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A bacterial effector protein prevents MAPK-mediated phosphorylation of SGT1

to suppress plant immunity

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Abstract

Nucleotide-binding domain and leucine-rich repeat-containing (NLR) proteins function as sensors that perceive pathogen molecules and activate immunity. In plants, the accumulation and activation of NLRs is regulated by SUPPRESSOR OF G2 ALLELE OF *skp1* (SGT1). In this work, we found that the plant pathogen *Ralstonia solanacearum* secretes an effector protein, named RipAC, inside plant cells, and it associates with SGT1 to suppress NLR-mediated SGT1-dependent immune responses. RipAC does not affect the accumulation of SGT1, NLRs, or their interaction. However, RipAC inhibits the interaction between SGT1 and MAP kinases, and the phosphorylation of a MAPK target motif in the C-terminal domain of SGT1, which is required for the interaction with NLRs. Such phosphorylation releases the interaction between SGT1 and the NLR RPS2, and contributes to the activation of RPS2-mediated responses. Our results shed light onto the mechanism of activation of NLR-mediated immunity, and suggest a positive feedback loop between MAPK activation and SGT1-dependent NLR activation.

Significance Statement

The activation of immune receptors that perceive pathogen molecules and initiate

immune signaling is tightly regulated. In plants and animals, SGT1 is a major

regulator of the accumulation and activation of such receptors, although the

mechanisms of this regulation are not well understood. In this work, we found that the

plant pathogenic bacteria *Ralstonia solanacearum*, causal agent of the bacterial wilt

disease, secretes an effector protein inside plant cells that suppresses the

phosphorylation-dependent activation of SGT1, which in turn inhibits the activation of

SGT1-dependent immune receptors. These findings provide new insights into a

general mechanism of regulation of immunity, and uncover a new virulence strategy

employed by a bacterial pathogen to contribute to disease development.

Introduction

The activation and suppression of plant immunity are key events that determine the outcome of the interaction between plants and bacterial pathogens. When in close proximity to plant cells, conserved bacterial molecules (termed PAMPs, for pathogen-associated molecular patterns) may be perceived by receptors at the surface of plant cells, eliciting the activation of the plant immune system. This leads to the establishment of PAMP-triggered immunity (PTI; (1)), which restricts bacterial growth and prevents the development of disease. Most bacterial pathogens have acquired the ability to deliver proteins inside plant cells via a type-III secretion system (T3SS); such proteins are thus called type-III effectors (T3Es) (2). Numerous T3Es from adapted bacterial plant pathogens have been reported to suppress PTI (3). This, in addition to other T3E activities (4), enables bacterial pathogens to proliferate and cause disease. Resistant plants have evolved mechanisms to detect such bacterial manipulation through the development of intracellular receptors defined by the presence of nucleotide-binding sites (NBS) and leucine-rich repeat domains (LRRs), thus termed NLRs (5). The detection of T3E activities through NLRs leads to the activation of immune responses, which effectively prevent pathogen proliferation (6). The outcome of these responses is named effector-triggered immunity (ETI), and, in certain cases, may cause a hypersensitive response (HR) that involves the collapse of plant cells. In an evolutionary response to this phenomenon, T3E activities have evolved to suppress ETI (7), which in turn exposes bacterial pathogens to further events of effector recognition. For these reasons, the interaction between plants and

microbial pathogens is often considered an evolutionary 'arms race', where the

specific combination of virulence activities and immune receptors in a certain

pathogen-plant pair ultimately defines the outcome of the interaction (7). Although the

suppression of PTI by T3Es has been widely documented (3), reports about T3Es that

suppress ETI, and their biochemical characterization, remain scarce.

Interestingly, PTI and ETI signaling often involve shared regulators (8), such as

mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK). The activation of MAPKs is one of the

earliest signaling events upon perception of both PAMPs and effectors (9), and is

essential for the activation of immune responses. Although sustained MAPK

activation has been reported to be critical for the robust development of ETI (10), the

signaling events and phosphorylation substrates that link early MAPK activation upon

pathogen recognition and downstream MAPK activation as a consequence of NLR

activation remain unknown.

The study of microbial effectors has become a very prolific approach to discover and

characterize components of the plant immune system and other cellular functions that

play important roles in plant-microbe interactions (11). In this regard, T3E repertoires

constitute a powerful tool for researchers to understand plant-bacteria interactions.

The *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex (RSSC) groups numerous bacterial

strains able to cause disease in more than 250 plant species, including important

crops, such as tomato, potato, and pepper, among others (12, 13). *R. solanacearum*

invades the roots of host plants, reaching the vascular system and colonizing xylem

vessels in the whole plant, eventually causing their blockage and subsequent plant

wilting (14, 15). It has been speculated that the versatility and wide host range of *R.*

solanacearum is associated to its relatively large T3E repertoire in comparison with

other bacterial plant pathogens; the reference GMI1000 strain serves as an example,

being able to secrete more than 70 T3Es (16). Among these T3Es, RipAC (also called

PopC; (16, 17) is conserved in most *R. solanacearum* sequenced to date, and is

therefore considered a core T3E in the RSSC (Figures S1A and S1B) (16). Domain

prediction for the RipAC amino acid sequence reveals the presence of an LRR

C-terminal domain and no other predicted enzymatic domain (Figure S1C).

Interestingly, it has been shown that RipAC from different *R. solanacearum* strains is

promptly expressed upon bacterial inoculation in different host plants (18, 19)

suggesting a role in the establishment of the interaction at early stages of the infection

process.

    Results

    RipAC contributes to *R. solanacearum* infection

    It is well established that T3Es collectively play an essential role in the development of

    disease caused by most bacterial plant pathogens, including *R. solanacearum* (20).

    However, the contribution of individual T3Es to the natural infection process is often

    difficult to determine, due to functional redundancy among them. To study the

    contribution of RipAC to *R. solanacearum* infection, we generated a *ΔripAC* mutant

    strain using the reference phylotype I GMI1000 strain as background (Figure S1D),

    and confirmed that the growth of this strain in rich laboratory medium is

    indistinguishable from the wild-type (WT) strain (Figures S1D-1G). We then

    performed soil-drenching inoculation of Arabidopsis Col-0 WT plants with both WT

    and *ΔripAC* strains, and monitored the development of wilting symptoms associated

    to disease. Compared with plants inoculated with WT GMI1000, plants inoculated with

    the *ΔripAC* mutant displayed attenuated disease symptoms (Figure 1A). This

    attenuation was complemented by the expression of *ripAC*, driven by its native

    promoter, in the *ΔripAC* mutant background (Figures 1A and S1E-1G), confirming that

    virulence attenuation was indeed caused by the lack of the *ripAC* gene. It is

    noteworthy that, given the intrinsic complexity and biological variability of the

    soil-drenching inoculation assay, we did not detect a significant attenuation every time

    we performed this experiment (Figure S2A), suggesting that the attenuation caused

    by the absence of RipAC is near the limit of detection of this assay.

Tomato is a natural host for several *R. solanacearum* strains (21). To study the

contribution of RipAC to *R. solanacearum* virulence during tomato infection, we

performed soil-drenching inoculation to compare GMI1000 with the *ΔripAC* strain. As

observed in Arabidopsis, tomato plants inoculated with the *ΔripAC* strain showed

delayed and/or reduced symptom development in most experiments (Figures 1B and

S2B). This attenuation was complemented by the expression of *ripAC* in the mutant

background (Figures 1B).

In order to increase the accuracy of our virulence assays and to determine whether

the reduced disease symptoms correlate with reduced bacterial multiplication inside

host plants, we set up an assay to quantify bacterial numbers in the xylem sap of

tomato plants upon injection of the bacterial inoculum in the stem. Compared to plants

inoculated with WT GMI1000, plants inoculated with the *ΔripAC* strain showed

reduced bacterial numbers, and this was complemented by the expression of *ripAC* in

the mutant background (Figure 1C). Altogether, these results suggest that, despite

the large effector repertoire of *R. solanacearum* GMI1000, RipAC plays a significant

role during the infection process in different host plants.

To complement our genetic analysis of the importance of RipAC in promoting

susceptibility to *R. solanacearum*, we generated stable Arabidopsis transgenic lines

expressing RipAC from a 35S constitutive promoter (Figures S3A and S3B).

Interestingly, independent transgenic lines expressing RipAC showed enhanced

disease symptoms upon soil-drenching inoculation with *R. solanacearum* (Figures 1D

and S3C), indicating that RipAC promotes susceptibility to *R. solanacearum* from

within plant cells.

RipAC suppresses plant immunity

Plant immunity can be activated by the detection of diverse invasion patterns, either

conserved elicitor molecules or strain-specific effector proteins injected inside plant

cells (22). To determine whether RipAC has the potential to suppress plant immunity,

we performed transient expression of RipAC (fused to a C-terminal GFP tag) in

Nicotiana benthamiana, and monitored immune responses upon treatment with

different invasion patterns. We first tested whether RipAC is able to suppress the fast

burst of reactive oxygen species (ROS) triggered by bacterial PAMPs, and found that

RipAC expression almost completely blocked the early production of ROS upon

treatment with the elicitors flg22^{Pto} (from *Pseudomonas syringae*; Figures 2A and 2B)

or csp22^{Rsol} (from *R. solanacearum*; Figures 2C and 2D). We then monitored the

induction of cell death associated to the hypersensitive response (HR) developed as

part of an ETI response, such as that triggered by overexpression of the

NLR-encoding gene *RPS2* (23), the expression of the oomycete effector Avr3a

together with the cognate NLR R3a (24), and that triggered by inoculation with *P.*

syringae pv tomato DC3000 (*Pto* DC3000) (25). RipAC suppressed the HR triggered

by RPS2 and Avr3a/R3a, while it attenuated and delayed HR development in

response to *Pto* DC3000 (Figure 2E), showing the potential of RipAC to suppress ETI.

Interestingly, RipAC was not able to suppress the cell death triggered by other

elicitors, such as Bax (26) and the oomycete elicitor INF1 (27) (Figure 2F), suggesting

that RipAC is not a general suppressor of cell death.

The activation of NLRs is known to trigger the activation of mitogen-activated protein

kinases (MAPKs; (10, 28). Consistently, transient overexpression of RPS2 in *N.*

benthamiana leads to an activation of MAPKs that precedes the onset of macroscopic

cell death (Figures 2G and 2H). In our transient expression assays, RipAC

significantly suppressed the activation of MAPKs triggered by overexpression of

RPS2 or by the expression of Avr3a/R3a (Figures 2I, 2J and 2K), supporting the

notion that RipAC suppresses early steps in ETI activation rather than downstream

responses that lead to cell death.

RipAC interacts with SGT1 from different plant species

To obtain a deeper insight into the mode of action of RipAC, we first investigated the

subcellular localization of RipAC inside plant cells. Upon transient expression in *N.*

benthamiana, RipAC-GFP showed a sharp signal at the cell periphery of leaf

epidermal cells (Figure S4A). Upon fractionation of protein extracts from *N.*

benthamiana expressing RipAC, we detected abundant RipAC in both microsomal

and cytosolic fractions (Figure S4B). We then sought to identify plant proteins that

physically associate with RipAC in plant cells. To this end, we performed

immunoprecipitation (IP) of RipAC-GFP using GFP-trap agarose beads, and analyzed

its interacting proteins using liquid chromatography coupled to tandem

mass-spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Together with RipAC-GFP immunoprecipitates, we

identified peptides of NbSGT1 (Figure 3A), homolog of the Arabidopsis

SUPPRESSOR OF G2 ALLELE OF *skp1* (SGT1), a protein required for the induction

of disease resistance mediated by most NLRs (29, 30). The localization of both

isoforms of SGT1 in Arabidopsis (AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b) has been reported to be

nucleocytoplasmic (31). When we expressed SGT1 (NbSGT1, AtSGT1a, or AtSGT1b)

fused to a C-terminal RFP tag, we also detected an apparently cytoplasmic

localization, with occasional nuclear localization, although we also detected

co-localization with the plasma membrane marker CBL-GFP ((32; Figures S4C and

S4D). Interestingly, we detected co-localization between RipAC-GFP and

NbSGT1-RFP, AtSGT1a-RFP, or AtSGT1b-RFP (Figure 3B), and these results

suggest that RipAC does not affect SGT1 subcellular localization. To confirm the

physical interaction between RipAC and SGT1 from different plant species, we

co-expressed RipAC-GFP with either NbSGT1, AtSGT1a, AtSGT1b or the tomato

ortholog of SGT1b (SlSGT1b). Targeted IP of RipAC-GFP showed CoIP of all

different SGT1 orthologs (Figure 3C). To determine if the interaction between RipAC

and SGT1 is direct, we performed split-luciferase complementation (Split-LUC)

assays in plant cells. In these assays, each protein is fused to a half-luciferase

molecule, either N-terminal half of LUC (nLUC) or C-terminal half of LUC (cLUC), and

a functional luciferase molecule gets reconstituted if these proteins interact directly

(33). The results showed luciferase signal upon expression of RipAC with AtSGT1a,

AtSGT1b and NbSGT1 (Figure 3D), suggesting that the interaction between these

proteins is direct. We also performed similar split-YFP assays, showing reconstitution

of YFP signal at the cell periphery upon expression of RipAC and AtSGT1a, AtSGT1b

or NbSGT1 tagged with one of the portions of a split-YFP molecule, indicating a direct

interaction of these proteins at the cell periphery (Figure 3E). Altogether, these results

indicate that RipAC physically associates with SGT1 from different species inside

plant cells.

SGT1 is conserved in eukaryotes, and has three defined domains: an N-terminal

tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) domain, a CHORD-SGT1 (CS) domain, and a

C-terminal SGT1-specific (SGS) domain (34). In order to determine which NbSGT1

domain is required for RipAC interaction, we expressed different combinations of

these domains (Figure 3F) bound to a FLAG tag, and tested their interaction with

immunoprecipitated RipAC-GFP. Although we were unable to express the SGS

domain alone, we found an interaction between RipAC and a truncated SGT1 protein

containing the CS+SGS domain (Figure 3F). The CS domain alone did not interact

with RipAC, suggesting that RipAC associates with the SGS domain, although it

cannot be ruled out that RipAC requires both CS+SGS domains to associate with

SGT1. Interestingly, the SGS domain is required for all the known SGT1b functions in

immunity (31, 34).

RipAC inhibits SGT1 interaction with RAR1, but not with the NLR RPS2

In plants, SGT1 associates, though its CS domain, with REQUIRED FOR *Mla12*

RESISTANCE (RAR1) and HEAT-SHOCK PROTEIN 90Kda (HSP90) (29, 35, 36),

forming a chaperone complex that plays a key role in the accumulation and activation

of several NLRs (34). Since RipAC associates with SGT1, we tested whether it also

physically interacts with RAR1 and HSP90 in plant cells. Using Split-LUC assays, we

found that RipAC interacts with AtRAR1 and with the AtHSP90.2 isoform, but not with

AtHSP90.1 (Figure 4A). Given that RipAC interacts directly with all three components

of this chaperone complex, we considered the possibility that it may disrupt the

formation of the complex. To test this possibility, we performed Split-LUC assays and

measure the production of bioluminescence, which provides a quantitative

assessment of protein-protein interactions. In this assay, we observed that the

expression of RipAC, but not the CBL-GFP control, inhibited significantly the

interaction between RAR1 and SGT1a (Figure 4B) and SGT1b (Figure 4C), while it

did not seem to affect the accumulation of these proteins (Figure 4D). Such inhibition

was also observed in a CoIP assay between AtSGT1a/b fused to a FLAG tag and

AtRAR1 fused to a cLUC tag (Figure 4E), indicating that the presence of RipAC

disrupts the association between SGT1 and RAR1, most likely as a consequence of

its physical interaction with both proteins.

SGT1 physically associates with several NLRs (37-39); here we found that AtSGT1b

also interacts with RPS2 (Figure 4F). To determine whether RipAC interferes with the

interaction between SGT1 and NLRs, we performed Split-LUC assays between

AtSGT1b and RPS2 in the presence of RipAC. Interestingly, RipAC did not affect

RPS2 accumulation or the interaction between AtSGT1b and RPS2 (Figures 4F and

4G), indicating that RipAC does not generally disrupt all the interactions in the SGT1

complex.

RipAC inhibits SGT1-mediated immune responses in *N. benthamiana* and

Arabidopsis

SGT1 is an essential component of the plant immune system, due to its role as a

regulator of the stability and activation of most NLRs, and it is required for the

establishment of ETI (34). Since we have shown that RipAC suppresses

NLR-mediated responses associated to both bacterial and oomycete pathogens

(Figures 2E and 2I-2K), we wondered whether RipAC could suppress other

SGT1-mediated signaling events in plant cells. Expression of a constitutively active

form of the Arabidopsis MAPK Kinase 7 (AtMKK7DD) in *N. benthamiana* leads to cell

death in an SGT1-dependent manner (40). The simultaneous expression of RipAC

abolished the macroscopic cell death triggered by overexpression of AtMKK7DD in *N.*

benthamiana (Figures 5A and 5B). We also observed that AtMKK7DD overexpression

in *N. benthamiana* led to the activation of the MAPKs SIPK and WIPK, and, similarly,

RipAC inhibited such MAPK activation (Figures 5B and 5C). These results indicate

that RipAC is able to suppress ETI-associated SGT1-dependent responses from

different origins in *N. benthamiana*.

To determine whether RipAC inhibits the final outcome of ETI (i.e. restriction of

bacterial proliferation), we inoculated RipAC-expressing Arabidopsis transgenic lines

(Figures S3A and S3B) by infiltrating leaves with a suspension of *Pto* DC3000

expressing different T3Es that activate NLR-dependent immunity, namely AvrRpm1

(41), AvrRpt2 (42), or AvrRps4 (43). Such strains, compared to *Pto* DC3000

expressing an empty vector (EV) (Figure 5D), show deficient replication in

Arabidopsis, due to immune responses triggered by these T3Es (Figures 5E-5G).

However, different transgenic lines expressing RipAC showed enhanced susceptibility

to these strains (Figures 5E-5G), indicating that RipAC is able to effectively suppress

NLR-mediated immunity in Arabidopsis.

SGT1 is not required for PTI responses in *N. benthamiana* and Arabidopsis

Since RipAC suppresses ROS burst triggered by bacterial elicitors and seems to

disrupt SGT1-dependent immune responses, we considered the possibility that SGT1

may also be required for early PTI signaling. To explore this possibility, we first used

virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) to silence *SGT1* expression in *N. benthamiana*.

Although VIGS abolished *NbSGT1* expression, this did not affect the ROS burst

triggered by flg22^{Pto} or csp22^{Rsol}, suggesting that NbSGT1 is not required for early PTI

signaling in *N. benthamiana* (Figures S5A-S5D). In Arabidopsis, a double mutation in

AtSGT1a and *AtSGT1b* is not viable, suggesting that both genes have redundant

functions in plant development besides their contribution to immunity (44). However,

we observed that the knockout mutants *sgt1a-1* (Ws-0 background) and *sgt1b-3* (La-*er* background) show different developmental phenotypes compared to their respective WT controls (Figure S5E). Moreover, when treated with the elicitor peptide elf18 from either *P. syringae* or *R. solanacearum*, the *sgt1a-1* mutant showed attenuated ROS burst, while the *sgt1b-3* mutant showed enhanced ROS burst, compared to their respective WT controls (Figures S5F-S5I). Despite these differences, neither of these mutants showed altered MAPK activation triggered by elf18 (Figures S5J and S5K), nor altered susceptibility upon inoculation with a *Pto* T3SS- mutant (Figures S5L and S5M). This suggests that, although AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b may have a different contribution to early PTI signaling, they are not collectively required for the establishment of PTI. To overcome the observed partial redundancy of AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b, we performed VIGS of *AtSGT1a* in *sgt1b-3* mutant plants (Figure S5N). *AtSGT1a* VIGS reduced the accumulation of AtSGT1a, as revealed by western blot analysis (Figure S5O), sufficient to render silenced plants more susceptible to *Pto* expressing AvrRpt2 (Figure S5R), suggesting that these plants have impaired SGT1 functions in the establishment of ETI. On the contrary, the silenced plants were not more susceptible to a *Pto* T3SS- mutant (or to WT *Pto* DC3000) (Figures S5P and S5Q), suggesting that abolishing SGT1 function in Arabidopsis does not have a major impact in the establishment of PTI. Altogether, we concluded that the targeting of SGT1 does not account for the RipAC-mediated suppression of PTI, and focused on the study of a potential inhibition of SGT1 function by RipAC.

MAPK-mediated phosphorylation is important for SGT1 function in the activation of ETI

Since post-translational modifications (PTMs) have been shown to impact SGT1 function (45-47), we sought to determine whether RipAC causes any alteration of SGT1 PTMs in plant cells. To this end, we co-expressed NbSGT1 fused to a FLAG tag together with RipAC (or a GFP control) in *N. benthamiana* leaves, and then performed IP using an anti-FLAG resin followed by LC-MS/MS. Among the IPed SGT1 peptides, we detected two peptides, located in the SGS domain, containing phosphorylated serine residues (S282 and S358) (Figure S6). Interestingly, a phosphorylable residue is conserved in these positions among plants from different species (Figures S7A), and S358 is embedded in a canonical MAPK-mediated phosphorylation motif conserved across the plant kingdom (Figure S7B). Interestingly, AtSGT1b has been shown to interact with MAPK4 (48), and SGT1 from tobacco (NtSGT1) S358, equivalent to T346 in AtSGT1b, has been shown to be phosphorylated by NtSIPK (45). By performing targeted CoIP, we found that both AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b associate with AtMAPK4 and AtMAPK6, but not with AtMAPK3, which showed very low accumulation in this assay (Figure 6A). The association of both AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b with AtMAPK3 and AtMAPK4, but not with AtMAPK6, was also shown by Split-LUC (Figure S8). To determine whether MAPK-mediated SGT1 phosphorylation is enhanced upon activation of ETI, we raised an antibody against the potential MAPK phosphorylated peptide, conserved in both

AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b, containing phosphorylated T346 (ESpTPPDGME), which

specifically detected the phosphorylated peptide *in vitro* and *in planta* (Figures S9A

and S9B). Inoculation of Arabidopsis plants with *Pto* expressing AvrRpt2 or AvrRps4,

but not with *Pto* DC3000 or *Pto* TTSS-, led to a sustained activation of MAPKs and to

enhanced phosphorylation of T346 (Figure S9C). Similarly, dexamethasone-induced

expression of AvrRpt2 in Arabidopsis transgenic lines led to MAPK activation and

enhanced SGT1 phosphorylation (Figures 6B and 6C). These data indicate that T346

phosphorylation occurs concomitantly to the activation of ETI.

To determine the relevance of the phosphorylation of SGT1 S271/T346 for the

activation of ETI, we generated single and double point mutants in these residues in

AtSGT1b, substituting them for alanine residues (to abolish phosphorylation) or for

aspartate residues (to mimic the negative charge associated to constitutive

phosphorylation). Due to the difficulties in genetic analysis of SGT1, we used a

transient approach in *N. benthamiana*, co-expressing the AtSGT1b variants together

with RPS2. Alanine mutations (S271A/T346A: AtSGT1b AA) did not have a

detectable impact on the RPS2-mediated cell death (Figure 6D), likely due to the

presence of endogenous NbSGT1. However, tissues expressing both the T346D

mutant (2D) or the double S271D/T346D (DD) mutant, but not the single S271D

mutant, showed an enhancement of cell death triggered by RPS2 expression,

monitored as ion leakage (Figure 6D), which correlated with the appearance of tissue

necrosis (Figures 6E and 6F). This suggests that T346 phosphorylation contributes to

the robust activation of ETI responses.

Previous reports have shown that SGT1 phosphorylation seems to enhance SGT1

nuclear localization (45, 46). However, neither the SGT1 AA nor DD showed any

obvious differential localization compared with WT AtSGT1b in our system (Figure

S10A). Given the importance of protein-protein interactions in the SGT1 complex, we

hypothesized that phosphorylation in S271/T346 may be important to regulate the

interaction of SGT1 with either RAR1 or NLRs. However, neither alanine or aspartate

substitutions in these residues had an impact on the interaction between AtSGT1b

and RAR1 (Figure 6G). Similarly, the T346A mutation did not affect the interaction

between AtSGT1b and RPS2 (Figure 6H); however, surprisingly, the T346D mutation

inhibited this interaction (Figure 6H and S10B). This, together with the observation

that the T346D mutation causes an enhancement of RPS2-triggered responses,

suggests a scenario where phosphorylation contributes to the release of RPS2 from

the SGT1 complex to activate immune responses.

RipAC interferes with the MAPK-SGT1 interaction to suppress SGT1

phosphorylation

During our analysis of SGT1 phosphorylation, we observed an apparent reduction in

the number of SGT1 phosphorylated peptides in the presence of RipAC (Figure S6A).

Since this assay does not allow a comparative quantitative assessment of SGT1

phosphorylation, we took advantage of the sensitivity of our anti-pSGT1 antibody to

determine the impact of RipAC on the phosphorylation of AtSGT1 T346. Interestingly,

Arabidopsis transgenic lines expressing RipAC showed reduced phosphorylation of

T346 in endogenous SGT1 in basal growth conditions (Figures 7A and 7B). Such

reduction of T346 phosphorylation was also observed when Arabidopsis protoplasts

were transfected with RipAC in the presence of AvrRpt2 (Figures 7C and 7D),

indicating that RipAC suppresses the phosphorylation of AtSGT1 T346.

Since we have shown that RipAC inhibits the interaction of SGT1 with RAR1, we

considered the possibility that RipAC suppresses SGT1 phosphorylation by interfering

with the MAPK-SGT1 interaction. This interference was indeed confirmed by

Split-LUC and CoIP assays, which showed that RipAC inhibits the interaction of SGT1

with all AtMAPK3, AtMAPK4 and AtMAPK6 (Figures 7E-7G), suggesting that this is

the mechanism underlying RipAC suppression of SGT1-dependent ETI responses

(Figure S11).

Discussion

The targeting of ETI regulators by effector proteins represents a powerful strategy for

bacterial pathogens to avoid perception by the plant or to mitigate its consequences.

The dual character of effectors as triggers and suppressors of immunity drives the

specific evolution of effectors and plant resistance proteins, and ultimately defines the

outcome of the interaction. Despite the importance of T3Es for the bacterial infection

process, single effector knockout mutants often lack virulence phenotypes due to

functional redundancy among effectors. This may be particularly important in strains

belonging to the *R. solanacearum* species complex, where single strains may secrete

more than 70 T3Es (16). Before, a *ΔripAC* mutant strain was reported to show

reduced fitness, compared to GMI1000, in eggplant leaves (49). Here we show that

an equivalent mutant has impaired virulence in Arabidopsis and tomato, and such

attenuation is complemented by the expression of the effector, indicating that RipAC

plays a significant role in the *R. solanacearum* infection process.

In this work, we found that RipAC interacts with SGT1, a major regulator of the activity

of NLRs in the activation of ETI (34). SGT1 has been shown to regulate NLR

homeostasis, either by contributing to protein stability or by mediating their

degradation (44, 50). RipAC was able to interact with a truncated SGT1 containing

only the CS+SGS domains, but not with the CS domain alone, suggesting that RipAC

interacts with the SGS domain, or that it requires both CS and SGS domains for

interaction. The CS domain has been shown to mediate the interaction between

SGT1 and its cognate co-chaperones RAR1 and HSP90 (35, 36). Interestingly, RipAC

prevents the interaction between SGT1 and RAR1, suggesting that it affects the

interaction surface at the CS domain, and it is reasonable to hypothesize that this

contributes to its ability to suppress ETI (Figure S11). The SGS domain is essential for

SGT1 immune functions and mediates SGT1 interaction with the LRRs of NLRs and

the co-chaperone HSC70 (31), although its biochemical function remains unclear. We

found that RipAC prevents the interaction between MAPKs and SGT1 in plant cells,

leading to a reduced phosphorylation of SGT1 in the SGS domain, suggesting that

MAPKs also interact with this domain. MAPKs have been shown to phosphorylate

SGT1 from tobacco and maize in *N. benthamiana* (45, 47), contributing to the

hypothesis that MAPK-mediated phosphorylation of SGT1 may be important for its

function. This notion is also supported by our data, showing that mutations that mimic

phosphorylation in the observed SGT1 phosphosites lead to an enhanced activity of

the NLR RPS2 (Figure S11). Although, in previous reports, SGT1 phosphorylation

seems to enhance SGT1 nuclear localization (45, 46), our phosphorylation-related

SGT1 mutants did not show any obvious differential localization compared with WT

SGT1. Interestingly, the enhanced RPS2 activity caused by the T346D

phospho-mimic mutation correlated with an enhanced dissociation between SGT1

(T346D) and RPS2, suggesting that MAPK-mediated phosphorylation of SGT1 may

contribute to NLR activation through the modulation of SGT1 interactions with NLRs

(Figure S11). Considering that NLR activation leads to enhanced MAPK activation,

this regulatory mechanism would represent a positive feedback loop between the

activation of NLRs and MAPKs, mediated by the phosphorylation of SGT1 (Figure

S11). Intriguingly, although RipAC suppresses SGT1-dependent immune responses,

it does not seem to affect the accumulation of SGT1 or NLRs (in our case, RPS2),

which resembles the phenotype observed upon overexpression of the

SGS-interacting protein HSC70 (31). Altogether, our data suggest that, by associating

with the SGS domain, RipAC compromises SGT1 interaction with MAPKs and the subsequent phosphorylation of specific sites in the SGS domain, compromising the activation of immunity without altering the accumulation of associated proteins (Figure S11). Moreover, SGT1 phosphorylation in the SGS domain does not seem to be required for SGT1 interaction with the other components of the chaperone complex (mediated by the CS domain). Consistently, a mutant including a premature stop codon at P347 in AtSGT1b, disrupting the MAPK phosphorylation motif that includes T346, does not affect the formation of the SGT1/RAR1/HSP90 complex, but abolishes the immune-associated functions of SGT1 (35). Therefore, further work will be required to determine whether the RipAC-mediated inhibition of SGT1-RAR1-HSP90 interactions and MAPK-mediated SGT1 phosphorylation have an additive effect in blocking SGT1 functions.

Although the contribution of SGT1 to the establishment of ETI is well-known, genetic analysis of its contribution to disease resistance is challenging, due to the deleterious effects caused by the abolishment of SGT1 expression (34). However, Arabidopsis transgenic plants expressing RipAC become more susceptible to *R. solanacearum* infection, suggesting the importance of SGT1 function for resistance against *R. solanacearum*, although we should consider that other potential targets of RipAC may also account for the enhanced susceptibility of RipAC-expressing transgenic plants. In this regard, we found that RipAC also suppresses PTI responses in *N. benthamiana*, and this activity does not seem to be ascribed to the targeting of SGT1. This suggests

that the RipAC-mediated suppression of PTI is due to the additional targeting of other

immune regulators.

The T3E AvrBsT from *Xanthomonas campestris* also interacts with SGT1 from pepper,

and interferes with its phosphorylation by the PIK1 kinase in two serine residues (in

the CS domain and variable region) different from the ones identified in our study (46).

However, in that case, AvrBsT triggers SGT1-mediated immunity, and the identified

SGT1 phosphorylation sites are required for the activation of AvrBsT-triggered HR

(46). Similarly, a secreted effector from the fungal pathogen *Ustilago maydis* also

interferes with the MAPK-mediated phosphorylation of SGT1 from maize in a

monocot-specific phosphorylation site between TPR and CS domains, contributing to

the development of disease-associated tumors (47). This demonstrates that

pathogens from different kingdoms and with different lifestyles have evolved to target

different functions of SGT1 as a key regulator of disease resistance. Considering that

SGT1 interacts with and regulates the function of proteins containing LRRs (such as

NLRs), it is tantalizing to hypothesize that RipAC may have acquired an LRR domain

to associate with SGT1 and disrupt its function. This virulence strategy may be a case

of convergent evolution between bacterial pathogens of plants and animals, since

Salmonella typhimurium similarly delivers an LRR-containing effector, Ssph2, which

also interacts with SGT1 in animal and plant cells (51). However, as in the case of

AvrBsT, Ssph2 seems to stimulate SGT1-dependent immunity (51). Altogether, this

suggests that, although effector proteins from different microbial pathogens associate

with SGT1, some of them are indeed perceived by the plant immune system,

potentially as a consequence of the 'guarding' of SGT1 as an important regulator of

plant immunity. On the contrary, RipAC seems to manipulate SGT1 for virulence

purposes without being detected by the plant immune system, suggesting that these

host plants have not yet evolved a perception system for this targeting. Together with

other reports, our discovery of the molecular mechanisms underlying the

RipAC-mediated suppression of SGT1 function may contribute to the engineering of

functional SGT1 complexes that abolish bacterial manipulation or respond to it by

activating immunity. Interestingly, *R. solanacearum* injects other T3Es containing

LRRs (16). It will be interesting to determine whether other T3Es employ LRR

domains to target plant proteins that rely on LRR-mediated interactions for their

function.

Materials and methods

All the experimental procedures are detailed in the supporting Materials and Methods

section. The biological and chemical resources used in this study are summarized in

the Table S1.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. RipAC contributes to *Ralstonia solanacearum* virulence in

Arabidopsis and tomato. (A, B) Soil-drenching inoculation assays in Arabidopsis (A)

and tomato (B) were performed with GMI1000 WT, D*ripAC* mutant, and RipAC

complementation (*ripAC*+) strains. n=15 plants per genotype (for Arabidopsis) or n=12

plants per genotype (for tomato). The results are represented as disease progression,

showing the average wilting symptoms in a scale from 0 to 4 (mean $\pm$ SEM). (C)

Growth of *R. solanacearum* GMI1000 WT*,* D*ripAC* mutant, and RipAC

complementation (*ripAC*+) strains in tomato plants. 5 µL of bacterial inoculum (10^6 cfu

mL^{-1}) were injected into the stem of 4-week-old tomato plants and xylem sap was

taken from each infected plants for bacterial titer calculation 3 days post-inoculation

(dpi) (mean ± SEM, n=6, ** p<0.01, *t*-test). (D) Soil-drenching inoculation assays in

Col-0 WT and RipAC-expressing Arabidopsis lines (AC #3, AC #31, two independent

lines) with GMI1000 WT strain. Results are represented as in A and B.

See also Figures S1, S2 and S3.

Figure 2. RipAC inhibits plant immune responses in *Nicotiana benthamiana*

leaves.

(A-D) RipAC suppresses ROS burst triggered by flg22^{Pto} (A and B) and csp22^{Rsol} (C

and D). RipAC-GFP or GFP (as control) were transiently expressed in 5-week-old for

flg22) or 6-week-old (for csp22) *N. benthamiana* leaves and ROS burst was analyzed

after treatment with the respective elicitors (50 nM) using a luminol-based assay

(mean ± SEM, n=24). These experiments were performed at least 3 times with similar

results. (E) RipAC suppresses RPS2-, Avr3a/R3a-, *Pto* DC3000-associated cell death.

(F) RipAC does not suppress BAX- or INF1-induced cell death. Photographs were

taken 5 days after the expression of the cell death inducer. The numbers beside the

photographs indicate the ratios of infiltration showing the presented result among the

total number of infiltrations. (G and H) The induction of cell death triggered by

overexpression of RPS2 (G) correlates with the activation of the MAPKs NbSIPK and

NbWIPK (H) in a time course assay different hours post-inoculation (hpi) with

Agrobacterium leading to the expression of RPS2. In (G), RPS2-triggered cell death

was monitored by visible light and UV light. In (H), phosphorylation of NbSIPK and

NbWIPK was detected using anti-pMAPK antibody. (I and J) RipAC suppresses

MAPK activation triggered by the overexpression of RPS2 (I) or Avr3a/R3a (J), 24 hpi

with Agrobacterium leading to the expression of the cell death inducers. (K)

Quantification of relative pMAPK in (I) and (J). The quantification of the pMAPK band

in RipAC expression spots is represented relative to the intensity in the GFP control in

each assay (mean ± SEM of 4 independent biological replicates).

Figure 3. RipAC associates with SGT1 in plant cells.

(A) RipAC-GFP or free GFP were transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves.

The figure shows the unique NbSGT1 peptides identified exclusively in RipAC-GFP

sample upon GFP immunoprecipitation followed by IP-MS/MS analysis. (B)

RipAC-GFP co-localizes with SGT1-RFP in plant cells. RipAC-GFP was transiently

co-expressed with SGT1-RFP (AtSGT1a, AtSGT1b, or NbSGT1), and the GFP

fluorescence signal was observed 48 hpi using confocal microscopy. The images

show the fluorescence from GFP, RFP channel, and the merged fluorescence from

both channels. The corresponding fluorescence intensity profiles (GFP, green; RFP,

red) across the green lines are shown. Scale bar=50 μm. (C) CoIP to determine

interactions between RipAC and SGT1s. The signal in the interaction between RipAC

and AtSGT1a was weak and is shown with longer exposure. (D) Split-LUC assay, and

(E) split-YFP complementation assay, to determine direct interaction between RipAC

and SGT1 in plant cells. In (E), the self-association of aquaporin AtPIP2A was used

as a positive interaction control, while the RipAC-AtPIP2A combination was used as a

negative control. Scale bar=50 μm. (F) CoIP to determine interactions between RipAC

and different truncated versions of NbSGT1. The diagram summarizes the different

domains of SGT1: TPR, N-terminal tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) domain; CS,

CHORD-SGT1 domain; SGS, C-terminal SGT1-specific domain; VR, variable region.

In C-F, each combination of proteins shown was transiently expressed in *N.*

benthamiana and samples were taken 2 dpi. Experiments shown in (B-E), were

performed 3 times with similar results. The experiment shown in (F) was performed

twice.

See also Figure S4.

Figure 4. RipAC interferes with the SGT1-RAR1 complex.

(A) RipAC associates with SGT1, RAR1, and HSP90. Split-LUC assay was performed

as in the Fig. 3F. (B) and (C) Competitive Split-LUC assays showing that RipAC

interferes with SGT1a/b-RAR1 complex formation. The FLS2-SGT1 combination was

used as negative interaction control. In quantitative assays, the graphs show the

mean value ± SEM (n=12, ** $p<0.01$, *t*-test). (D) Protein accumulation from (B) and

(C). (E) Competitive CoIP showing that RipAC interferes with SGT1a/b-RAR1

complex formation. Anti-FLAG beads were used to IP AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b. (F)

Competitive Split-LUC showing that RipAC does not interfere with RPS2-SGT1b

association. (G) Western blot shows the protein accumulation in (F). The

RPS2-PIP2A combination was used as negative control. In all the competitive

interaction assays, in addition to the interaction pair, RipAC or CBL-GFP (as negative

control) were expressed to determine interference. In (B, C, F) luciferase activity was

determined both qualitatively (CCD camera, higher panel) and quantitatively

(microplate luminescence reader, lower panel). These experiments were repeated at

least 3 times with similar results.

Figure 5. RipAC inhibits effector-triggered immunity.

(A-C) RipAC suppresses AtMKK7DD-triggered responses in *N. benthamiana*.

RipAC-GFP or the GFP control were transiently expressed in 5-week-old *N.*

benthamiana leaves 24-hours prior to AtMKK7DD expression. (A) Photograph 5 dpi

with Agrobacterium leading to the expression of AtMKK7DD. The number beside the

photograph indicates the ratios of infiltration showing cell death suppression to total

number of infiltrations. (B) Western blot showing the accumulation of RipAC-GFP,

AtMKK7DD-GFP, free GFP, and phosphorylated MAPKs one day after AtMKK7DD

expression. (C) Quantification of pMAPK in (B). The intensity of the pMAPK bands in

RipAC-GFP expression sample is represented relative to the intensity in the GFP

control (mean ± SEM, data from 3 independent biological repeats). (D-G) RipAC

suppresses effector-triggered immunity in Arabidopsis. Leaves of WT (WT) and

RipAC-transgenic lines (AC #3 and AC #31) were hand-infiltrated with *Pto* empty

vector (EV, D), *Pto* AvrRpm1 (E), *Pto* AvrRpt2 (F), or *Pto* AvrRps4 (G). Samples were

taken 3dpi (mean ± SEM, n=6, ** p<0.01, *t*-test). These experiments were repeated at

least 3 times with similar results.

Figure 6. MAPK-mediated phosphorylation is important for SGT1 function in the activation of ETI.

(A) AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b associate with MAPK4 and MAPK6 in plant cells. CoIPs were performed as in Fig. 4E. (B) MAPK activation triggered by AvrRpt2 expression correlates with increased AtSGT1 phosphorylation at T346. Twelve-day-old Dex:AvrRpt2 plants were treated with 30 mM Dex, and samples were taken at the indicated time points. In (B), a custom antibody was used to detect the phosphorylated peptide containing AtSGT1 T346. (C) Quantitation of pSGT1b signal relative to actin in (B). pSGT1 was normalized to the signal intensity in 0 hpi (mean ± SE of 4 independent biological repeats, ** $p<0.01$, t-test). (D) A phospho-mimic mutation in AtSGT1b T346 (T346D) promotes cell death triggered by RPS2 overexpression. Agrobacterium expressing AtSGT1b variants or the GUS-FLAG control (OD600=0.5) were infiltrated into *N. benthamiana* leaves 1 day before infiltration with Agrobacterium expressing RPS2 (OD600=0.15). Leaf discs were taken 21 hpi for conductivity measurements at the indicated time points. The time points in the x-axis are indicated as hpi with Agrobacterium expressing RPS2 (mean ± SEM, n=4, ** $p<0.01$, t-test, 3 replicates). (E, F) Observation of RPS2-triggered cell death by visible light (E) and UV light (F). The Agrobacterium combinations were infiltrated as described in (D), and the cell death phenotype was recorded 4 dpi with Agrobacterium expressing RPS2. (G) Phospho-mimic mutations in AtSGT1b S271 and T346 (DD) do not affect RAR1-SGT1 complex formation. Split-LUC assays were performed as in the Fig. 3D. (H) A phospho-mimic mutation in AtSGT1b T346 (T346D) disrupts

RPS2-SGT1b association. Quantitation of the luciferase signal was performed as in

the Fig. 4B. The nomenclature of the AtSGT1b mutants used is: 1A=S271A,

1D=S271D, 2A=T346A, 2D=T346D, AA=S271AT346A, DD=S271DT346D. The

experiments shown in Figure 6 were performed at least 3 times with similar results.

See also Figures S6 and S7.

Figure 7. RipAC interferes with MAPK-SGT1 interaction to suppress SGT1

phosphorylation.

(A) RipAC reduces SGT1 phosphorylation in Arabidopsis. SGT1 phosphorylation was

determined in twelve-day-old Col-0 WT and RipAC transgenic lines (AC #3 and AC

#31) by western blot. Custom antibodies were used to detect the accumulation of

SGT1 and the presence of a phosphorylated peptide containing AtSGT1 T346. (B)

Quantitation of SGT1 and pSGT1b signal normalized to actin and relative to Col-0 WT

samples in (A) (mean ± SEM, n=9, p-values are shown, t-test). (C) RipAC suppresses

ETI-triggered SGT1 phosphorylation in Arabidopsis protoplasts. Western blots were

performed as in (A) using samples from protoplasts 10 hours after transfection with

the indicated constructs. (D) Quantitation of pSGT1b signal normalized to actin and

relative to the control sample transfected with GUS and GFP in (C) (mean ± SEM of 3

independent biological replicates, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, t-test). (E, F) Competitive

Split-LUC assays showing that RipAC interferes with the interaction between MAPK3

(E) / MAPK4 (F) and AtSGT1b. In quantitative assays, the graphs show the mean

value ± SEM (n=8, ** $p<0.01$, t-test). (G) Competitive CoIP showing that RipAC

interferes with the interaction between MAPK6 and AtSGT1b. Anti-FLAG beads were

used to IP MAPK6. In all the competitive interaction assays, in addition to the

interaction pair, RipAC or CBL-GFP (as negative control) were expressed to

determine interference. In (E, F) luciferase activity was determined both qualitatively

(CCD camera, higher panel) and quantitatively (microplate luminescence reader,

lower panel). These experiments were repeated at least 3 times with similar results.

Figure 1. RipAC contributes to *Ralstonia solanacearum* virulence in Arabidopsis and tomato. (A, B) Soil-drenching inoculation assays in Arabidopsis (A) and tomato (B) were performed with GMI1000 WT, Δ*ripAC* mutant, and RipAC complementation (*ripAC*+) strains. n=15 plants per genotype (for Arabidopsis) or n=12 plants per genotype (for tomato). The results are represented as disease progression, showing the average wilting symptoms in a scale from 0 to 4 (mean ± SEM). (C) Growth of *R. solanacearum* GMI1000 WT*, Δ*ripAC* mutant, and RipAC complementation (*ripAC*+) strains in tomato plants. 5 µL of bacterial inoculum (10^6 cfu mL^{-1}) were injected into the stem of 4-week-old tomato plants and xylem sap was taken from each infected plants for bacterial titer calculation 3 days post-inoculation (dpi) (mean ± SEM, n=6, ** p<0.01, *t*-test). (D) Soil-drenching inoculation assays in Col-0 WT and RipAC-expressing Arabidopsis lines (AC #3, AC #31, two independent lines) with GMI1000 WT strain. Results are represented as in A and B.
See also Figures S1, S2 and S3.

Figure 2. RipAC inhibits plant immune responses in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves.
(A-D) RipAC suppresses ROS burst triggered by flg22^{Pto} (A and B) and csp22^{Rsol} (C and D). RipAC-GFP or GFP (as control) were transiently expressed in 5-week-old for flg22) or 6-week-old (for csp22) *N. benthamiana* leaves and ROS burst was analyzed after treatment with the respective elicitors (50 nM) using a luminol-based assay (mean ± SEM, n=24). These experiments were performed at least 3 times with similar results. (E) RipAC suppresses RPS2-, Avr3a/R3a-, *Pto* DC3000-associated cell death. (F) RipAC does not suppress BAX- or INF1-induced cell death. Photographs were taken 5 days after the expression of the cell death inducer. The numbers beside the photographs indicate the ratios of infiltration showing the presented result among the total number of infiltrations. (G and H) Activation of the MAPKs NbSIPK and NbWIPK induced by RPS2. (G) RPS2-triggered cell death was monitored by visible light and UV light. (H) Phosphorylation of NbSIPK and NbWIPK was detected using anti-pMAPK antibody. (I and J) RipAC suppresses MAPK activation triggered by the overexpression of RPS2 (I) or Avr3a/R3a (J). (K) Quantification of relative pMAPK in (I) and (J). The quantification of the pMAPK band in RipAC expression spots is represented relative to the intensity in the GFP control in each assay (mean ± SEM of 4 independent biological replicates).

Figure 3. RipAC associates with SGT1 in plant cells.
(A) RipAC-GFP or free GFP were transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves. The figure shows the unique NbSGT1 peptides identified exclusively in RipAC-GFP sample upon GFP immunoprecipitation followed by IP-MS/MS analysis. (B) RipAC-GFP co-localizes with SGT1-RFP in plant cells. RipAC-GFP was transiently co-expressed with SGT1-RFP (AtSGT1a, AtSGT1b, or NbSGT1), and the GFP fluorescence signal was observed 48 hpi using confocal microscopy. The images show the fluorescence from GFP, RFP channel, and the merged fluorescence from both channels. The corresponding fluorescence intensity profiles (GFP, green; RFP, red) across the green lines are shown. Scale bar=50 μm. (C) CoIP to determine interactions between RipAC and SGT1s. The signal in the interaction between RipAC and AtSGT1a was weak and is shown with longer exposure. (D) Split-LUC assay, and (E) split-YFP complementation assay, to determine direct interaction between RipAC and SGT1 in plant cells. In (E), the self-association of aquaporin AtPIP2A was used as a positive interaction control, while the RipAC-AtPIP2A combination was used as a negative control. Scale bar=50 μm. (F) CoIP to determine interactions between RipAC and different truncated versions of NbSGT1. The diagram summarizes the different domains of SGT1: TPR, N-terminal tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) domain; CS, CHORD-SGT1 domain; SGS, C-terminal SGT1-specific domain; VR, variable region. In C-F, each combination of proteins shown was transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* and samples were taken 2 dpi. Experiments shown in (B-E), were performed 3 times with similar results. The experiment shown in (F) was performed twice.
See also Figure S4.

Figure 4. RipAC interferes with the SGT1-RAR1 complex.
(A) RipAC associates with SGT1, RAR1, and HSP90. Split-LUC assay was performed as in the Fig. 3D. (B) and (C) Competitive Split-LUC assays showing that RipAC interferes with SGT1a/b-RAR1 complex formation. The FLS2-SGT1 combination was used as negative interaction control. In quantitative assays, the graphs show the mean value $\pm$ SEM (n=12, ** p<0.01, t-test). (D) Protein accumulation from (B) and (C). (E) Competitive CoIP showing that RipAC interferes with SGT1a/b-RAR1 complex formation. Anti-FLAG beads were used to IP AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b. (F) Competitive Split-LUC showing that RipAC does not interfere with RPS2-SGT1b association. (G) Western blot shows the protein accumulation in (F). The RPS2-PIP2A combination was used as negative control. In all the competitive interaction assays, in addition to the interaction pair, RipAC or CBL-GFP (as negative control) were expressed to determine interference. In (B, C, F) luciferase activity was determined both qualitatively (CCD camera, higher panel) and quantitatively (microplate luminescence reader, lower panel). These experiments were repeated at least 3 times with similar results.

Figure 5. RipAC inhibits effector-triggered immunity.
(A-C) RipAC suppresses AtMKK7DD-triggered responses in *N. benthamiana*. RipAC-GFP or the GFP control were transiently expressed in 5-week-old *N. benthamiana* leaves 24-hours prior to AtMKK7DD expression. (A) Photograph 5 dpi with Agrobacterium expressing AtMKK7DD. The number beside the photograph indicates the ratios of infiltration showing cell death suppression to total number of infiltrations. (B) Western blot showing the accumulation of RipAC-GFP, AtMKK7DD-GFP, free GFP, and phosphorylated MAPKs one day after AtMKK7DD expression. (C) Quantification of pMAPK in (B). The intensity of the pMAPK bands in RipAC-GFP expression sample is represented relative to the intensity in the GFP control (mean ± SEM, data from 3 independent biological repeats). (D-G) RipAC suppresses effector-triggered immunity in Arabidopsis. Leaves of WT (WT) and RipAC-transgenic lines (AC #3 and AC #31) were hand-infiltrated with *Pto* empty vector (EV, D), *Pto* AvrRpm1 (E), *Pto* AvrRpt2 (F), or *Pto* AvrRps4 (G). Samples were taken 3dpi (mean ± SEM, n=6, ** p<0.01, *t*-test). These experiments were repeated at least 3 times with similar results.

Figure 6. MAPK-mediated phosphorylation is important for SGT1 function in the activation of ETI.
(A) AtSGT1a and AtSGT1b associate with MAPK4 and MAPK6 in plant cells. CoIPs were performed as in Fig. 4E. (B) MAPK activation triggered by AvrRpt2 expression correlates with increased AtSGT1 phosphorylation at T346. Twelve-day-old Dex:AvrRpt2 plants were treated with 30 μM Dex, and samples were taken at the indicated time points. In (B), a custom antibody was used to detect the phosphorylated peptide containing AtSGT1 T346. (C) Quantitation of pSGT1b signal relative to actin in (B). pSGT1 was normalized to the signal intensity in 0 hpi (mean $\pm$ SE of 4 independent biological repeats, ** p<0.01, t-test). (D) A phospho-mimic mutation in AtSGT1b T346 (T346D) promotes cell death triggered by RPS2 overexpression. Agrobacterium expressing AtSGT1b variants or the GUS-FLAG control (OD600=0.5) were infiltrated into *N. benthamiana* leaves 1 day before infiltration with Agrobacterium expressing RPS2 (OD600=0.15). Leaf discs were taken 21 hpi for conductivity measurements at the indicated time points. The time points in the x-axis are indicated as hpi with Agrobacterium expressing RPS2 (mean $\pm$ SEM, n=4, ** p<0.01, t-test, 3 replicates). (E, F) Observation of RPS2-triggered cell death by visible light (E) and UV light (F). The Agrobacterium combinations were infiltrated as described in (D), and the cell death phenotype was recorded 4 dpi with Agrobacterium expressing RPS2. (G) Phospho-mimic mutations in AtSGT1b S271 and T346 (DD) do not affect RAR1-SGT1 complex formation. Split-LUC assays were performed as in the Fig. 3D. (H) A phospho-mimic mutation in AtSGT1b T346 (T346D) disrupts RPS2-SGT1b association. Quantitation of the luciferase signal was performed as in the Fig. 4B. The nomenclature of the AtSGT1b mutants used is: 1A=S271A, 1D=S271D, 2A=T346A, 2D=T346D, AA=S271AT346A, DD=S271DT346D. The experiments shown in Figure 6 were performed at least 3 times with similar results.
See also Figures S6 and S7.

Figure 7. RipAC interferes with MAPK-SGT1 interaction to suppress SGT1 phosphorylation.
(A) RipAC reduces SGT1 phosphorylation in Arabidopsis. SGT1 phosphorylation was determined in twelve-day-old Col-0 WT and RipAC transgenic lines (AC #3 and AC #31) by western blot. Custom antibodies were used to detect the accumulation of SGT1 and the presence of a phosphorylated peptide containing AtSGT1 T346. (B) Quantitation of SGT1 and pSGT1b signal normalized to actin and relative to Col-0 WT samples in (A) (mean $\pm$ SEM, n=9, p-values are shown, *t*-test). (C) RipAC suppresses ETI-triggered SGT1 phosphorylation in Arabidopsis protoplasts. Western blots were performed as in (A) using samples from protoplasts 10 hours after transfection with the indicated constructs. (D) Quantitation of pSGT1b signal normalized to actin and relative to the control sample transfected with GUS and GFP in (C) (mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 independent biological replicates, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, Student's *t*-test). (E, F) Competitive Split-LUC assays showing that RipAC interferes with the interaction between MAPK3 (E) / MAPK4 (F) and AtSGT1b. In quantitative assays, the graphs show the mean value $\pm$ SEM (n=8, ** p<0.01, *t*-test). (G) Competitive CoIP showing that RipAC interferes with the interaction between MAPK6 and AtSGT1b. Anti-FLAG beads were used to IP MAPK6. In all the competitive interaction assays, in addition to the interaction pair, RipAC or CBL-GFP (as negative control) were expressed to determine interference. In (E, F) luciferase activity was determined both qualitatively (CCD camera, higher panel) and quantitatively (microplate luminescence reader, lower panel). These experiments were repeated at least 3 times with similar results.