity	1
transmembrane transporter activity	1
protein kinase activity	1
copper ion binding	1
DNA-directed DNA polymerase activity	1
endonuclease activity	1
carboxypeptidase activity	1
O-acyltransferase activity	1
hedgehog receptor activity	1
isomerase activity	1
proton transmembrane transporter activity	1
GTPase activator activity	1
cis-stilbene-oxide hydrolase activity	1
carbonate dehydratase activity	1
metallocarboxypeptidase activity	1
cation transmembrane transporter activity	1
phosphatase activity	1
extracellular ligand-gated ion channel activity	1
cysteine dioxygenase activity	1
ion channel inhibitor activity	1
transmembrane receptor protein tyrosine kinase activity	1
protein heterodimerization activity	1
polysaccharide binding	1
G-protein coupled receptor binding	1
1-alkyl-2-acetylglycerophosphocholine esterase activity	1
sulfotransferase activity	1
ATPase activity, coupled to transmembrane movement of substances	1

ubiquitin protein ligase binding	1
phospholipase A2 activity	1
poly(A)-specific ribonuclease activity	1
obsolete signal transducer, downstream of receptor, with serine/threonine kinase activity	1
glucosylceramidase activity	1
hydrolase activity, acting on carbon-nitrogen (but not peptide) bonds	1
ionotropic glutamate receptor activity	1
signaling receptor binding	1
GPI-anchor transamidase activity	1
extracellularly glutamate-gated ion channel activity	1
dolichyl-diphosphooligosaccharide-protein glycotransferase activity	1
thiol oxidase activity	1
phosphatidylinositol N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase activity	1
ion channel activity	1
oxidoreductase activity, acting on the aldehyde or oxo group of donors, NAD or NADP as acceptor	1
peptidyl-dipeptidase activity	1
FMN binding	1
electron transfer activity	1
lipid transporter activity	1
transferase activity, transferring acyl groups other than amino-acyl groups	1
beta-glucuronidase activity	1
alpha-mannosidase activity	1
GTPase activity	1
hydrolase activity, acting on carbon-nitrogen (but not peptide) bonds, in linear amides	1
protein serine/threonine kinase activity	1
succinate dehydrogenase activity	1
mannosyl-oligosaccharide 1,2-alpha-mannosidase activity	1

Figure S1: Pipeline for the annotation process. Data are in orange, analyses in blue, results in green.

Fig. S2 Mean (± SE) log$_2$-fold changes of several poplar genes after incubation of I-214 poplar protoplasts

with different doses (1, 10, 20 , 40 and 80 µg) of salivary proteins of *Phloeomyzus passerinii* (upper

graph) and *Myzus persicae* (lower graph). Two biological replicates were performed for *P. passerinii* and

one for *M. persicae*.

Fig. S3: FDA assay on poplar protoplasts after 3 h of incubation with salivary proteins of *Phloeomyzus*

passerinii (A, B) and *Myzus persicae* (C, D). Black bars represent 25 µm. Most protoplasts were

fluorescent after treatment, indicating that incubation with salivary proteins of aphids did not affect

their survival.