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

gene responses of susceptible and resistant poplar genotypes

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Authors' contribution

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

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

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Abstract

Successful plant colonization by parasites requires the circumvention of host defenses, and sometimes a reprogramming of host metabolism, mediated by effector molecules delivered into the host. Using transcriptomic and enzymatic approaches, we characterized salivary glands and saliva of *Phloeomyzus passerinii*, an aphid exhibiting an atypical feeding strategy. Plant genes responses to salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* and *Myzus persicae* were assessed with poplar protoplasts of a susceptible and a resistant genotype, and in a heterologous *Arabidopsis* system. We predict that *P. passerinii* secretes a highly peculiar saliva containing effectors potentially interfering with host defenses, biotic stress signaling and plant metabolism, notably phosphatidylinositol phosphate kinases which seemed specific to *P. passerinii*. Gene expression profiles indicated that salivary extracts of *M. persicae* markedly affected host defenses and biotic stress signaling, while salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* induced only weak responses. The effector-triggered susceptibility was characterized by downregulations of genes involved in cytokinin signaling and auxin homeostasis. This suggests that *P. passerinii* induces an intracellular accumulation of auxin in susceptible host genotypes, which is supported by histochemical assays in *Arabidopsis*. This might in turn affect biotic stress signaling and contribute to host tissue manipulation by the aphid.

Keywords

Effector, effector-triggered susceptibility, *Myzus persicae*, plant-insect interaction, *Populus*, resistance, auxin, cytokinin

1 Introduction

In nature, plants engage in multiple interactions with a variety of organisms, resulting in either beneficial or detrimental impacts on plant performance. These interplays are mediated by effectors delivered into the host-plant, either in the apoplast or within plant cells [1, 2]. Effectors can be defined as molecules secreted by plant-associated organisms that alter host cell structure and function, positively or negatively depending on the partners involved [1]. This can be achieved through a direct modification of host molecules, or of their activity, by effectors with enzymatic or binding activities, or a modification of host gene expression by effectors with a nucleic acid binding activity [3].

Within the frame of host-parasite interactions, effectors have evolved to target various host functions and key processes. They primarily aim at suppressing plant immunity [1, 3]. For instance, parasites can target and inactivate plant second messengers involved in stress signaling such as Ca^{2+}, reactive oxygen species (ROS) and extracellular ATP with cation-binding effectors, peroxiredoxins and apyrases, respectively [4, 5]. In some situations, effectors can also alter plant development, and promote the manipulation of plant resources by parasites [1, 3, 6]. For example, several pathogens secrete effectors which induce the production of sugar efflux transporters and hijack host sugars for their own nutrition [7]. Similar reconfiguration of host plant metabolism and tissues, to turn them into optimal substrates for development and fitness, have also been reported in plant pests [e.g. 6, 8, 9]. Successful interactions among parasite effectors and their targets lead to an effector-triggered susceptibility [3]. Nonetheless, resistant plant genotypes have evolved receptors, mostly with nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat (NB-LRR), that specifically interact with parasite effectors to induce an effector-triggered immunity [10]. Microbial pathogen effectors have been extensively studied [e.g. 11, 12]. Comparatively, effectors of insect herbivores and their impact on host plants have received only a limited attention until recently [13, 14]. Evidence indicates that both effector-triggered susceptibility and immunity also occur in plant-

insect interactions [e.g. 15, 16]. Consequently, as for pathogens, a deep mechanistic understanding of

effector action, i.e. an identification of effectors involved in the interplay and of their targets in host-

plants, would be necessary to develop a sustainable management of agricultural and forestry pests,

based on resistant plant genotypes [17].

The woolly poplar aphid, *Phloeomyzus passerinii* Sign., is a major pest of poplar plantations in the

Mediterranean Basin, the Near East and France [18]. This aphid does not feed on sap but in the cortical

parenchyma of its host-trees, where it induces a reaction tissue presumably acting as a physiological

sink, draining nutrients from surrounding tissues [18, 19, 20]. During aphid outbreaks, when poplar

trunks are covered with aphid colonies, the accumulation of reaction tissues dramatically affects host

allocations of non-structural carbohydrates and nitrogen compounds, and infested mature trees can die

rapidly, within a few months [18, 21]. Such outbreaks only occur in stands of susceptible poplar

genotypes. Detailed histochemical investigations during early stages of infestation have unraveled that

tissues affected by the unusually damaging probing activity of *P. passerinii* in these susceptible

genotypes exhibit weak defense reactions, with limited lignification and accumulation of phenolic

compounds [19, 20]. During later stages, a reaction tissue differentiate in the cortical parenchyma,

characterized by an intense cell multiplication and hypertrophy, an accumulation of free and protein-

bound amino acids, and an absence of both vacuolar phenolic compounds and starch granules [20, 22].

The differentiation of this reaction tissue improves both aphid performance and feeding behavior [23].

Conversely, in resistant poplar genotypes, an intense lignification and a marked accumulation of phenolic

compounds occur readily after the onset of probing, blocking further differentiation of reaction tissues

and preventing aphid colonization [18, 20]. It is therefore likely that *P. passerinii* induces either an

effector-triggered susceptibility in susceptible poplar genotypes, allowing a beneficial manipulation of

host tissue for the aphid, or a rapid and intense immunity response in resistant poplar genotypes

preventing aphid nutrition. In-depth functional approaches would allow to unravel the molecular

mechanisms that contribute to either the success or the failure of this pest establishment on its host-

plant, which could ultimately help to improve poplar breeding programmes.

We hypothesize (i) that since it has a peculiar feeding strategy for an aphid [23], and it can hijack and

reconfigure the metabolism of its host plant to improve its nutritional value, *P. passerinii* should possess

a rich and atypical repertoire of salivary effectors compared to other sap-feeding aphids. Considering

that susceptible hosts implement weak defense reactions when infested, we further hypothesize (ii) that

salivary effectors successfully alter biotic stress signaling and / or defense molecules in these host

genotypes to induce an effector-triggered susceptibility. Alternatively, in resistant hosts, the effector-

triggered immunity should lead to a marked upregulation of defense-related genes. Finally, since it can

manipulate host metabolism and anatomy, our last hypothesis (iii) is that some of its salivary effectors of

P. passerinii can target genes involved in the cell-division cycle and / or induce the disruption or diversion

of auxin and/or cytokinin-dependent pathways, which are important regulators of plant growth,

differentiation and defense [6, 24].

More specifically, our first objective was to characterize with transcriptomic and enzymatic approaches

the salivary gland encoded proteins and saliva, respectively, of *P. passerinii*. Our second objective was 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. Protoplasts were used to

simulate a host cellular response to salivary effectors of aphids. Our last objective was to investigate the

impact of salivary extracts on specific gene expression *in planta*, in a heterologous *Arabidopsis* system.

For all these steps comparative approaches were used. The predicted salivary gland encoded proteins of

P. passerinii were compared with those of a sap-feeding aphid, *Myzus persicae* (Sulzer) [25, 26], 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 immune system and metabolism during both an effector-

triggered susceptibility and an immune response, the impact of salivary extracts on gene expression

were assessed with poplar genotypes either susceptible or resistant to *P. passerinii*. To compare with

non-host interactions, the protoplasts of these poplar genotypes were also exposed to salivary extracts

of *M. persicae*, which do not feed on poplar.

2   Materials and Methods

2.1 Plant and insect material

Two aphid species were considered in our study: *P. passerinii*, our model species, and the green peach

aphid, *M. persicae*. Both aphid species 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]. Compared to *P. passerinii*, *M. persicae* exhibit a quite different feeding strategy since it is a sap-

feeder, which host range does not include poplars, and preliminary establishment attempts confirmed

that it cannot settle and develop on poplars (data not shown). Firstly, considering both species allowed

to compare secretomes from two aphids with distinct feeding strategies, and to test whether the

atypical feeding strategy of *P. passerinii* results in an unusual saliva composition, particularly enriched

with potential effectors. Secondly, it allowed to compare poplar response during an interaction with a

specialist parasite, to poplar response during a non-host species interaction, i.e. an interaction that

would act as a positive control for defense reaction.

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. 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).

Two *P. x canadensis* genotypes commonly planted in France, I-214 and Koster, were used for the

experiments. *Populus x canadensis* is a host species for *P. passerinii*. However, both genotypes differ in

their susceptibility to *P. passerinii*. I-214 is highly susceptible. The aphid shows high performance when

fed with this genotype, and can induce its reaction tissue within its cortical parenchyma. Conversely *P.*

passerinii cannot settle on Koster, and consequently induce a reaction tissue. This genotype is

consequently considered to be highly resistant [18]. Considering these two poplar genotypes allowed to

investigate interactions with *P. passerinii* leading either to an effector-triggered susceptibility, with the

susceptible I-214 genotype, or to resistance, with the resistant Koster genotype. *Populus x canadensis* is

not a host species for *M. persicae* and non-host species interactions between this aphid and both poplar

genotypes were consequently expected. 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). Leaves

were then used for protoplast production (see 2.3.3).

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 were conducted and the individual assemblies were

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 was 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 were 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]) was 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 was

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], were 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 [4]. 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 [4]. Both types of saliva contain

effectors [e.g. 4, 47], and were collected in our experiments. Because of the particular trophic substrates

of *M. persicae* and *P. passerinii* (i.e. sap and cortical tissues, respectively), a special protocol was 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. [25]. 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 [19, 20]. 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, (ii)

have an identical exposure duration and intensity to salivary extracts among biological replicates, and

(iii) avoid the effects of physical stimuli exerted by aphid stylets on plant cells. 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). This

incubation duration allowed to observe early gene response to salivary effectors before cell walls start to

replenish [52]. 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 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 [53] 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. 54]. 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 was 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 [55]. 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 [56]. RT-qPCR results were expressed as fold-changes in gene expression compared to the reference gene *PtUBQ10*. Fold-changes were log$_2$ -transformed. Following this transformation, fold-changes varied between $-\infty$ and $+\infty$, 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 were 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() [57]. 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) were annotated

for *P. passerinii* and 190 for *M. persicae*. Using OrthoVenn, 121 and 58 protein clusters were 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 gland encoded 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 interactions with the salivary

proteins of *M. persicae* (i.e. non-host species interactions) were grouped within a significant cluster, in

which a majority of poplar genes were upregulated. Within this cluster, replicates were not arranged

according to poplar genotype. Biological replicates of the interaction between salivary proteins of *P.*

passerinii and Koster (i.e. the host species – resistant genotype) also clustered together, although the

cluster was significant for only two replicates. In this group, a majority of genes were weakly expressed

or upregulated. For biological replicates of the interaction between salivary proteins of *P. passerinii* and

I-214 (i.e. the host species - susceptible genotype), a majority were weakly expressed or 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 species interactions between salivary proteins of *M. persicae*

and both poplar genotypes biosynthetic genes were either not affected (*PtYUCCA*) or downregulated

(*PtNIT1*) while *PtGH3*, which is involved in auxin inactivaton via conjugation, was upregulated (Fig. 4).

PtAPB1 (signaling) and *PtPIN1* (auxin efflux carrier) were also significantly upregulated, but only during

the interaction between *M. persicae* and I-214. No change was observed in the expression of the auxin

influx carrier *PtAUX1*. For *P. passerinii*, during the interaction with Koster these genes displayed an

expression profile quite similar to that observed during non-host species interactions with *M. persicae*,

except for *PtNIT1* whose expression was not affected. The expression of *PtGH3* was significantly

downregulated during the interaction between salivary proteins of *P. passerinii* and I-214, and *PtGH3*,

PtAPB1 and *PtPIN1* were differentially expressed during the interaction with this susceptible genotype

compared to non-host species interactions with *M. persicae*, and compared to the interaction with the

resistant genotype for *PtAPB1* only (Fig. 4).

For the cytokinin pathway, during the non-host species interaction between salivary proteins of *M.*

persicae and I-214 *PtIPT* (biosynthesis), *PtAHK4* (perception) and *PtARR2* (signaling) were upregulated

while *PtLOG5* (metabolism) was significantly downregulated (Fig. 4). A similar expression profile was

observed during the non-host species interaction with Koster, but only *PtAHK4* and *PtLOG5* were

significantly affected. These genes were not significantly affected during the interaction between salivary

proteins of *P. passerinii* and Koster. In contrast, *PtARR2* was strongly repressed during the *P. passerinii* –

I-214 interaction, and *PtAHK4* and *PtARR2* were differentially expressed during this interaction compared

to the other ones (Fig. 4).

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

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

frequently significant for the interaction with I-214 than for the interaction 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 salivary proteins of *P. passerinii*, all genes were weakly

downregulated during the interaction with the susceptible genotype. In contrast, during the interaction

with the resistant genotype most genes were either not affected or exhibited profiles as during non-host

species interactions with *M. persicae*, with weak upregulations. Nonetheless, for these modalities, no

gene expression significantly differed from the controls (Fig. 5). In most cases, gene expressions during

the interaction with the susceptible genotype were significantly lower than during non-host species

interactions with I-214, and, in fewer cases, lower than during non-host species interactions with Koster.

For interactions with *P. passerinii*, only *PtCOI1* and *PtEIN3* genes were differentially expressed during

interactions with either the susceptible or the resistant genotype. Conversely, since gene expressions

during interactions with the resistant genotype were weakly upregulated, they generally did not differ

from those observed during non-host species interactions with Koster, and differed from non-host

species 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 host and non-

host interactions with Koster.

For genes involved in the phenolic compounds pathway (Fig. 5), non-host species interactions, especially

with I-214, led to an upregulation of all the considered genes. All genes were weakly, but not

significantly, downregulated or upregulated during interactions between the saliva of *P. passerinii* and

either the susceptible genotype or the resistant genotype, respectively. For I-214, gene expression was

always significantly lower during the interaction with the saliva of *P. passerinii* compared to the

interaction with the saliva of *M. persicae*. For *PtF5H*, expression was also significantly lower during the *P.*

passerinii – I-214 interaction compared to other interactions.

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

significantly upregulated during non-host species interactions with *M. persicae*, while *PtCAK1* was

significantly downregulated (Fig. 6). *PtCYCD5* and *PtACO1* were also upregulated but only during non-

host species interactions with I-214. Likewise, *PtCDK5* and *PtCDK20* were also significantly upregulated

during the *P. passerinii* - Koster interaction, as well as *PtCAK1*. Expression of *PtMCM2* and *PtRBR* was not

affected by salivary extracts. *PtCDK20* was differentially expressed during the *P. passerinii* - I-214

interaction compared to other ones. Likewise, during the *P. passerinii* - Koster interaction the expression

of *PtCTR1* was much lower compared to non-host species ones and expression of *PtE3UL*, *PtE2F* and

PtACO1 were lower compared to expression during non-host species interactions with I-214. For *PtCAK1*,

the expression was higher during the *P. passerinii* - Koster interaction than during non-host species 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

Successful plant colonization by parasites generally requires the circumvention or inactivation of host

defenses, and sometimes a finely tuned reprogramming of host metabolism. As a consequence, the

lifestyle and feeding strategy of parasites should have both quantitative and qualitative outcomes on

their secretome [e.g. 11, 58]. In line with this, 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 [59, 60]. Our results tend to support this assertion since the predicted salivary

gland proteins of *P. passerinii* and *M. persicae* shared few similarities, and poplar gene expression

profiles markedly differed when protoplasts were exposed to salivary proteins of these two aphid

species. The salivary transcriptome of *P. passerinii* also hold specific and abundant PIP kinases

sequences, which have never been reported from any other aphid saliva. Nonetheless, several protein

functions predicted in our study (e.g. calcium-binding, DNA-binding, ATP-binding, GTP-binding proteins,

glucose dehydrogenases, oxidoreductases, trehalases and phosphatases) have also been identified in the

saliva of different sap-feeding aphid species [22, 59, 61, 62], and in secretions of other plant parasites [3,

63]. Interestingly, calcium-binding proteins are supposedly key components of the saliva of sap-feeding

aphids, preventing the plugging of sieve tubes [4]. Since *P. passerinii* does not feed on sap [19], it

suggests that these proteins also play other crucial roles during aphid-plant interactions. In addition to

their different feeding strategies, the two aphid species are also phylogenetically distant [27], which

should further increase the dissimilarity of their secretomes. It should be noted also that the

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

assembly methods [64]. This probably explains the difference in transcripts amounts gathered for both

aphids and several encoded proteins in salivary glands 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.

Several encoded proteins detected in the salivary glands of *P. passerinii* may interfere with host defenses

via direct interactions with secondary metabolites or defense proteins. The interaction between *P.*

passerinii and susceptible poplar genotypes is characterized by transient accumulation of phenolic

compounds, which fade away during later stages of the interaction [20]. Salivary effectors might

contribute to the degradation of these secondary metabolites as numerous oxidoreductase sequences

were identified in the salivary gland transcriptome of *P. passerinii*. Moreover, *in situ* biochemical assays

confirmed the presence of active peroxidases and phenoloxidases in both solid and soluble saliva

fractions of *P. passerinii*. The predicted glucose dehydrogenases may also help *P. passerinii* to detoxify

defensive compounds of the host-plant [11, 60]. Likewise, plant defense proteins might be inactivated by

the numerous protein-binding proteins and proteases predicted among the salivary gland encoded

proteins of *P. passerinii*. Parasites frequently secrete similar effectors to degrade or modulate the plant

enzymes activities [3]. Nonetheless, no protease 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. A proteomic analysis of salivary extracts should also confirm and

complement the predictions of our transcriptomic approach [65, 66].

Several salivary gland encoded proteins may also affect host defense *via* a disruption of biotic stress

signaling. PIP kinases catalyze phosphorylation of phosphatidyl-inositol into phosphatidylinositol-4-5-

biphosphate (PIP$_2$). The hydrolysis of PIP$_2$ produces secondary messengers like inositol-1-4-5-

triphosphate (IP$_3$) and diacylglycerol (DAG). This latter 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 [67]. PIP$_2$ and IP$_3$ might also affect cellular oscillations of cytosolic Ca^{2+} and are involved in

multiple processes including cell cycle and phytohormone regulation [68]. Other proteins, also frequently

detected in parasites, including aphids, may also interfere with secondary messengers like calcium-

binding, ATP-binding, and GTP-binding proteins or with hormone signaling like hormone-binding proteins

[3, 5, 6, 59]. Similarly, it has been hypothesized that trehalase may interfere with trehalose-based

defense responses in *A. thaliana* [61].

Finally, several salivary gland encoded proteins could also contribute to the manipulation of host-plant

metabolism. For instance, nucleic acid-binding proteins could affect gene expression, while protein-

binding and hormone-binding proteins could modulate metabolic and phytohormonal pathways [3, 59].

In addition, serine proteases, acid phosphatases, cellulases, lipases and metalloproteases have also been

predicted or detected in the secretions of different gall-inducing organisms, and supposedly contribute

to gall induction and / or maintenance [63, 69].

Both the *in vivo* approach with protoplasts and the heterologous *in planta* assay with *A. thaliana*

confirmed that salivary proteins of *P. passerinii* impact plant gene transcription, in a specific manner.

Gene expression profiles markedly differed, especially in terms of intensity, between non-host species

interactions with *M. persicae* and host species interactions with *P. passerinii*. Non-host species

interactions led to an upregulation of most genes involved in jasmonate, ethylene and salicylic acid

pathways, which are typically activated following aphid feeding, together or separately, depending on

the aphid – plant interaction system considered [70, 71, 72]. As a consequence, genes related to

secondary metabolism, i.e. *PtF3'5'H, PtANT* and *PtF5H*, were also upregulated during these interactions.

Conversely, the expression of genes related to biotic stress signaling and defense was either unaffected

or slightly downregulated or upregulated during interactions with a susceptible and a resistant genotype

of the host species, respectively. This suggests that salivary effectors of *P. passerinii* manage to inactivate

or bypass the biotic stress signaling in their host plant, as frequently observed in plant-parasites

interactions [1, 3]. Non-host species interactions with the two poplar genotypes led to similar gene

expression profiles while, for interactions with *P. passerinii*, the expression of several genes differed

according to host genotype. Among them, the expression of several genes involved in biotic stress

signaling (*PtCOI1*, *PtEIN3*), and defense (*PtF5H*), was significantly higher during the interaction with the

resistant genotype than during the interaction with the susceptible one. The overall trend of lack of

response or downregulation of genes involved in defense or biotic signaling observed during the

interaction between salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* and the susceptible host genotype is congruent with

gene expression profiles observed during effector-triggered susceptibility in other plant-parasite systems

[73, 74].

Although different from the interaction with a susceptible genotype, the interaction between the

resistant genotype and *P. passerinii* did not lead to marked upregulations of genes related to biotic stress

signaling or defense. Gene expression profiles of poplar protoplasts during the interaction between *P.*

passerinii and the resistant poplar genotype shared many similarities with those observed during non-

host species 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 species interactions

than during host species interaction with the resistant host genotype, for which only few significant

upregulations were observed. 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 the interaction with the resistant genotype while they were significantly downregulated during

non-host species interactions. Effector-triggered immunity is generally a strong defense response,

associated with extensive and rapid transcriptional reprogramming [10, 74, 75]. This was not detected

during interactions between *P. passerinii* and the resistant host genotype. Nonetheless the reprograming

can take place within few hours [75], and the incubation duration might have been too short to detect an

extensive reprogramming. Slightly longer incubation durations might solve this issue.

To knock-down or divert stress signaling parasites may also reconfigure auxin and cytokinin signaling

pathways [1, 6, 76]. Both RT-qPCR experiments and histochemical assays confirmed that *P. passerinii* can

actively manipulate both auxin and cytokinin pathways during an interaction with a susceptible host

genotype. 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 active auxin forms [77]. This could lead to intracellular accumulation of active auxin

forms, which is supported by the activation of the auxin-responsive promoter *IAA2* during *in planta*

assays with transgenic seedlings of *A. thaliana*. Auxin accumulation could in turn interfere with salicylic

acid signaling and defense responses [77], which would be congruent with the overall absence of

response of genes related to the salicylic acid pathway (Fig. 9). 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*) could correspond to an auxin accumulation-

induced regulation loop [78, 79]. This downregulation of *PtAHK4* and *PtARR2* could also interfere with

stress signaling by preventing both accumulation of jasmonate and activation of *PtPR1* [80] (Fig. 9).

The intracellular accumulation of active auxin forms could also contribute to the targeted cell

hypertrophy and multiplication commonly observed in the reaction tissues induced by *P. passerinii* in

susceptible poplar genotypes [20] (Fig. 9). 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 [81]. However, exposure of protoplasts of the susceptible genotype to the

salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* did not affect expression of genes involved in the cell-division cycle, or

weakly downregulated them. Only one gene involved in cell-division cycle (i.e. *PtCDK20*) was

differentially expressed during interactions with either a susceptible or a resistant host genotype.

Additional experiments considering genes coding for cell wall remodeling enzymes, activated early

during root-knot nematode-induced giant cell differentiation, or for cytoskeleton should provide further

insight into the mechanisms associated with the differentiation of hypertrophied cells in this system [73].

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 *P.*

passerinii to interfere with host response during interactions with a susceptible host genotype. As

expected auxin and cytokinin 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, interactions with non-host species and with a resistant genotype of a host species 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 [18], and additional host metabolic

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

NB-LRR proteins, involved in the induction of effector-triggered immunity following the recognition of

parasite effectors [10, 82], respond to salivary extracts of *P. passerinii* should give further insights into

the molecular processes underpinning failed and successful host infestation by *P. passerinii*. Similarly,

investigating the response of genes coding for early nodulin-like proteins, recently characterized in the

genome of *P. trichocarpa* [83], could help to unravel the molecular mechanisms underpinning host

manipulation, since these genes are targeted by several gall-inducing organisms [84, 85].

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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 species interactions are expected between both poplar

genotypes and *M. persicae*. Poplar is a host plant for *P. passerinii* but Koster is a resistant genotype while

I-214 is a susceptible genotype. 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 was 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.

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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 resistant or susceptible

interactions with a host species or non-host species 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.

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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 resistant or susceptible interactions with a host species or non-host species

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 resistant or susceptible interactions

with a host species or non-host species 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

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

910 ** assessed on 1066 core genes

911   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 monoxygenase 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	CAAGCGGGCAGTTCTAAACGAG	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

919 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	TGAGTCTTGCTGGGCCAATGAAC	TCATGCCTGCAAGACCAGGTTG	113	63.8	53.4	63.0
Ethylene	ACO1	POPTR_0004s00460	Aminocyclopropanecarboxylate oxidase	TGGAGGTGATCAATGATGCCTGTG	ATCCCATGGTTCACCAACTCAAAG	60	62.4	48.9	58.7
Ethylene	EIN3	POPTR_0001s05360	ETHYLENE-INSENSITIVE3-like 3 protein	AACTGCAGCGCAACCATTTCTG	ACAACTGTTAAGGCAGCACCTC	74	62.3	50.0	58.9
Ethylene	ADMS1	POPTR_0014s11000	S-adenosylmethionine synthetase 1	TCGTAGGTGCATTGTGCAAGTC	TGCCATAGGTGTCCACAAAGACAG	79	62.5	50.0	60.8
Ethylene	ERF1	POPTR_0001s36610	Ethylene responsive element binding factor 3	CTTCTTCTTTGTGCCGCAAGCC	ATCACCAGAGCCCAAGTCAACC	80	63.2	54.5	61.3
Ethylene	EIN2	POPTR_0016s09210	ethylene-insensitive protein 2	TAAGCGAGGAGAGTGTGTTTGCC	ATTTGGTGGTCCCTGATGTTGCAG	109	63.6	52.2	61.7
Ethylene	ETO1	POPTR_0016s13180	ETO1-LIKE PROTEIN 2-RELATED	CTCTATAAGAGAGCACGGGAACGG	TTTCCCTGAGGAACACTGGCTCTC	67	63.6	54.2	59.6
Jasmonic acid	AOS	POPTR_0004s15600	allene oxide synthase	TGAACCTCCGGTTCCATTCCAG	ATAGGCCGCGTGATGACTTTCG	73	63.1	54.5	61.0
Jasmonic acid	JAZ1	POPTR_0001s16640	jasmonate ZIM domain-containing protein	TGAAGCGCCTAACGGTTCAGATG	GGAGAAGAACCGATGAAGTGATGC	64	62.9	51.1	59.8
Jasmonic acid	MFP	POPTR_0010s01570	MULTIFUNCTIONAL PROTEIN	GGAAGGAAGCAGGACTAAGGGAAG	GTCCTTCAAGCTGTACAACACGTC	124	62.6	52.1	61.9
Jasmonic acid	JAR1	POPTR_0014s09120	jasmonic acid-amino synthetase	GAGTGTTGCAATTGCCTGGATCG	ATGGCCTTCACCTTCCGTGAAC	71	63.3	53.4	60.6
Jasmonic acid	MYC2	POPTR_0002s17750	transcription factor MYC2	CGTGAACAGAAGAACGCTCGTG	AAGACAGGCCTGGTTTATTAGCG	70	62.0	51.2	58.1
Jasmonic acid	COI1	POPTR_0008s06460	CORONATINE INSENSITIVE 1	AGCACTTCCGCTCTAGGTACAC	AGGTTAAGCTAACTGCCACAGACG	61	62.7	52.3	58.8
Jasmonic acid	OPR3	POPTR_0018s07120	12-oxophytodienoate reductase	ACAAGATGTAGGGCGTTGAATGGG	TTCCAGGCACATGAGGAAACCC	142	63.4	52.3	65.7
Phenolics	F3'5'H	POPTR_0007s06300	Flavonoid 3',5'-hydroxylase / F3'5'H	GCTGCGAAGCATATCTCTTACGTG	ACGCATGCCCTCATGAATCAC	139	62.4	52.3	61.6
Phenolics	ANT	POPTR_0001s40590	Anthocyanin 5-O-glucoside 6'''-O-malonyltransferase	AAGTCGTTTAGACCCTCCTCTTCC	ATGTGACGAGCCACAACAGTATC	63	61.6	48.9	57.9
Phenolics	F5H	POPTR_0007s13720	ferulate-5-hydroxylase	TGATGTTTGGTGGGACAGAGACG	TCTTCATTAGCTCCGCCATGACC	66	63.0	52.2	61.6
ROS	SOD	POPTR_0005s09190	SUPEROXIDE DISMUTASE	GATTTCAACAATGCTGCCCAGGTC	TGCCAAGTTCTGGCATGTCTCC	66	62.7	51.1	57.8
ROS	CAT	POPTR_0005s27300	CATALASE 3	TTCTGCTGTCTGCAGTGGAAGG	CGAACGAAACGTTCTTGCCTGTC	113	62.9	54.5	62.9
Salicylic acid	PR1	POPTR_0001s29530	Pathogenesis-related protein	CTACGTCAATGCCCACAATAATGC	CTGCCACATTAGTGTCCCAGAC	74	61.2	50.2	59.6
Salicylic acid	EDS1	POPTR_0015s08100	ENHANCED DISEASE SUSCEPTIBILITY 1	GAATGACCTAGGCCTGAGTGAAAG	TTCTCTAACGCTTCAGCAGCAC	63	61.4	50.0	59.7
Salicylic acid	NPR1	POPTR_0014s11120	NPR1 interacting (NPR1_interact)	CCCTGCATACAACAACCAACAAC	TCGCGAATGCCCTTGATGAG	137	61.2	51.4	60.2
Salicylic acid	PR5	POPTR_0005s26240	receptor serine/threonine kinase PR5K	ACAGCTACACACCACTCGTCAAC	AGATGGCGATGCTCCATTCTGG	71	63.4	53.4	60.6
Salicylic acid	NDR1	POPTR_0012s12790	NDR1/HIN1-LIKE	GCAACAACTGCAGGCTGGAATC	AGCTTGATTCTCACAGGCTGGTC	62	62.9	54.5	60.2

922   Table S3: Number of orthologous proteins between the salivary transcriptomes of *Phloeomyzus*

923   *passerinii* and *Myzus persicae.*

Proteins	*P. passerinii*	*M. persicae*
Ejaculatory bulb-specific protein 3	1	3
Chorion peroxidase	5	2
Cathepsin B-like cysteine proteinase 4	5	1
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
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
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

925   Table S3 cont.

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
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

927   Table S4: Gene ontology annotations of genes from salivary glands of *Phloeomyzus passerinii*. All genes

928   belonged 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

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.