1 Title: Interaction of the *Xanthomonas* effectors XopQ and XopX results in induction of

- 2 rice immune responses
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4 Running head: XopQ and XopX in immune response modulation

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23 Summary

24 Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae uses several type III secretion system (T3SS) effectors, 25 namely XopN, XopQ, XopX, and XopZ, to suppress rice immune responses that are induced 26 following treatment with cell wall degrading enzymes. Here we show that the T3SS secreted 27 effector XopX interacts with two of the eight rice 14-3-3 proteins. Mutants of XopX that are defective in 14-3-3 binding are also defective in suppression of immune responses, 28 29 suggesting that interaction with 14-3-3 proteins is required for suppression of host innate 30 immunity. However, Agrobacterium mediated delivery of both XopX and XopQ into rice 31 cells results in induction of rice immune responses. These immune responses are not 32 observed when either protein is individually delivered into rice cells. XopQ-XopX induced 33 rice immune responses are not observed in a XopX mutant that is defective in 14-3-3 binding. 34 Yeast two- hybrid and BiFC assays indicate that XopQ and XopX interact with each other. In 35 a screen for Xanthomonas effectors which can suppress XopQ- XopX induced rice immune 36 responses, five effectors were identified, namely XopU, XopV, XopP, XopG and AvrBs2, 37 which were able to do so. These results suggest a complex interplay of Xanthomonas T3SS 38 effectors in suppression of pathogen triggered immunity and effector triggered immunity to 39 promote virulence on rice.

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41 Significance statement:

This work studies the role of the type III effector XopX in the suppression and induction of rice immune responses, by differential interaction with the 14-3-3 proteins, or with the type III effector XopQ respectively. We have also identified a subset of type III effectors which can suppress this form of immune responses.

46

47 Introduction

48 Plants are subject to attack by various pathogenic organisms. To combat these pathogens, 49 plants have evolved an immune system that is inducible and multi-layered. The first line of 50 defence arises from the recognition of signature patterns on the pathogen, known as pattern -51 associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) through specific pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) 52 at the plant cell surface (Saijo et al., 2018). This leads to activation of PAMP-triggered 53 immunity (PTI), which is characterised by production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), callose deposition and expression of defence- related genes (Jones and Dangl, 2006). 54 55 Successful pathogens suppress this immune response with the help of effectors, which in Gram-negative bacteria are primarily secreted through their type III secretion system. For 56 57 this, they target specific plant proteins involved in the immune response cascade (White and 58 Yang, 2009). For example, the Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae effector XopQ interacts with 59 the rice 14-3-3 proteins to suppress immune responses (Deb et al., 2019). The AvrPto effector 60 has also been shown to interact with the plant receptor FLS2, which recognizes the bacterial 61 flagellin, further suppressing host PTI (Xiang et al., 2008). The XopJ effector of 62 Xanthomonas campestris mediates inhibition of the proteasome to interfere with SA-63 dependent defence response (Üstün et al., 2013). The second layer of plant defence involves 64 recognition of these effectors by the plant, via specific disease resistance genes (R genes), 65 which are usually nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat (NB-LRR) proteins, leading to 66 effector- triggered immunity (ETI) (Chisholm et al., 2006). ETI generally leads to a strong 67 defence reaction called the hypersensitive response (HR), characterized by rapid cell death 68 and local necrosis, which prevents further spread of pathogen (Oh and Martin, 2011).

The type III effectors Xanthomonas outer protein Q (XopQ) and XopX of *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae* had been identified as two out of four type III effectors which could suppress the innate immune responses induced by treatment of a cell- wall degrading enzyme in rice (Sinha et al., 2013). The XopQ protein is highly conserved in Xanthomonads (Hajri et al., 73 2009, Moreira et al., 2010, Jalan et al., 2013, Potnis et al., 2011), and has been shown to 74 require its biochemical activity for complete virulence in rice (Gupta et al., 2015). XopQ also 75 has motifs for binding to 14-3-3 proteins (Dubrow et al., 2018, Deb et al., 2019). The 14-3-3 76 proteins are eukaryotic adapter proteins which play key roles in multiple cellular events in 77 plants (Cotelle and Leonhardt, 2015, Cotelle et al., 2000). Rice has genes encoding for eight 78 14-3-3 isoforms, named as *gf14a*, *gf14b*, *gf14c*, *gf14d*, *gf14e*, *gf14f*, *gf14g* and *gf14h* (Chen et 79 al., 2006).

80 A number of studies have shown the role of the 14-3-3 proteins in modulation of PTI and ETI 81 (Lozano-Duran and Robatzek, 2015), by the binding of host 14-3-3 proteins with the type III 82 effectors of the pathogen (Dubrow et al., 2018). The ability of X. oryzae pv. oryzae XopQ 83 protein to interact with 14-3-3 proteins has been shown to be important for its ability to 84 suppress rice immune responses (Deb et al., 2019). The X. campestris pv. vesicatoria XopQ 85 has been shown to suppress effector triggered immunity (ETI)- associated cell death in 86 pepper by interacting with the 14-3-3 protein TFT4 (Teper et al., 2014), and also suppresses 87 cell death triggered by MAPKKK α (Teper et al., 2015). In two different studies, phosphorylation of the Pseudomonas ortholog, HopQ1, has been shown to enable binding of 88 89 host 14-3-3 proteins, and has been shown to interact with the tomato 14-3-3 proteins TFT1 90 and TFT5 in a phosphorylation-dependent manner (Li et al., 2013, Giska et al., 2013). On the 91 other hand, the X. campestris pv. vesicatoria XopX protein has been shown to contribute to 92 virulence in pepper and tomato, and modulates the plant immune response, resulting in 93 enhanced susceptibility of the plant (Metz et al., 2005). However, XopX also seems to be an 94 inducer of rice immune responses wherein it was shown to weakly upregulate PTI marker 95 genes (Stork et al., 2015). The X. oryzae pv. oryzae XopX protein has five putative 14-3-3 96 protein binding motifs.

97 In this study, we show that the X. oryzae pv. oryzae XopX protein interacts with rice 14-3-3 98 proteins and that this interaction is necessary for its ability to suppress rice immune 99 responses. We also demonstrate that XopX interacts with XopQ. This interaction results in 100 induction of rice immune responses in a 14-3-3 dependent manner. We show that several 101 other X. oryzae pv. oryzae type III effectors such as XopU, XopV, XopP, XopG and AvrBs2 102 are able to suppress rice immune responses that are induced by XopQ-XopX. Overall, the 103 results suggest that XopX can interact with a subset of rice 14-3-3 proteins as well as with the 104 XopQ effector, and that this differential interaction leads to suppression or induction of 105 immune responses respectively. Also, additional type III effectors of X. oryzae pv. oryzae 106 may be involved in suppression of XopQ- XopX induced immune responses in rice.

107

108 **Results:**

109 XopX interacts with two of the eight rice 14-3-3 proteins

110 Bioinformatic analysis revealed that X. oryzae pv. oryzae XopX has five putative 14-3-3 111 protein binding motifs encompassing the conserved residues serine- 84 (mode- II motif 112 'RASTSAP'; amino acid 80-86), serine-193 (mode-II motif 'RGAISNP'; amino acid 189-113 195), threonine- 430 (mode- II motif 'RRDFTGP'; amino acid 426- 432), serine- 477 (mode-114 1 motif 'RSESIP'; amino acid 474- 479) and threonine- 621 (mode- 1 motif 'RLFTGP'; 115 amino acid 618- 623). In order to check if XopX would interact with any of the rice 14-3-3 116 proteins, we cloned the wild-type *xopX* gene in the pDEST32 vector yielding the *BD::xopX* 117 (DNA-Binding Domain) clone (as listed in Supplementary table S2). We screened xopX 118 against the eight rice 14-3-3 proteins cloned in the pDEST22 vector yielding the AD::gf14a-h 119 (Activation Domain) clones used in an earlier study (Deb et al., 2019) (listed in 120 Supplementary table S2), using the yeast two- hybrid system and the yeast strain pJ694a 121 (James et al., 1996). The one-to-one yeast two- hybrid screen indicated that the XopX 122 protein showed physical interaction with two of the eight rice 14-3-3 proteins, Gf14d and 123 Gf14e (Fig 1A). Growth of yeast on plates lacking leucine and tryptophan confirmed the 124 presence of pDEST32::xopX as well as pDEST22::gf14a-h in the yeast strain. However, 125 growth on plates lacking adenine, histidine, leucine and tryptophan, and supplemented with 126 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole (3-AT), indicated a positive interaction of XopX- Gf14d and XopX-Gf14e. We further tested this in a bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assay, 127 128 wherein xopX was cloned with the C- terminal of Venus fluorescent protein (VFP) yielding 129 cVFP::xopX and gf14d and gf14e were cloned with the N- terminal of VFP yielding 130 nVFP::gf14d and nVFP::gf14e (as listed in Supplementary table S2). Infiltration of 131 Agrobacterium tumefaciens AGL1 harbouring cVFP::xopX and either nVFP::gf14d or 132 *nVFP::gf14e* (as listed in Supplementary table S3) in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaf epidermis 133 revealed strong complementation of fluorescence for both Gf14d and Gf14e with XopX (Fig 134 1B).

Mutation in the serine- 193 and serine- 477 containing 14-3-3 protein binding motifs of XopX abolishes its ability to interact with the rice 14-3-3 proteins

137 Since XopX showed interaction with rice 14-3-3 proteins, we further asked which of its 14-3-138 3 protein binding motifs was responsible for this interaction. In order to study this aspect, 139 since 14-3-3 proteins are known to bind to client proteins in a phosphorylation- dependent 140 manner, we individually mutated the conserved serine/ threonine residues in the five 14-3-3 141 protein binding motifs of XopX to alanine by site- directed mutagenesis. This yielded the 142 phospho- null pENTR/D-TOPO constructs containing xopX S84A, xopX S193A, xopX T430A, 143 xopX S477A and xopX T621A. These were then cloned into the yeast two- hybrid vector 144 pDEST32 (Invitrogen) by Gateway® cloning (Invitrogen), yielding the clones BD::xopX 145 S84A, BD::xopX S193A, BD::xopX T430A, BD::xopX S477A and BD::xopX T621A (as listed 146 in Supplementary table S2). These clones were further screened for interaction with 147 pDEST22::gf14d and pDEST22::gf14e using the yeast two- hybrid system. It was observed 148 that mutation of serine to alanine, individually, in motif-2 (xopX S193A) and motif-4 (xopX 149 S477A), affected the ability of the XopX protein to interact with Gf14d as well as with Gf14e. 150 When grown on selection plates for interaction, motif-2 XopX S193A was seen to lose 151 interaction with both Gf14d and Gf14e (Fig 2A & B). However, motif-4 XopX S477A loses 152 interaction with Gf14e but retains its ability to interact with Gf14d weakly (Fig 2A & B). 153 However, in-planta, both the mutants XopX S193A and XopX S477A seem to lose 154 interaction with both Gf14d (Fig 2C) and Gf14e (Fig 2D). The mutants in the other three 14-155 3-3 protein binding motifs, XopX S84A, XopX T430A and XopX T621A, seem to interact 156 with both Gf14d and Gf14e as efficiently as wild- type XopX (Fig 2A & B). To further 157 confirm this, phosphomimic mutants were made of the two motifs containing serine-193 and 158 serine- 477, yielding the XopX S193D and XopX S477D mutant proteins. XopX S193D as 159 well as XopX S477D were seen to interact with both Gf14d and Gf14e, in yeast (Fig 2A & B) 160 and in- planta (Fig 2C & D). Hence it appears that XopX requires phosphorylation of both 161 motif-2 containing serine-193 and motif-4 containing serine-477 for interaction with Gf14d 162 and Gf14e.

Mutations in the serine- 193 and serine- 477 containing 14-3-3 protein binding motifs of XopX abolishes the ability of the protein to suppress rice immune responses

In order to understand the functional role of the interaction of XopX with Gf14d and Gf14e, we went ahead to study the role of XopX in the suppression of the rice immune responses. Earlier work in the lab showed that XopX, along with XopQ, XopN and XopZ, is important for the suppression of cell- wall degrading enzyme (CWDE) induced immune responses of rice (Sinha et al., 2013). Since XopX was seen to be binding to the rice 14-3-3 proteins, the effect of mutations in the five 14-3-3 protein binding motifs of XopX on the ability to

171 suppress the rice immune responses was assessed. For this purpose, we took advantage of the 172 observation that a quadruple mutant (QM) strain (Sinha et al., 2013), which is deficient in the production of the XopQ, XopX, XopN and XopZ proteins, induces defence response 173 174 associated callose deposition and programmed cell death (PCD). Assaying for the PCD 175 indicated that XopX wild- type was able to suppress PCD induced by the QM strain, as 176 signified by internalization of the propidium iodide (PI) stain, whereas mutation to alanine in two of the five 14-3-3 protein binding motifs of xopX, motif-2 (xopX S193A) and motif-4 177 178 (xopX S477A), affected the ability of the XopX protein to suppress PCD induced by QM (Fig 179 3A). However, the phosphomimic mutants xopX S193D and xopX S477D suppressed PCD 180 induced by the QM (Fig 3A). Similar results were obtained in callose deposition assays in 181 which pHM1::xopX, pHM1::xopX S84A, pHM1::xopX S193A, pHM1::xopX S193D, 182 pHM1::xopX T430A, pHM1::xopX S477A, pHM1::xopX S477D or pHM1::xopX T621A were 183 overexpressed in the QM background. Here, XopX was seen to be able to suppress callose 184 deposition induced by the QM, whereas, XopX S193A as well as XopX S477A were found to 185 be deficient in the suppression of callose deposition induced by the QM (Fig 3B & C). However, both XopX S193D as well as XopX S477D could suppress callose deposition (Fig 186 187 3B & C). XopX S84A, XopX T430A and XopX T621A could suppress both callose 188 deposition as well as PCD induced by the QM, as efficiently as wild type XopX, indicating 189 that these motifs are probably not important for suppression of rice immune responses by 190 XopX (Fig 3A-C).

Mutation in the serine- 193 and serine- 477 containing 14-3-3 protein binding motifs of XopX abolishes its ability to localise to the nucleus

Since 14-3-3 proteins are known to alter the subcellular localization of their client proteins,
we further checked the subcellular localization of the XopX protein and its 14-3-3 protein
binding mutants XopX S193A, XopX S193D, XopX S477A and XopX S477D by tagging

196 them with the eGFP protein and transient overexpression in onion epidermal cells through A. 197 tumefaciens AGL1. Visualisation for fluorescence 48h after infection with A. tumefaciens expressing the respective eGFP tagged XopX protein or its 14-3-3 protein binding mutants 198 199 revealed that the XopX wild- type protein localises mostly to the nucleus, but also to the 200 peripheral cytoplasm (Fig 4). However, the 14-3-3 protein binding mutants of XopX which 201 were deficient in 14-3-3 protein binding and immune response suppression (XopX S193A 202 and XopX S477A) were found to be unable to localise to the nucleus, and were seen 203 exclusively in the cytoplasm (Fig 4). The phosphomimic mutants XopX S193D and XopX 204 S477D exhibited a nucleo- cytoplasmic localisation that is similar to wild type XopX (Fig 4).

205 XopX interacts with XopQ

206 The XopX protein was found to suppress cell wall degrading enzyme induced immune 207 responses along with the XopN, XopQ and XopZ effector proteins (Sinha et al., 2013). 208 Therefore, we also assessed the ability of the XopX protein to interact with the XopN, XopQ 209 or XopZ proteins using the yeast two- hybrid system. The Activation- domain (AD) fusion 210 clones of xopQ, xopN and xopZ were made by cloning these genes into the pDEST22 vector 211 yielding AD::xopQ, AD::xopN and AD::xopZ respectively. The BD::xopX clone was used for 212 transformation with AD::xopQ, AD::xopN and AD::xopZ respectively in the yeast strain pJ694a. Primary transformants were selected on synthetic dropout (SD) -leucine -tryptophan 213 214 double dropout yeast plates. Selection for interaction done on synthetic dropout (SD) -215 adenine -histidine -leucine -tryptophan quadruple dropout yeast plates supplemented with 216 1mM 3- AT revealed a positive interaction of XopQ with XopX (Fig 5A). The XopQ- XopX 217 interaction was further confirmed *in-planta* using the BiFC assay, wherein *xopO* was tagged 218 with the N-terminal portion of the VFP yielding *nVFP::xopQ* and *xopX* was tagged with the 219 C-terminal portion of VFP yielding *cVFP::xopX*. Co-cultivation of onion epidermal peels 220 with AGL1 strains expressing these two proteins and further checking for fluorescence revealed strong fluorescence in the nucleus, as seen by co-localisation with DAPI, indicating
that the XopX and XopQ proteins interact with each other (Fig 5B). XopQ shows interaction
with all the 14-3-3 protein binding motif mutants of XopX, indicating that interaction of
XopQ- XopX is not 14-3-3 dependent (Supplementary Fig S1).

225 XopQ- XopX co-expression induces rice immune responses

226 We transiently overexpressed the eGFP::XopQ, eGFP::XopX and eGFP::XopQ-227 eGFP::XopX proteins in rice roots through A. tumefaciens AGL1. PI staining for the 228 induction of PCD showed negligible PCD induction after treatment with XopQ and XopX, 229 marked by internalisation of PI (Fig 6A). However, when XopQ and XopX were co-230 expressed, a high degree of PCD marked by PI internalisation was seen (Fig 6A). This 231 seemed to indicate that co- expression of XopQ and XopX induced PCD in rice roots. A 232 similar result was observed in a callose deposition assay, wherein co-expression of XopQ-233 XopX, but not of the individual proteins, led to a higher number of callose deposits (Fig 6B 234 & C).

Phosphorylation of XopX at serine- 193 and serine- 477 is essential for XopQ- XopX induced immune responses

237 Since the XopX proteins showed interaction with 14-3-3 proteins, we asked if the 14-3-3 238 proteins would play a role in the induction of immune responses by XopQ- XopX. The effect 239 of mutations of motif-2, eGFP::XopX S193A, and motif-4, eGFP::XopX S477A, on XopQ-240 XopX induced immune responses was assessed. It was observed that overexpression of either 241 the XopX S193A or the XopX S477A mutants, along with XopQ, failed to induce the PCD 242 response in rice (Fig 7A). This is in contrast to induction of immune responses in rice by 243 XopX- XopQ. The phosphomimic mutants XopX S193D and XopX S477D, however, 244 showed induction of PCD along with XopQ (Fig 7A). Similar results were observed in a

callose deposition assay (Fig 7B & C). This indicated that phosphorylation was necessary for

246 XopQ-XopX induced immune responses.

A unique set of type III effectors can suppress XopQ- XopX mediated immune responses

249 Since the co- expression of XopQ- XopX induced rice immune responses, we asked if any of 250 the other type III effectors could suppress this immune response. For this, 19 type III non-251 TAL effectors (as listed in Supplementary table S4) were cloned along with the eGFP tag and 252 transiently overexpressed through A. tumefaciens AGL1 in rice roots. XopR, XopT and 253 XopAA could not be tested due to difficulty in amplification of the genes. We observed that 254 pre-treatment with 5 of the 19 effectors tested, namely XopU, XopV, XopP, XopG and 255 AvrBs2, could suppress XopQ- XopX induced PCD. We observed significantly lesser 256 internalisation of PI stain after XopQ- XopX treatment when rice roots were pre-treated with 257 these five type III effectors, as opposed to XopQ- XopX treatment alone (Fig 8A). This 258 indicated that these effectors could successfully suppress the PCD induced by XopQ- XopX 259 treatment. Overexpression of XopG, XopP, XopU, XopV or AvrBs2 individually did not 260 induce the PCD response in rice (Fig 8A). Expression of these effectors was also checked in 261 *N. tabacum* (Supplementary Fig S2). Pre- treatment with the other 14 effectors, XopI, XopK, 262 XopL, XopAD, HpaA, XopW, XopA, XopL, XopAE, XopC, XopF, XopAB, XopN, XopZ or 263 XopY were seen to be unable to suppress the PCD induced by overexpression of XopQ-264 XopX (Supplementary Fig S3). All 14 of these effectors were found to be expressing, as 265 visualised in *N. tabacum* (Supplementary Fig S4). This was further confirmed using a callose 266 deposition assay, wherein similar results were obtained. XopG, XopP, XopU, XopV and 267 AvrBs2 were found to be able to suppress the callose deposition induced by treatment with 268 XopQ and XopX (Fig 8 B & C).

269 **Discussion:**

270 This study highlights the dual role of the XopQ- XopX type III effectors in modulation of 271 immune responses of rice. The X. oryzae pv. oryzae XopX has earlier been shown to be 272 important for the suppression of cell- wall degrading enzyme induced immune responses in 273 rice (Sinha et al., 2013). XopX from X. campestris pv. vesicatoria also contributes to the 274 virulence of the bacteria on the host plants, pepper and tomato, and modulates the plant 275 immune response, resulting in enhanced susceptibility of the plant (Metz et al., 2005). 276 However, the XopX effector protein from Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria (Xcv) has 277 also been shown to be an inducer of rice immune responses wherein it was shown to weakly 278 upregulate PTI marker genes (Stork et al., 2015). In the current work, we demonstrate that 279 XopX suppresses rice immune responses, by interaction with the 14-3-3 proteins. XopX 280 interacts with two rice 14-3-3 proteins, namely Gf14d And Gf14e. Both motif-2 281 encompassing XopX S193 as well as motif-4 encompassing XopX S477 seem to be required 282 for the interaction of XopX with the 14-3-3 proteins as XopX loses interaction with both 283 Gf14d and Gf14e if either motif-2 or motif-4 is mutated to a phospho-null motif. Hence, it 284 appears that both motifs are required for interaction with Gf14d and Gf14e, which had earlier 285 been shown to be a negative regulator of rice immune responses. The role of Gf14d in 286 elaboration of rice immune responses is not yet established. The observation that XopX 287 mutations that are unable to interact with Gf14d and Gf14e are also unable to suppress rice 288 immune responses suggests that at least one of these two 14-3-3 proteins might be a positive 289 regulator of rice immune responses. As Gf14e is shown to be a negative regulator of rice 290 immune responses, it is possible that Gf14d is a positive regulator of rice immune innate 291 immunity. However, this needs to be established. The significance of the interaction of XopX 292 with a negative regulator of innate immunity such as Gf14e is also to be investigated. 293 Another question which arises is also that, since both XopQ and XopX are suppressors of

294 immune responses, is there a temporal or spatial distribution of XopQ and XopX which 295 decides the interaction and hence suppression/ induction of immune responses? XopQ is a 296 highly conserved core effector in both X. oryzae pv. oryzae as well as X. oryzae pv. oryzicola 297 strains (Midha et al., 2017, Hajri et al., 2009). XopQ and XopX both have a nucleo-298 cytoplasmic localisation. It has been shown earlier that the mutants of XopQ which were 299 deficient in 14-3-3 protein binding (XopQ S65A), fails to localise to the cytoplasm. On the 300 other hand, mutants of XopX which were deficient in 14-3-3 protein binding (XopX S193A 301 and XopX S477A) fail to localise to the nucleus. Hence, phosphorylation, and interaction 302 with the cognate 14-3-3 proteins seem to be important for cytoplasmic localisation of XopO 303 and nuclear localisation of XopX and this localization might be important for their activity in 304 suppression of innate immunity. This leads us to hypothesise that this nucleo- cytoplasmic 305 partitioning may be crucial for suppression of immune responses. The function of 306 suppression of immune responses might be specifically taking place in the cytoplasm in case 307 of XopQ and in the nucleus for XopX. However, interaction of XopQ and XopX may 308 sequester these two proteins, leading to loss of suppression of immune responses. Their 309 interaction and co-localisation may also be activating downstream pathways for induction of 310 immune responses (Supplementary Fig S5). There may also be a temporal distribution in 311 expression of XopQ and XopX, as XopX has been shown to be expressed in early stages of 312 host infection at 3 and 6 days after infection (Soto-Suarez et al., 2010). Such dual behaviour 313 of T3SS effectors in supressing and inducing plant immune responses has also been reported 314 previously for the Pseudomonas syringae pv. tomato (Pst) effector AvrE1 and for the 315 Xanthomonas euvesicatoria XopX (Badel et al., 2006, Stork et al., 2015).

It is a possibility that the XopQ- XopX induced immune responses is a form of defence response that is triggered by these two effectors. The interaction of XopQ and XopX may be sensed by the rice plant, which then might be able to mount an effector triggered immune

319 response. In such a scenario, it may be imperative for X. oryzae pv. oryzae to be able to 320 suppress this effector triggered defence response. Indeed, we find that five effectors, XopU, 321 XopV, XopP, XopG and AvrBs2, out of the nineteen non- TAL effectors screened, could 322 suppress XopQ- XopX induced immune responses. Out of these five effectors, AvrBs2 and 323 XopV are part of the core effectors in 113 strains of Indian, Asian, African and USA strains 324 of X. oryzae (Midha et al., 2017), and are also common between X. oryzae pv. oryzae and the 325 bean pathogen, X. axonopodis pv. phaseoli (Aritua et al., 2015). XopP, XopU and XopV have 326 also been shown to be ubiquitously present in X. oryzae pv. oryzae and X. oryzae pv. 327 oryzicola strains (Hairi et al., 2009). AvrBs2 from X. oryzae py. oryzicola has earlier been 328 shown to be an essential virulence factor that contributes to bacterial virulence and 329 multiplication by inhibiting the rice defence responses (Li et al., 2015) and is highly 330 conserved among strains of X. campestris pv. vesicatoria, and other X. campestris pathovars 331 (Kearney and Staskawicz, 1990). The X. oryzae pv. oryzae XopP protein has been shown to 332 interacts with the U-box domain of an E3 ubiquitin ligase OsPUB44, thereby inhibiting the 333 E3 ubiquitin ligase activity of OsPUB44 (Ishikawa et al., 2014). Interestingly, preliminary 334 bioinformatic analysis has revealed that XopU, XopV, XopP, XopG and AvrBs2, all have at 335 least one putative mode- I 14-3-3 protein binding motif with a conserved serine [XopU: 336 'RAESTP', amino acid 374- 379; XopV: 'RIRSTP', amino acid 142- 147; XopP: 'RLESLP', 337 amino acid 494- 499; XopG: 'RLGSNP', amino acid 70- 75; AvrBs2: 'RAVSIP', amino acid 338 46-51 and 'RAASGP', amino acid 143-148]. Hence, it is possible that these effectors may 339 suppress XopQ- XopX induced immune responses by interaction with the rice 14-3-3 340 proteins.

Thus, this study suggests a dual role for the type III effectors XopQ and XopX in the course of disease progression of *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae* both as suppressor and inducers of immune

responses in rice, and identifies bacterial effectors that may be involved in suppression ofeffector- triggered immunity.

Is there a temporal distribution in expression of XopQ and XopX during progression of disease caused by *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae*? What are the roles of the 14-3-3 proteins Gf14d, Gf14e, Gf14f and Gf14g in elaboration of rice immune responses during *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae* infection? What are the additional rice factors which might regulate the localisation of these proteins and their interaction? These questions, and elucidation of the mechanism and biological significance of the interaction XopQ and XopX are aspects which require further research.

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353 Experimental Procedures:

354 **Bacterial strains and plant material**

355 The bacterial strains *Escherichia coli* DH5 ; *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* AGL1, *X. oryzae* 356 pv. oryzae strain BXO43 (Thieme et al., 2005) and the X. oryzae pv. oryzae mutant $\Delta xopQ$ 357 $xopN-\Delta xopX \Delta xopZ$ quadruple mutant (QM) (Sinha et al., 2013) were used for the study. E. 358 coli and A. tumefaciens AGL1 strain were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium. E. coli was 359 grown at 37°C whereas A. tumefaciens was grown at 28°C. X. oryzae pv. oryzae strains were 360 grown on peptone sucrose (PS) medium at 28°C (Ray et al., 2000). The yeast strain pJ694a 361 was grown at 30°C in yeast extract, peptone, dextrose (YPD) medium, or minimal media 362 supplemented with suitable amino acids for auxotrophic selection. The plant cultivars used 363 were the susceptible rice variety Taichung Native-1 (TN-1) for transient overexpression 364 studies in rice and Nicotiana benthamiana or Nicotiana tabacum for ectopic overexpression 365 of proteins for bimolecular fluorescence complementation assay or expression analysis. The 366 concentrations of antibiotics used were rifampicin (Rif)-50µg/ml, spectinomycin (Sp)-

367 50µg/ml, gentamycin (Gent)- 10µg/ml, ampicillin (Amp)- 100µg/ml, kanamycin (Km)-

368 15µg/ml for *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae* and 50µg/ml for *E. coli*.

369 **Rice growth conditions**

370 The TN-1 rice variety, which is susceptible to X. oryzae pv. oryzae infection, was used to 371 study bacterial leaf blight symptoms caused by the X. oryzae pv. oryzae strain BXO43. 372 Healthy seeds of the plants were surface-sterilized in sodium hypochlorite (Sigma) for 2 min, 373 rinsed five times in deionized water and imbibed overnight at 28°C. They were then placed 374 on moist filter paper for 2 days in dark at 28°C. Upon emergence of root and shoot, they were 375 transferred to 14hr light/ 10hr dark photoperiod in growth chamber (Conviron, Germany). 376 After 3 days of growth, seedlings were sown in black soil mix. Pots with plants were kept in a 377 greenhouse in the following conditions: ~30°C/20°C (day/night), ~80% humidity, natural 378 sunlight with a ~13h/11h light/dark photoperiod.

379 Molecular biology and microbiology techniques

380 For the amplification and cloning of the wild- type copy of the xopX gene, or its 14-3-3 381 protein binding motif mutants, high-fidelity Phusion polymerase (Finnzymes) was used along 382 with their respective primers (Supplementary table S1). The genes were cloned into 383 pENTR/D-TOPO (Invitrogen, California) and further by Gateway LR reaction (Invitrogen, 384 California) into Gateway compatible vectors. Taq polymerase ReadyMix (KAPA 385 Biosystems, Wilmington, MA) was used for all screening purposes. For cloning in the pHM1 386 vector, primers as listed in Supplementary table S1 were used for amplification of the xopX387 gene and its 14-3-3 protein binding motif mutants using Phusion polymerase (Thermo Fischer 388 Scientific, Massachusetts). Restriction digestions were carried out using Fast Digest enzymes 389 (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Massachusetts) specific to the restriction enzyme sites included 390 in the primers. Ligation reactions for cloning in pHM1 were carried out using T4 DNA ligase 391 (NEB, Massachusetts).

392 Plasmids were purified using the alkaline lysis method. Gel extractions were carried out using 393 Macherey Nagel Gel Extraction kits. Agarose gel electrophoresis, transformation of E. coli 394 and electroporation of plasmids into A. tumefaciens AGL1 and X. oryzae pv. oryzae were 395 performed as described previously (Ray et al., 2000, Subramoni and Sonti, 2005). All cloned 396 vectors (Supplementary table S2) were confirmed by sequencing (ABI Prism 3700 automated 397 DNA sequencer). The obtained sequences were subjected to homology searches using the 398 BLAST algorithm in the National Centre for Biotechnology Information database (Altschul 399 et al., 1990). Site- directed mutagenesis was done in xopX based on prediction of the 14-3-3 400 protein binding motifs in xopX. The conserved serine/threonine residues in the interaction 401 motifs were mutagenized to alanine to yield a null mutant and to aspartic acid to yield a 402 phosphomimic mutant using primers in Supplementary table S1. The pENTR::xopX plasmid 403 was used as template.

404 Yeast two- hybrid assays

405 The wild- type copy of the xopX gene and its 14-3-3 protein binding motif mutants were 406 cloned in the yeast two-hybrid vector pDEST32 (Invitrogen) using the Gateway cloning 407 system (Invitrogen, California). The eight rice 14-3-3 genes cloned in the yeast two-hybrid 408 vector pDEST22 (Invitrogen) were used from a previous study (Deb et al., 2019). For 409 analysis of interaction of xopX with the other effector proteins, the pDEST22 clones 410 containing xopN, xopQ and xopZ were used, whereas xopX was cloned in pDEST32. These 411 plasmids were transformed into *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain pJ694a (James et al., 1996). 412 Yeast transformation was done using the LiAc/single strand carrier DNA/PEG method as 413 described by Geitz et. al (Gietz and Schiestl, 2007) with changes. Briefly, yeast cells were 414 grown overnight in YPAD medium (1% (w/v) Bacto-yeast extract, 2% (w/v) Bacto-peptone, 415 adenine hemisulfate (80 mg/l). Following 12-16h of growth, secondary culture was put using

416 3% of primary inoculum and the culture was allowed to grow for 4-6h till it reached to

417 O.D.₆₀₀= 0.6- 0.8. Cells were then harvested by centrifugation at 3000rpm for five minutes, 418 washed with sterile water and resuspended in sterile water. 360μ l of transformation mix (40% 419 PEG3350, 100mM LiAc/TE, 20µg single-stranded carrier DNA and 1µg of each plasmid 420 DNA) was added per plasmid to be transformed, mixed by vortexing vigorously, and 421 incubated at 30°C for 30 minutes. The cells were then subjected to heat shock at 42°C for 30 422 minutes, placed on ice for 5 minutes and plated on selection medium for the respective 423 transformed vector and grown at 30°C to select for transformants.

For screening for interaction, colonies were scraped from plates, patched and grown overnight in liquid medium with selection at 30° C with shaking. The OD₆₀₀ of saturated cultures was adjusted to 1.0, serial dilutions were made and spotted on the medium with selection for vector and the medium with selection for interaction (lacking the products of the reporter genes adenine and histidine) + 1mM 3- amino triazole (3-AT; inhibitor of His3 gene). Growth on the medium for interaction was used to identify the interacting clones. Each set was repeated three times.

431 **Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC)**

432 The wild- type copy of xopX and its 14-3-3 protein binding motif mutants were cloned by 433 Gateway cloning (Invitrogen, California) from the pENTR clones to the BiFC vector pDEST-434 VYCE(R)GW carrying the C-terminal region of the Venus Fluorescent Protein (VFP) (Gehl 435 et al., 2009) by Gateway® cloning (Invitrogen, California) from the pENTR clones to yield 436 the constructs as listed in Supplementary table S2. The eight rice 14-3-3 genes cloned in the 437 BiFC vector pDEST-VYNE(R)GW carrying the N-terminal region of VFP were used from a previous study (Deb et al., 2019). To check for XopQ- XopX interaction, xopQ was cloned in 438 439 pDEST-VYNE(R)GW. These binary vectors obtained were then electroporated into the A. 440 tumefaciens strain AGL1 (Supplementary table S2). A suspension of two strains expressing 441 the gene- nVFP/cVFP fusions were grown to 0.8 O.D.₆₀₀, resuspended in infiltration buffer (10mM MES, 10mM MgCl₂, 100µM acetosyringone, pH 5.6) and used for transient
expression in *N. benthamiana*. VFP signals were examined 48h after infiltration under a
LSM880 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss, Germany) using 20x objectives and He-Ne laser at
488nm excitation. Images were analyzed using the ZEN software. Each set was repeated
three times.

447 Callose deposition in rice

448 Callose deposition assays were done as described earlier (Adam and Somerville, 1996, Hauck 449 et al., 2003, Sinha et al., 2013). X. oryzae pv. oryzae strains were grown to saturation, OD₆₀₀ 450 adjusted to 1.0 using Milli-O water and infiltrated with a needleless 1ml syringe into leaves 451 of 14-day old rice plants. 16h after infiltration, the leaves were cut, spanning 0.5 cm on each 452 side of the infiltration zone, and placed in absolute alcohol at 65°C to remove chlorophyll 453 completely. This was followed by treatment with 70% ethanol at 65°C and further by MQ 454 water for rehydration. Subsequently, the samples were stained with 0.05% aniline blue 455 solution prepared in 150mM K_2 HPO₄, pH 9.5. The leaves were then washed with MQ water 456 and observed under an epifluorescence microscope (Nikon, Japan) using a blue filter (excitation wavelength of 365 nm) and 10x objective. Number of callose were counted per 457 458 leaf, excluding the zone of infiltration. At least five such leaves were imaged for each 459 construct per experiment. Each set was repeated three times.

460 Defence response associated programmed cell death assay

Assays for programmed cell death in rice roots were performed as described earlier (Sinha et al., 2013). TN-1 rice seeds were surface sterilised by washing with sodium hypochlorite (Sigma) followed by three water washes and imbibed with water overnight. The following day, the seeds were placed for germination on 0.5% sterile agar lined with sterile Whatman filter paper for 2 days in dark at 28° C. 1cm long root tips were cut from the seedlings and treated with either *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae* (strains grown to saturation and O.D.₆₀₀ adjusted to 467 1.0 using MQ water) or A. tumefaciens AGL1 harbouring the eGFP::gene fusions (strains 468 grown to saturation and O.D.₆₀₀ adjusted to 0.8 using infiltration buffer: 10mM MES, 10mM 469 MgCl₂, 100µM acetosyringone, pH 5.6). After incubation for 16h, roots were washed and 470 stained with propidium iodide (PI). The samples were visualised under a LSM-880 confocal 471 microscope (Carl Zeiss, Germany) using 63x oil immersion objectives and He-Ne laser at 472 543nm excitation to detect PI internalization. Images were analyzed using the LSM software. 473 At least five roots were imaged for each construct per experiment. Each set was repeated 474 three times.

475 Transient protein expression for localisation in onion epidermal peels

476 Healthy onion scales $(1 \times 1 \text{ cm})$ were placed on plate in such a way that their inner surfaces 477 were immersed in A. tumefaciens AGL1 containing the respective eGFP-gene fusions 478 $(O.D._{600} = 1-1.5)$ resuspended in a solution consisting of 5% (w/v) sucrose, 100 mg 479 acetosyringone/L and 0.02% (v/v) Silwet-77 for 12h at 28°C. After 12h of incubation, the 480 onion scales were transferred to plates of 1/2 MS (Murashige and Skoog salts, 30 g sucrose/L 481 and 0.7% (g/v) agar, pH 5.7) and co-cultivated with A. tumefaciens for 2 days. For 482 visualisation of fluorescence, epidermal peels of the onion scales were carefully removed 483 using a pair of forceps, stained with DAPI stain $(2\mu g/ml)$ and mounted on slide using 40% 484 glycerol. Fluorescence was visualised under an epifluorescence microscope (Nikon, Japan) at 485 488nm excitation and 10x objective. Each set was repeated three times.

486 Transient protein expression in Nicotiana tabacum

The type III effectors were cloned by Gateway cloning (Invitrogen, California) from the pENTR clones to the pH7WGF2 vector containing the eGFP gene (Karimi et al., 2002) by Gateway® cloning (Invitrogen, California) from the pENTR clones to yield the constructs as listed in Supplementary table S2. These binary vectors obtained were then electroporated into the *A. tumefaciens* strain AGL1 (Supplementary table S2). The strain expressing the eGFP::gene fusions were grown to O.D.₆₀₀ = 0.8, resuspended in infiltration buffer (10mM
MES, 10mM MgCl₂, 100µM acetosyringone, pH 5.6) and used for transient expression in *N*. *tabacum*. eGFP signals were examined 48h after infiltration under a LSM880 confocal
microscope (Carl Zeiss, Germany) using 20x objectives and He-Ne laser at 488nm excitation.
Images were analyzed using the ZEN software. Each set was repeated three times.

497

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507

508 **Conflict of interest statement:** The authors declare that no conflict of interest exists.

509 **Data availability statement:** The authors declare that all data has been included in the 510 manuscript.

511

512 Short legends for supporting information:

513 Supplementary Fig S1. The 14-3-3 protein binding motif mutants of XopQ and XopX

514 interact. Yeast strain pJ694a was transformed with pDEST32 vector expressing binding

domain (BD) fused with XopX, XopX S84A, XopX S193A, XopX S193D, XopX T430A,

516 XopX S477A, XopX S477D or XopX T621A, and pDEST22 vector expressing activation

domain (AD) fused with XopQ. Transformed colonies were serially diluted and spotted on
the nonselective (SD-LT; double dropout DDO) and selective (SD-AHLT; quadruple dropout
QDO) media with 1mM 3-AT. Observations were noted after 3 days of incubation at 30°C.
Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments.
Supplementary Fig S2. Expression of effectors which can suppress XopQ-XopX

induced immune responses. Leaves of *N. tabacum* were syringe- infiltrated with a
suspension of *A. tumefaciens* AGL1 strain expressing eGFP::AvrBs2, eGFP::XopV,
eGFP::XopG, eGFP::XopP or eGFP::XopU. Fluorescence was visualised in a confocal
microscope at 20x magnification and excitation wavelength (488nm) 48h after infiltration.
Bar, 50µm. Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments.

527 Supplementary Fig S3. A subset of type III effectors is unable to suppress XopQ- XopX 528 induced PCD. Rice roots were treated with A. tumefaciens strain AGL1 alone or AGL1 529 expressing eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX, eGFP::XopN, eGFP::XopZ, eGFP::XopY, 530 eGFP::XopA, eGFP::XopAB, eGFP::XopAE, eGFP::XopC, eGFP::XopI, eGFP::XopK, 531 eGFP::XopL, eGFP::XopW, eGFP::HpaA, eGFP::XopAD or eGFP::XopF, or pre- treatment 532 eGFP::XopN, eGFP::XopZ, eGFP::XopY, with eGFP::XopA, eGFP::XopAB, eGFP::XopAE, eGFP::XopC, eGFP::XopI, eGFP::XopK, eGFP::XopL, eGFP::XopW, 533 534 eGFP::HpaA, eGFP::XopAD or eGFP::XopF, followed by overexpression of eGFP::XopQ + 535 eGFP::XopX. Treated roots (n=5) were subsequently stained with propidium iodide (PI) and 536 observed under a confocal microscope using a 63x oil immersion objectives and He-Ne laser at 543nm excitation to detect PI internalization. Internalization of PI is indicative of defence 537 538 response-associated programmed cell death in rice roots. Bar, 20µm. Similar results were 539 obtained in three independent experiments.

540 Supplementary Fig S4. Expression of effectors which are unable to suppress XopQ-

541 **XopX induced immune responses.** Leaves of *N. tabacum* were syringe- infiltrated with a

suspension of *A. tumefaciens* AGL1 strain expressing eGFP::XopI, eGFP::XopK,
eGFP::XopL, eGFP::XopAD, eGFP::HpaA, eGFP::XopW, eGFP::XopA, eGFP::XopAE,
eGFP::XopC, eGFP::XopF, eGFP::XopAB, eGFP::XopN, eGFP::XopZ or eGFP::XopY.
Fluorescence was visualised in a confocal microscope at 20x magnification and excitation
wavelength (488nm) 48h after infiltration. Bar, 50µm. Similar results were obtained in three
independent experiments.

548 Supplementary Fig S5. Model explaining induction of immune responses by XopQ-549 **XopX.** Cell wall damage is perceived by the host plant to induce a cascade of cellular 550 responses which finally lead to the activation of immune responses in rice. The 14-3-3 551 proteins are putative activators of the rice immune responses. XopQ and XopX interact with 552 their cognate 14-3-3 partners Gf14f/g or Gf14d/e respectively to suppress the plant immune 553 responses. However, interaction of XopQ and XopX leads to the activation of the rice 554 immune responses, which can be further suppressed by XopG, XopP, XopU, XopV and 555 AvrBs2. The molecules marked in red are the putative candidates involved in the activation 556 of rice immune responses.

- 557 Supplementary table S1. List of primers used in the study
- 558 Supplementary table S2. List of plasmids used in the study
- 559 Supplementary table S3. List of strains used in the study
- 560 Supplementary table S4. Details of annotated X. oryzae pv. oryzae effectors screened for
- 561 suppression of XopQ- XopX mediated immune responses

562

- 563 **Figure legends**:
- Fig 1. The X. oryzae pv. oryzae XopX protein interacts with two rice 14-3-3 proteins,
- 565 Gf14d and Gf14e. (A) Yeast strain pJ694a containing pDEST32 vector expressing binding

566 domain (BD) fusion with XopX was independently transformed with pDEST22 vector 567 expressing activation domain (AD) fusion with Gf14a-h. Transformed colonies were serially 568 diluted and spotted on the nonselective -LT (-Leu -Trp) double dropout (DDO) media and 569 selective -AHLT (-Ade -Leu -Trp -His) quadruple dropout (QDO) media with 1mM 3-amino-570 1,2,4-triazole (3-AT). Observations were noted after 3 days of incubation at 30°C. Similar 571 results were obtained in three independent experiments. (B) For BiFC analysis of XopX-14-572 3-3 interactions, leaves of N. benthamiana were syringe- infiltrated with a suspension of two A. tumefaciens AGL1 strains containing empty vectors alone or BiFC vectors expressing 573 574 cVFP::XopX and nVFP::Gf14d or nVFP::Gf14e. Fluorescence was visualised in a confocal 575 microscope at 20x magnification and excitation wavelength (488nm) 48h after infiltration. 576 Bar, 50µm. Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments.

577 Fig 2. Mutation in the serine- 193 and serine- 477 containing 14-3-3 protein binding 578 motifs of XopX abolishes its ability to interact with the 14-3-3 proteins Gf14d and 579 Gf14e. (A & B) Yeast two- hybrid reporter strain pJ694a was transformed with the pDEST32 580 vector expressing binding domain (BD) fusion with XopX, XopX S84A, XopX S193A, 581 XopX S193D, XopX T430A, XopX S477A, XopX S477D or XopX T621A and the prey 582 vector pDEST22 vector expressing activation domain (AD) fusion with Gf14d (A) or Gf14e 583 (B). Transformed colonies were spotted on nonselective -LT (-Leucine -Tryptophan) double 584 dropout (DDO) media and selective -AHLT (-Adenine -Histidine -Leucine -Tryptophan) 585 quadruple dropout (QDO) media with 1mM 3-AT. Observations were noted after incubation 586 at 30°C for 3 days. Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments. (C & D) 587 BiFC analysis of XopX- 14-3-3 interactions in N. benthamiana. Leaves were syringe-588 infiltrated with a suspension of two A. tumefaciens AGL1 strains expressing cVFP::XopX, 589 cVFP::XopX S193A, cVFP::XopX S193D, cVFP::XopX S477A or cVFP::XopX S477D and 590 nVFP::Gf14d or nVFP::Gf14e. Fluorescence was visualised in a confocal microscope at 20x

magnification and excitation wavelength (488nm) 48h after infiltration. Bar, 50µm. Similar
results were obtained in three independent experiments.

Fig 3. Mutation in the serine- 193 and serine- 477 containing 14-3-3 protein binding 593 594 motifs of XopX abolishes its ability to suppress the rice immune responses (A) Rice roots 595 were treated with one of the following: Milli-Q (MQ) water, X. oryzae pv. oryzae BXO43 596 (wild- type) or the quadruple mutant (QM) strain harbouring the following: pHM1 empty 597 vector alone, or pHM1 expressing XopX, XopX S84A, XopX S193A, XopX S193D, XopX 598 T430A, XopX S477A, XopX S477D or XopX T621A. Treated roots were subsequently 599 stained with propidium iodide (PI) and observed under a confocal microscope using 63x oil 600 immersion objectives and He-Ne laser at 543nm excitation to detect PI internalization. Five 601 roots were imaged for each construct per experiment. Bar, 20µm. Internalization of PI is 602 indicative of defence response-associated programmed cell death. Similar results were 603 obtained in three independent experiments. (B & C) For callose deposition assay, leaves of 604 two-week old rice seedlings were infiltrated with one of the following: MO water, BXO43, 605 QM strain and QM harbouring the following: pHM1 empty vector alone, or pHM1 606 expressing XopX, XopX S84A, XopX S193A, XopX S193D, XopX T430A, XopX S477A, 607 XopX S477D or XopX T621A. The leaves were stained 16h later with aniline blue and 608 visualized under an epifluorescence microscope (365nm) at 10x magnification. Mean and 609 standard deviation were calculated for number of callose deposits observed per leaf. Error 610 bars indicate the standard deviation of readings from five infiltrated leaves. Columns in plots 611 capped with the same letter were not significantly different from each other based on analysis 612 of variance done using the Tukey-Kramer honestly significance difference test (P < 0.05). 613 Bar, 100µm. Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments.

Fig 4. Mutation in the serine- 193 and serine- 477 containing 14-3-3 protein binding
motifs of XopX alters its subcellular localization. *A. tumefaciens* strain AGL1 expressing

one of the following was co-cultivated with onion epidermal peels: eGFP::XopX,
eGFP::XopX S193A, eGFP::XopX S193D, eGFP::XopX S477A or eGFP::XopX S477D.
Fluorescence was visualised in an epifluorescence microscope at 10x magnification and
excitation wavelength (488nm) 48h after co-cultivation. Bar, 100µm. Similar results were
obtained in three independent experiments.

621 Fig 5. The X. oryzae pv. oryzae XopQ and XopX proteins interact. (A) Yeast strain pJ694a 622 was transformed with pDEST32 vector expressing binding domain (BD) fused with XopX 623 and pDEST22 vector expressing activation domain (AD) fused with XopQ. Transformed 624 colonies were serially diluted and spotted on the nonselective (SD-LT; double dropout DDO) 625 and selective (SD-AHLT; quadruple dropout QDO) media with 1mM 3-AT. Observations 626 were noted after 3 days of incubation at 30°C. Similar results were obtained in three 627 independent experiments. (B) For BiFC analysis of XopQ- XopX interactions, onion 628 epidermal peels were co-cultivated with two A. tumefaciens AGL1 strains expressing 629 nVFP::XopQ and cVFP::XopX. Fluorescence was visualised in an epifluorescence 630 microscope at 10x magnification and excitation wavelength (488nm) 48h after co-cultivation. 631 Bar, 100µm. Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments.

632 Fig 6. Overexpression of the XopQ-XopX, induces the rice immune responses. (A) Rice 633 roots were treated with one of the following: A. tumefaciens strain AGL1 alone or AGL1 634 expressing eGFP::XopQ, eGFP::XopX or eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX. Treated roots (n=5) 635 were subsequently stained with propidium iodide (PI) and observed under a confocal 636 microscope using a 63x oil immersion objectives and He-Ne laser at 543nm excitation to 637 detect PI internalization. Internalization of PI is indicative of defence response-associated 638 programmed cell death in rice roots. Bar, 20µm. Similar results were obtained in three 639 independent experiments. (B & C) For callose deposition assay, leaves of 14-day old rice 640 seedlings were infiltrated with one of the following: A. tumefaciens AGL1 alone or AGL1

641 expressing eGFP::XopQ, eGFP::XopX or with a suspension of two strains expressing 642 eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX. The leaves were stained 16h later with aniline blue and 643 visualized under an epifluorescence microscope (365nm) at 10x magnification. Mean and 644 standard deviation were calculated for number of callose deposits observed per leaf. Error 645 bars indicate the standard deviation of readings from 5 inoculated leaves. Columns in plots 646 capped with the same letter were not significantly different from each other based on analysis 647 of variance done using the Tukey-Kramer honestly significance difference test (P < 0.05). 648 Bar, 100µm. Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments.

649 Fig 7. XopX interaction with the rice 14-3-3 proteins is essential for XopQ- XopX 650 induced immune responses. (A) Rice roots were treated with A. tumefaciens strain AGL1 651 alone or AGL1 expressing eGFP::XopQ, eGFP::XopX, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX, 652 eGFP::XopX S193A, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX S193A, eGFP::XopX S193D, 653 eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX S193D, eGFP::XopX S477A, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX 654 S477A, eGFP::XopX S477D or eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX S477D. Treated roots (n=5) were subsequently stained with propidium iodide (PI) and observed under a confocal 655 656 microscope using a 63x oil immersion objectives and He-Ne laser at 543nm excitation to 657 detect PI internalization. Internalization of PI is indicative of defence response-associated 658 programmed cell death in rice roots. Bar, 20µm. Similar results were obtained in three 659 independent experiments. (B & C) For callose deposition assay, leaves of 14-day old rice 660 seedlings were infiltrated with one of the following: A. tumefaciens strain AGL1 alone or 661 AGL1 expressing eGFP::XopQ, eGFP::XopX, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX, eGFP::XopX 662 S193A, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX S193A, eGFP::XopX S193D, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX S193D, eGFP::XopX S477A, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX S477A, 663 664 eGFP::XopX S477D or eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX S477D. The leaves were stained 16h later with aniline blue and visualized under an epifluorescence microscope (365nm) at 10x 665

magnification. Bar, 100 μ m. Mean and standard deviation were calculated for number of callose deposits observed per leaf. Error bars indicate the standard deviation of readings from 5 inoculated leaves. Columns in plots capped with the same letter were not significantly different from each other based on analysis of variance done using the Tukey-Kramer honestly significance difference test (*P*< 0.05). Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments.

672 Fig 8. XopG, XopP, XopU, XopV and AvrBs2 can suppress XopQ- XopX induced 673 immune responses (A) Rice roots were treated with A. tumefaciens strain AGL1 alone or 674 AGL1 expressing A. tumefaciens AGL1 alone or AGL1 expressing eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX, eGFP::XopG, eGFP::XopP, eGFP::XopU, eGFP::XopV or eGFP::AvrBs2, or 675 676 treatment with eGFP::XopG, eGFP::XopP, eGFP::XopU, eGFP::XopV preor 677 eGFP::AvrBs2, followed by overexpression of eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX. Treated roots 678 (n=5) were subsequently stained with propidium iodide (PI) and observed under a confocal 679 microscope using a 63x oil immersion objectives and He-Ne laser at 543nm excitation to 680 detect PI internalization. Internalization of PI is indicative of defence response-associated 681 programmed cell death in rice roots. Bar, 20µm. Similar results were obtained in three 682 independent experiments. (B & C) For callose deposition assay, leaves of 14-day old rice 683 seedlings were infiltrated with one of the following: A. tumefaciens AGL1 alone or AGL1 684 expressing eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX, eGFP::XopG, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX + 685 eGFP::XopG, eGFP::XopP, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX + eGFP::XopP, eGFP::XopU, 686 eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX + eGFP::XopU, eGFP::XopV, eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX + 687 eGFP::XopV, eGFP::AvrBs2 or eGFP::XopQ + eGFP::XopX + eGFP::AvrBs2. The leaves were stained 16h later with aniline blue and visualized under an epifluorescence microscope 688 689 (365nm) at 10x magnification. Bar, 100µm. Mean and standard deviation were calculated for 690 number of callose deposits observed per leaf. Error bars indicate the standard deviation of

- readings from 5 inoculated leaves. Columns in plots capped with the same letter were not
- significantly different from each other based on analysis of variance done using the Tukey-
- 693 Kramer honestly significance difference test (P < 0.05). Similar results were obtained in three
- 694 independent experiments.

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822

Figure 1





Figure 2





С

Α

D

	VFP	DIC	MERGED	_	VFP	DIC	MERGED
cVFP::XopX nVFP::Gf14d				cVFP::XopX nVFP::Gf14e			
cVFP::XopX S193A nVFP::Gf14d			15. A	cVFP::XopX S193A nVFP::Gf14e			
cVFP::XopX S193D nVFP::Gf14d	No. State	Star Po	SEE	cVFP::XopX S193D nVFP::Gf14e	273 - 27 <u>6 -</u>	1	222
cVFP::XopX S477A nVFP::Gf14d				cVFP::XopX S477A nVFP::Gf14e		N 20 11	N 20 11
cVFP::XopX S477D nVFP::Gf14d				cVFP::XopX S477D nVFP::Gf14e			3540 A

A Figure 3

3

В









Figure 5



В

Α





Figure 7

С

Α







