Immunocapture of dsRNA-bound proteins provides insight into Tobacco rattle virus replication complexes

Marco Incarbone[1#], Baptiste Monsion[1], Lauriane Kuhn[2], Helene Scheer[1], Vianney Poignavent[1], Patrice Dunoyer[1] and Christophe Ritzenthaler[1*]

1. Institut de biologie de moléculaire des plantes, CNRS, Université de Strasbourg, France.

2. Plateforme protéomique Strasbourg Esplanade FR1589 du CNRS, Université de Strasbourg, Strasbourg, France.

Current address: Gregor Mendel Institute of Molecular Plant Biology (GMI), Vienna, Austria.

*Corresponding author

E-mail: ritzenth@unistra.fr (CR)

ABSTRACT

Plant RNA viruses form highly organized membrane-bound virus replication complexes

(VRCs) to replicate their genome and multiply. VRCs contain both virus- and host-encoded

proteins, and have been investigated through a number of experimental approaches, including

genetic screens on surrogate model experimental hosts and pull-down of viral replicase

proteins. Double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) is an obligate intermediate of the replication

process of all RNA viruses and is the trigger of potent antiviral defenses in all eukaryotes. In

this work, we describe the use of a GFP-tagged dsRNA-binding protein (B2:GFP) to pull

down viral replicating RNA and associated proteins *in planta*. Following infection of *A.*

thaliana constitutively expressing B2:GFP with *tobacco rattle virus* (TRV), we were able

through GFP immunoprecipitation to pull down dsRNA. Mass spectrometry analysis of the

dsRNA-B2:GFP-bound proteins from TRV-infected plants revealed the presence of (i) viral

proteins such as the replicase, which attested to the successful isolation of VRCs, and (ii) a

number of host proteins, some of which have previously been involved in virus infection. To

verify whether the identified host proteins localized at TRV replication complexes, we

selected nine candidates, generated genetic fusions with RFP, and transiently expressed them

in healthy and TRV-infected *N. benthamiana* stably expressing B2:GFP. Confocal

microscopy analysis revealed that eight out of nine candidates showed dramatic re-

localization upon infection, and seven of these co-localized with B2-labeled TRV replication

complexes, providing ample validation for the immunoprecipitation results. We therefore

propose B2:GFP-mediated pull down of dsRNA to be a novel and robust method to explore

the proteome of VRCs *in planta*.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

Viruses are an important class of pathogens that represent a major problem for human, animal and plant health. They hijack the molecular machinery of host cells to complete their replication cycle, a process frequently associated with the production of double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) that is regarded as a universal hallmark of infection by RNA viruses. Here we exploited the capacity of a GFP-tagged dsRNA-binding protein stably expressed in transgenic Arabidopsis to pull down dsRNA and associated proteins upon virus infection. In this manner we specifically captured short and long dsRNA from *tobacco rattle virus* (TRV) infected plants, and successfully isolated viral proteins such as the replicase, which attested to the successful isolation of virus replication complexes (VRCs). More excitingly, a number of host proteins, some of which have previously been involved in virus infection, were also captured. Remarkably, among a set of nine host candidates that were analyzed, eight showed dramatic re-localization to viral factories upon infection, and seven of these co-localized dsRNA-labeled VRCs. Being compatible with any plant virus as long as it infects Arabidopsis, we propose our dsRNA-centered strategy to be a novel and robust method to explore the proteome of VRCs *in planta*.

INTRODUCTION

Viruses are obligate endocellular parasites that hijack their host's molecular processes and machinery to multiply, a process that sometimes results in devastating diseases. Pivotal to a successful infection is the efficient replication of the viral genomic nucleic acid(s). In the majority of plant virus species the genome consists of one or more molecules of single-stranded positive polarity RNA, or (+)ssRNA. Replication is carried out by the virus-encoded RNA-dependent RNA-polymerase (RdRp), often part of a larger protein known as the replicase. This enzyme first copies the viral (+) genome into (-)ssRNA that is then used as a

template for the production of progeny (+)ssRNA. Intrinsic to the RNA replication process is

the generation of long double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) intermediates by the viral RdRp.

The replication of all known (+) strand RNA virus takes place on host membranes whose

origin, whether the endoplasmic reticulum, chloroplasts, mitochondria, peroxisomes etc…,

depends on virus species (reviewed in [1-4]). The progressive virus-induced recruitment of

such membranes generally leads to dramatic reorganizations of the host endomembrane

system into so called "viral factories". These viral factories are the sites where all steps vital

to the virus life are carried out including protein translation, RNA encapsidation and RNA

replication *sensu stricto*. The specialized molecular entities on which RNA replication occurs

within the viral factories are known as the virus replication complexes (VRCs). While a

minimal VRC arguably consists of single- and double-stranded viral RNA and replicase, their

precise composition, which depends on the virus and host species, remains largely

unexplored. A number of studies have shown that specific host proteins can be integral part

of these VRC and exert positive (pro-viral) or negative (anti-viral) effects on replication. Our

knowledge on these host proteins is summarized in several exhaustive reviews [5-7]. These

include among others RNA-binding proteins, RNA helicases, chaperones and proteins

belonging to the RNA interference machinery (RNAi, or RNA silencing), which is the

primary response to replicating viruses in plants and other eukaryotes [8, 9].

Antiviral RNAi against RNA viruses in model plant species *A. thaliana* is initiated by

RNAse-III Dicer-Like enzymes DCL4 and DCL2, which cleave dsRNA into 21- and 22-nt

small-interfering RNA (siRNA), respectively. These siRNA are then loaded into Argonaute

(AGO) proteins, which use them as templates to recognize and cleave viral ssRNA in a

sequence-specific manner. Viruses have evolved a vast array of strategies to evade or block

RNAi, the best studied of which are viral suppressors of RNA silencing (VSRs). These

proteins suppress silencing through a wide range of molecular strategies, from inhibition of

dicing, to siRNA sequestration, to AGO degradation [10]. Of note, *A. thaliana* encodes

several RNAse-III-like enzymes (RTLs) in addition to Dicers, but little is known regarding

their function [11, 12]. The accumulation of viral dsRNA *in planta* varies widely among

(+)ssRNA virus and host species, as we have recently shown [13]. While the precise

molecular events occurring during virus RNA replication are often unclear, it can be argued

that rapid and efficient separation of the (+) and (-) RNA strands could not only allow more

replication cycles to take place, but also constitute a powerful mechanism of RNA silencing

evasion/suppression through removal of dsRNA.

A great deal of our knowledge on plant virus VRCs emerged from a series of seminal studies

conducted with *Tomato bushy stunt virus* (TBSV) on yeast, a surrogate host used as a

powerful biological tool to conduct genetic screens and functional studies on host factors

involved in TBSV VRC activity (reviewed in [5]). While the authors of these studies, where

possible, validated the results obtained in yeast and *in vitro* on plant species *N. benthamiana*,

data obtained *in planta* on VRCs of other viruses remains sparse. Recent studies have

reported methods to spatio-temporally visualize VRCs *in vivo* via fluorescently labeled

dsRNA-binding proteins [8, 13, 14]. Candidate-based, reverse genetic approaches have been

used to probe the involvement of host factors in VRC formation and activity in plants [15,

16]. These approaches, however, are necessarily based on prior discovery acquired by other

experimental means. Another experimental strategy successfully used to characterize VRCs

has been to pull down tagged viral proteins and analyze the resulting protein populations by

mass spectrometry [17-19]. While this last method has provided valid and compelling data,

we decided to investigate VRCs from a viral RNA-centered, rather than viral protein-

centered, perspective. We hypothesized that pull-down of dsRNA from virus-infected plants

followed by mass spectrometry of dsRNA-associated proteins would provide insight into the

molecular composition of VRCs.

To test this hypothesis, we used the eGFP-tagged dsRNA-binding domain of FHV protein

B2, which we have previously used to efficiently detect viral dsRNA *in vitro* and in

constitutively-expressing *N. benthamiana* [13]. *Arabidopsis thaliana* being more appropriate

for genetic studies than *N. benthamiana*, we first generated transgenic *A. thaliana* Col-0

plants stably expressing B2:GFP. We infected them with *Tobacco rattle virus* (TRV), a well-

studied (+)ssRNA virus, performed GFP immunoprecipitation and identified

immunoprecipitated proteins by LC-MS/MS. In this manner, a number of virus- and host-

encoded proteins could be identified. To validate their localization at B2:GFP-labeled TRV

replication complexes, we tagged these candidates with tagRFP (tRFP hereafter) [20],

transiently expressed them in healthy vs. TRV-infected 35S:*B2:GFP*/*N. benthamiana* [13]

and observed the resulting leaf tissues by confocal laser scanning microscopy. We found that

eight out of the nine *A. thaliana* proteins tested, including factors that have never before been

linked to virus infection, re-localized strictly to B2:GFP-labeled TRV VRCs or alternatively

to the larger TRV-induced viral factories. These results provide robust validation of dsRNA

pull-down as an effective and high-throughput method for VRC characterization *in planta*.

Furthermore, the results offer detailed snapshots of TRV replication complexes and viral

factories, with host factors showing unique and distinct localization patterns in and around

these complexes.

RESULTS

B2:GFP-mediated isolation of Tobacco rattle virus dsRNA from *A. thaliana*

The double-stranded RNA-binding B2:GFP protein, when ectopically expressed in transgenic

35S:*B2:GFP*/*N. benthamiana*, has been previously shown to specifically associate with the

VRCs of several positive-strand RNA viruses from plants and insects [13]. Following these

findings, we wished to further exploit B2:GFP as a biochemical bait to explore the

composition and biology of RNA VRCs, the pivotal element of which is dsRNA. To do so,

and given the versatility of *A. thaliana* as a model plant species, we first produced

homozygous 35S:*B2:GFP* transgenic plants. Although in this work we focused essentially on

the 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 line, 35S:*B2:GFP* was also introduced into various genetic

backgrounds including mutants of the core antiviral Dicer-Like genes, *dcl2-1*, *dcl4-2* and

triple *dcl2-1/dcl3-1/dcl4-2* (**Supplementary Figure 1A,B,C**). The rationale behind this

choice is that DCL proteins are arguably the best-known RNAse III enzymes in plants, and

the small-interfering RNA (siRNA) they generate from virus-derived dsRNA precursors are

the effectors of RNA silencing, the main antiviral defense in plants [10, 21]. Similarly to the

B2:FP *N. benthamiana* lines [13] and despite the clear expression of B2:GFP

(**Supplementary Figure 1A),** the different lines showed little to moderate developmental

phenotypes (**Supplementary Figure 1C**). These were very reminiscent of - but distinct from

- those caused by ectopic expression of other RNA silencing suppressors such as P19 or HC-

Pro [22, 23]. Such phenotypes may be determined (i) by inhibition of long dsRNA processing

into siRNA or (ii) by disruption of miRNA function through their sequestration, or both.

The full-length FHV B2 protein has been shown to be a suppressor of RNA silencing [24,

25], and proposed to act through both inhibition of dicing and sequestration of siRNA [26].

To investigate whether the GFP-tagged 73 amino acid dsRNA binding domain of B2 that

lacks the residues involved in the interaction with PAZ domains of Dicer proteins [27, 28]

also acts as a suppressor of RNA silencing, we performed a standard GFP silencing patch test

on *N. benthamiana* leaves (**Supplementary Figure 1D,E**). B2, as a C-terminal fusion to

tRFP (B2:tRFP) was able to suppress silencing of the GFP transgene, as was *Turnip crinkle*

virus suppressor P38. By contrast, a C44S, K47A double-mutated version of B2:tRFP

impaired in dsRNA binding [13] was unable to suppress silencing, suggesting that

suppression activity is dsRNA-binding-dependent and likely DCL-binding-independent.

Next, we investigated the effects of stably expressed B2:GFP on endogenous small RNA

pathways: biogenesis of microRNAs 159 and 160 was not perturbed in 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0

plants, while biogenesis of siRNA such as endo-siRNA (IR71) and *trans*-acting siRNA

(TAS1) was completely abolished (**Supplementary Figure 1B**). Whether these defects in

endo-siRNA and *trans*-acting siRNA biogenesis are responsible of the observed

developmental phenotypes remains to be determined.

Once characterized molecularly, we infected 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 plants with a recombinant

TRV carrying part of the phytoene desaturase (PDS) gene [29]. As expected, the control Col-

0 plants showed minor viral symptoms and the typical bleaching phenotype linked to PDS

gene silencing. In contrast, the B2:GFP-expressing plants showed no significant leaf

discoloration but severe viral symptoms (**Figure 1A**) and death of the plants occurred before

flowering (not shown), well in agreement with the efficient RNA silencing suppression

activity of the B2 dsRNA-binding domain. Observation of systemically infected leaves by

confocal microscopy showed TRV-induced re-localization of B2:GFP to distinct cytosolic

mesh-like structures (**Figure 1B**) very reminiscent to those observed in 35S:*B2:GFP*/*N.*

benthamiana and shown to correspond to TRV-induced VRCs [13]. Northern analysis of

RNA from TRV-PDS systemically infected 35S:*B2:GFP*/*N. benthamiana* and

35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 revealed that B2:GFP caused a striking over-accumulation of viral

(+)ssRNA in both plant species (**Figure 1C**). This is also in agreement with B2:GFP activity

as a suppressor of RNA silencing, and could be recapitulated in a *dcl2-1/dcl4-2* double

mutant (*dcl24*), which lacks the two main antiviral Dicers (**Supplementary Figure 1F**)[30].

In line with the over accumulation of viral (+)ssRNA, B2:GFP also caused a tremendous

increase in long double-stranded RNA content, likely corresponding to replication

intermediates, as determined by northwestern blotting in both B2:GFP-expressing Col-0 and

N. benthamiana plants (**Figure 1D**). In contrast, TRV-derived siRNA were differentially

regulated between Arabidopsis and *N. benthamiana*. Thus, while B2:GFP expression led to

an overall reduction in 21 and 22 nt vsiRNA species in Col-0 plants, the opposite effect was

observed in *N. benthamiana* (**Figure 1E**). Conversely, miR159 and U6-derived snRNA

accumulation was unaffected by the presence of B2:GFP in both plant species (**Figure 1E**,

Supplementary Figure 1B). These results suggest that B2:GFP interferes strongly with TRV

RNA processing by DCL enzymes, thereby promoting viral replication.

As a first experiment establishing B2:GFP as a tool to study VRCs, we performed anti-GFP

immunoprecipitations (IPs) from TRV-PDS-infected 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 plants and analyzed

their composition in (+)strand viral RNA (**Figure 1C**), long dsRNA (**Figure 1D**), siRNA

(**Figure 1E**) and proteins (**Figure 1F**). As a negative control, we included TRV-PDS-infected

35S:*GFP*/Col-0 plants. Northern and northwestern analyses performed on IPed RNA

revealed that immune complexes contained (+)ssRNA, long dsRNA and 22nt vsiRNA, but no

U6 and miR159 (**Figure 1C-E**). Interestingly, and in contrast with our previous report *in*

vitro [13] but well in agreement with the capacity of B2 to bind dsRNAs longer than 18 bp

[26], antiviral siRNA were immunoprecipitated (**Figure 1E**). Western analysis of proteins

from the same experiment revealed efficient IP of both GFP and B2:GFP (**Figure 1F**).

Altogether we concluded that immunoprecipitation allowed the isolation of TRV double-

stranded replication intermediates, the core element of VRCs.

Immunoprecipitation and identification of B2:GFP-associated viral and host proteins

by mass spectrometry

Once established that immunoprecipitation of B2:GFP from plants allowed efficient isolation

of virus replication dsRNA intermediates, we wondered whether these complexes contain

specific virus- and host-encoded proteins. To address this question we performed anti-GFP IP

on TRV-PDS-infected 35S:*GFP*/Col-0 vs. 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 in triplicate, and analyzed the

immunoprecipitated proteins by mass spectrometry (MS). A preliminary analysis by

immunoblot confirmed efficient and reproducible B2:GFP and GFP immunoprecipitation

(**Supplementary Figure 2**), which could be confirmed by MS, reads from B2:GFP and GFP

being the most abundant **(Figure 2A,B, Supplementary Table 2)**. We next searched and

ranked accessions that were identified only - or highly enriched - in 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0

samples (**Figure 2A,B**, **Supplementary Table 2**). As expected, the TRV RNA-dependent

RNA-polymerase (Uniprot accession Q9J942) was among the most abundant proteins

detected in immunoprecipitates from B2:GFP samples and was absent from GFP samples

(**Figure 2**). This result, along with the previously described detection of viral dsRNA in

analogous IPs (**Figure 1**), suggests that B2:GFP immunoprecipitation allows the isolation of

bona fide TRV VRCs. This hypothesis is further supported by the detection of TRV coat

protein (CP, Uniprot Q88897) and 16k suppressor of silencing (Uniprot Q77JX3) in B2:GFP

immunoprecipitates (**Figure 2**). It also suggests that the 16k and CP associate directly or

indirectly to dsRNA. Although unlikely, we can't at this point rule out that one or more of

these TRV proteins bind B2:GFP and not dsRNA. In addition to TRV-encoded proteins, MS

analysis allowed also the identification of 110 host proteins exclusively present in

immunoprecipitates from B2:GFP-expressing plants (**Figure 2** and **Supplementary Table**

2), which we considered as replication complex-associated host protein candidates. Volcano

plot analysis revealed that out of these proteins, 29 presented an adjusted p-value < 0.05

(**Figure 2B**).

With the aim to evaluate the association of candidate host proteins to replication complexes

and considering their high number, we first established a priority list of nine *A. thaliana* gene

products that were either detected with high spectral counts (AT5G02500, AT3G09440,

AT3G12580) or confirmed/potential RNA-binding/interacting proteins from literature or

NCBI annotation (AT1G24450, AT5G04430 [31], AT3G62800 and AT2G28380 [32]), or

both (AT1G23410, AT3G45570)(**Figure 2A,B**). We excluded from our priority list a number

of proteins that were significantly enriched in infected vs. non-infected plants due to the

number of candidates to analyze and their apparent lack of significance in viral replication

process based on literature. This includes for instance the most enriched protein, a

myrosinase present in Brassica crops with anti-microbial activity and involved in defense

against herbivores [33].

tRFP does not label TRV replication complexes *in planta*

In a second step, we tested the subcellular localization of the selected candidates in relation to

B2:GFP in healthy and TRV-infected plants. To do so, we opted for the 35S-driven transient

expression of the Arabidopsis candidates as N- or C-terminal fusions to tRFP in healthy or

TRV-infected 35S:*B2:GFP*/*N. benthamiana*, as described in the methods section. In all cases,

confocal imaging was performed 3-4 days post agro-infiltration, a time that was found to be

optimal for TRV-infection and transient expression of protein candidates.

As an absolute prerequisite to our validation pipeline of candidate proteins and considering

tRFP was used as reporter tag, we first carefully analyzed the intracellular distribution of

tRFP with respect to TRV replication complexes in 35S:*B2:GFP*/*N. benthamiana*. As

expected, tRFP as well as B2:GFP showed a typical nucleo-cytoplasmic localization in cells

from healthy plants (**Figure 3A**), well in agreement with our previous report using the same

experimental system [13]. Crucially, upon infection the intracellular distribution of tRFP

remained unchanged, while B2:GFP concentrated to bright cytoplasmic cotton-ball-like

structures often adjacent to the nucleus (**Figure 3B**). These large structures were previously

shown to correspond to TRV viral factories enriched in mitochondria-derived membranes

[13] on which replication of TRV is thought to occur [34]. Importantly, our data clearly show

that while B2:GFP is highly enriched in TRV replication factories, tRFP alone is significantly

depleted from these structures (**Figure 3B**), in agreement with the behavior of tRFP as

cytoplasmic and validating tRFP as a reporter protein with which to tag the candidates of

interest.

Double-stranded RNA-binding proteins (DRBs) perfectly colocalize with B2-labeled

viral replication complexes

DRBs are proteins with dual dsRNA-binding motifs with five representatives in the

Arabidopsis genome [32, 35]. Despite showing low spectral counts in our IPs, two DRBs

were identified in our analysis: DRB2 (AT2G28380, total counts: 4, **Figure 4A**) and DRB4

(AT3G62800, total counts: 5, **Figure 4A**) that were obvious candidates to test (**Figure 4**).

DRB2 was recently shown to localize to the replication complexes of different RNA viruses

[8], to be able to bind dsRNA [36] and to play a role in endogenous small RNA biogenesis

[32, 37, 38]. In non-infected plants DRB2:tRFP and B2:GFP localized to rather distinct

cytoplasmic and nuclear structures, whereas a near-perfect colocalization of DRB2:tRFP and

B2:GFP was observed in the VRCs upon TRV-PDS infection (**Figure 4B**), which was

particularly evident at high magnification (**Figure 4C)**. Remarkably, while DRB2:tRFP was

almost exclusively found in the cytoplasmic VRCs upon infection, a substantial fraction of

B2:GFP remained associated to nuclear structures likely containing dsRNA (**Figure 4**C).

This suggests that although both proteins are susceptible to bind dsRNA, their intracellular

targeting is likely not exclusively dsRNA-dependent.

DRB4 has been shown to be both a co-factor of DCL4 in small RNA biogenesis and an

inhibitor of DCL3 in endogenous inverted-repeat RNA processing in *A. thaliana* [39, 40].

More relevantly here, DRB4 is involved in the defense against RNA viruses [41, 42]. When

we expressed DRB4:tRFP in non-infected tissue, this protein accumulated predominantly to

the nucleus where it colocalized with B2:GFP (**Figure 4D**), in agreement with previous

reports [8, 13]. Upon TRV infection DRB4:tRFP was clearly redistributed to VRCs, where it

perfectly colocalized with B2:GFP (**Figure 4D, E**). In contrast with DRB2, that was barely

detectable in the nucleus, a significant fraction of DRB4:tRFP remained nuclear upon

infection (**Figure 3D, E**).

Altogether, the robust colocalization of both double-stranded RNA-binding proteins DRB2

and DRB4 with B2:GFP during infection provide (i) further evidence that the TRV-viral

factories are indeed cytoplasmic dsRNA hotspots and, more importantly, (ii) a first validation

of the immunoprecipitation procedure.

Proteins previously linked to viral infection localize at/near VRCs

A family of proteins that emerged with high spectral counts were those belonging to the

HSP70 family: HSP70 (AT3G12580, 63 counts), HSP70-1 (or HSC70-1, AT5G02500, 81

counts) and HSP70-3 (or HSC70-3, AT3G09440, 71 counts) (**Figure 5A**). Members of this

family of chaperones have been shown in several studies to play key roles in virus infection

cycles (reviewed in [5, 43]). They can regulate viral life cycles both positively and

negatively, and depending on the virus, they affect VRC formation, virus movement and coat

protein homeostasis, among other processes. Three recent studies showed that unrelated plant

viruses hijack HSP70 to greatly enhance virus replication [44-46].

All three HSP70 members were tested in TRV-infected **(Figure 5)** and non-infected

(Supplementary Figure 3) 35S:*B2:GFP*/*N. benthamiana*. When overexpressed in healthy

plants HSP70:tRFP, HSP70-1:tRFP, HSP70-3:tRFP localized essentially to distinct

cytoplasmic foci whose number, size and distribution were specific for each of the three

HSP70 observed (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Remarkably, upon infection, HSP70-1:tRFP

(Figure 5C) and HSP70-3:tRFP **(Figure 5D)** were clearly redistributed to TRV viral

factories enriched in B2:GFP. In contrast, the localization pattern of HSP70:tRFP remained

essentially unaffected upon infection, with no obvious colocalization of B2:GFP with

HSP70:tRFP-labeled foci **(Figure 5B, Supplementary Figure 3A)**.

It should be noted that despite the clear redistribution of HSP70-1:tRFP **(Figure 5C)** and

HSP70-3:tRFP upon infection, only partial colocalization was detected between these

proteins and B2:GFP **(Figure 5C,D)**. The latter appeared engulfed in large HSP70-1 or

HSP70-3-containing bodies, likely corresponding to larger viral factories. This sub-

localization is in sharp contrast with the near perfect colocalization of B2:GFP with DRB2

and DRB4 upon infection (**Figure 4**). Altogether our results suggest that HSP70-1 and

HSP70-3, contrarily to HSP70, are *bona fide* components of the TRV viral factories.

However, contrarily to B2, DRB2 and DRB4 that directly interact with dsRNA, HSP70-1 and

HSP70-3 are likely involved in indirect interactions with TRV replication complexes,

perhaps via the TRV replicase or other viral or host components. Interestingly, it has recently

been observed using the B2:GFP system that dsRNA-containing VRCs constitute only a part

of the structures induced by PVX, which in fact also contain viral ssRNA and coat protein

[13]. The components and activities harbored within these larger "viral factories" are still

largely unknown, but the localization patterns of HSP70-1 and HSP70-3 suggests that these

proteins associate not only to replication complexes but also to other entities within viral

factories.

Next, we tested the localization of an RNA-binding protein present in our IP MS list that was

previously shown to associate to plant virus RNA. This protein, known as Binding to ToMV

RNA (BTR1, AT5G04430, 7 counts), was identified through affinity purification of tagged

viral RNA and found *in vitro* to bind to the 5' region of the (+) polarity RNA of ToMV, a

tobamovirus [31]. In our experimental system, BTR1:tRFP localized to numerous

cytoplasmic punctate structures at the cell periphery in non-infected cells **(Supplementary**

figure 3D). Upon TRV-PDS infection, BTR1 was seen to clearly localize at B2:GFP-labeled

VRCs, while to some extent maintaining the localization visible in non-infected cells. At high

magnification it is possible to see that BTR1 did not strictly and exclusively colocalize with

B2:GFP, but could also be seen in the areas surrounding B2:GFP-labeled dsRNA hotspots

(**Figure 5E**). Similarly to HSP70-1 and HSP70-3, it is possible that BTR1 associates not only

to VRCs but also to other entities within viral factories.

Novel proteins are localized at/near replication complexes

Among the potential TRV replication complex-associated proteins identified through IP, we

tested three on which we found no specific function in virus process from the literature: a

RING/U-box protein (AT3G45570) and Ribosomal Protein S27a (AT1G23410), both

detected with relatively high spectral counts, and NFD2 (Nuclear Fusion Defective 2 –

AT1G24450)(**Figure 6A**).

The RING/U-box protein, which we will refer to as RUP1, belongs to the E3 ubiquitin ligase

RBR family. The N-terminal half of the protein is homologous to the RNAse H superfamily,

followed on the C-terminal half by a RING-type zinc-finger domain and an IBR (In Between

Ring fingers) domain. The Ribosomal Protein 27a, here abbreviated to RP27a, is a small

protein of 156 aminoacids with a ubiquitin domain N-terminal half and a zinc-binding

ribosomal protein superfamily C-terminal section. Importantly, all RP27a peptides detected

in B2:GFP co-immunoprecipitated samples belong to the ubiquitin domain, and also match

with the protein sequences of UBQ1 through UBQ14 (**Supplementary Figure 5**). This

suggests ubiquitination of one or more proteins present in the immunoprecipitates that

possibly associated to TRV replication complexes. To investigate which protein/s were

ubiquitinated, we searched the mass spectrometry dataset for di-glycine footprints, a hallmark

of ubiquitination. Interestingly, the only protein found to contain such a feature was RP27a

itself, only on lysine-48 (**Supplementary Figure 5**), suggesting self-ubiquitination and/or the

formation of lysine-48 polyubiquitin chains. Given that no other di-glycine footprint was

found in our spectrometry dataset, the proteins targeted by these chains may have been below

detection level and remain to be identified. Finally, NFD2 was first identified as a factor

involved in karyogamy, the fusion of polar nuclei within the central cell of the female

gametophyte prior to fecundation and the fusion of the sperm cells' nuclei with the egg cell

and the central cell upon fecundation [47]. This protein, containing an RNAse III domain, has

been also described as RNAse Three-Like 4 (RTL4) [11].

In healthy cells, tRFP-tagged RUP1 and RP27a displayed a nucleo-cytoplamic distribution

(**Supplementary Figure 4A,B)**, while NFD2 was essentially found in numerous cytoplasmic

bodies (**Supplementary Figure 4C)**. Upon TRV infection, all three proteins were clearly re-

localized to or near B2:GFP-labeled dsRNA hotspots (**Figure 6**, **Supplementary Figure 4).**

More precisely, RUP1 and RP27a showed patterns similar to those observed with HSP70-1,

with extensive overlap with B2:GFP as seen from the white color in the merged panels

(**Figure 6B,C**). This suggests that RUP1 and RP27a associate not only with VRCs but also to

other entities within viral factories. Interestingly, NFD2 showed a pattern of localization

different from the other proteins tested in this work (**Figure 6D, Supplementary Figure 4C**).

Although localization of NFD2 and B2 seemed mutually exclusive, NFD2 being absent from

B2:GFP-labeled structures and vice versa, a continuum between B2:GFP-labeled hotspots

and NFD2-labeled structures was observed (**Figure 6D**), suggesting that NFD2 is intimately

linked to TRV-induced subcellular entities and was therefore immunoprecipitated. In

addition, the complete localization of NFD2 in close proximity to TRV replication complexes

was in stark contrast with the perinuclear and cytoplasmic point-form localization of NFD2 in

non-infected plants (**Supplementary Figure 4C**).

DISCUSSION

We have here provided a description of a novel approach toward the identification of VRC-

associated proteins through the isolation of replicating viral dsRNA during genuine infection,

and validated the localization of most of the candidates through a rapid, robust and simple

system. Although the proof of concept is established here only for TRV, this approach should

be compatible with any plant virus as long as it is able to produce dsRNA during its

replication cycle. Importantly, it does not involve as a prerequisite any modification of viral

genomes, the production of infectious clones or the specific tagging of viral protein. Also,

considering the isolation of viral dsRNA and associated proteins is achieved indirectly by

anti-GFP antibodies, there is no requirement for virus- or dsRNA-specific antibodies in the

process. Hopefully this experimental approach will provide future investigators with a

universal tool to successfully explore the proteome associated to the replication complexes of

their favorite RNA virus, which can then be studied more in detail to discover the function of

VRC-associated proteins and their involvement in the viral life cycle. As hosts,

35S:*B2:GFP*/*A. thaliana* (this study) and 35S:*B2:GFP*/*N. benthamiana* [13] are compatible

with numerous plant virus species. If needed, the systems could be easily adapted to other

plant species, as long as they accommodate stable transformation.

We have shown that ectopic expression of B2:GFP greatly increases the accumulation of

TRV RNA both in *A. thaliana* and *N. benthamiana*. Given the activity of the 73 amino-acid

double-stranded binding domain of B2 as a VSR (this work), it is tempting to ascribe TRV

over-accumulation simply as a consequence of RNA silencing suppression and subsequent

enhanced viral replication. While this is very probably the case, it cannot be excluded that

B2:GFP increases TRV accumulation by other means independent of RNAi, such as

stabilization of dsRNA or its protection from other host defensive pathways. Preliminary data

also suggest that enhanced viral replication may not be restricted to TRV but likely applies to

other RNA virus (Ritzenthaler, unpublished)

The drastic effect of B2:GFP on TRV infection can be viewed as a double-edged sword in

relation to its use as bait to pull down VRCs. On one hand, this effect may introduce biases of

both quantitative and qualitative nature, such as the unspecific association to VRCs of host

proteins that do not play a role during infection in wild-type conditions or changes in the

accessibility or protein complement of replicating RNA, for example. On the other hand, the

over-accumulation of TRV dsRNA constitutes a real advantage for the study of VRCs. In

fact, increased viral replication is in favor of (i) a better immunoprecipitation efficiency, (ii)

an enhanced detection of protein partners by mass spectrometry and (iii) an improved

visualization of VRCs with test candidates. While these biases clearly need to be taken into

account, we strongly believe that overall this approach has far more advantages than

drawbacks.

The abundance of TRV replicase detected in the IPs is, in our opinion, confirmation of the

robustness of the experiment in terms of VRC yield and integrity. The abundant detection of

the coat protein suggests that it either plays a direct role in TRV replication or that the VRCs

present in the IPs contain not only full-length dsRNA, but also (+)ssRNA that is being

encapsidated, possibly during or just after separation from the (-) strand. However, despite

the use of detergent during the IPs, it is possible that we have pulled down proteins present

on membranes or complexes close to the replication organelles but not actually part of them.

Remarkably, among the nine candidate *A. thaliana* proteins detected following B2 IP and

tested in this work, only one, HSP70, failed to accumulate in VRCs despite a high spectral

count. HSP70 has been linked to viral infection in a number of papers [5, 43] and found to

directly bind the viral replicase in at least two studies [48, 49]. It is possible that the tRFP

could have disrupted the function of the protein. Another possibility is that the *A. thaliana*

HSP70 (AT3G12580) may not be fully functional when expressed in the heterologous host *N.*

benthamiana.

All remaining 8 candidates were specifically redistributed upon infection, suggesting

involvement of these factors in the viral life cycle. Their localization patterns can be divided

into three groups: perfect co-localization (DRB2 and DRB4), partial co-localization (HSP70-

1, HSP70-3, BTR1, RUP1 and RP27a) and proximity (NFD2).

Perfect co-localization most likely reflects the direct association of DRB2 and DRB4 on

replicating dsRNA within the VRCs. This result is in line with the experimentally verified

ability of DRB2 and DRB4 to bind dsRNA [36, 50] and of DRB4 to bind TYMV dsRNA *in*

vivo [41]. DRB2 was recently shown in *A. thaliana* to re-localize to cytoplasmic punctate

bodies upon infection by TuMV, TSWV and TYMV [8] and DRB4 to re-localize from nuclei

to cytoplasmic VRCs upon TYMV infection [41]. While DRB4 plays a role in antiviral

defense [41, 42] as part of the RNA silencing machinery, the function of DRB2 recruitment

to replication complexes, if any, remains to be uncovered. Although additional experiments

are required to confirm the direct association of DRB2 and DRB4 to TRV replicating

dsRNA, our data suggest that host proteins including antiviral defense protein such as DRBs

may have access to vdsRNA within replication organelles. This potentially questions the

suggested function of replication organelles as protective structures against degradation by

cellular RNases and detection by putative dsRNA sensors that trigger antiviral responses [51-

53].

The pattern of partial co-localization, observed for HSP70-1, HSP70-3, BTR1, RUP1 and

RP27a/Ubiquitin, consisted in the localization at the B2-labeled VRCs *per se*, as well as

features in close proximity, generally designated as "viral factories". In the case of PVX, the

dsRNA-containing replication complexes reside within larger viral factories harboring other

viral proteins and viral ssRNA [13]. In general, these viral factories are most likely the hub

for a plethora of viral activities beyond RNA replication *sensu stricto,* such as translation,

encapsidation, etc…, and which likely require specific host-encoded proteins. Our work

suggests that HSP70-1, HSP70-3, BTR1, RUP1 and RP27a/Ubiquitin may play such

functions during replication of TRV and possibly other viruses. Indeed, HSP70-3 and BTR1

have been shown to interact with TuMV replicase [17] and ToMV ssRNA [31], respectively.

Similarly, ubiquitin and the ubiquitin pathway have been shown in a number of studies to

play important roles in plant virus life cycle, both pro-viral and anti-viral, the details of which

are exhaustively reviewed in [54, 55]. Finally concerning NFD2, the pattern of proximity

suggests that this protein may indirectly be involved in viral factory function without directed

association with viral dsRNA per se. A proper validation of all these candidates by genetic

and cell biology approaches is now required, but is outside the scope of this manuscript and

will be addressed in further studies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Golden Gate pEAQΔP19 vector construction

Binary vector pEAQΔP19-GG was obtained by, (i) removing 3 SapI restriction sites present

in pEAQ-*HT* [56], (ii) inserting a Golden Gate cassette (similar to Gateway without AttR1/2)

with SapI sites at extremities and (iii) removing P19. Two silent substitutions into Neomycin

phosphotransferase (nptII) gene and one substitution near the origin of replication (ColE1)

were produced by PCR mutagenesis using Phusion polymerase in GC buffer supplemented

with 5% DMSO (primers in **Supplementary Table 1**, n°595-596 and 638-641) in order to

obtain plasmid pEAQ-HT-ΔSapI. A Golden Gate cassette amplicon (pEAQ-HT as matrix, see

primer n°589+642 **Supplementary Table 1**) was inserted via AgeI/XhoI restriction sites in

pEAQ-HT-ΔSapI. Finally, P19 was excised by double restriction EcoNI/SgsI (FD1304,

FD1894, Thermo Scientific), extremities were filled in with Klenow fragment (EP0051,

Thermo Scientific), supplemented with dNTPs, followed by a ligation step and

transformation in *E. coli* (ccdB Survival strain, Invitrogen).

Plant material

Transgenic 35S:*B2:GFP*/*N. benthamiana* plants were previously described [13]. Transgenic

A. thaliana plants (Col-0 line and genetic backgrounds including mutants of the core antiviral

Dicer-Like genes, *dcl2-1*, *dcl4-2* and triple *dcl2-1/dcl3-1/dcl4-2* lines - [30] expressing

35S:*B2:GFP* were generated using same plasmid (pEAQΔP19-B2:GFP) and agrobacteria

described in [13], following floral dip transformation [57] with addition of PPM (Plant

Preservative Mixture, Plant Cell Technology) at 2 ml/L in MS medium. Individual

Arabidopsis transformed lines were self-pollinated to generate (F3) plants homozygous for

the transgene.

Cloning of candidate genes

Candidate genes were amplified from *A. thaliana* genomic DNA with primers designed to

contain SapI restriction sites compatible with Golden Gate cloning [58] and adapters

necessary for ligation to an N-terminal or C-terminal tag (primer list in **Supplementary**

Table 1). In the case of genes containing SapI restriction sites, silent mutations were

introduced to remove these sites through overlap PCR. In parallel, tRFP was amplified with

primers designed to contain SapI restriction sites, adapters for ligation to the N- or C-terminal

end of the candidate gene and a peptide linker (GGGSGGG amino acid sequence) between

tRFP and the candidate gene. PCR products were purified from agarose gel and used in a

Golden Gate reaction containing the candidate gene, tRFP, binary vector pEAQΔP19-GG,

SapI (R0569L, New England Biolabs), CutSmart buffer (New England Biolabs), T4 DNA

ligase 5U/µl (EL0011, Thermo Scientific) and 0.5 or 1 mM ATP (R0441, Thermo Scientific).

Golden Gate reaction cycling: 10 cycles of 37°C 10 min, 18°C 10 min ; 18°C 50 min, 50°C

10 min, 80°C 10 min. Following transformation in *E. coli* (TOP10 strain, Invitrogen),

purification and sequencing, plasmids were transformed into *A. tumefaciens* strain GV3101.

pEAQΔP19-B2:RFP served as matrix to generate plasmid pEAQΔP19-B2mut:RFP as

described in [13](primers n°631-632, **Supplementary Table 1**).

Plant inoculation and infection

For fluorescence microscopy experiments, leaves of 5-6 week-old 35S:*B2:GFP/N.*

benthamiana were infiltrated with *A. tumefaciens* GV3101 carrying plasmid pEAQΔP19

containing the tagged gene of interest, at absorbance$_{600nm}$ (A_{600}) of 0.2. Prior to inoculation,

bacteria were incubated in 10 mM MES pH 5.6, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 200 µM acetosyringone for 1

hour. TRV infection was initiated upon agro-infection with bacteria carrying plasmids

expressing the two viral genomic RNAs [24], at A_{600} 0.01 each. This method of virus

delivery was chosen because it results in homogenous and ubiquitous infection throughout

the inoculated tissue. 3-4 days post-inoculation, leaf disks were collected and observed by

confocal microscopy. *A. thaliana* infection was carried out as for *N. benthamiana*, with the

difference that *A. tumefaciens* was induced by incubating 5-6 hours in induction medium

(10.5 g/L K_2HPO_4, 4.5 g/L KH_2PO_4, 1 g/L $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 0.5 g/L sodium citrate, 0.1 g/L

$MgSO_4$, 0.4% glycerol, 0.1 g/L MES, 200 µM acetosyringone), and bacteria used at A_{600} 0.5

each. Systemically infected leaves were harvested 12-13 dpi. *N. benthamiana* plants were

kept in a greenhouse at 22-18°C, 16h/8h light/dark photoperiod, while *A. thaliana* were kept

in a neon-lit growth chamber at 22-18°C, 12h/12h light/dark photoperiod.

Immunoprecipitation

Immunoprecipitations were performed as previously described [22], with minor

modifications. 0.15 g of young rosette leaves were ground in liquid nitrogen, homogenized in

a chilled mortar with 1 ml lysis buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 8, 50 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-

100) containing 1 tablet/50 ml of protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche), transferred to a tube and

incubated for 15 min at 4°C on a wheel. Cell debris was removed by two successive

centrifugations at 12000g for 10 min at 4°C, after which an aliquot of supernatant was taken

as input fraction. The remaining extract was incubated with magnetic microbeads coated with

monoclonal anti-GFP antibodies (μMACS purification system, Miltenyi Biotech, catalog

number #130-091-125) at 4°C for 20 min. Sample was then passed through M column

(MACS purification system, Miltenyi Biotech) and an aliquot of the flow-through fraction

was taken. The M column was then washed 2 times with 500 μl of lysis buffer and 1 time

with 100 μl of washing buffer (20 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.5). The beads and associated immune

complexes were recovered by removing the M column from the magnetic stand and passing 1

ml Tri Reagent (for subsequent RNA analysis – see dedicated section) or 200 μl hot 1X

Laemmli buffer (for protein analysis – see dedicated section). 4X Laemmli buffer was added

to input and flow-through fractions before protein denaturation for 5 min at 95°C.

RNA extraction and analysis

RNA from total and immunoprecipitated fractions was performed with Tri-Reagent (Sigma)

according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 0.2 g tissue were ground in liquid nitrogen

and homogenized in 1 ml Tri-Reagent, 400 μl of chloroform were added, and sample was

thoroughly shaken for 2 min. After 10 min spin at 13000 rpm, 4°C, supernatant was added to

at least 1 vol isopropanol (and 1.5 μl glycogen in the case of immunoprecipitated samples -

IP) and incubated 1 hour on ice (O/N for IP). After 15 min spin at 13000 rpm, 4°C (30 min

for IP), pellet was washed in 80% ethanol, dried and resuspended in water. RNA was

analyzed by northern blot (denaturing agarose gel to detect high molecular weight RNA,

denaturing PAGE to detect low molecular weight RNA) and northwestern blot (native

agarose gel to detect long double-stranded RNA). In northern blot, miRNA were detected

through DNA oligonucleotides labeled with γ-^{32}P-ATP using T4 PNK (see **Supplementary**

Table 1). TRV genomic and subgenomic RNAs were detected in the same way, with an

oligonucleotide complementary to a part of the 3'UTR sequence common to RNA1 and

RNA2. TRV-PDS-derived siRNA were detected through PCR-amplified *A. thaliana* PDS

sequence labeled by random priming reactions in the presence of α-^{32}P-dCTP. In

northwestern blot, dsRNA were detected through recombinant Strep-Tagged FHV B2, as

previously described [13].

Protein extraction and analysis

Proteins from total fractions were extracted as previously described [59]. Immunoprecipitated

proteins for mass spectrometry analysis were isolated as described above, then denatured 5

min at 95°C. Immunoprecipitated proteins from RNA IP were obtained by collecting the

phenolic phase following Tri-reagent/chloroform extraction, adding 3-4 vol acetone and

incubating at -20°C O/N. After centrifugation (13000 rpm, 15 min, 4°C) pellet was washed in

80% acetone and resuspended in 1X Laemmli. Proteins were resolved by SDS-PAGE and

electro-blotted onto Immobilion-P membrane. This was incubated with the appropriate

antibodies (anti-GFP polyclonal antibody and anti-tRFP antibody, Evrogen, reference #

AB233) and revealed with Roche LumiLight ECL kit after incubation with secondary

antibody.

Mass spectrometry analysis and data processing

Proteins were digested with sequencing-grade trypsin (Promega) and analyzed by nanoLC-

MS/MS on a TripleTOF 5600 mass spectrometer (Sciex, USA) as described previously [60].

Data were searched against the TAIR v.10 database with a decoy strategy (27281 protein

forward sequences). Peptides were identified with Mascot algorithm (version 2.5, Matrix

Science, London, UK) and data were further imported into Proline v1.4 software

(http://proline.profiproteomics.fr/). Proteins were validated on Mascot pretty rank equal to 1,

and 1% FDR on both peptide spectrum matches (PSM score) and protein sets (Protein Set

score). The total number of MS/MS fragmentation spectra was used to quantify each protein

from at least three independent biological replicates. A statistical analysis based on spectral

counts was performed using a homemade R package as described in [61]. The R package

uses a negative binomial GLM model based on EdgeR [62] and calculates, for each identified

protein, a fold-change, a p-value and an adjusted p-value corrected using Benjamini-

Hochberg method.

Confocal laser scanning microscopy

Observations of leaf disks were carried out using Zeiss LSM700 and LSM780 laser scanning

confocal microscopes. eGFP was excited at 488 nm, while tRFP was excited at 561 nm.

Image processing was performed using ImageJ/FIJI, while figure panels were assembled with

Adobe Photoshop.

DATA AVAILABILITY

All data are available in the manuscript and in Supplementary files. Raw data from gels and

blots can be found with the Blotting Source Data file. Additional confocal acquisitions for

each candidate tested can be found in the Microscopy Source Data file. Raw/unprocessed

confocal images (.lsm format) and mass spectrometry data used to assemble all figures have

been deposited in the public repository Zenodo. They can be accessed at the DOI: TO BE

GENERATED.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or

financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Study conception and design: M.I. and C.R.; generation of transgenic *A. thaliana* lines: B.M.;

immunoprecipitation experiments: M.I.; RNA and protein extraction, northern and north-

western blotting: M.I.; western blotting: M.I. and H.S.; mass spectrometry: L.K.; statistical

analysis of co-IP data: L.K. and H.S.; molecular cloning: M.I., B.M. and V.P.; recombinant

B2 production: V.P.; *N. benthamiana* inoculation and infection: M.I.; laser confocal

microscopy: M.I.; writing: M.I. and C.R.; supervision: C.R.; funding acquisition: C.R. and

P.D.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Immunoprecipitation of B2:GFP allows the isolation of TRV dsRNA *in vivo*.

(A) Photos of *A. thaliana* Col-0 and 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 plants 13 days post-infection with

TRV-PDS. **(B)** Confocal microscopy analysis of non-infected (n.i. - top left) and TRV-PDS

systemically-infected leaves of 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 plants. On the right, higher magnification

(63x) images of TRV replication complexes from the same tissues as those visible at lower

magnification (20x) on the left middle and bottom. **(C)** Northern blot analysis of high

molecular weight RNA from total fractions of TRV-PDS-infected wild-type or 35S:*B2:GFP*

N. benthamiana (left), and from total (middle) and anti-GFP immunoprecipitated (right)

fractions from infected 35S:*GFP* and 35S:*B2:GFP/*Col-0 *A. thaliana*. **(D)** Northwestern blot

analysis of native-state high molecular weight RNA from samples described in (C). EtBr

staining was used as loading control in (C) and (D). **(E)** Northern blot analysis of low

molecular weight RNA from samples described in (C). The probes were applied sequentially

on the same membrane in successive rounds of probing and stripping. snU6 and miR159

were used as loading controls. **(F)** Western blot analysis of proteins from the same

immunoprecipitation experiment analyzed in (C). Coomassie staining was used as loading

control. Source data is available with the Blotting Source Data.

Figure 2: Immunoprecipitation of B2:GFP allows the isolation of TRV proteins and

host factors. Mass spectrometry analyses of anti-GFP immunoprecipitated proteins from

TRV-PDS-infected 35S:*GFP*/Col-0 and 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 plants. Three technical replicates

were performed and analyzed per genotype. *A. thaliana* proteins shown here are the ones that

have been tested in this study. Abbreviations correspond to those available in literature,

except for RP27a and RUP1, which have been here assigned for lack of previously

established ones. Accession numbers correspond to UniProt (TRV proteins) and TAIR (*A.*

thaliana proteins) databases. **(A)** Table containing the spectral counts obtained per technical

replicate for bait proteins (GFP + B2), TRV proteins and *A. thaliana* proteins. **(B)** Volcano

plot representation shows the enrichment of proteins from TRV-infected plants that co-

purified with B2:GFP. Y- and X-axis display adjusted p-values and fold changes,

respectively. The dashed line indicates the threshold above which proteins are significantly

enriched (adjP < 0.05). The source data are available in **Supplementary Table 2**, **(C)**

Sequence coverage obtained on all the proteins listed in (A). For each of the 14 entries, the

length of the protein is displayed while the covered residues are highlighted with blue vertical

bars. The total number of spectra matching on each protein in the three replicates is indicated,

as well as the corresponding total number of unique peptide sequences. The complete protein

list can be found in Supplementary Table 2.

Figure 3: tRFP does not re-localize to TRV replication complexes. Laser confocal

microscopy on 35S:*B2:GFP/N. benthamiana* leaves transiently expressing 35S:*tRFP*. **(A)**

Acquisition from non-infected leaf disks (20x objective). Scale bars indicate 50 μm. **(B)**

Acquisition of TRV-PDS-infected leaf disks (20x objective, top), focused on TRV replication

complexes (63x objective, middle and bottom). Scale bars indicate 50 and 10 μm,

respectively. Additional acquisitions can be found with the Microscopy Source Data.

Figure 4: ***A. thaliana* double-stranded RNA-binding proteins localize at TRV replication**

complexes. (A) Summary of mass spectrometry data obtained on DRB2 and DRB4, as a

volcano plot (left) and sequence coverage plot (right), already shown in Figure 1. **(B-D)**

Laser confocal microscopy on 35S:*B2:GFP/N. benthamiana* leaves transiently expressing

35S:*DRB2:tRFP* (B,C) or 35S:*DRB4:tRFP* (D,E). **(B)** Acquisitions with 20x objective of

non-infected (top) and TRV-PDS-infected (bottom) leaf disks expressing DRB2:tRFP. Scale

bars indicate 50 μm. **(C)** Acquisitions with 63x objective of TRV-PDS-infected leaf disks of

tissue described in (B). Scale bars indicate 10 μm. **(D,E)** As in (B,C), but from tissue

expressing DRB4:tRFP. Additional acquisitions can be found with the Microscopy Source

Data.

Figure 5: Proteins previously implicated in viral life cycle localize at or near the

replication complexes. (A) Summary of mass spectrometry data obtained on HSP70,

HSP70-1, HSP70-3 and BTR1, as a volcano plot (left) and sequence coverage plot (right),

already shown in Figure 1. **(B-E)** Laser confocal microscopy on 35S:*B2:GFP/N.*

benthamiana TRV-PDS-infected leaf disks transiently expressing **(A)** 35S:*HSP70:tRFP,* **(B)**

35S:*HSP70-1:tRFP*, **(C)** 35S:*HSP70-3:tRFP,* **(D)** 35S:*BTR1:tRFP*. Acquisitions in (B): 20x

objective, scale bars indicate 50 μm. Acquisitions in (C, D, E): 63x objective, scale bars

indicate 10 μm. Additional acquisitions can be found with the Microscopy Source Data.

Figure 6: Localization of previously undescribed proteins at or near the replication

complexes. (A) Summary of mass spectrometry data obtained on RUP1, RP27a and NFD2,

as a volcano plot (left) and sequence coverage plot (right), already shown in Figure 1. Laser

confocal microscopy (63x objective) on 35S:*B2:GFP/N. benthamiana* TRV-PDS-infected

leaf disks transiently expressing **(A)** 35S:*RUP1:tRFP*, **(B)** 35S:*tRFP:RP27a*, **(C)**

35S:*tRFP:NFD2*. Scale bars indicate 10 μm. Additional acquisitions can be found with the

Microscopy Source Data.

Supplementary Figure 1: (A) Western blot analysis to detect GFP in protein extracts from

35S:*B2:GFP* transgenic *A. thaliana* lines in Col-0 and *dcl2-1*, *dcl4-2* and triple *dcl2-1/dcl3-*

1/dcl4-2 mutant backgrounds. Coomassie blue was used as loading control. **(B)** Northern

analysis of low molecular weight RNA (PAGE gel) from the plants described in (A), to

detect endogenous miRNA (miR159, miR160) and siRNA (TAS1, IR71). Probes were

hybridized to the membrane through sequential stripping and probing. **(C)** Photos of the

plants described in (A). **(D)** *N. benthamiana* leaf infiltrated with *A. tumefaciens* expressing

GFP alone (top left) or in combination with P38, B2:tRFP or B2mut:tRFP, and illuminated

with UV light. **(E)** Western blot analysis to detect GFP (top) and tRFP (bottom) in protein

extracts from the infiltrated patches described in (E). **(F)** Northern analysis of high molecular

weight RNA (agarose gel) from TRV-PDS systemically infected Col-0 and *dcl* mutant

backgrounds. Source data is available with the Blotting Source Data.

Supplementary Figure 2: Western analysis to detect GFP in protein extracts from the input,

flow-through and anti-GFP immunoprecipitated fractions obtained from TRV-PDS-infected

35S:*GFP*/Col-0 and 35S:*B2:GFP*/Col-0 plants, performed in three technical replicates.

Coomassie staining was used as loading control. The proteins from the immunoprecipitated

fraction were further analyzed by mass spectrometry, and the results are shown in Table 1.

Source data is available with the Blotting Source Data.

Supplementary Figure 3: Laser confocal microscopy (20x objective) on 35S:*B2:GFP/N.*

benthamiana non-infected (left) and TRV-PDS-infected (right) leaf disks transiently

expressing **(A)** 35S:*HSP70:tRFP,* **(B)** 35S:*HSP70-1:tRFP*, **(C)** 35S:*HSP70-3:tRFP*, **(D)**

35S:*BTR1:tRFP*. Scale bars indicate 50μm. Additional acquisitions can be found with the

Microscopy Source Data in the Supplementary Information.

Supplementary Figure 4: Laser confocal microscopy (20x objective) on 35S:*B2:GFP/N.*

benthamiana non-infected (left) and TRV-PDS-infected (right) leaf disks transiently

expressing **(A)** 35S:*RUP1:tRFP,* **(B)** 35S:*tRFP:RP27a*, **(C)** 35S:*tRFP:NFD2*. Scale bars

indicate 50μm. Additional acquisitions can be found with the Microscopy Source Data in the

Supplementary Information.

Supplementary Figure 5: (A) Sequence coverage obtained by MS on the RP27a protein

(P59271). Four distinct tryptic peptides have been validated by Mascot algorithm at

FDR<1% (bold residues). The total number of spectra matching on the 4 peptides are

displayed as green bars with a color code according to the replicate. The Ubiquitin domain

[1-76] is highlighted in green. Tryptic cleavage sites (K/R) are underlined. **(B)** Multiple

sequence alignment between RP27a sequence and UBQ1 to UBQ14 *A.thaliana* sequences

(UniProtKB).   Output   generated   with   the   MUSCLE   tool

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/muscle). **(C)** MS/MS spectrum corresponding to the

ubiquitinated peptide [43-54] LIFAGK(Ub)QLEDGR identified by Mascot algorithm on

RP27a protein (Score = 55.68, m/z=487.60, 3+, RT=42.97min). The fragmentation pattern

involving the y- and b-ions validated by Mascot is displayed on the upper left corner. The di-

glycine motif is highlighted by the GL abbreviation above the K-48 residue, as well as the

mass difference between y(6) and y(7) fragments.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

A

Description	Abbreviation	Accession	Spectral count					
			35S:*GFP*/Col-0			35S:*B2GFP*/Col-0		
			#1	#2	#3	#1	#2	#3
GFP			425	504	676	871	1042	963
B2			4			878	806	883
TRV Replicase		Q9J942				203	219	220
TRV Coat Protein		Q88897				249	250	250
TRV 16k Protein		Q77JX3				6	8	5
Ribosomal protein S27a	RP27a	AT1G23410				27	29	26
Heat Shock Protein 70-1	HSP70-1	AT5G02500				24	29	28
Heat Shock Protein 70-3	HSP70-3	AT3G09440				22	26	23
Heat Shock Protein 70	HSP70	AT3G12580				18	23	22
RING/U-box Protein	RUP1	AT3G45570				17	19	14
Ribonuclease III family protein	NFD2	AT1G24450				2	4	6
Binding to ToMV RNA 1	BTR1	AT5G04430				2	4	1
DsRNA-binding Protein 4	DRB4	AT3G62800				2	2	1
DsRNA-binding Protein 2	DRB2	AT2G28380					1	3

B

C

GFP: 4481 spectra / 29 peptides

B2: 2571 spectra / 13 peptides

TRV Replicase (Q9J942): 642 spectra / 60 peptides

TRV Coat Protein (Q88897): 749 spectra / 22 peptides

TRV 16k Protein (Q77JX3): 19 spectra / 3 peptides

RP27a (AT1G23410): 82 spectra / 4 peptides

HSP70-1 (AT5G02500): 81 spectra / 12 peptides

HSP70-3 (AT3G09440): 71 spectra / 10 peptides

HSP70 (AT3G12580): 63 spectra / 8 peptides

RUP1 (AT3G45570): 50 spectra / 1 peptide

NFD2 (AT1G24450): 12 spectra / 2 peptides

BTR1 (AT5G04430): 7 spectra / 2 peptides

DRB4 (AT3G62800): 5 spectra / 1 peptide

DRB2 (AT2G28380): 4 spectra / 2 peptides

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6