

Isolation and functional characterization of Arabidopsis powdery mildew effector proteins

Inaugural-Dissertation

zur

Erlangung des Doktorgrades

der Mathematisch-Naturwissenschaftlichen Fakultät

der Universität zu Köln

vorgelegt von

Ralf Weßling

aus Rheine

Köln, Juni 2013

Die vorliegende Arbeit wurde am Max-Planck-Institut für Pflanzenzüchtungsforschung in Köln in der Abteilung für Pflanze-Mikroben Interaktionen (Direktor: Prof. Dr. Paul Schulze-Lefert) angefertigt.



MAX-PLANCK-GESELLSCHAFT



Max Planck Institute for
Plant Breeding Research

Berichterstatter:	Prof. Dr. Paul Schulze-Lefert
	Prof. Dr. Martin Hülskamp
	Dr. Frank Takken
Prüfungsvorsitzender:	Prof. Dr. Ulf-Ingo Flügge
Tag der Disputation:	7.12.2012

Für Lisa und Oskar,
meine kleine Familie

Publications

Spanu P. D., Abbott J. C., Amselem J., Burgis T. A., Soanes D. M., Stüber K., Ver Loren van Themaat E., Brown J. K. M., Butcher S. A., Gurr S. J., Lebrun M.-H., Ridout C. J., Schulze-Lefert P., Talbot N. J., Ahmadinejad N., Ametz C., Barton G. R., Benjdia M., Bidzinski P., Bindschedler L. V., Both M., Brewer M. T., Cadle-Davidson L., Cadle-Davidson M. M., Collemare J., Cramer R., Lopez-Ruiz F., Frenkel O., Godfrey D., Harriman J., Hoede C., King B. C., Klages S., Kleemann J., Knoll D., Koti P. S., Kreplak J., Lu X., Maekawa T., Mahanil S., Micali C., Milgroom M. G., Montana G., Noir S., O'Connell R. J., Oberhaensli S., Parlange F., Pedersen C., Quesneville H., Reinhardt R., Rott M., Sacristán S., Schmidt S. M., Schön M., Skamnioti P., Sommer H., Stephens A., Takahara H., Thordal-Christensen H., Vigouroux M., **Weßling R.**, Wicker T., and Panstruga R. 2010. Genome expansion and gene loss in powdery mildew fungi reveal functional tradeoffs in extreme parasitism. **Science** 330: 1543-1546

Weßling R., Schmidt S. M., Micali C. O., Knaust F., Reinhardt R., Neumann U., Ver Loren van Themaat E., and Panstruga, R. 2012. Transcriptome analysis of enriched *Golovinomyces orontii* haustoria by deep 454 pyrosequencing. **Fungal Genetics and Biology** 49: 470-482.

Weßling, R. and Panstruga, R. 2012. Rapid quantification of plant-powdery mildew interactions by qPCR and conidiospore counts. **Plant Methods** 8: 35.

Table of Contents

Publications	I
Table of Contents	III
Abbreviations.....	V
Summary	VII
Zusammenfassung.....	IX
1 Introduction	1
1.1 Plant immunity.....	1
1.1.1 Non-host resistance and MAMP-triggered immunity – two sides of the same coin	1
1.1.2 Plant hormones – integrators of multiple defense responses	3
1.1.3 Adapted pathogens have evolved to cause disease	5
1.2 Effectors of microbial pathogens.....	6
1.2.1 Effectors as avirulence determinants	6
1.2.2 Effectors as virulence factors	7
1.3 <i>G. orontii</i> and the powdery mildew infection of <i>Arabidopsis</i>	10
1.3.1 Quantification of powdery mildew infection	11
1.4 Thesis aims	12
2 Results	13
2.1 Rapid quantification of plant-powdery mildew interactions by qPCR and conidiospore counts.....	13
2.1.1 The powdery mildew infection on seedlings.....	13
2.1.2 qPCR-based quantification of <i>G. orontii</i> infection.....	14
2.1.3 Spore counts of <i>G. orontii</i>	16
2.2 Transcriptome analysis of enriched <i>G. orontii</i> haustoria	18
2.2.1 Sequencing and EST analysis of a haustorial cDNA library	18
2.2.2 Functional classification indicates high protein turn-over in haustoria	19
2.2.3 ROS-detoxifying enzyme transcripts are abundant in <i>G. orontii</i> haustoria	21
2.2.4 Low abundance of nutrient transporter transcripts in haustoria	21
2.2.5 qRT-PCR analysis of haustorial transcripts.....	23
2.3 Functional characterization of <i>G. orontii</i> effector candidates	25
2.3.1 <i>G. orontii</i> effector prediction and cloning	25
2.3.2 Most effector candidates suppress induced cell death	27
2.3.3 Bacterial delivery of selected effectors interferes with host immunity	29
2.3.4 Effectors show differential localization and expression patterns.....	31
2.3.5 Systematic Y2H reveals effector host targets and convergence onto hubs of the host cellular network.....	33
2.3.6 Unrelated phytopathogens target overlapping sets of host proteins	36
2.3.7 Effector targets function in immunity towards <i>G. orontii</i>	38
2.3.8 Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) confirms Y2H interactions	39
3 Discussion	42
3.1 Quantification of powdery mildew infections by qPCR and spore counts.....	42
3.1.1 qPCR-based quantification of <i>G. orontii</i> biomass.....	42

3.1.2	Spore counts are a valid method to determine <i>G. orontii</i> reproductive success.....	43
3.1.3	Comparison of developed to existing methods of powdery mildew quantification	44
3.2	Transcriptome analysis of enriched <i>G. orontii</i> haustoria	46
3.2.1	Assembly and annotation of the haustorial library.....	46
3.2.2	Transcripts of primary metabolism dominate the haustorial transcriptome.....	47
3.2.3	H Haustoria produce multiple ROS scavenging molecules	47
3.2.4	Transporter transcripts are not abundant in the haustorial cDNA library	48
3.2.5	Conserved pathogenicity genes are expressed in <i>G. orontii</i> haustoria.....	49
3.3	Functional characterization of <i>G. orontii</i> effector candidates.....	51
3.3.1	OECs display common features of effector proteins	51
3.3.2	Cell death suppression by OECs.....	52
3.3.3	The virulence enhancing effect of OECs.....	53
3.3.4	Lessons from OEC localization	54
3.3.5	Expression of OECs – do effectors come in waves?	54
3.3.6	The OEC-Arabidopsis interactome reveals potential virulence targets.....	55
3.3.7	Unrelated phytopathogens converge onto hubs in the plant cellular network.....	56
3.3.8	Hubs are involved in the defense response	58
3.3.9	Y2H interactions can be confirmed by BiFC.....	65
3.4	Concluding remarks.....	66
4	Materials and Methods	67
4.1	Materials.....	67
4.1.1	Plant material.....	67
4.1.2	Strains and plasmids	67
4.1.3	Reagents, chemicals and antibiotics	68
4.1.4	Antibodies	68
4.1.5	Media	69
4.2	Methods.....	69
4.2.1	Standard molecular and biochemical methods	69
4.2.1	Powdery mildew inoculations	71
4.2.2	Quantification of powdery mildew infection	72
4.2.3	Generation and analysis of the haustorial library	73
4.2.4	qRT-PCR	74
4.2.5	Transmission electron microscopy	74
4.2.6	Prediction and bioinformatic analysis of effectors	74
4.2.7	<i>Pseudomonas</i> EDV assays	75
4.2.8	Transient expression assays	77
4.2.9	Yeast-two-hybrid.....	78
5	References.....	80
6	Supplemental Data.....	104
6.1	Supplemental Figures	104
6.2	Supplemental Tables.....	106
Acknowledgements.....		119
Erklärung.....		121
Lebenslauf.....		123

Abbreviations

ABA	abscisic acid
AC	average coverage
ACC	1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid
AI-1	Arabidopsis interactome version 1
APC	Anaphase-promoting complex
Arabidopsis	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
Avr	Avirulence
<i>Bgh</i>	<i>Blumeria graminis</i> f.sp. <i>hordei</i>
BiFC	bimolecular fluorescence complementation
BAK1	brassinosteroid receptor 1 (BR1)–associated kinase
<i>Bgh</i>	<i>Blumeria graminis</i> f.sp. <i>hordei</i>
BIK1	<i>Botrytis</i> -induced kinase 1
BR	Brassinosteroid
CC	coiled-coil domain
<i>Cf</i>	<i>Cladosporium fulvum</i>
cfu	colony forming unit
<i>Ch</i>	<i>Colletotrichum higginsianum</i>
CLSM	confocal laser scanning microscopy
CUL	cullin
CRLs	cullin RING ligases
CSEP	candidate secreted protein
CSN	COP9 signalosome
C-terminal	carboxy terminal
Da	Dalton
DMSO	dimethylsulfoxide
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
dpi	days post inoculation
DRMIP-HESP	developmentally regulated MAPK interacting protein-haustorially expressed protein domain
eds	enhanced disease susceptibility
edr	enhanced disease resistance
EDTA	Na ₂ -ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid
EDV	effector detector vector
EF-Tu	elongation factor Tu
EFR	EF-Tu receptor
ER	endoplasmic reticulum
EST	expressed sequence tag
ET	ethylene
ETI	effector-triggered immunity
FDR	false discovery rate
FLS2	flagellin sensing 2
f.sp.	formae specialis
GA	gibberellic acid
GABA	γ-aminobutyric acid
GO	gene ontology
<i>Hpa</i>	<i>Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis</i>
hpi	hours post inoculation
HR	hypersensitive response
JA	jasmonic acid
JAZ	jasmonate-ZIM domain containing protein
LRR	leucine-rich repeat
MAMP	microbe-associated molecular pattern
MAP	mitogen-activated protein
MES	2-(<i>N</i> -morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid

Abbreviations

NLP	necrosis and ethylene-inducing proteins (NEP1)-like proteins
mM	millimolar
μ M	micromolar
MFS	major facilitator superfamily
MTI	MAMP-triggered immunity
MVB	multi-vesicular body
<i>Nb</i>	<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i>
NB	nucleotide binding site
N-terminal	amino terminal
OEC	<i>G. orontii</i> effector candidate
ORF	open reading frame
o/n	overnight
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
<i>Pi</i>	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>
PPIN-1	plant pathogen interactome version 1
PR	pathogenesis-related protein
PRA	prenylated rab acceptor
PRR	pattern-recognition receptor
<i>Pst</i>	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> pv <i>tomato</i> DC3000
<i>Psy</i>	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> (several pathovars)
pv.	pathovar
PVC	prevacuolar compartment
qPCR	quantitative real time PCR
qRT-PCR	quantitative reverse transcription PCR
R	resistance
RIN4	RPM1 interacting protein 4
RNA	ribonucleic acid
rpm	revolutions per minute
RT	room temperature
RING	really interesting new gene
RLK	receptor-like kinase
RLP	receptor-like protein
ROS	reactive oxygen species
RT	room temperature
SA	salicylic acid
SAG101	senescence-associated gene 101
SCF	S-phase kinase-associated protein (SKP), CUL1, really interesting new gene (RING) box 1 (Rbx1), F-box protein complex
SDS-PAGE	sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
SNAP	synaptosomal-associated protein
SNARE	soluble N-ethylmaleimide sensitive factor attachment protein receptor
TAL	transcription-activator like
TCP	<i>teosinte branched1</i> , cycloidea (CYC), proliferating cell factor (PCF)
TF	transcription factor
TIR	Toll-interleukin1 receptor
TM	transmembrane
T3SS	Type III secretion system
T-DNA	transfer DNA
VAMP	vesicle-associated membrane protein
YFP	yellow fluorescent protein
Y2H	yeast two-hybrid
$^{\circ}$ C	degrees Celsius

Summary

Plants are resistant to the majority of potential pathogenic microbes. Adapted pathogens can however overcome plant defense and induce susceptibility. The molecular processes underlying this adaptation are only partially understood. Obligate biotrophic pathogens, which require a living host for growth and reproduction, establish especially intimate relationships with their plant hosts. A crucial aspect of this lifestyle is the formation of a specialized infection structure termed the haustorium. Haustoria are believed to represent pivotal sites of nutrient uptake and deliver effectors, proteins that manipulate the host cell during infection to promote susceptibility. While the effector arsenal of pathogenic bacteria has been investigated intensively, the repertoires and host targets of fungal effectors are currently underexplored. The work presented here thus aims at characterizing virulence mechanisms employed by the obligate biotrophic Ascomycete *Golovinomyces orontii*, the causal agent of the powdery mildew disease in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (hereafter *Arabidopsis*). To this end, the haustorial transcriptome of *G. orontii* was obtained by pyrosequencing of a cDNA library generated from isolated haustorial complexes. Transcripts coding for gene products with roles in protein turnover, detoxification of reactive oxygen species and fungal pathogenesis were abundant, while surprisingly transcripts encoding presumptive nutrient transporters were not highly represented in the haustorial cDNA library.

A substantial proportion (~38%) of transcripts encoding predicted secreted proteins comprised effector candidates. These candidates were cloned and found to frequently suppress induced plant cell death. A subset of effectors enhanced bacterial virulence and could suppress callose deposition, indicating a role in defense suppression. Transcript profiling of these effectors suggested their sequential delivery during pathogenesis. Furthermore, subcellular localization revealed diverse target compartments in the host. In a complementing approach, a large-scale yeast 2-hybrid (Y2H) assay was performed on the 84 cloned effector candidates and revealed convergence onto 61 potential host targets. These targets were enriched in transcription factors and components involved in development and cellular trafficking. Bimolecular fluorescence complementation assays confirmed the interaction of selected effectors with their host interactors. Finally, the Y2H targets of effectors were used to construct an integrated protein-protein interaction network of *Arabidopsis* and the three adapted pathogens *Pseudomonas syringae* (*Psy*), *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* (*Hpa*) and *G. orontii*. This network revealed pathogen-specific as well as nine common host targets. These common targets are highly connected in the *Arabidopsis* cellular network. After the development of suitable quantitative methods, the important role of these common targets in the *Arabidopsis* immune response was validated by screening respective T-DNA insertion lines. In sum, my work supports the hypothesis that phytopathogenic microbes target hubs in the host cellular network to promote susceptibility. The effector targets identified will therefore form the basis of subsequent effector research in *G. orontii*.

Zusammenfassung

Pflanzen sind immun gegen den Großteil potentieller Schädlinge. Angepasste Schädlinge können die pflanzlichen Verteidigungsmechanismen allerdings überwinden und so die Pflanze für eine Infektion empfänglich machen. Die molekularen Prozesse, die dieser Anpassung zugrundeliegen sind nur teilweise verstanden. Obligat biotrophe Schädlinge, welche auf einen lebenden Wirt für Wachstum und Vermehrung angewiesen sind, etablieren eine besonders enge Beziehung mit ihrem pflanzlichen Wirt. Ein kritischer Aspekt dieser Lebensform ist die Bildung einer spezialisierten Infektionsstruktur, des Haustoriums. Das Haustorium ist entscheidend für sowohl die Nahrungsaufnahme als auch die Sekretion von Effektoren, kleinen Proteinen die die Wirtszelle manipulieren und so empfänglich für eine Besiedlung machen. Während die Effektorarsenale von Bakterien bereits intensiv erforscht wurden, sind die Effektoren von pilzlichen Schädlingen sowie ihre Zielproteine in der Wirtszelle noch weitgehend unbekannt. Die hier präsentierte Arbeit zielt deshalb auf das Verständnis der Virulenzmechanismen des obligat biotrophen Schlauchpilzes (Ascomycet) *Golovinomyces orontii*, des Erregers des Mehltaus auf *Arabidopsis thaliana* (folgend Arabidosis). Dazu wurde das haustorielle Transkriptom von *G. orontii* durch die Pyro-Sequenzierung einer cDNA-Bibliothek aus isolierten haustoriellen Komplexen charakterisiert. Viele Transkripte kodierten für Proteine mit Funktionen in der Proteinumsetzung, der Entgiftung von reaktiven Sauerstoffspezies und pilzlicher Pathogenese. Überraschenderweise konnten nur wenige Transkripte für mögliche Nährstofftransporter identifiziert werden.

Ein substantieller Anteil (38%) der Transkripte für vorhergesagte sekretierte Proteine kodiert für Effektorkandidaten. Diese Kandidaten wurden kloniert und konnten häufig induzierten pflanzlichen Zelltod unterdrücken. Eine Untergruppe der Effektorkandidaten erhöhte die Virulenz von Bakterien und verringerte teilweise die Ablagerung von Callose. Zusammengenommen weist dies auf eine Rolle in der Unterdrückung der pflanzlichen Verteidigungsmechanismen hin. Die Analyse der Transkriptprofile dieser Kandidaten deutete auf eine sequentielle Produktion während der Infektion hin. Außerdem zeigten Lokalisationstudien unterschiedliche subzelluläre Zielkompartimente der einzelnen Effektorkandidaten. In einer komplementären Herangehensweise wurde eine großmaßstäbliche Hefe-Zwei-Hybrid (Y2H) Analyse der 84 klonierten Effektorkandidaten durchgeführt. Dieser Ansatz enthüllte die Konvergenz der Kandidaten auf 61 potentielle Zielproteine des Wirtes.

In diesen Zielproteinen sind Transkriptionsfaktoren sowie Komponenten aus der Pflanzenentwicklung und dem zellulären Transport überrepräsentiert. Versuche über die bimolekulare Fluoreszenz-komplementation bestätigten die Interaktion von ausgewählten Effektoren mit den jeweiligen Wirtsproteinen. Schließlich wurden die Y2H-Interaktoren der Effektorkandidaten zur Konstruktion eines integrierten Protein-Protein Interaktions-Netzwerks von *Arabidopsis* und den drei adaptierten Schädlingen *Pseudomonas syringae* (*Psy*),

Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis (Hpa) und *G. orontii* genutzt. Dieses Netzwerk enthüllte sowohl Schädling-spezifische als auch gemeinsame Zielproteine im Wirt. Die gemeinsamen Zielproteine sind hochvernetzt im zellulären Netzwerk von Arabidopsis. Nach der Entwicklung geeigneter quantitativer Methoden konnte eine Rolle dieser Proteine in der Immunantwort von Arabidopsis durch die Analyse von entsprechenden T-DNA-Insertionsmutanten bestätigt werden. Die hier präsentierte Arbeit unterstützt die Hypothese das mikrobielle Pflanzenschädlinge hochvernetzte Proteine in der Pflanze angreifen um ihre Anfälligkeit zu erhöhen. Die identifizierten Effektoren und Zielproteine werden daher die Grundlage für eine weitere Erforschung des Arabidopsis-Mehltaus bilden.

1 Introduction

1.1 Plant immunity

Plants are sessile organism and have to continuously adapt to a changing environment. They are continuously exposed to pathogens with various infection strategies and feeding habits, including viruses, bacteria, fungi, nematodes and insects. The world is however still a green place as plants, similarly to invertebrates and vertebrates, possess an innate immune system that detects and wards off potential pathogens. Accordingly, plants are resistant against the vast majority of pathogenic microbes, a phenomenon termed non-host resistance. In comparison to vertebrates however, plants do not have an adaptive immune system with dedicated mobile immune cells but rather rely on the ability of each cell to defend against invaders (Ausubel, 2005). Plant innate immunity involves both preformed barriers and a multitude of responsive processes triggered by the recognition of potential pathogens, orchestrated by transcriptional reprogramming and executed by defense responses such as cell wall reinforcement and the delivery of anti-microbial compounds (Jones and Dangl, 2006; Thordal-Christensen, 2003). The immune response can be broadly divided into two distinct but overlapping layers: microbe-associated molecular pattern (MAMP)- and effector-triggered immunity (MTI and ETI, Jones and Dangl, 2006). Adapted pathogens are able to overcome plant innate immunity to cause disease.

1.1.1 Non-host resistance and MAMP-triggered immunity – two sides of the same coin

Plants are resistant to the majority of potential pathogens; they are non-hosts for these pathogens. This is due to the multilayered defense system of plants and specific requirements of the pathogens. In general, pathogens require certain cues to initiate pathogenesis, including surface topologies and cuticular waxes (Thordal-Christensen, 2003). Subsequently, successful pathogens need to overcome preformed plant defenses like secondary metabolites or the rigid cell wall (Mysore and Ryu, 2004). In the first responsive layer of defense, plants, analogous to animals, recognize MAMPs, conserved and indispensable microbial signatures such as bacterial flagellin, the elongation factor Tu (EF-Tu), fungal chitin and many more (Boller and Felix, 2009). These cellular components create a “non-self” signal that is perceived by the plant. The active epitopes of MAMPs are recognized by membrane-resident pattern-recognition receptors (PRRs) of the receptor-like kinase (RLK) and receptor-like protein (RLP) type (Boller and Felix, 2009). These PRRs are distinguished by their domain structure. RLKs such as flagellin sensing 2 (FLS2) and the EF-Tu receptor (EFR) contain an extracellular leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domain, a short transmembrane (TM) domain and an intracellular kinase domain (Gómez-Gómez and Boller, 2000; Zipfel et al., 2006). RLPs such as chitin elicitor receptor kinase 1 (CERK1), by contrast harbor an extracellular LysM domain, a TM domain and a short cytoplasmic domain without kinase function (Miya et al., 2007; Wan et al., 2008). The receptor proteins can be either

restricted to specific plant families or widely conserved, as shown for *EFR*, which is specific to the Brassicaceae and *FLS2*, which has also been found in tobacco, tomato and rice (Hann and Rathjen, 2007; Kunze et al., 2004; Robatzek et al., 2007; Takai et al., 2008). Transfer of *EFR* to tobacco and tomato generates responsiveness to elf18, the active epitope of EF-Tu, and enhanced resistance to bacteria, indicating that the downstream signaling components of the receptor are conserved (Lacombe et al., 2010). The transfer of *EFR* shifts the recipient plant towards a non-host state, further underlining the role of PRRs in non-host resistance.

The recognition of MAMPs by *FLS2* and *EFR*, but not *CERK1*, triggers their association with brassinosteroid receptor 1-associated kinase (*BAK1*), phosphorylation of both partners and the subsequent activation of plant responses (Chinchilla et al., 2007). This is a key step in receptor activation, as *bak1* mutants are strongly impaired in downstream signaling events (Chinchilla et al., 2007). *CERK1* functions independent of *BAK1* but also associates with Botrytis-induced kinase (*BIK1*), a cytoplasmic kinase with a key role in the relay of receptor signals (Lu et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2010). Subsequent to receptor complex activation, a stereotypical signaling cascade is activated that is mostly independent of the MAMP applied. There is a marked Ca^{2+} -influx, an oxidative burst occurs and MAP (mitogen-activated protein) kinases are activated (Boller and Felix, 2009). Subsequently, the phytohormone ethylene (ET) is produced and transcriptional reprogramming occurs (Zipfel et al., 2006; Zipfel et al., 2004). Even later, callose deposits appear and seedling growth is inhibited, indicating the reallocation of energy to the defense response (Gómez-Gómez and Boller, 2000; Gómez-Gómez et al., 1999). MAMP-triggered responses limit development and growth of both adapted and non-adapted pathogens and thus significantly contribute to plant immunity (Miya et al., 2007; Wan et al., 2008; Zipfel et al., 2006; Zipfel et al., 2004). It has to be noted that MAMPs, by definition, are also contained in commensal and beneficial microorganisms. The plant thus has to discriminate between neutral or beneficial and pathogenic microbes, as defense induction against the former would be detrimental for the plant. Specificity is probably achieved through the integration of MAMP and danger-associated molecular pattern (DAMP) perception. DAMPs are plant-derived signals released by pathogen activities such as cell wall degradation, sucrose degradation and cell permeabilization and comprise oligogalacturonides, extracellular sugars, or endogenous elicitor peptides (Doares et al., 1995; Herbers et al., 1996; Huffaker et al., 2006). Perception of these DAMPs by membrane-resident RLKs initiates a signaling cascade that is integrated with MAMP-signaling to promote defense response induction (Brutus et al., 2010; Krol et al., 2010; Yamaguchi et al., 2010; Yamaguchi et al., 2006).

But what are the executors of MTI? This question leads back to the genetic dissection of non-host resistance, especially to the characterization of components involved in the interaction of *Arabidopsis thaliana* with the non-adapted powdery mildew pathogen of barley, *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *hordei* (*Bgh*). In this patho-system, non-host resistance at the pre-penetration stage is conferred by two parallel pathways. The first pathway leads to vesicle-mediated secretion of

unknown defense compounds and involves soluble *N*-ethylmaleimide sensitive factor attachment protein receptor (SNARE)-complex formation by the membrane-resident syntaxin PEN1/SYP121, the synaptosomal-associated protein (SNAP) 33 and the endomembrane-resident vesicle-associated membrane proteins (VAMPs) 721 and 722 (Collins et al., 2003; Kwon et al., 2008). The second pathway generates active glucosinolates for antifungal defense. It involves the biosynthesis of 4-methoxyindol-3-ylmethylglucosinolate by CYP81F2, a P450 monooxygenase, and subsequent activation by the peroxisomal β -glycosyl hydrolase PEN2 (Bednarek et al., 2009; Clay et al., 2009; Lipka et al., 2005). The active compound is then presumably secreted by PEN3, a pleiotropic drug resistance/ATP-binding cassette transporter (Stein et al., 2006). Both pathways limit the colonization by adapted as well as non-adapted pathogens and are thus also involved in MTI (Bednarek et al., 2009; Hiruma et al., 2010; Kwon et al., 2008; Stein et al., 2006). CYP81F2, PEN2 and PEN3 are required for MAMP-induced callose deposition and PEN1, VAMP722 and PEN3 accumulate in callosic haustorial encasements of the adapted powdery mildew fungus *G. orontii*, clearly demonstrating their role in MTI (Clay et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2009). Components of the two pathways are transcriptionally induced after challenge with *G. orontii* and part of a transcriptional regulon conserved in both Arabidopsis and barley, showing that an ancient transcriptional program controls their expression (Chandran et al., 2010; Humphry et al., 2010). Additional inducible defense components comprise the phytoalexin camalexin, which is involved in resistance to both adapted and non-adapted necrotrophic pathogens and the pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins, which include chitinases and glucanases (Schlaeppli et al., 2010; Stotz et al., 2011; Thomma et al., 1999b; van Loon et al., 2006). The induction of defense responses is costly for the plant and therefore needs to be tailored towards invading microbes. One mechanism allowing a specific defense response is the production of different plant hormones and the cross-talk of their signaling modules.

1.1.2 Plant hormones – integrators of multiple defense responses

MAMP and DAMP perception induces the generation of several defense-related hormones, most prominently salicylic acid (SA), jasmonic acid (JA) and ET (Pieterse et al., 2009; Tsuda and Katagiri, 2010). These hormonal pathways act mostly antagonistically, with SA controlling defense against biotrophic and JA/ET synergistically controlling the defense response against necrotrophic pathogens (Glazebrook, 2005). However, all three pathways contribute positively to MTI and are probably needed to amplify the defense signal (Tsuda et al., 2009).

Induction of SA production requires the defense regulator enhanced disease susceptibility (EDS) 1 and its interaction partner phytoalexin deficient (PAD) 4, both of which also regulate SA-independent responses (Falk et al., 1999; Feys et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 1998). EDS1 also interacts with and signals through senescence-associated gene (SAG) 101, putatively forming a ternary complex with PAD4 (Feys et al., 2005; Zhu et al., 2011). All three proteins are also involved in basal immune responses, and define a third layer of post-invasive resistance against

Bgh (Lipka et al., 2005). The *pen2 pad4 sag101* triple mutant renders *Arabidopsis* a host for *Bgh*, as the fungus can in rare cases complete its life cycle on these plants (Lipka et al., 2005).

SA is produced predominantly through a chloroplast-localized pathway from chorismate by the isochorismate synthase ICS1/SID2 (Wildermuth et al., 2001). The mode of SA perception has long remained elusive, but two recent publications argue for either NPR1 (nonexpressor of pathogenesis-related genes 1) or its paralogs NPR3 and NPR4 as SA receptors (Fu et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2012). Previously, NPR1 has been characterized as the key signal transducer downstream of SA production, as loss of NPR1 impairs both local and systemic resistance to pathogens (Cao et al., 1994; Mou et al., 2003). In the non-induced state, NPR1 oligomers are localized in the cytoplasm. Upon SA-induced redox changes the monomers are liberated, enter the nucleus and initiate signaling through TGA transcription factors (TFs) (Mou et al., 2003; Tada et al., 2008). This leads to the activation of downstream responses such as *PR* gene expression, the establishment of systemic acquired resistance in non-challenged leaves and contributes to the hypersensitive response (HR), a localized plant cell death (Durrant and Dong, 2004). Constitutive signaling is prevented by constant proteasome-dependent degradation of NPR1 in the nucleus (Spoel et al., 2009). The cytosolic pool of NPR1 is important for the repression of JA signaling (Spoel et al., 2003).

JA is a lipid-derived compound originating from α -linolenic acid that is produced by several enzymatic reactions in both the chloroplast and peroxisomes (Wasternack, 2007). It is perceived through a receptor complex containing the ubiquitin-conjugating E3 ligase SCF^{COI1} (S-phase kinase-associated protein, cullin (CUL) 1, really interesting new gene (RING) box 1 (Rbx1), F-box protein) (Pauwels and Goossens, 2011). COI1 is an F-box protein and thus functions as the eponymous substrate adaptor of the complex (Xie et al., 1998). It interacts with several Jasmonate-ZIM domain containing (JAZ) proteins that repress JA signaling by binding to the JA-responsive TF MYC2 and recruiting the corepressor TOPLESS (Pauwels et al., 2010). Binding of JA-isoleucine, the bioactive JA conjugate, to the SCF^{COI1}-JAZ coreceptor complex induces ubiquitination of JAZ proteins by SCF^{COI1} and subsequent degradation of the JAZs (Chini et al., 2007; Sheard et al., 2010; Thines et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2007). This allows the induction of JA-responsive genes by the TF MYC2. In addition to its role in the defense response, JA also influences several developmental processes, as exemplified by the male sterility phenotype of the *coi1* mutant (Pauwels and Goossens, 2011; Wasternack, 2007; Xie et al., 1998).

Similar to JA, ET is a versatile hormone involved in defense responses as well as plant development. The production of ET from its precursor S-adenosylmethionine via 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC) synthase and ACC oxidase is rapidly induced by MAMP perception (Boller and Felix, 2009; Wang et al., 2002). Five membrane-bound ET receptors have been described which constitutively repress ET signaling (Wang et al., 2002). Upon ET perception these receptors are inactivated, leading to derepression of the pathway and activation of gene expression through EIN2 and the TFs EIN3 and EIL3 (Shan et al., 2012). JA

and ET predominantly act synergistically. This synergism is in large parts controlled by the two TFs ERF1 and ORA59 (Lorenzo et al., 2003; Pré et al., 2008). JA- and JA/ET-induced genes can thus be separated by the requirement of either MYC2 or ERF1 and ORA59 for their induction (Lorenzo et al., 2004).

The outcome of hormone signaling is governed by a large network of crosstalk. In addition to the archetypical JA-SA antagonism, many interactions of different hormone branches have been described. They include, but are not limited to, synergism of ET and SA signaling, antagonism between abscisic acid (ABA), JA/ET and SA responses, antagonism between SA and auxin signaling, a role of gibberellic acid (GA) signaling in SA-JA crosstalk and antagonism between cytokinins and SA and auxin (Anderson et al., 2004; Leon-Reyes et al., 2009; Naseem et al., 2012; Navarro et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2007; Yasuda et al., 2008). The complexity of hormonal crosstalk is essential for integrating both immune and developmental signals and generating an appropriate response. The use of proteasome mediated degradation is another common theme in these hormone signaling pathways. Constitutive repression of ET signaling is mediated through the constant degradation of EIN2 and EIN3 through SCF^{ETP1/2} and SCF^{EBF1/2}, respectively (Guo and Ecker, 2003; Potuschak et al., 2003; Qiao et al., 2009). Additionally, SCF^{COI1}, SCF^{TIR1} and SCF^{GID2} perceive the plant hormones JA, auxin and GA, respectively (Santner and Estelle, 2009). Finally, the potential perception of SA by an E3 ligase complex containing CUL3, NPR3 and/or NPR4 also provides a link to SA signaling (Fu et al., 2012). Despite the complexity and redundancy of plant innate immunity, adapted pathogens have found ways to disturb or abuse the plant defense response and cause disease. One such mechanism is the production of the phytotoxin coronatine, a structural analog of JA-Isoleucine, by the hemibiotrophic bacterium *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 (*Pst*) (Weiler et al., 1994; Yan et al., 2009). Coronatine activates JA-signaling and induces susceptibility owing to the suppression of SA-induced responses by hormonal crosstalk (Brooks et al., 2005; Uppalapati et al., 2007).

1.1.3 Adapted pathogens have evolved to cause disease

Arabidopsis can be colonized by many microbial pathogens, including bacteria and the filamentous oomycetes and fungi. Their lifestyle ranges from necrotrophy, where nutrients are obtained by lysis of the host, to obligate biotrophic pathogens that can only grow and reproduce on the living host (O'Connell and Panstruga, 2006). Obligate biotrophy has evolved in unrelated pathogens several times independently, indicating that this life-style provides a selective advantage (Kemen and Jones, 2012; O'Connell and Panstruga, 2006). Accordingly, obligate biotrophy is associated with specific genomic adaptations, including increased genome size mediated by the expansion of transposable elements, reduced sets of lytic enzymes and enzymes for the production of secondary metabolites and the loss of some biosynthetic pathways (Kemen and Jones, 2012; Schmidt and Panstruga, 2011). Obligate biotrophic pathogens use a characteristic feeding organ, the haustorium to establish an intimate relationship with their host

and facilitate the uptake of carbohydrates, amino acids and possibly water from the host (Gil and Gay, 1977; Hahn and Mendgen, 1997; Voegelé and Mendgen, 2003). Nutrient uptake is thought to be driven by a proton gradient across the membrane that is generated by fungal H⁺-ATPases (O'Connell and Panstruga, 2006). Haustoria remain separated from the host cell by the extrahaustorial matrix, the battleground of the host-pathogen interaction, and the extrahaustorial membrane (EHM), a derivative of the plant plasma membrane whose composition is modified remarkably (Koh et al., 2005; Meyer et al., 2009; Micali et al., 2011). Arabidopsis can be colonized by several obligate biotrophs, including the oomycetes downy mildew *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* (*Hpa*) and white rust *Albugo* species as well as powdery mildew fungi (Kemen and Jones, 2012). The haustoria of obligate biotrophic pathogens have been shown to secrete effectors, small proteins that undermine the host immune system and reprogram the host cell for compatibility (Kemen et al., 2005; Sohn et al., 2007; Stergiopoulos and de Wit, 2009). These effectors can in turn be recognized by the plant, triggering ETI.

1.2 Effectors of microbial pathogens

1.2.1 Effectors as avirulence determinants

It has long been recognized that plants are resistant to specific isolates of adapted pathogens. A conceptual framework for these observations was first provided by the gene-for-gene concept, which stated that isolate-specific resistance requires complementary Avirulence (*Avr*) and resistance (*R*) genes in host and pathogen, respectively (Flor, 1971). Interactions of plants and adapted pathogens can thus be classified as compatible (*R* or *Avr* gene absent) or incompatible (*R* and *Avr* gene present). The cloning and analysis of several *Avr/R* gene combinations has elucidated the molecular mechanisms underlying the gene-for-gene concept and shown that *Avr* genes encode effectors, thus coining the term ETI (Dangl and Jones, 2001; Jones and Dangl, 2006; Van Der Biezen and Jones, 1998). *R* genes predominantly encode cytoplasmic proteins with a modular structure. They contain a central nucleotide-binding (NB) domain, a C-terminal LRR domain and one of two possible N-terminal domains (Takken and Tameling, 2009). The N-terminal coiled-coil (CC) or Toll/Interleukin-1 receptor (TIR) domains form the signaling hubs of the proteins. The LRR domain generates the recognition specificity of R proteins by either binding to *Avr* proteins (direct recognition) or by monitoring effector-induced modifications of host proteins (guardees). This “guard” model has provided a valuable extension of the gene-for-gene concept (Dangl and Jones, 2001; Van Der Biezen and Jones, 1998). One of the best studied guardees is the plasma membrane-resident RPM1 interacting protein 4 (RIN4). It is targeted by at least four independent effectors (*AvrRpm1*, *AvrB*, *AvrRpt2* and *HopF2*) and guarded by two distinct CC-NB-LRR proteins, RPM1 and RPS2, which recognize its phosphorylation or cleavage, respectively (Kim et al., 2005a; Kim et al., 2005b; Mackey et al., 2002; Wilton et al., 2010). The guard model has recently been modified to also encompass decoys, non-functional proteins that mimic effector targets solely to trigger R protein mediated resistance (van der Hoorn and Kamoun, 2008). It is

important to note that in contrast to non-host resistance, which acts at the species level, *R* gene-mediated resistance is cultivar-specific.

The signaling cascades downstream of R protein activation are only poorly understood. TIR-NB-LRRs and CC-NB-LRRs activate at least partially distinct signaling modules, as illustrated by the differential requirement of EDS1 or NDR1 (non-race specific resistance 1), respectively, for the activation of downstream responses (Aarts et al., 1998). The most frequent executor of ETI is the HR, but resistance and HR can also be uncoupled (Bendahmane et al., 1999; Clough et al., 2000; Heidrich et al., 2011). Notably, ETI can also be characterized as an enhanced and prolonged MTI response (Tsuda and Katagiri, 2010). There is a significant overlap of transcriptional changes induced by MTI and ETI and both MTI and ETI trigger reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and MAP kinase activation (Navarro et al., 2004; Torres et al., 2006; Underwood et al., 2007). In ETI, the kinase activation is however more extensive and ROS production is biphasic with a second prolonged ROS burst probably triggered by effector recognition (Torres et al., 2006; Underwood et al., 2007). Hormonal responses are also involved in MTI and ETI alike, playing synergistic and compensatory roles in the former and latter, respectively (Tsuda et al., 2009). In addition, the separation of MAMPs from effectors and PRRs from R proteins is sometimes difficult (Thomma et al., 2011). The rice Xa21 and tomato Cf-2 R proteins are transmembrane proteins with an extracellular LRR domain and thus resemble PRRs. They do however specifically recognize the bacterial effector protein Ax21 and modifications of the tomato cysteine protease Rcr3, respectively (Lee et al., 2009; Rooney et al., 2005). Notably, the recognized epitope of Ax21 was mapped to a 17 amino acid sulfated peptide that is conserved in all *Xanthomonas* species, thus resembling a MAMP (Lee et al., 2009).

1.2.2 Effectors as virulence factors

Effectors can be defined as “all pathogen proteins and small molecules that alter host-cell structure and function” (Hogenhout et al., 2009). These compounds are predominantly proteins and can be divided into apoplastic and intracellular effectors, based on their localization. They have been extensively characterized in bacterial pathogens (Feng and Zhou, 2012). Pathogenic bacteria use a syringe-like structure, the Type III secretion system (T3SS), to insert effectors into the plant cell (Jin and He, 2001). The *Pst* genome contains 28 well expressed effectors and the function of many of these has been elucidated (Cunnac et al., 2009; Feng and Zhou, 2012). Collectively, effectors interfere with many events of MTI but have varying contributions to susceptibility (Cunnac et al., 2011). Many bacterial effectors target PRR complexes at the plasma membrane and interfere with subsequent MAP kinase signaling cascades (Cheng et al., 2011; Cui et al., 2010; Feng et al., 2012; Gimenez-Ibanez et al., 2009; Göhre et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2007). Additional functions include the modification of RNA metabolism and the interference with vesicle trafficking and secretion (Bartetzko et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2007; Nomura et al., 2006). Effectors of *Xanthomonas* can also abuse the host

transcriptional machinery by acting as TFs that induce susceptibility genes (Kay et al., 2007; Römer et al., 2007). These TAL (transcription activator-like) effectors recognize specific DNA elements through their central repeat domain (Boch et al., 2009; Moscou and Bogdanove, 2009). The susceptibility genes induced include two SWEET-type sugar exporters, suggesting that effectors also affect pathogen nutrition (Chen et al., 2010). In response, plants have evolved atypical *R* genes which are transcriptionally induced by TAL effectors and induce a cell death response, thus complying with the gene-for-gene model (Gu et al., 2005; Römer et al., 2007).

In comparison to bacteria, the effector functions of filamentous pathogens are far less understood. Cloned Avr effector proteins have been found to be secreted via the classical vesicle trafficking pathway and bioinformatic predictions of unknown secreted proteins has thus been used to define candidate effector sets (Saunders et al., 2012; Schmidt and Panstruga, 2011). These analyses revealed large (>200) effector candidate sets, complicating the selection of appropriate candidates (Schmidt and Panstruga, 2011). Most information is currently available on the function of apoplastic effectors. These can roughly be divided into cell wall degrading enzymes, toxins, protease inhibitors and effectors preventing chitin degradation or signaling (de Jonge et al., 2011). Cell-wall degrading enzymes are more prevalent in the genomes of necrotrophic and hemibiotrophic relative to biotrophic pathogens, as biotrophic pathogens do not lyse their host cells for nutrient acquisition (Schmidt and Panstruga, 2011). Toxins are also associated with hemibiotrophic and necrotrophic pathogens. A good example are the necrosis and ethylene-inducing proteins (NEP1)-like proteins (NLPs), that are present in genomes of pathogenic fungi, oomycetes and even bacteria and induce membrane permeabilization (Ottmann et al., 2009). NLPs are also present in the genomes of biotrophic pathogens, but these orthologs do not induce necrosis (Cabral et al., 2012). Protease inhibitors are effectors of many pathogens and have even evolved independently to target the same protease. This is evident for the cysteine protease Rcr3 of tomato, which is inhibited by effectors of *Cladosporium fulvum* (*Cf*), *Phytophthora infestans* (*Pi*) and the nematode *Globodera rostochiensis* (Lozano-Torres et al., 2012; Song et al., 2009). Interestingly, Rcr3 is guarded by the atypical LRR transmembrane R protein Cf-2 (Dixon et al., 2000; Rooney et al., 2005). Finally, *Cf* Avr4 protects the fungus from plant chitinases and *Cf* Ecp6 scavenges chitin in the apoplast, thereby preventing chitin-triggered responses (de Jonge et al., 2010; van den Burg et al., 2006). Orthologs of Ecp6 have been detected in many other fungal species, indicating the chitin scavenging is a common virulence mechanism (Bolton et al., 2008).

For cytoplasmic effectors, most progress has recently been made in oomycete pathogens. Protein sequence comparison of several oomycete Avr effectors allowed the delineation of the common RXLR-(D)EER motif (short RXLR), which was subsequently shown to be involved in effector uptake (Dou et al., 2008; Rehmany et al., 2005; Whisson et al., 2007). Subsequently, the LXLFLAK motif was shown to mediate uptake in another group of oomycete intracellular effectors, the Crinkler proteins (CRNs) (Haas et al., 2009; Schornack et al., 2010). The RXLR and

LXLFLAK motives allow rapid bioinformatic searches for effector candidates in the genomes and/or transcriptomes of oomycete species, which can be subjected to subsequent biological analysis (Vleeshouwers et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). These screens have uncovered several previously uncloned *Avr* effectors and corresponding *R* genes, clearly demonstrating the power of the approach (Goritschnig et al., 2012; Vleeshouwers et al., 2008). Large-scale approaches have also revealed MTI suppression functions and subcellular localization of both *Hpa* and *P. sojae* effector candidates (Caillaud et al., 2012; Fabro et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011). Recently, the functions of *AvrBib-2*, which inhibits the secretion of an immune protease, and *CRN8*, a functional serine/threonine RD kinase have also been determined (Bozkurt et al., 2011; van Damme et al., 2012). Additionally, the first described intracellular host target of a filamentous pathogen effector, the E3 ubiquitin ligase *CMPG1* was identified by analysis of the *Pi* effector *Avr3a* (Bos et al., 2010). A common theme of both oomycete and fungal effectors is the suppression of plant cell death, which has been frequently reported (Dou et al., 2008; Kleemann et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011). Recently, a large-scale yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) screen of effectors from *Hpa* and several *Pseudomonas syringae* (*Psy*) pathovars has recently revealed many potential host targets (Mukhtar et al., 2011). The authors showed that these unrelated pathogens target overlapping sets of proteins, suggesting that effectors show convergent evolution for the inhibition of key defense targets.

The functional analysis of fungal cytoplasmic effectors is currently lacking behind. Although the uptake of effectors into host cells has been described, the uptake signal remains enigmatic (Kemen et al., 2005; Khang et al., 2010). Additionally, the frequent cloning of *Avr* proteins has not led to the definition of effector functions or their role in virulence (de Jonge et al., 2011; Stergiopoulos and de Wit, 2009). Cloned effectors have however been utilized to define the spatiotemporal organization of effector delivery (Khang et al., 2010; Kleemann et al., 2012). Research on the maize smut fungus *Ustilago maydis* has revealed *Pep1*, an effector necessary for cell to cell movement of the pathogen and *Cmu1*, a secreted chorismate mutase that probably interferes with SA production and also moves to neighboring cells (Djamei et al., 2011; Doehlemann et al., 2009). Recently, *Pep1* was shown to inhibit a host peroxidase, thus preventing a localized oxidative burst (Hemetsberger et al., 2012). The xylem-colonizing fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* f.sp. *lycopersici* secretes *Avr1*, which is recognized by the intracellular *R* protein *I-1* and interferes with resistance triggered by *I-2* and *I-3* (Houterman et al., 2008). The exact mechanism of this interference remains to be determined. The effector functions of obligate biotrophic fungal pathogens have so far not been elucidated. Several *Avr* proteins of rust fungi have been cloned, but remain to be characterized functionally (Catanzariti et al., 2006; Stergiopoulos and de Wit, 2009). In powdery mildew fungi, attempts to clone *Avr* genes have been mostly unsuccessful. These pathogens cause extensive yield losses worldwide, and effector proteins might provide important insights into their virulence mechanisms.

1.3 ***G. orontii* and the powdery mildew infection of Arabidopsis**

Powdery mildew fungi are widespread pathogens infecting more than 10,000 plant species, including many agronomically relevant crops (Takamatsu, 2004). They are obligate biotrophic parasites and are thus dependent on a living host to complete their life cycle. In recent years Arabidopsis has been used to achieve great progress in the dissection of the interaction of powdery mildews with their host (Consonni et al., 2006; Shen et al., 2007). Arabidopsis can be colonized by four powdery mildew fungi: *Erysiphe cruciferarum*, *Golovinomyces cichoracearum*, *Golovinomyces orontii* and *Oidium neolycopersici*, (see Micali et al. (2008) for review). Until recently research in this field was primarily focussed on the plant side of the interaction. Accordingly, several Arabidopsis mutants with both enhanced and reduced susceptibility to powdery mildew have been characterized (Consonni et al., 2006; Dewdney et al., 2000; Vogel and Somerville, 2000; Vogel et al., 2002; Xiao et al., 2001).

Most powdery mildew fungi grow epiphytically, completing their life cycle on the leaf surface. After landing of a conidiospore on the leaf a germ tube emerges, which subsequently differentiates an appressorium at the site where the fungal sporeling attempts to break through the host cuticle and cell wall. Following successful penetration, the haustorium invaginates the plant plasma membrane and matures into a lobe-shaped structure. Subsequently, secondary hyphae emerge from the spore, spread epiphytically and secondary haustoria are inserted into neighbouring host cells. Around seven days post inoculation (dpi) abundant epiphytic conidiation is apparent, generating the characteristic white powdery mildew pustules (Micali et al., 2008). While the interaction of *Bgh* with barley follows the gene-for-gene concept and up to 85 *R* genes with different specificities against powdery mildew isolates have been characterized in barley, no canonical powdery mildew *R* genes have been found in Arabidopsis yet (Joergensen, 1994; Micali et al., 2008). *G. orontii* infections of Arabidopsis have only been reported in 1998 and the fungus first coevolved with the plant family Asteraceae before experiencing frequent host jumps (Matsuda and Takamatsu, 2003; Plotnikova et al., 1998). Arabidopsis might thus not have coevolved with *G. orontii* long enough to select for canonical *R* genes. Broad-spectrum resistance to powdery mildew pathogens has however been observed. Loss of function mutations in the *mildew resistance locus O* (*MLO*) gene render barley plants resistant to all powdery mildew isolates (Büsches et al., 1997). Similarly, the combined loss of the orthologous *MLO2*, *MLO6* and *MLO12* genes generates broad-spectrum powdery mildew resistance in Arabidopsis (Consonni et al., 2006). Additionally, the RPW8 locus that encodes the non-canonical TM-CC R proteins RPW8.1 and RPW8.2 confers resistance to several powdery mildew species in a wide range of Arabidopsis accessions (Göllner et al., 2008; Xiao et al., 2001). Similar to canonical R proteins of the TIR type, the RPW8 proteins require EDS1 and additional SA signaling components to induce HR (Xiao et al., 2005). Strikingly, RPW8.2 localizes to the EHM and increases the formation of callosic haustorial encasements as well as localized defense responses (Micali et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2009).

Previously, transcriptomic studies of the barley pathogen, *Bgh*, have been used to reveal the timing and stage-specificity of fungal gene expression, indicating the co-regulation of large gene sets during infection (Both et al., 2005a; Both et al., 2005b). To understand the basis of biotrophy, it is crucial to also characterize the set of haustorially expressed genes. In rust fungi, for instance, these studies provided first indications for the potential importance of haustorially-expressed sugar and amino acid transporters during fungal pathogenesis (Hahn and Mendgen, 1997; Jakupovic et al., 2006). In addition, many effector genes have been discovered by transcriptomic studies of haustoria (Catanzariti et al., 2006; Hahn and Mendgen, 1997). The initial genome analysis of *Bgh* revealed 248 candidate effectors, of which very few could also be identified in the genomes of the pea powdery mildew pathogen, *Erysiphe pisi* and *G. orontii* (Spanu et al., 2010). The effector repertoire of *G. orontii* has not been explored. This pathogen and its effectors can serve as a model system for dicot-infecting powdery mildew fungi, which are the vast majority of powdery mildews species described to date (Glawe, 2008; Takamatsu, 2004). Recently, a protocol for the efficient preparation of powdery mildew haustoria from *Arabidopsis* has been developed, allowing the in depth transcriptomic analysis of these important infection structures (Micali et al., 2011).

1.3.1 Quantification of powdery mildew infection

Currently, the quantification of powdery mildew infection on plants is based on three major methods that all have certain limitations: macroscopic categorization and microscopy-based penetration and conidiophore counts (Consonni et al., 2006; Reuber et al., 1998; Vogel and Somerville, 2000). For crude categorization, disease symptoms can be scored by eye at late stages of pathogenesis (7-14 dpi) and ratings assigned based on the severity of disease symptoms (Humphry et al., 2010; Reuber et al., 1998). While this method is quick and suitable for high throughput, it is prone to subjectivity, relies on equal inoculation densities and can only reveal strong differences in colonization that are readily visible to the naked eye. Assessment of host cell entry by penetration counts is a quantitative way to measure powdery mildew infection, but this method is limited to differences in susceptibility that are already manifested at early stages of infection (Consonni et al., 2010; Consonni et al., 2006). In addition, it requires time-consuming staining and mounting steps of multiple microscopic samples and the subsequent assessment of hundreds of interaction sites. Finally, conidiophore counts have been used to characterize small mutant sets in detail (Consonni et al., 2006; Reuber et al., 1998; Vogel and Somerville, 2000). This method requires tight control of inoculation density to ensure the presence of single fungal colonies, and, similar to penetration counts, necessitates tedious staining and mounting of multiple microscopic samples. In addition, hyper-susceptibility of genotypes can sometimes not be resolved by this technique (Reuber et al., 1998). Based on their microscopic nature involving staining of specimens, the latter two methods are unsuitable for the analysis of large sample contingents such as mutant collections or segregating populations. A microscopy-based quantification method for the analysis of intermediate stages (fungal colonies)

has also been developed, but either requires tedious manual micro-photographic time series or expensive automated microscopy systems (Göllner et al., 2008; Seiffert and Schweizer, 2005; Baum et al., 2011). Additional methods are thus needed to facilitate large-scale quantitative analysis of mutant populations.

1.4 Thesis aims

Effectors are important pathogenicity agents of plant pathogens. They suppress the plant innate immune system to induce susceptibility of the host. While increasing knowledge has been gained on the function of bacterial effectors, the contributions of effectors from filamentous pathogens to virulence are still mostly enigmatic. This is especially true for effectors of the powdery mildew fungi, important pathogens of both monocot and dicot plants. The effector repertoire of *Bgh* has only been defined by bioinformatic analysis, and information on the effector arsenal of dicot infecting powdery mildews is lacking completely.

The aim of this thesis was therefore to (I) characterize a transcriptome library of isolated *G. orontii* haustoria, (II) predict and clone effector candidates from this library and (III) analyze these effector candidates functionally.

The haustorial library was queried for gene ontology (GO) annotations and enrichment of GO terms. Additionally, the highest expressed transcripts and those encoding secreted proteins or transmembrane proteins were analyzed in detail. Finally, the library was used as a starting point for the prediction of *G. orontii* effector proteins. To explore the functions of effector candidates, these were analyzed for their ability to suppress induced cell death and enhance bacterial virulence. Additionally, the subcellular localization and temporal expression patterns of selected candidates were explored. In a complementary approach, all candidate effectors were subjected to a large scale Y2H screen. The interactors of the effectors were used to construct an integrated protein-protein interaction network of Arabidopsis and the three adapted pathogens *Pst*, *Hpa* and *G. orontii*. This network revealed common host targets whose involvement in the Arabidopsis immune response was examined by screens of respective T-DNA insertion lines. Finally, selected Y2H interactions were to be confirmed by bimolecular fluorescence complementation. The development of suitable assays for the medium to high-throughput quantitative analysis of powdery mildew susceptibility completes this work.

2 Results

2.1 Rapid quantification of plant-powdery mildew interactions by qPCR and conidiospore counts

At the beginning of my thesis I realized that the current protocols available for the quantification of powdery mildew infections were not sufficient for the medium to large-scale screenings I had to conduct. In addition, the recent advances in the field of powdery mildew research clearly necessitate the development of such protocols for the validation of -omics approaches (Hückelhoven and Panstruga, 2011). At the time, the quantification of powdery mildew infection on plants was based on three major methods that all had certain limitations: macroscopic categorization and microscopy-based penetration and conidiophore counts (Consonni et al., 2006; Reuber et al., 1998; Vogel and Somerville, 2000). I thus aimed at developing two complementary methods with superior performance relative to present methods. I focused on a quantitative real time PCR (qPCR)-based and a spore count-based method as these procedures have been successfully applied to other plant-pathogenic microorganisms before (Brouwer et al., 2003; Feys et al., 2005; Gachon and Saindrenan, 2004; Silvar et al., 2005; Stuttmann et al., 2011). Yet, to the best of my knowledge, these methods have not been adapted to the quantification of powdery mildew pathogenesis.

2.1.1 The powdery mildew infection on seedlings

First, a cytological analysis of the *G. orontii* infection on wild type (ecotype Col-0) seedlings was conducted (Figure 1). The use of seedlings allowed a more rapid screening of phenotypes (2-3 week old instead of 4-5 week old plants) and produced an averaging effect due to the use of many individuals (up to a hundred in the case of spore counts) per genotype and biological replicate. The susceptibility of a genotype can vary based on environmental conditions like pot humidity and averaging across pots can help to control this effect. A settling tower was used as this method allows a uniform and controlled inoculation and can be used efficiently for larger amounts of genotypes (Adam et al., 1999; Humphry et al., 2010; Reuber et al., 1998). Inoculation densities were kept low (~ 750 spores/cm²) to discern single powdery mildew colonies on the leaves.

The life cycle of *G. orontii* can be separated into several distinct stages, but so far its timing has not been characterized on *Arabidopsis* seedlings. At 1 day post inoculation (dpi) most primary haustoria had been formed and growth of secondary hyphae began (

Figure 1). Hyphal development continued slowly until 2 dpi and increased rapidly after the formation of secondary haustoria at 3 dpi. The Col-0 ecotype is highly susceptible to *G. orontii* and conidiophores therefore sometimes already formed at 4 dpi. Subsequently, the number of

conidiophores increased and numerous growing chains of conidiospores were observed at 5 and 6 dpi. The observations of the infection process on seedlings were in line with previous reports on *G. orontii* infections of 4-5 week old *Arabidopsis* plants (Micali et al., 2008; Plotnikova et al., 1998). The use of seedlings therefore faithfully reflected the timing of the natural infection process on mature plants.

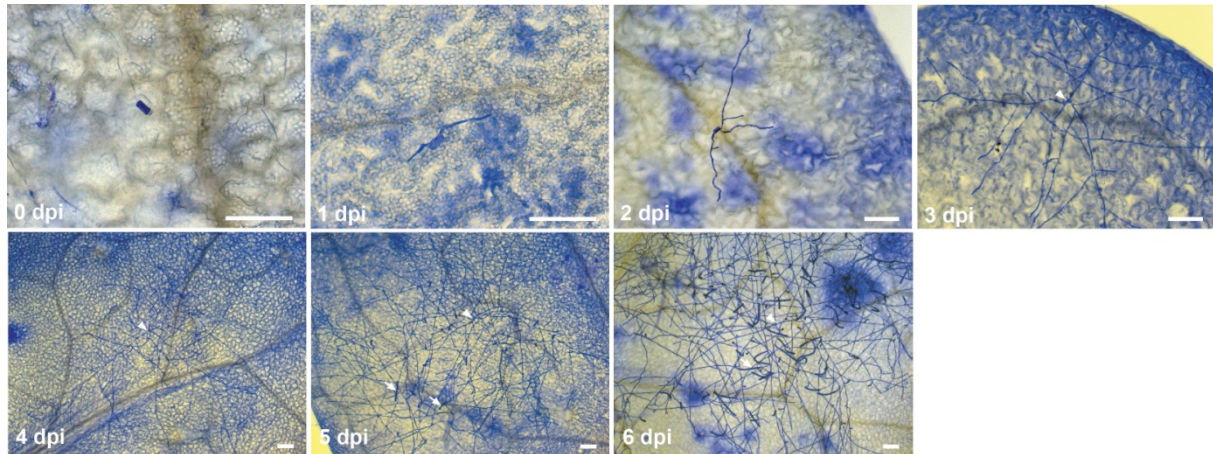


Figure 1: Powdery mildew disease progression on *Arabidopsis* seedlings. Microscopic images of powdery mildew disease progression on Col-0 plants. Samples were harvested at the indicated time points and stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue. Arrows indicate conidiospore chains and arrowheads point to the initial spore. Images are representative of three independent experiments. Scale bar is 50 μm .

2.1.2 qPCR-based quantification of *G. orontii* infection

Methods on the basis of qPCR have been developed for biomass quantification of many plant-pathogenic microorganisms (Brouwer et al., 2003; Gachon and Saindrenan, 2004; Silvar et al., 2005). For this procedure, the quantitative extraction of pure genomic DNA as well as the efficient and specific amplification of target sequences is key. Therefore a phenolic extraction technique for genomic DNA isolation was used that was previously found to allow quantitative DNA isolation from both fungal and bacterial plant pathogens (Brouwer et al., 2003). The protocol was modified by introducing a disruption step of frozen material, as direct disruption of fresh seedlings was inefficient in my hands. Subsequently a series of qPCR primers from arbitrarily chosen genes was designed to amplify either *G. orontii* or *Arabidopsis* genomic sequences and tested for amplification efficiency. For efficient primer pairs the annealing temperatures and primer concentrations were optimized to obtain most specific PCR results. Primer dimers were not detected for any of the primer pairs by either melting curve analysis or agarose gel electrophoresis. Subsequently, a 5-fold dilution series of genomic DNA from heavily infected Col-0 tissue (harvested at ~14 dpi) was performed to generate a standard curve for primer efficiency calculation across the dynamic range (Supplemental Figure 1A). All tested primer pairs were found to have high amplification efficiencies of 90 to 100% (Supplemental Table 1). For the *G. orontii* primer pairs, marginal background amplification of unspecific products was detected on an uninfected Col-0 control sample (Supplemental Figure 1 B). The unspecific amplification did not affect the procedure since it was associated with Ct values (>35) that were outside the range used in the subsequent experiments (ca. 25-35). The amplification of *G. orontii*-derived amplicons

relative to products obtained from Arabidopsis genomic DNA was used for the quantification of fungal biomass. This measure controls for variation in both sample harvesting and the efficiency of DNA isolation.

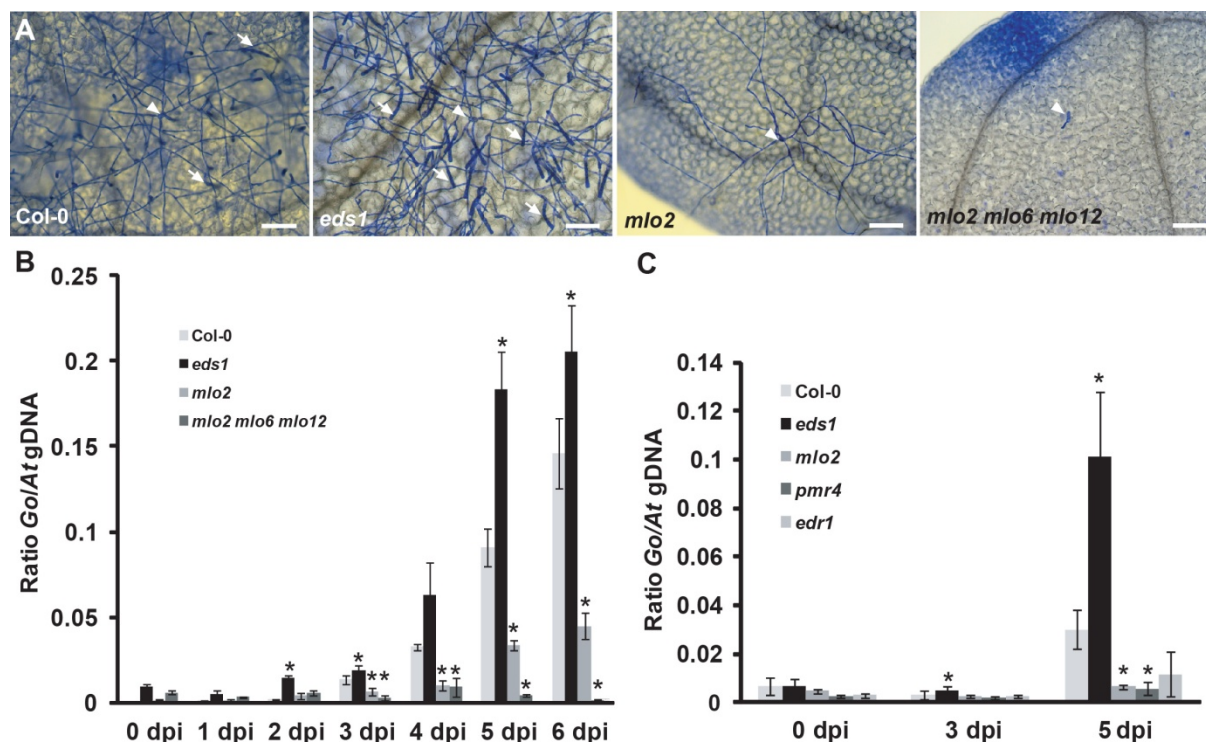


Figure 2: Time series analysis of powdery mildew infection by qPCR. (A) *G. orontii*-infected leaves were harvested at 5 dpi from Col-0 wild type and indicated mutant plants and stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue. Arrows indicate conidiospore chains and arrowheads point to the initial spore. Images are representative of three independent experiments. (B) qPCR analysis of a time series of powdery mildew infection on Col-0 wild type, *eds1*, *mlo2* and *mlo2 mlo6 mlo2* plants. Ratios of *G. orontii* to Arabidopsis gDNA were determined by qPCR with primers R189/R192 and R193/R194, respectively. Bars represent the mean \pm standard deviation of three technical replicates from a DNA sample of ten pooled seedlings grown in five different pots (two seedlings/pot used). (C) qPCR analysis of powdery mildew infection on Arabidopsis mutants that show powdery mildew-induced cell death. Representative time points of infection on Col-0 wild type, *eds1*, *mlo2*, *pmr4* and *edr1* plants were used. Ratios of *G. orontii* to Arabidopsis gDNA were determined by qPCR with primers R189/R192 and R193/R194, respectively. Bars represent the mean \pm standard deviation of three DNA samples (each derived from ten pooled seedlings grown in five different pots) with three technical replicates each. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences to Col-0 in two-tailed Student's t-test ($p < 0.05$). Data shown are representative of three independent experiments. Scale bar is 50 μ m.

To determine the dynamic range of our qPCR assay an infection time series of Col-0 wild type, *eds1*, *mlo2* and *mlo2 mlo6 mlo12* triple mutant plants was utilized (Figure 2A). Col-0 plants are very susceptible to *G. orontii* as penetration rates of up to 90% are typically observed (Consonni et al., 2006). The *eds1* mutant is compromised in both salicylic acid-dependent and -independent defense signaling pathways and thus hyper-susceptible to *G. orontii* infection (Bartsch et al., 2006; Dewdney et al., 2000). Mutations in particular *Mildew Resistance Locus O* (*MLO*) genes confer quantitative and additive penetration resistance to *G. orontii*, with penetration rates of ~40% in *mlo2* single mutants and ~1% in the *mlo2 mlo6 mlo12* triple mutant (Consonni et al., 2010; Consonni et al., 2006). Using primers R189/R192 (At3G21215) and R193/R194 (GoPMA1; Supplemental Table 1) in the qPCR analysis, relative *G. orontii* DNA abundance increased slightly until 2 dpi in the wild type and subsequently increased strongly, which reflects the microscopic observations (Figure 2 A). Differences between genotypes became first detectable at 3 dpi and increased until 5 dpi. For the hyper-susceptible mutant *eds1*, we repeatedly detected a saturation effect at 6 dpi (Figure 2B). The *mlo2 mlo6 mlo12* plants show complete resistance to

G. orontii penetration and therefore allow no hyphal expansion. Differences between ratios in the time course of this genotype are therefore probably due to small differences in inoculation densities as well as DNA degradation in dead and dying spores. This also leads to a dilution effect at later (4-6 dpi) time points of infection. At 5 dpi, approximate 5:2:1 ratios of relative *G. orontii* abundance of *eds1* to wild type to *mlo2* were repeatedly obtained (Figure 2B). Similar results were obtained with primer pairs R243/R244 and R263/R264 (data not shown). Also, from 3-5 dpi, the method can be used to resolve kinetics of powdery mildew pathogenesis.

Powdery mildew infection is often associated with host cell death, in particular exemplified as the final consequence of resistance (*R*) gene-mediated fungal growth arrest (Panstruga and Schulze-Lefert, 2002). Owing to a potential shift in the ratios of plant to fungal genomic DNA, host cell death responses may interfere with the qPCR-based quantification of powdery mildew pathogenesis. To assess this possibility, the qPCR time course was repeated at representative time points including two *Arabidopsis* mutants that exhibit powdery mildew-triggered cell death responses. Since no canonical (isolate-specific) cell death-associated *R* gene response has been described for the *Arabidopsis*-powdery mildew patho-systems (Micali et al., 2008) two induced mutants (*edr1* (*enhanced disease resistance1*) and *pmr4* (*powdery mildew resistant4*)) in the Col-0 genetic background were used. These mutants exhibit local powdery mildew-induced host cell death at the post penetration stage (Frye and Innes, 1998; Nishimura et al., 2003). The occurrence of confined powdery mildew-triggered cell death around fungal infection sites in the conditions used was confirmed by Trypan Blue staining (data not shown). Results from the qPCR assay indicate that the *pmr4* mutant supports similar fungal biomass as the *mlo2* mutant, while fungal biomass seems to be higher (intermediate between Col-0 and *mlo2/pm4*) in case of the *edr1* mutant (Figure 2C).

2.1.3 Spore counts of *G. orontii*

Spore formation is a widely used surrogate to determine susceptibility of *Arabidopsis* to another obligate biotrophic pathogen, the oomycete *Hpa* (Feys et al., 2005; Stuttmann et al., 2011). This technique was therefore adopted for quantification of the reproductive success of *G. orontii*. First macroscopically visible powdery mildew symptoms were usually observed on *eds1* plants at 5 dpi and wild type plants at 6 dpi as previously described (Plotnikova et al., 1998). No macroscopic symptoms were detected on *mlo2* or *mlo2 mlo6 mlo12* mutant plants (Consonni et al., 2010; Consonni et al., 2006). The Col-0 ecotype is already very susceptible to *G. orontii* infection and from 7 dpi onwards no clear differences to *eds1* could be macroscopically detected anymore. Therefore, spore abundance was quantified at 6 dpi. After harvesting by centrifugation (see Materials and Methods for details), conidia were counted using a haemocytometer (Figure 3A and B). *G. orontii* conidiospores could clearly be detected as approximately 35 μm long and 18 μm wide ellipsoid structures that were easily distinguishable from contaminating particles. Size and appearance of spores matched earlier reports on *G. orontii* (Micali et al., 2008; Plotnikova et al.,

1998). As expected, no conidia were detected in any isolation from *mlo2 mlo6 mlo12* plants. On *mlo2* plants, significantly reduced numbers (10%-15%) of spores relative to the wild type were observed (Figure 3C).

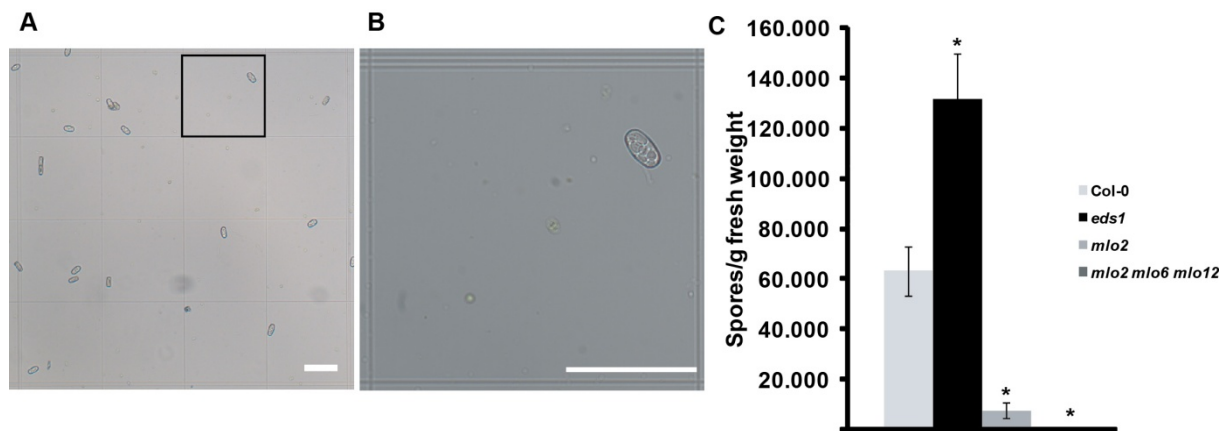


Figure 3: Analysis of powdery mildew infection by spore counts. (A+B) Brightfield images of isolated spores in the haemocytometer. (B) is a close-up of the indicated area in (A). (C) Spore counts of indicated genotypes at 6 dpi normalized to seedling fresh weight. Bars represent the mean \pm standard deviation of three samples (500 mg of seedlings each) from one experiment counting eight fields/sample. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences to Col-0 in two-tailed Student's t-test ($p < 0,05$). Scale bars in (A+B) are 100 μ m. Experiments were repeated twice with similar results.

From *eds1* plants we could repeatedly isolate twice the amount of conidiospores relative to the wild type (Figure 3C), although infection phenotypes were difficult to distinguish macroscopically at 6 dpi. The absolute number of isolated conidia varied from 50.000-90.000 spores/g fresh weight for the wild type across three repeated experiments, probably due to differences in the quality of the inoculum and/or inoculation density. The assay has a high dynamic range of four to five orders of magnitude (0 to about 120.000 spores/g fresh weight) and thus can also reveal even small differences in susceptibility between genotypes (see Figure 14 below).

2.2 Transcriptome analysis of enriched *G. orontii* haustoria

The haustorium is the fungal structure with closest contact to the host. It is believed to be the main site of both nutrient uptake and effector delivery by obligate biotrophic pathogens (Panstruga and Dodds, 2009). The haustorial transcriptome is amenable for expression analysis and has been used to unravel important aspects of host-pathogen interactions (Both et al., 2005a; Both et al., 2005b; Catanzariti et al., 2006; Duplessis et al., 2011b). I thus also used a transcriptomics approach to characterize the gene expression of *G. orontii* in more detail. Previously, *G. orontii* haustoria had been isolated by Percoll centrifugation in our lab and a non-normalized cDNA library had been generated from this material (Micali et al., 2011). In the following, I will present data that was obtained from the analysis of this library.

2.2.1 Sequencing and EST analysis of a haustorial cDNA library

The library was sequenced by 454 pyrosequencing technology, yielding 881,000 sequence reads and a total of 306 million base pairs (see Materials and Methods for details). All reads were mapped to the genomes of *G. orontii* (Spanu et al., 2010) and the *A. thaliana* TAIR9 assembly (Swarbreck et al., 2008). Eighty five percent of the reads mapped to the draft genome assembly of *G. orontii*, 6% to Arabidopsis and 10% could not be unambiguously assigned. Thus, although the haustorial centrifugation sample contained a considerable amount of contaminating chloroplasts, plastid RNA was mostly excluded by reverse transcription with oligo-dT primers. The 10% of unassigned sequences hint at a considerable amount of uncovered gene space in the present *G. orontii* draft assembly, although these reads may also correspond to contaminations of various origin. After removal of all unassigned sequences and stringent quality filtering, 679,000 reads (mean read length 346 bp \pm 114 bp) were used for the final assembly into 20,259 contigs (see Materials and Methods for details). Many of the EST contigs obtained had comparably low sequence coverage (Figure 4A). To reduce sample complexity and increase reliability of the assembled transcripts, only contigs with \geq 5-fold average coverage (AC) (7,077 contigs; mean AC 26 \pm 57, range from 5- to 1,436-fold; Figure 4A) were used for the final analysis. Open reading frames (ORFs) were predicted on these contigs using BestORF. Derived conceptual proteins were then annotated by Blast2GO (Conesa et al., 2005) using default parameters. It was found that 3,247 (45.9%) proteins lack any detectable homologs in the NCBI non-redundant (nr) database. Of the remaining proteins, 728 (10.3%) were annotated as retrotransposons, 824 (11.6%) had homologs in other species but no functional annotation, and 2,278 (32.2%) could be functionally annotated. To further reduce the number of non-annotated sequences, BLASTx searches of the assembled transcript sequences against the NCBI nr database were also performed. This increased the number of sequences with BLAST hits by 14.7% to 3,725 but did not increase the overall number of annotated sequences, indicating no significant annotations associated with these BLAST hits.

The difference in average size of predicted proteins with (177 ± 91 amino acids, corresponding ESTs 855 ± 372 bp) and without recognizable homologs (58 ± 45 amino acids, corresponding ESTs 353 ± 265 bp) indicated that predicted proteins lacking BLAST hits are typically small and originate from small EST contigs. This finding suggests that they either encode genuine small peptides and/or represent truncated or misassembled transcripts. Additionally, non-canonical ORFs might have been inaccurately predicted by BestORF.

2.2.2 Functional classification indicates high protein turn-over in haustoria

For visualization, all predicted proteins with a “biological process” assignment (1,678) were annotated using the GOSlim terms generated from the *Candida albicans* genome. The majority of annotated sequences represented elements associated with gene expression and protein metabolism (translation, RNA metabolism, protein catabolism, transcription, protein modification, protein folding) (Figure 4B). The disproportionate representation of components involved in both protein synthesis and degradation suggests extensive protein turnover in haustorial complexes. Indeed, 44 of the 100 transcripts with the highest AC (AC >210; Supplemental Table 2) are involved in “translation”. These chiefly encoded ribosomal subunits. Moreover, transcripts encoding proteins with functions in protein modification (5), protein catabolism (3) and protein folding (2) were among the Top100 expressed genes. Thus, more than 50% of the 100 most highly expressed genes were devoted to protein turnover.

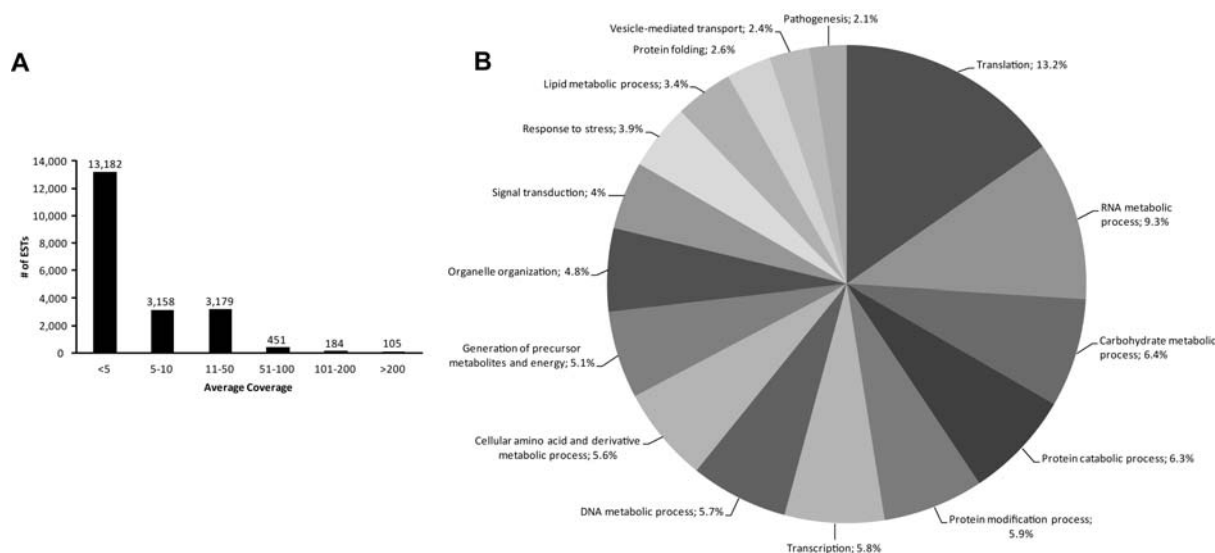


Figure 4: Quantitative analysis of the haustorial EST library. (A) Frequency distribution of sequences from the haustorial transcript library. EST contigs were classified according to their average coverage. All 20,259 contigs were included in the analysis. (B) Multilevel pie chart representing the functional annotation of predicted proteins. The diagram displays the relative abundance of *Candida albicans* GOSlim categories among the 1,678 annotated predicted proteins. Only categories with more than 35 members were included. Individual proteins may be represented in more than one category.

Transcripts encoding proteins of primary metabolism (carbohydrate, DNA, amino acid and lipid metabolism as well as energy production) were also well represented in the library. However, they were on average not as highly covered as transcripts encoding elements of protein turnover, as exemplified by the lack of transcripts related to carbohydrate metabolic proteins in the Top100

represented transcripts (Supplemental Table 2). Smaller subsets of proteins were also involved in signal transduction, the response to stress, vesicle-mediated transport and pathogenesis.

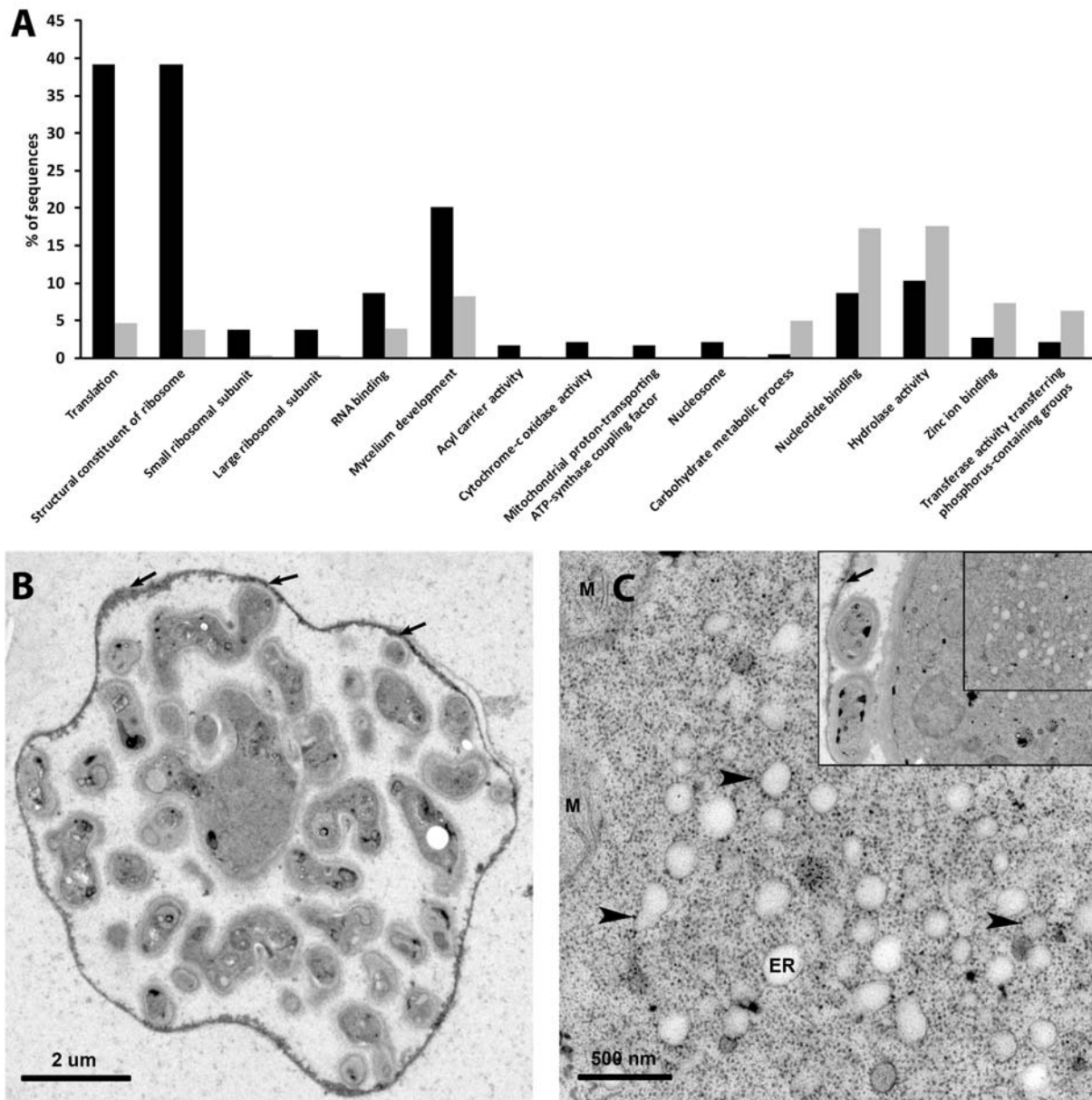


Figure 5: Haustoria show indications of high protein synthesis. (A) Enrichment analysis of GO categories in highly expressed genes. Sequences were divided into two groups, >100 AC (black bars) and 100>AC>5 (grey bars). A Fisher's exact test was performed to find significantly enriched (FDR<0,05) GO categories. (B) Ultrastructure of an isolated *G. orontii* haustorium displaying multiple lobes surrounded by an intact EHM (arrows). Isolated haustoria were processed by high-pressure freezing and freeze-substitution in osmium tetroxide/acetone (see Micali et al. 2011 for details). (C) Detail of an isolated haustorium showing abundant cytoplasmic ribosomes and a network of rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Notice the ribosomes tethered at the surface of the reticulum (arrowheads). M, mitochondrion. ER, endoplasmic reticulum. B and C are courtesy of Ulla Neumann.

To analyze the functions of the most highly expressed genes (AC >100) an enrichment analysis against the remaining sequences (100> AC >5) was performed. To this end, all annotated sequences of the two groups were compared by a Fisher's exact test to discover GO terms that were significantly (false discovery rate (FDR) <0,05) over- or underrepresented. Among the highly expressed genes, transcripts coding for proteins involved in translation and RNA binding were the most clearly overrepresented ones (Figure 5A), which is in line with their dominance in the

Top100 expressed genes (Supplemental Table 2). This finding was consistent with a large quantity of both cytoplasmic and endoplasmic reticulum-tethered ribosomes in isolated haustoria (Figure 5C and D) and further underlined the role of the haustorium as a prominent site of protein production. In addition, nuclear-encoded elements of the respiratory chain were also overrepresented. This was supported by the fact that 24% of the Top50 transcripts coding for transmembrane proteins constituted subunits of the mitochondrial respiratory chain (Supplemental Table 3) and further corroborated by the marked prevalence of mitochondria in the haustorial cytoplasm (Figure 5C and D and (Micali et al., 2011)). The transcript abundance of riboflavin kinase (GoEST_c729; AC ~283), the key enzyme in flavin mononucleotide biosynthesis, further underlined this finding. Flavin mononucleotide is a mandatory cofactor of the NADH dehydrogenases of the respiratory chain. Interestingly, elements of carbohydrate metabolism were more abundant among the less represented transcripts. In general, basic metabolic activities (nucleotide binding, hydrolase activity, transferase activity transferring phosphorus containing groups) were underrepresented in the highly expressed genes, indicating low expression during this phase of pathogenesis.

2.2.3 ROS-detoxifying enzyme transcripts are abundant in *G. orontii* haustoria

Phytopathogens have to cope with different plant defense responses, one of the first being the generation of ROS (Hückelhoven and Kogel, 2003). The barley powdery mildew pathogen *Bgh* secretes a catalase during early pathogenesis, possibly to relieve oxidative stress at the infection site (Zhang et al., 2004). Therefore, the expression of protective proteins and ROS scavenging enzymes in the haustorial EST library was determined in detail. Among the Top100 expressed genes, two genes coding for proteins involved in the protection against ROS, thioredoxin H (GoEST_c612; AC ~284) and a thiol-specific antioxidant protein (TSA)/alkyl hydroperoxide peroxidase C (AhpC) family protein (GoEST_c351; AC ~467; Supplemental Table 2) were identified. Additional prominently expressed genes coding for ROS scavenging enzymes comprised genes encoding a Mn-type superoxide dismutase (GoEST_c417; AC ~204), a mannitol dehydrogenase (GoEST_c207; AC ~124), a glutathione peroxidase (GoEST_c200; AC ~116) and a putative Fe-type superoxide dismutase (GoEST_c95; AC ~114). The fungus also expressed a gene coding for a secreted Cu/Zn-type superoxide dismutase (GoEST_c1259), although at lower levels (AC ~30; Supplemental Table 4).

2.2.4 Low abundance of nutrient transporter transcripts in haustoria

Haustoria are believed to be the key structures for nutrient uptake during fungal infection (Hahn and Mendgen, 1997; Voegelé and Mendgen, 2003). Therefore, the transcript abundance of presumptive nutrient transporters was studied. Unexpectedly, a gene coding for a predicted phosphate transporter (GoEST_c38; AC ~216) (Supplemental Table 3) was the only gene of this category among the Top50 expressed genes encoding transmembrane proteins. Hence, a

detailed BLAST survey of putative transporters was conducted and revealed 39 annotated transporters expressed above 5-fold AC (Supplemental Table 5). Additionally, a targeted search for homologs of known fungal carbohydrate and amino acid transporter genes was performed to exclude the possibility that transcripts encoding *G. orontii* nutrient transporters were missed owing to fragmented cDNAs and/or inappropriate annotation. Query sequences were derived from the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* genome as well as Wahl et al., (2010). Using this diverse query set no additional highly expressed transporter sequences were uncovered. The annotated transporters mostly comprised Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS) transporters and included nine putative sugar transporters (AC ~8-26), six predicted amino acid transporters (AC ~5-49) and eight drug efflux carriers (AC ~9-60). An additional phosphate transporter was also detected, although at low transcript level (AC ~6). Drug efflux and multidrug transporters displayed the highest transcript abundance, indicating a high demand for the export of antifungal compounds that are most likely produced by the plant during infection. In addition, a homolog of a putative *Bgh* glucose transporter gene, *GLTRN1* (GoEST_c22345), was expressed at very low levels (AC ~2). The gene coding for a homolog of the *Bgh* plasma membrane ATPase 1 (PMA1), a protein believed to generate the H⁺ gradient required for nutrient uptake, was however expressed at a similar level as the MFS transporters (AC ~16). Among the higher expressed amino acid transporter genes in the library were two genes encoding transporters for γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA), a compound that has been implicated as a nitrogen source during infection of tomato by *Cladosporium fulvum* (Solomon and Oliver, 2002).

3.7 Pathogenesis-related transcripts are abundant in the haustorial cDNA library

Next, genes encoding homologs of proteins known or predicted to be involved in fungal pathogenesis were analyzed. Generally, the expression of these genes was comparatively low and they mostly coded for components of signal transduction (Supplemental Table 6). However, several pathogenesis genes with higher transcript abundance were also discovered (Supplemental Table 2). One of them (GoEST_c886; AC ~264) encodes a homolog of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* CAP20, a protein involved in host cell penetration (Hwang et al., 1995). Two genes encoding secreted proteins were also annotated as being involved in pathogenesis. One of them (GoEST_c231, AC ~224) encodes a homolog of *M. grisea* EMP1, an extracellular matrix protein required for appressorium formation and pathogenicity (Ahn et al., 2004). Similarly to EMP1, it contains a GPI-anchor signal predicted by PredGPI (<http://gpcr.biocomp.unibo.it/predgpi/>). The other gene (GoEST_c5330, AC ~16) encodes a homolog of Egh16H1 from *Bgh*, a member of a family of predicted extracellular proteins (Grell et al., 2003). The EMP1 homolog contains a so-called DRMIP-HESP (developmentally regulated MAPK interacting protein-haustorially expressed protein) domain, which has also been found in a haustorially secreted protein of the flax rust fungus, *Melampsora lini* (Catanzariti et al., 2006). This domain is also present in another secreted protein, an “extracellular serine-threonine rich protein” (GoEST_c4284; AC ~17). In addition, two genes encoding extracellular cell wall

modifying enzymes were detected: a protein with homology to a chitinase (GoEST_c1140) and a beta-glucanosyltransferase (GoEST_c4743; AC ~29).

2.2.5 qRT-PCR analysis of haustorial transcripts

To assess the temporal expression pattern of *G. orontii* transcripts eleven genes of different function were chosen for analysis by quantitative reverse transcription PCR (qRT-PCR). Among these were five genes encoding proteins involved in nutrient uptake (a phosphate transporter, a GABA permease, GoGLTRN1, GoPMA1 and a MFS maltose permease), three unknown secreted proteins (GoEST_c2903, GoEST_2438, GoEST_c253) as well as the secreted SOD (GoEST_1259), the CAP20 homolog (GoEST_c886) and a conserved hypothetical protein (GoEST_c501) with marked transcript abundance in the library (AC ~664). The qRT-PCR analysis was performed on cDNA from both infected leaves (ecotype Col-0) covered with epiphytic fungal mycelium as well as infected leaves from which the epiphytic mycelium was manually removed by cellulose acetate peeling. For most genes, transcript profiles from both materials were similar (see below for exceptions). Therefore, I focused on the samples devoid of mycelium, as these were more likely to recapitulate transcript abundance in isolated haustoria.

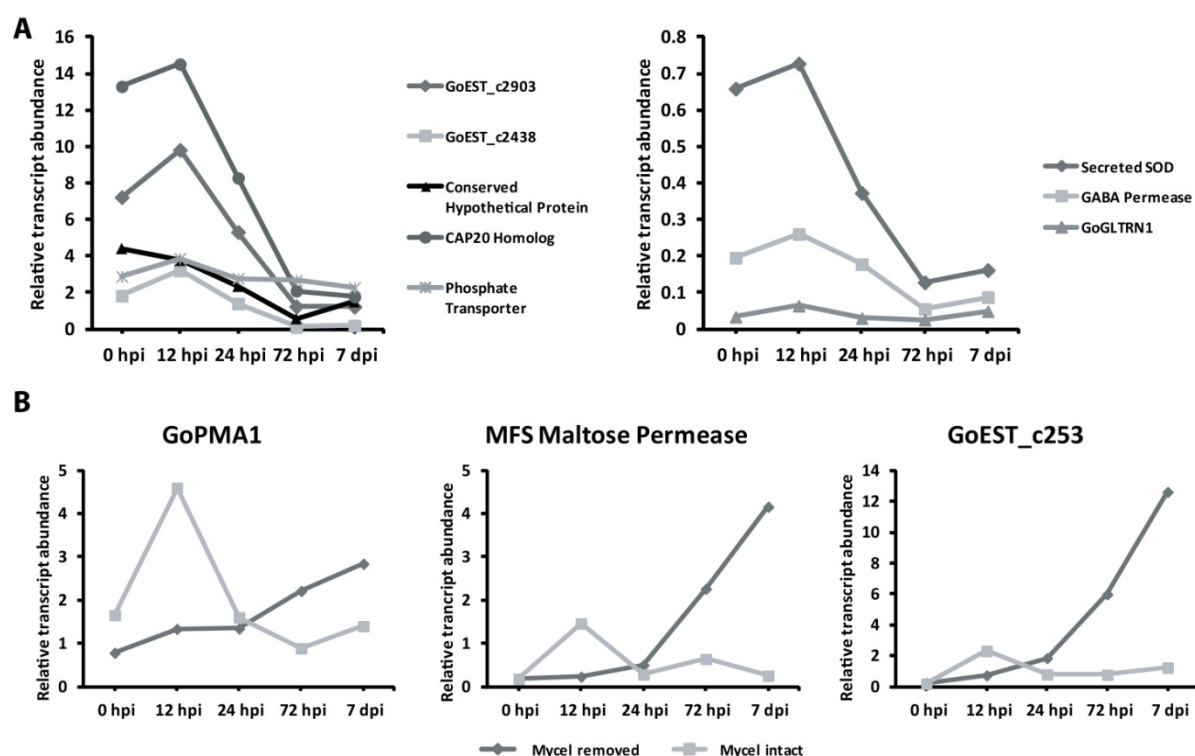


Figure 6: Transcriptional profiling of selected *G. orontii* genes in a time-course experiment. Eleven genes from different Gene Ontology categories were selected for qRT-PCR analysis. (A) qRT-PCR was performed on cDNA from Col-0 total leaf material with epiphytic mycelium removed at 24 hpi and later time points by cellulose acetate peeling. (B) Comparison of transcript profiles from native (epiphytic mycelium present) and cellulose acetate-peeled leaves (epiphytic mycelium removed). The experiment was repeated once with Col-0 and once with *NahG* transgenic plants with similar results. Transcript abundance was normalized to *G. orontii* β -tubulin.

Unexpectedly, many transcripts that were highly abundant in the cDNA library did not display high transcript levels in haustoria (peeled leaf samples) at 24 hpi or any later time point (72 hpi and 7 dpi; Figure 6A) when assayed by qRT-PCR. Instead, they showed rather reduced transcript

abundance at later stages of fungal development and highest transcript levels were typically observed at 12 hpi, just prior to host cell penetration and haustorium formation (Figure 6A). Using qRT-PCR the low expression levels of *SOD* and *GLTRN1* could however be confirmed (Figure 6A). The haustorial preparation used for RNA extraction and cDNA library construction was derived from *NahG* transgenic plants. The possibility that the difference in transcript abundance between the haustorial cDNA library and the qRT-PCR analysis of peeled leaf samples may originate from the plant source used was therefore also considered. To test for this possibility, one of the three replicates of the peeled leaf samples was derived from *NahG* plants. No marked difference in transcript patterns and/or abundance were observed between the two plant lines (Col-0 and *NahG* transgenics), indicating that the plant genotype does not account for the observed discrepancy between transcript abundance in the haustorial cDNA library and qRT-PCR data.

For three of the eleven transcripts tested by qRT-PCR (two coding for transporters and one for an effector candidate), a clear difference between the samples containing the epiphytic mycelium and the peeled leaf samples was detected (Figure 6B). These genes showed an increase in transcript levels at later time points (72 hpi and 3 dpi) in the peeled leaf samples, whereas they exhibited rather constant expression in the samples containing the epiphytic mycelium. In the case of these three genes the increase in transcript abundance was probably masked by the elevated expression of the reference gene, *β -tubulin*, in the mycelium-containing samples.

2.3 Functional characterization of *G. orontii* effector candidates

Microbial plant pathogens secrete a diverse set of effector molecules to manipulate the host during infection (Feng and Zhou, 2012; Stergiopoulos and de Wit, 2009). They manipulate a multitude of host processes to suppress host immunity and prepare the plant for colonization. While the effector arsenal of phytopathogenic bacteria has been characterized extensively, the effector repertoire of filamentous phytopathogens is comparatively unexplored. This is especially true for powdery mildew fungi, where research has mainly focused on bioinformatic analysis of effector proteins of the barley powdery mildew *Bgh* (Godfrey et al., 2010; Spanu et al., 2010). The functions of *Bgh* effector proteins are however only beginning to become elucidated (Schmidt, 2010; Zhang et al., 2012). Currently, information on the effector arsenal of dicot infecting powdery mildews, which are important agricultural pathogens, is completely lacking. The major aim of this thesis was therefore to both predict and functionally characterize the effector arsenal of *G. orontii*, a powdery mildew fungus of the model dicot *Arabidopsis thaliana*.

2.3.1 *G. orontii* effector prediction and cloning

Many effector genes have been discovered by transcriptomic studies of haustoria (Catanzariti et al., 2006; Hahn and Mendgen, 1997). I thus decided to employ the haustorial library (see 2.2) for effector prediction. Effectors typically carry a canonical amino (N)-terminal secretion signal and show little or no sequence-relatedness to proteins from distantly related species. These characteristics were used to implement a bioinformatic prediction pipeline (Figure 7A). Only contigs with ≥ 2 AC were fed into the pipeline. SignalP3.0 and TMHMM were used to identify proteins that possess a canonical secretion signal but lack any transmembrane domain(s) outside the signal peptide region. Subsequently, a size cut-off of 60 amino acids, the smallest size of known *Avr* effectors (Stergiopoulos and de Wit, 2009), was applied. A total of 250 of putatively secreted proteins were discovered, 105 of which did not have homology to proteins in the NCBI nr database outside the mildews and were therefore considered as *G. orontii* effector candidates (OECs). Subsequently, the identified OECs were used for iterative BLAST searches ($e < 10^{-5}$) against the haustorial library to detect paralogous effectors. The candidate secreted proteins (CSEPs) identified in *Bgh* were used as additional queries in this analysis (Spanu et al., 2010). In total, 115 OECs were identified. Nineteen of these genes represent 38% of the Top50 genes coding for secreted proteins (Supplemental Table 3). The OECs are considerably shorter (mean length 105 amino acids) than annotated secreted proteins (mean length 166 amino acids) and only eight contain a protein domain detectable by InterProScan (Supplemental Table 7). Three of these proteins had structural homology to microbial ribonucleases, a feature that has recently been noted for many *Bgh* CSEPs (Pedersen et al., unpublished results).

Many effector proteins have been found to be cysteine-rich. The presence of multiple cysteine residues is supposed to stabilize effectors in the apoplast via the formation of disulfide bridges. I thus inspected the cysteine content of the OECs. The average cysteine content was 2.8 per 100

amino acids but varied tremendously from 0 to almost 11 cysteine residues per 100 amino acids (Supplemental Table 7). A high frequency of cysteine residues has been associated (although not exclusively) with apoplastic effectors (Stergiopoulos and de Wit, 2009). A subset of the OECs might therefore act in the apoplast. For subsequent assays, a cytoplasmic activity of OECs was however assumed. Previously, the so called Y/W/FxC amino acid motif had been found to be associated with haustorially expressed powdery mildew and rust effectors, but no function could be attributed to it (Godfrey et al., 2010). This motif was also found in 27 OECs by manual inspection (Supplemental Table 7). The YxC motif occurred 13 and the FxC motif 16 times, respectively. OECs with the WxC motif were not detected. Recently, several effectors with nuclear localization have been described (Caillaud et al., 2012; Kleemann et al., 2012; Schornack et al., 2010). The OECs were thus also scanned for the presence of a canonical nuclear localization signal (NLS) by NLStradamus and NucPred (Nguyen Ba et al., 2009; Brameier et al., 2007). Signatures of NLS were detected for OEC10, OEC40 and OEC125, which form a cluster of phylogenetically closely related proteins (Figure 7 and Supplemental Table 7), as well as OEC56.

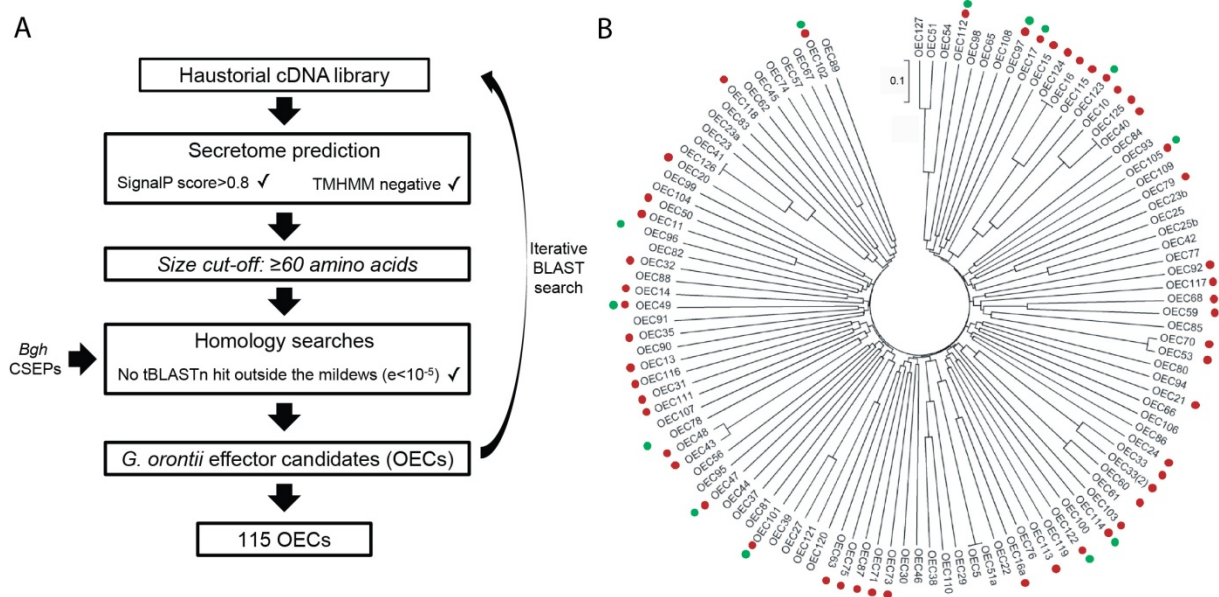


Figure 7: Bioinformatic prediction and phylogenetic analysis of *G. orontii* effector candidates. (A) Schematic overview of the prediction pipeline used to derive the OECs. (B) Circular dendrogram showing the phylogeny of the OECs. A multiple sequence alignment of the OECs was created by ClustalW and imported into MEGA4. The phylogeny was computed using the Neighbor-joining algorithm and a p-distance model for amino acid substitutions. OECs with homologs (tBLASTn, $e < 10^{-5}$) in *E. pisi* or *Bgh* are indicated in red and green, respectively.

Subsequently, the phylogenetic organization of the OECs was explored. The predicted protein sequences were aligned by ClustalW (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalw2/>) and the alignment was used for the computation of phylogeny with MEGA4 (Tamura et al., 2007). The *Bgh*, CSEPs are organized into several larger and smaller protein families (Spanu et al., 2010) and I thus expected to observe a similar pattern for *G. orontii*. Surprisingly, only few larger families of OECs were identified (Figure 7B) and most OECs were found to have no close paralogs. My analysis was however solely based on the haustorial cDNA library as the genome of *G. orontii* was too fragmented for a reliable identification of paralogs.

During the effector prediction process, homologies of OECs to *Bgh* ESTs or genomic contigs had been noted. Therefore, the conservation of the OECs in the two related powdery mildews *Bgh* and *E. pisi* was explored (Figure 7B and Supplemental Table 7). *G. orontii* is more closely related to *E. pisi* than *Bgh* (Spanu et al., 2010) and this is also reflected in the number of detected homologs: 50 OECs were homologous to *E. pisi* genes while homologs to *Bgh* were only detected for 13 OECs. To confirm these results, a BLASTp survey against an extended set of 491 *Bgh* CSEPs (Pedersen et al., unpublished results) was conducted and 16 OECs were found to have homologies to these CSEPs (Supplemental Table 7). This finding supports the previous analysis, as the differences in numbers can be explained through improved ORF predictions in the manually curated CSEPs relative to the raw genome surveyed by tBLASTn.

Subsequently, the OECs were cloned without the signal peptide into Gateway[®]-compatible vector systems in two successive rounds. First, attB-site containing primers were used which allowed the cloning of only 32 OECs. This set was used for most of the assays described in the following paragraphs. Later, TOPO[®]-TA cloning with corresponding shorter primers was employed which extended the number of cloned OECs to 84.

2.3.2 Most effector candidates suppress induced cell death

Obligate biotrophic pathogens like the powdery mildews can only thrive on living host cells. The induction of localized programmed cell death is therefore a common and effective response of plants to these pathogens (Ellis et al., 2007; Panstruga and Schulze-Lefert, 2002). Previously, effectors of different filamentous pathogens have been found to suppress host cell death and this possibility was therefore also explored for the OECs (Bos et al., 2006; Kleemann et al., 2012; Oh et al., 2009). To address this, transient coexpression assays of the OECs with the two necrosis-inducing peptides NLP1 from *Colletotrichum higginsianum* (Kleemann et al., 2012) and INF1 from *Phytophthora infestans* (Kamoun et al., 1997) were performed. Briefly, *Agrobacteria* containing a vector for OEC expression and *Agrobacteria* containing a vector with one of the two necrosis-inducing peptides were co-infiltrated in one leaf of *Nicotiana benthamiana* and macroscopic cell death symptoms assessed at 7 dpi. These two proteins have different modes of action and might thus allow the discrimination of cell death pathways targeted (Kanneganti et al., 2006). As controls, a second co-infiltration was performed on the same leaf in which the necrosis-inducing peptide was replaced with Yellow Fluorescent Protein (YFP) and OECs were also infiltrated alone. Co-infiltration sites of *ChNLP1* and YFP consistently displayed confluent necrosis at 7dpi (Figure 8A and B), while necrosis induced by *PiINF1* was more patchy and less consistent (Figure 8C) and thus more difficult to score reproducibly. Inhibition of *ChNLP1*-induced necrosis was also much clearer relative to *PiINF1* (Figure 8A and C) and led to the absence of visible necrosis on the leaf after Trypan Blue staining (Figure 8B). Inhibition of cell death triggered by either inducer by YFP was never observed.

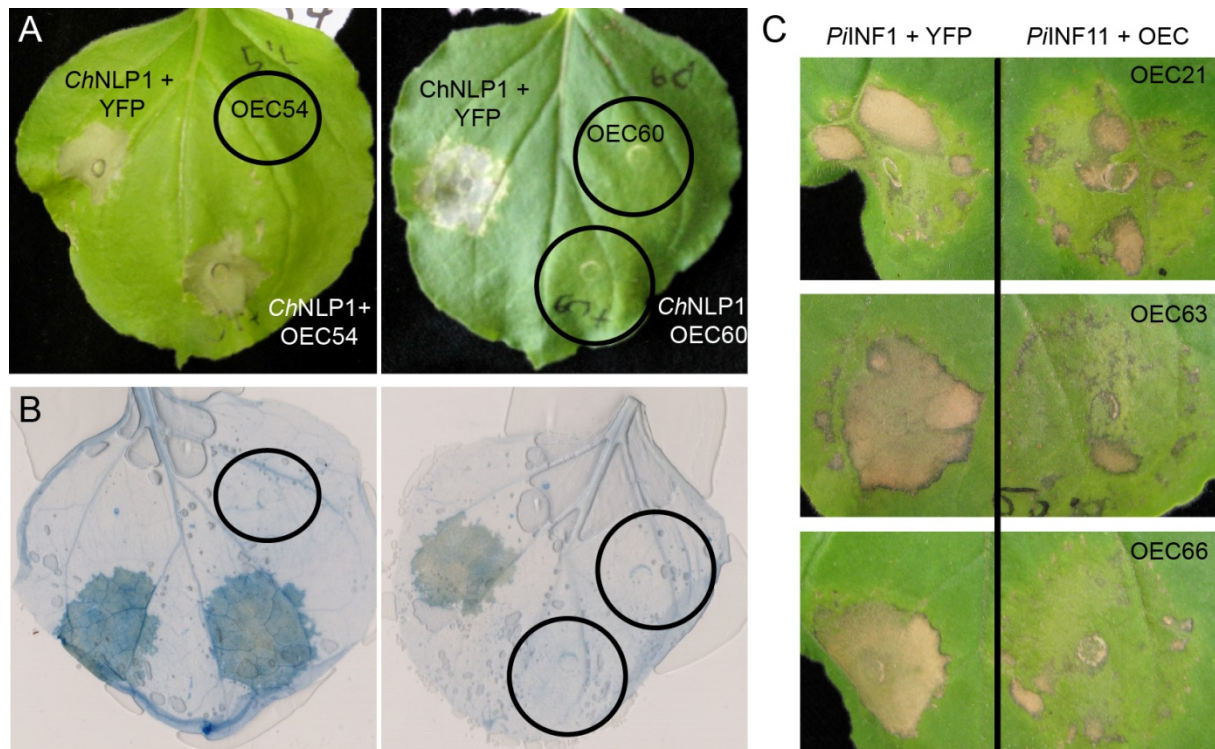


Figure 8: OECs suppress induced plant cell death. Agrobacteria containing vectors for either OEC or YFP expression were mixed with those carrying cell death inducer vectors. Mixtures or OECs alone were infiltrated into opposite sides of *N. benthamiana* leaves for comparison. Macroscopic symptoms on three leaves from three different plants were documented per OEC at 7 dpi. (A, B) Examples of *ChNLP1*-infiltrated leaves showing lack of and successful cell death suppression. (B) Cell death on leaves shown in A was visualized by Trypan Blue staining. (C) Examples of leaves infiltrated with *PiINF1* at 7dpi. OEC63 and 66 were the only OECs inhibiting *PiINF1*-induced cell death. The experiment was repeated twice (A+B) or once (C) with similar results.

All 32 OECs cloned at the time were surveyed and the inhibition of *ChNLP1*-triggered cell death was observed for 72% of the tested OECs (Table 1). At the moment, it cannot be excluded that this effect is due to the interference with *ChNLP1* expression in the co-infiltration assay, as an epitope-tagged version of *ChNLP1* was non-functional in my hands. In contrast to *ChNLP1*, cell death triggered by *PiINF1*, was only suppressed by OEC63 and OEC66. These effectors also suppressed *ChNLP1*-triggered necrosis (Figure 8C and Table 1). The prevalent interference of OECs with *ChNLP1*-triggered cell death signaling might therefore be elicitor-specific.

The suppression of R protein-triggered HR has also been described for few selected effectors and was thus tested for the OECs (Houterman et al., 2008; Kelley et al., 2010; Macho et al., 2010). The combination of the *Pi* effector *Avr3a* and the potato *R3a* resistance gene was used for transient infiltrations in *N. benthamiana* (Armstrong et al., 2005; Huang et al., 2005). Agrobacteria containing OECs and *Avr3a* were co-infiltrated one day after the infiltration of an *R3a*-delivering Agrobacterium strain. None of the OECs could suppress cell death in this assay (Luigi Faino, personal communication).

Table 1: OECs suppress induced plant cell death. Summary of three (two for INF1) independent co-infiltration experiments. For categorizations see Figure 8 (+++= Figure 8A, left panel; += Figure 8C, OEC63/66; ---= Figure 8A, right panel)

OEC	Inhibition of cell death induced by	
	<i>ChNLP1</i>	<i>PiINF1</i>
OEC10	---	---
OEC11	+++	---
OEC14	---	---
OEC15	+++	---
OEC16	+++	---
OEC21	---	---
OEC24	---	---
OEC25	---	---
OEC27	+++	---
OEC28	+++	---
OEC31	---	---
OEC37	+++	---
OEC39	+++	---
OEC41	+++	---
OEC42	+++	---
OEC45	+++	---
OEC48	+++	---
OEC50	+++	---
OEC51	---	---
OEC54	---	---
OEC55	+++	---
OEC56	+++	---
OEC57	+++	---
OEC60	+++	---
OEC61	+++	---
OEC63	+++	++
OEC65	+++	---
OEC66	+++	++
OEC67	---	---
OEC68	+++	---
OEC70	+++	---
OEC71	+++	---

2.3.3 Bacterial delivery of selected effectors interferes with host immunity

Besides the suppression of host cell death, many effectors target additional components of MTI to promote infection. In powdery mildews and other obligate biotrophic pathogens, it is however difficult to assess the contribution of single effectors to pathogenicity, as methods for targeted gene disruption or overexpression are not yet available. The delivery of fungal or oomycete effectors to the plant cell cytoplasm by genetically engineered bacteria is one way to circumvent this problem. The so called effector detector vector system (EDV) exploits this possibility. It comprises a fusion protein of amino acids 1-136 of *Pst* AvrRPS4, a T3SS based effector, and the effector of interest (Fabro et al., 2011; Sohn et al., 2007). A luciferase-expressing *Pst* strain is then employed for fusion protein delivery via the T3SS and bioluminescence-based bacterial growth assessment. The domain of AvrRPS4 used still contains an *in planta* proteolytic cleavage signal which leads to the liberation of the effector of interest in the plant cytoplasm (Sohn et al., 2007). Suppression of MTI by single effectors leads to enhanced growth of bacteria. This assay has successfully been applied to both fungal and oomycete effectors (Fabro et al., 2011; Kleemann et al., 2012; Sohn et al., 2007) and was thus also employed in this study. In brief, OECs and YFP as a control were subcloned into pEDV and transferred to *Pst* carrying the Luciferase operon (*Pst* LUC). No differences in growth of pEDV-OECs relative to the YFP control were observed. Luciferase activity was also not different between strains (data not shown). The secretion of AvrRPS4-OEC/YFP fusion proteins was confirmed by an *in vitro* secretion assay

(Supplemental Figure 2). For three of the OECs (OEC27, OEC51 and OEC54) no secretion could be detected. These were therefore excluded from the subsequent analysis.

In a primary screen, three replicates of plants were spray-inoculated with *Pst* LUC pEDV strains and bioluminescence assessed on four leaf discs per replicate and genotype at 3 dpi. No OECs were found to reduce bacterial growth on Col-0, indicating the absence of effectors with Avirulence activity in our set, which was expected due to the apparent lack of *R* gene triggered immunity towards powdery mildew fungi in Arabidopsis (Micali et al., 2008). The assay had high intrinsic variability and I therefore decided to score only significantly increased bacterial bioluminescence of more than 10-fold compared to the YFP control. Using these criteria, 14 constructs that produced increased bioluminescence in three of four repeated experiments were selected for in depth analysis by bacterial titer measurements. Plants were again spray-inoculated and bacteria isolated and quantified at 0 and 3 dpi. No differences in the initial bacterial titer were detected. The *eds1* mutant was used to confirm the virulence activity of the YFP negative control, which was able to grow to high titers in this mutant. Six effectors (OEC25, 48, 60, 61, 63 and 65) were found to allow >10fold significantly increased growth of transgenic bacteria in repeated experiments and were thus short-listed for subsequent screens. OEC56, an effector with confirmed nuclear localization (see Figure 10A below) was also included in this list.

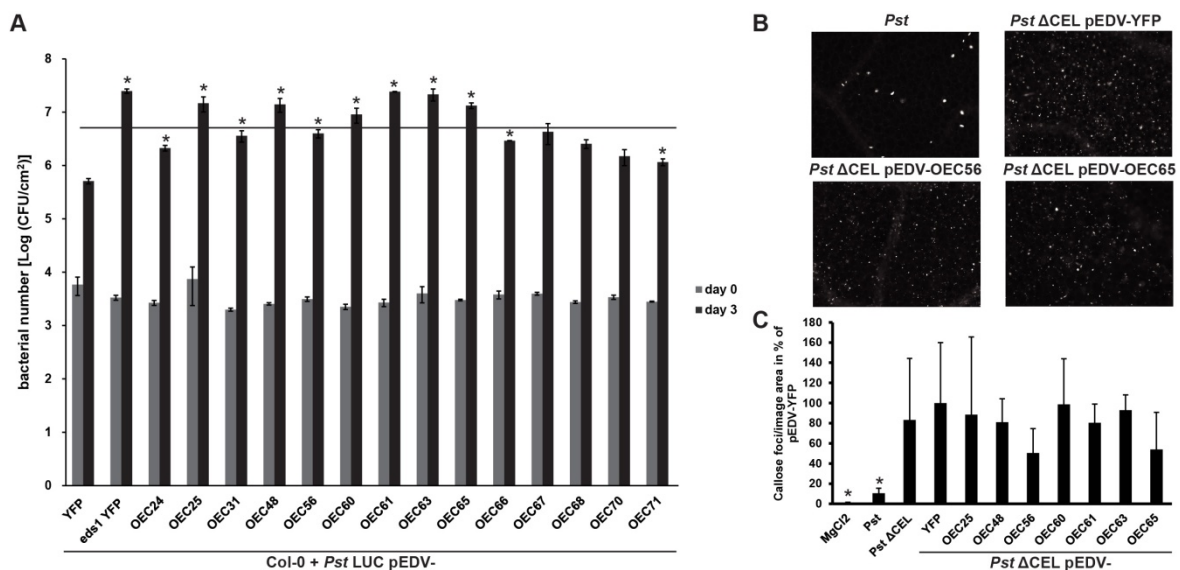


Figure 9: OECs delivered by bacteria promote virulence aft and suppress callose deposition. (A) Five week old Col-0 plants were spray-infected with OD_{600nm} 0,05 of *Pst* LUC strains delivering the indicated OECs in pEDV. Bacteria were isolated from triplicate samples at day 0 and day 3. The *eds1* mutant was used as a positive control. Bars are average of three biological replicates ± SE. Significant differences to Col-0 ($p < 0,05$ in Student's t-test) are indicated by *. Only OECs with >10-fold differences to the YFP control (above horizontal bar) were considered for subsequent analysis. The experiment was repeated thrice with similar results. (B+C) Col-0 plants were infiltrated with OD_{600nm} 0,2 of indicated *Pst* strains or MgCl₂. Leaf samples were taken at 14 h after infiltration and callose stained with aniline blue. (B) Exemplary images from indicated infiltrations. (C) Quantitative analysis of callose foci/ image area for indicated strains. Two images per leaf were taken from 20 infiltrated leaves per strain and callose foci were counted using ImageJ. Bars represent the average of three independent experiments; data was normalized to *Pst* ΔCEL pEDV-YFP for each experiment. Significant differences to *Pst* ΔCEL pEDV-YFP ($p < 0,05$ in Student's t-test) are indicated by an asterisk *.

The increased growth of OEC-delivering, but already virulent bacteria pointed towards a role of powdery mildew effectors in the suppression of MTI. The MAMP-triggered deposition of callose at the cell wall is a prominent MTI output that is suppressed by virulent *Pst* strains (DebRoy et al.,

2004; Gómez-Gómez et al., 1999). A mutant strain of *Pst* that lacks the conserved effector locus (CEL), which contains the effectors AvrE and HopM1, can however no longer suppress callose deposition (DebRoy et al., 2004). This strain can therefore be used for EDV-based screens of callose suppression (Sohn et al., 2007). Short-listed pEDV-OEC clones (Figure 9A) were monitored for suppression of callose deposition by introduction into *Pst* Δ CEL and infiltration into Col-0. The assay was functional as exemplified by the significant differences between the number of callose deposits induced by MgCl₂, the positive control *Pst* and the negative control *Pst* Δ CEL mutant (Figure 8B and C). OEC56 and OEC65 were found to reduce the amount of callose foci by 50% and 46% on average, respectively, but these results were not statistically significant due to the high variability of the assay. No callose suppression was observed for the remaining OECs. This experiment has to be repeated additional times to allow clear conclusions.

2.3.4 Effectors show differential localization and expression patterns

The subcellular localization of effectors in the plant cell can give important clues on their targets and function (Bartetzko et al., 2009; Caillaud et al., 2012). Ideally, the delivery to and subcellular localization in the plant cell is studied by expressing genes encoding effector – fluorophore fusion proteins from the native promoter (Doehlemann et al., 2009; Khang et al., 2010; Mosquera et al., 2009). These approaches are however often hampered by insufficient protein amounts transferred to the plant cell. For powdery mildew fungi and other obligate biotrophic pathogens that are not amenable to transformation, this approach is completely unfeasible. The subcellular localization of OECs was therefore investigated by transient overexpression in *N. benthamiana*, a system that has been widely adopted for localization screens (Caillaud et al., 2012; Schornack et al., 2010). Citrine, a less photosensitive version of yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) was used as a fluorophore for OEC fusion proteins (Griesbeck et al., 2001). Agrobacteria carrying vectors with genes coding for OEC-Citrine fusion proteins were co-infiltrated with constructs carrying the p19 silencing suppressor in *N. benthamiana* leaves (Voinnet et al., 2003). Samples were investigated at 3 dpi by confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM).

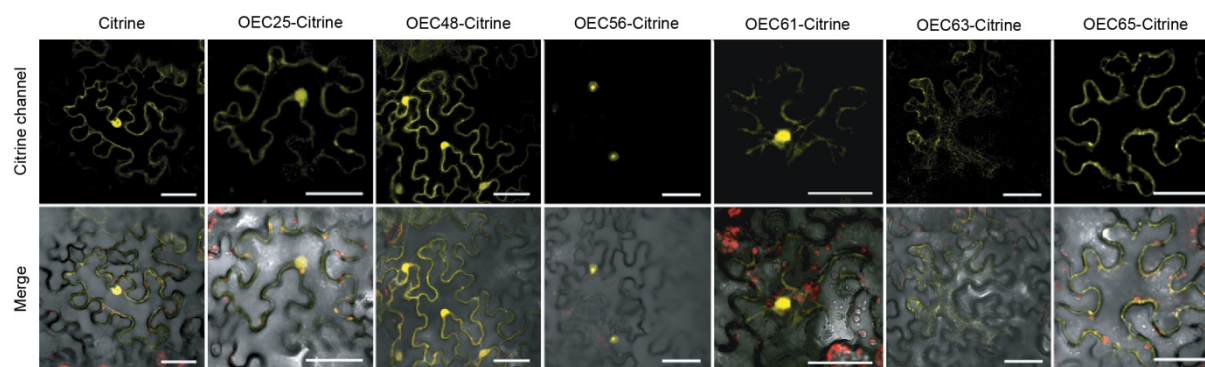


Figure 10: Subcellular localization of OECs. Agrobacteria containing vectors with genes encoding OEC-Citrine fusion proteins or Citrine alone were infiltrated into *N. benthamiana* leaves. CLSM images of indicated constructs in *N. benthamiana* epidermal cells were taken at three days after infiltration from at least two leaves and three cells/leaf. Representative images are shown. Merged image is an overlay of the Citrine, brightfield and chloroplast channels. Scale bar is 50 μ m.

As expected, Citrine alone was localized to the nucleus and cytoplasm. OEC25-, OEC48- and OEC61-Citrine fusions localized to both the cytoplasm and the nucleus, with predominant nuclear localization for OEC61-Citrine (Figure 10A). OEC56-Citrine, an effector with a predicted NLS (Supplemental Table 7), displayed exclusive nuclear localization. No cytoplasmic signal could be detected even after signal saturation in the nucleus. This localization could also be confirmed by bombardment of the OEC-Citrine construct into detached Arabidopsis leaves (

Supplemental Figure 3B). The predicted nuclear localization of OEC10, another effector with a predicted NLS could not be confirmed in Arabidopsis (

Supplemental Figure 3B). This effector was therefore not investigated further. OEC63 was found to localize to a network-like structure indicative of the ER. This still awaits confirmation by co-localization experiments with ER marker proteins. OEC65 was detected in the cytosol and was excluded from the nucleus, although the fusion protein was clearly below the size exclusion limit of the nucleus (Wang and Brattain, 2007). Additional foci of OEC65-Citrine accumulation were also observed. The expression of OEC60-Citrine was never detected and this effector thus excluded from subsequent analyses. Generally, the expression of fusion proteins was greatly reduced relative to Citrine alone. Due to the low expression of fusion constructs, protein abundance could not be visualized by Western Blotting with anti-GFP antibodies (data not shown). Overall, the tested OECs localize to several distinct or overlapping subcellular compartments.

The original material used for the generation of the EST library comprised an enriched preparation of haustorial complexes that were isolated from infected Arabidopsis plants at four to six dpi. At this stage of pathogenesis, fungal mycelia were fully developed and conidiophores emerged, but the colonies contained mixtures of juvenile and mature haustoria. The temporal patterns of effector production could therefore not be resolved, although this information is useful for subsequent functional analysis (Kleemann et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011).

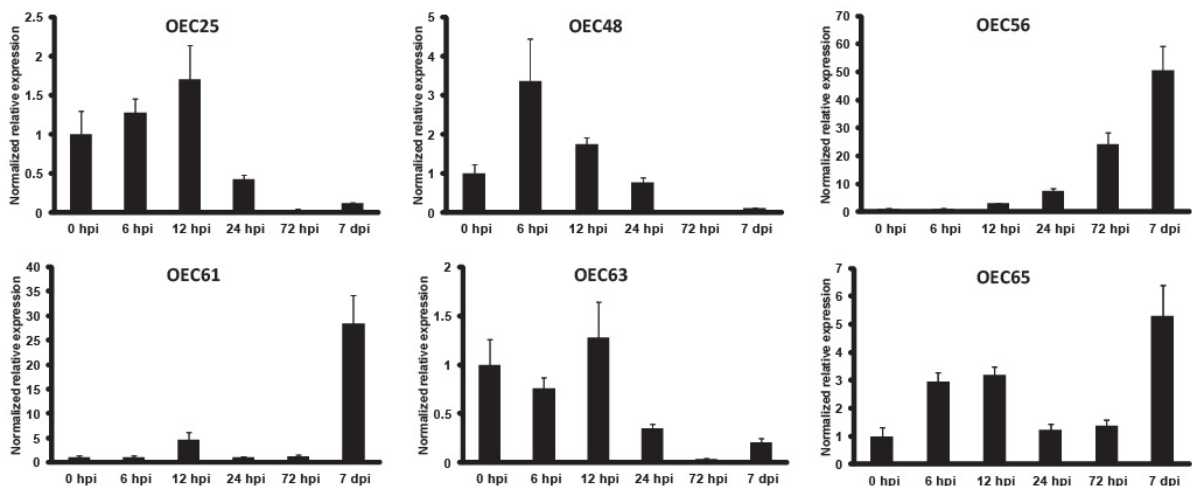


Figure 11: Analysis of OEC expression by qRT-PCR during infection. The qRT-PCR was performed on cDNA from Col-0 total leaf material with epiphytic mycelium removed at 24 hpi and later time points by cellulose acetate peeling. Transcript

abundance was quantified relative to *G. orontii* β -tubulin and normalized to the 0 hpi time-point. The experiment was repeated once with similar results.

To cope with this limitation, a qRT-PCR analysis of effector transcript abundance was conducted as a time-course experiment throughout fungal pathogenesis (Figure 10B). I previously found that qRT-PCR on infected leaves containing epiphytic fungal structures can underestimate the relative transcript abundance of genes in haustoria (2.2.5). At 24 hpi and later, the epiphytic mycelium was therefore removed to analyze the haustorial expression of effectors only. Unexpectedly, OEC25, OEC48 and OEC63 were predominantly expressed at the early stages of infection (0-24 hpi), with expression peaking as early as six hpi (OEC48) and twelve hpi (OEC25 and 63). This is before the appearance of first haustoria at approximately 14 hpi (Micali et al., 2008), suggesting that these effectors potentially prepare the host cell for the accommodation of the haustorium. OEC56 and OEC61 transcripts were strongly induced at late stages of infection and accumulated 51- and 38-fold relative to the 0 hpi time point at 7 dpi, respectively. Early and late acting effectors could therefore clearly be distinguished by qRT-PCR analysis. OEC65, by contrast, was expressed to similar levels throughout the infection process.

2.3.5 Systematic Y2H reveals effector host targets and convergence onto hubs of the host cellular network.

Effectors exert their function through the interaction with and manipulation of host proteins (Bozkurt et al., 2012; Feng and Zhou, 2012). The characterization of effector targets has therefore revealed several previously uncharacterized players in the host immune system (Fu et al., 2007; Mackey et al., 2002; Nomura et al., 2006). I was also interested in putative host targets of the OECs. Recently, a systematic Y2H screen has revealed host targets of a large set of effectors from different *Pseudomonas syringae* pathovars (*Psy*) and *Hpa* isolates in Arabidopsis (Mukhtar et al., 2011). To identify OEC host targets and complement the existing data with an additional unrelated pathogen of Arabidopsis, the set of 84 cloned OECs was also screened using an extended prey library and the same experimental pipeline. The library used was comprised of Space 1, which included the AtORFeome2.0 (8583 ORFs) (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011; Yamada et al., 2003) and selected Arabidopsis immune proteins (415 ORFs) (Mukhtar et al., 2011), and Space2 (3396 ORFs, see Supplemental Table 9), which was not included in the previous screens. Binary protein-protein interactions between the OECs and these proteins were mapped in a high-throughput Y2H pipeline as described (Dreze et al., 2010). Briefly, OECs were first transferred into Y2H vectors in AD-OEC and DB-OEC configuration, transformed into yeast and screened for autoactivation of reporters. Fifteen OECs were identified as autoactivators in the DB-OEC orientation (OEC11, OEC29, OEC31, OEC33, OEC42, OEC59, OEC61, OEC76, OEC99, OEC105, OEC112, OEC116, OEC118, OEC25c, OEC47), leaving a total of 69 effectors for the DB screen. No autoactivators were detected in the AD-OEC orientation. First, each DB-OEC yeast strain was tested for possible interactions against mini-libraries of 192 AD-*At* yeast strains and pools of all AD-OECs were screened against the DB-*At* library. This first step was completed twice to increase sampling depth. In total, 1370

primary positive interactions were obtained, 1052 in DB-OEC and 318 in AD-OEC orientation. These were then tested again in a second round of screening and 830 interactions were confirmed. While the confirmation rate was 73% for DB-OEC clones, it was only 24% for AD-OEC clones. Individual interactors were then identified by insert sequencing revealing 313 distinct interactions. Finally, interactions were confirmed by four independent pairwise matings of individual clones. Only pairs whose phenotype could be confirmed in at least three of four experiments and did not show any signs of autoactivation were considered as final Y2H interactions. This was successful for 132 interactions (42%) of 47 effectors with 61 Arabidopsis proteins (Figure 12 and Supplemental Table 10), all of them in the DB-OEC orientation. The reason for the lack of confirmed AD-OEC interactions is unknown, but similar observations were also made with effectors of *Hpa* and *Pst* (Pascal Braun, personal communication). The Y2H pipeline used here is identical to the one used for generating AI-1 (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011). The screening sensitivity (the coverage of all possible interactions in the tested space – 16%) and precision (proportion of true biophysical interactions – 80%) of AI-1 can thus also be applied to the current screen. These parameters indicate that a high-quality interactome was obtained.

While the average number of interactors per effector was 2.8, both effectors with many interactions (e.g. OEC78: 17 interactors, OEC45: 15 interactors) and single interactions were identified. Similar observations were made for Arabidopsis effector targets. The average number of interacting OECs per Arabidopsis protein was 2.2, while several proteins with many or single hits were detected. The TF *teosinte branched1*, cycloidea (CYC), proliferating cell factor (PCF) (TCP) 14, a member of a large family of transcriptional regulators believed to mainly function in plant development (Martín-Trillo and Cubas, 2010), was targeted by 23 distinct OECs. This was the highest number detected in the screen. Interestingly, three other TCPs (TCP13, TCP15, TCP20) were also targeted multiple times by OECs. The highly homologous COP9 signalosome subunits 5a (CSN5a) and CSN5b also interacted with nine and ten OECs in the screen, respectively. These proteins are involved in the regulation of many processes by controlling the neddylation status of E3 ubiquitin ligases (Gusmaroli et al., 2007). To investigate the proportion of defense-related proteins among effector targets, literature-curated protein categorization were imported (Mukhtar et al., 2011). Similar to observations made for *Psy* and *Hpa* effectors (Mukhtar et al., 2011), OECs mostly did not interact with Arabidopsis defense proteins directly (Figure 12A). Only three immune-related proteins (Fibrillin, PRA1.F2 and PRA1.F3) were directly targeted by effectors. Interactors of primary OEC targets were however frequently interacting with components of the host immune system, indicating an indirect manipulation of the host. Four different effectors (OEC25, OEC45, OEC63 and OEC125) were for instance directly interacting with two interactors of the immune system component RIN4 which is guarded by RPM1 and RPS2 (Kim et al., 2005b; Mackey et al., 2002). Similarly, 15 of the direct effector targets also interact with NB-LRR proteins. Both NB-LRR and RLK proteins were however only screened as

truncated versions, interactions with additional domains of these proteins can therefore not be excluded.

To address the overall functional properties of primary host targets, a GO analysis was performed. The distribution of GO terms in the Y2H library was included for comparison, as this library already included significant bias. Effector targets were clearly enriched for protein involved in transcription, developmental processes and transport, proteins with binding and transcription factor activities as well as nuclear and ER-resident proteins (Figure 12B). In addition, effector targets were underrepresented among proteins with transferase activity. For a complete set of GO annotations see Supplemental Figure 4.

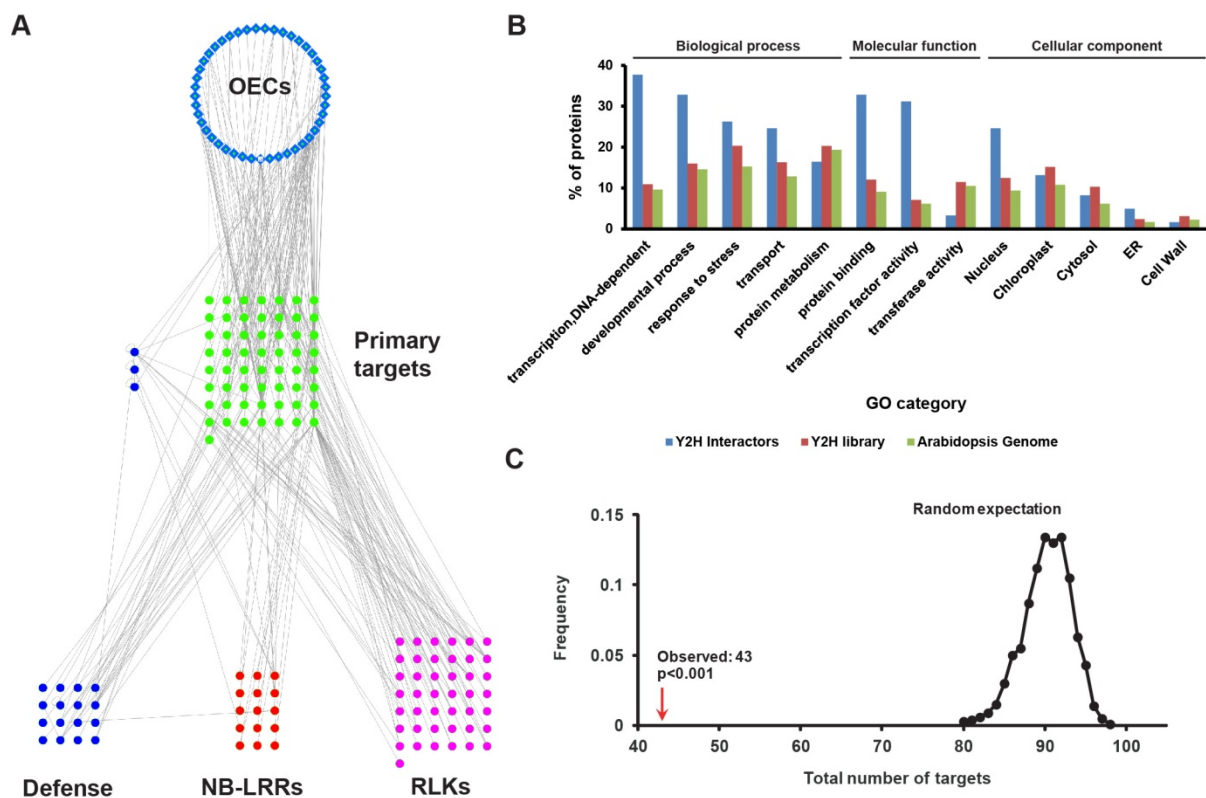


Figure 12: A large scale Y2H screen of OECs reveals convergence onto putative virulence targets. (A) Network visualization of the OEC interactome in three layers: OECs, their direct (primary) targets and annotated interactors of primary targets. Arabidopsis proteins and OECs (nodes) are represented by circles and diamonds respectively. They are color coded as follows: OECs (light blue), Arabidopsis proteins (green) including literature-curated defense proteins (blue), N-terminal domains of NB-LRR immune receptors (red) and cytoplasmic domains of LRR-containing receptor-like kinases (RLKs - pink). Y2H interactions are indicated by grey bars (edges). Literature-curated annotations are derived from Mukhtar et al., 2011. The graph was prepared in Cytoscape. **(B)** Gene Ontology distribution among OEC interactors (blue), Y2H library proteins (red) and the TAIR10 Arabidopsis proteome (green). The GO terms and distributions were retrieved from TAIR. Individual proteins may be represented in more than one category. **(C)** Convergence of OECs on a limited set of target proteins. To estimate the probability of a specific number of distinct effector targets, the experimentally determined number of interactions of OECs within AI-1 were counted. The same number of interactions was then drawn from AI-1 at random 1000 times. In this AI-1 matrix, proteins were represented according to their degree (a protein with degree 20 was represented 20 times). Subsequently, the number of different effector targets per simulation was calculated and summarized in a Monte-Carlo-Ranking. For visualization, the frequency of a certain number was displayed. The red arrow at 43 represents the experimentally determined number of OEC targets in Space 1. Simulations were performed by Christine Gläßer, Institute for Bioinformatics and Systems Biology at the Helmholtz Center Munich, Germany.

The plant immune system consists of a multilayered, complex network and the previous analysis of *Psy* and *Hpa* effector targets indicated the convergence of effectors on a limited set of host proteins within this network (Jones and Dangl, 2006; Mukhtar et al., 2011). This possibility was

therefore also explored for the OECs. For the analysis, only effector targets within AI-1 were considered. It is important to note that the list used for simulations contained the degree information of AI-1, excluding the possibility of error introduction due to the negligence of the network degree distribution. By repeated simulation, the average number of effector targets in AI-1 expected at random was found to be 91. The observed number of OEC interactors, in contrast, was 43, showing a clear convergence of OECs onto specific host proteins ($p < 0,001$, Figure 12C). The 61 putative virulence targets of *G. orontii* effectors identified will be the basis for future research on effectors of this fungus.

2.3.6 Unrelated phytopathogens target overlapping sets of host proteins

The oomycete *Hpa*, the bacterium *Psy* and the ascomycete fungus *G. orontii* are plant pathogens from three different kingdoms of life and have evolved the ability to colonize plant hosts independently of each other (Richards et al., 2006). Their effectors, however, are converging onto a subset of the Arabidopsis cellular network (Figure 12C). This prompted us to examine the overlap of effector protein targets for these three, unrelated pathogens. Published interactions of *Psy* and *Hpa* effectors (Mukhtar et al., 2011), the Arabidopsis interactome (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011) and Space 1 interactors of the OECs were integrated into a plant-pathogen interaction network (Figure 13).

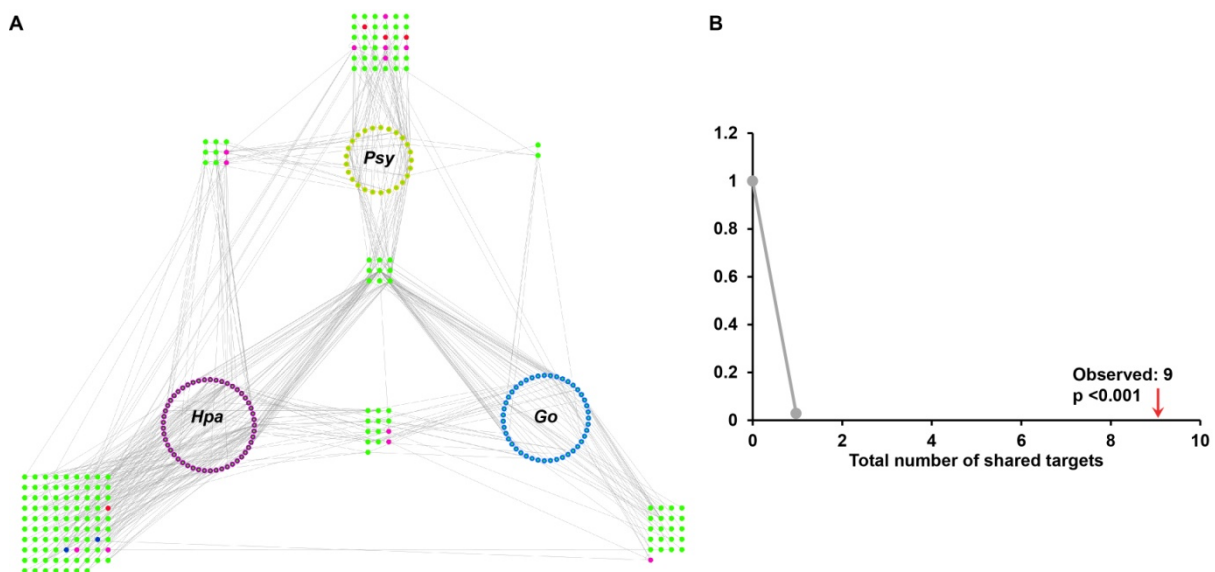


Figure 13: Effectors of unrelated phytopathogens converge onto common host proteins. (A) Visualization of the combined protein-protein interaction network of effectors of *G. orontii* (*Go*), the oomycete *Hpa* and the bacterial pathogen *Psy* and their targets. Data for *Hpa* and *Psy* is derived from Mukhtar et al., 2011. Color codings are as in Figure 12. Edges (grey) represent protein-protein interactions. (B) Effectors converge onto common host targets. First, random samples of targets were created for each pathogen according to the observed total number of targets. Then, random samples were chosen and the common targets were calculated. This was done 1000 times. Subsequently, the total number of shared targets was summarized in a Monte-Carlo-Ranking. The red arrow at 9 represents the experimentally determined number of common effector targets of the three pathogens. Only Space 1 targets of OECs were included in the analyses. The graph in A was generated by Pascal Braun, Department of Systems Biology, Technical University Munich. Simulations in B were performed by Christine Gläßer, Institute for Bioinformatics and Systems Biology at the Helmholtz Center Munich, Germany.

In this network, 185 direct effector targets were observed. In general, effectors were found to mostly target pathogen-specific host proteins. In the case of *G. orontii*, 21 host targets were

targeted exclusively and two and 13 targets were shared with *Psy* or *Hpa*, respectively. While nine common interactors of *Psy* and *Hpa* effectors were also detected, a trend towards overlapping host targets of the two filamentous obligate biotrophic pathogens (*Hpa* and *G. orontii*) could be observed. Nine host proteins were targeted by effectors of all three pathogens tested (Figure 13 and Table 2). This overlap is clearly significant ($p < 0,001$), as repeated random simulations expect an average overlap of almost zero (Figure 13B). Again, TCP14 and CSN5a stick out in this analysis, as they interacted with a total of 52 and 32 effectors, respectively. Interestingly, TCP14 preferentially interacted with *Hpa* (25) and *G. orontii* effectors (23). Two additional TCP TFs, TCP13 and TCP15, are also targets of the three unrelated pathogens, suggesting an important role of these TFs for plant immunity. TCP20 was not included in Space 1, therefore no interactions with *Hpa* or *Psy* effectors could be determined. TCP13 and TCP14 also interact in Y2H and have WRKY36, a member of the immune related WRKY TF family, as a common interactor, thus suggesting the existence of a transcriptional complex involving these and other TFs (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011). JAZ3 was also targeted by effectors from multiple pathogens. This protein is part of a family involved in the transcriptional repression of JA-signaling (Chini et al., 2007; Thines et al., 2007), which is mostly involved in the response to necrotrophic pathogens (Glazebrook, 2005). When activated, JA-signaling can however induce resistance to powdery mildew infection (Zimmerli et al., 2004).

The Arabidopsis interactome is organized similarly to a scale-free network and shares its most important property: It is resistant to perturbation by random removal of proteins (nodes) from the network, but sensitive to the removal of hubs (highly connected proteins), which can easily destabilize the network (Albert et al., 2000; Mukhtar et al., 2011). Therefore, the occurrence of hubs among effector targets was investigated. The modification of hubs by effectors would be a highly efficient method for host manipulation. Hubs were previously defined as proteins with a degree (number of interactions) ≥ 50 in AI-1. Five hubs were targeted by *G. orontii* effectors, and four of the previously defined 15 hubs in AI-1 (Mukhtar et al., 2011) were targeted by effectors from all three pathogens (Table 2). These include CSN5a, TCP14, TCP13 and the Anaphase promoting complex (APC) subunit 8.

Table 2: Arabidopsis proteins targeted by *Hpa*, *Psy* and *G. orontii*.

AGI identifier	Gene name	Degree in AI-1 ^a	Hubs50 in AI-1 ^a	Number of targeting effectors from		
				<i>Psy</i> ^b	<i>Hpa</i> ^b	<i>G. orontii</i>
AT1G22920	CSN5a	135	x	12	11	9
AT3G47620	TCP14	102	x	4	25	23
AT3G02150	TCP13	74	x	2	1	3
AT3G48150	Anaphase promoting complex (APC) 8	67	x	4	5	1
AT1G69690	TCP15	40		2	4	4
AT4G17680	SBP (S-ribonuclease binding protein) family protein	39		4	1	1
AT5G24660	response to low sulfur (LSU) 2	37		2	1	1
AT4G02590	unfertilized embryo sac (UNE) 12	24		1	2	1
AT3G17860	Jasmonate-ZIM-domain protein (JAZ) 3	23		3	1	1

a: derived from Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium 2011

b: derived from Mukhtar et al., 2011

2.3.7 Effector targets function in immunity towards *G. orontii*

To functionally validate the involvement of OEC targets in the immune response to *G. orontii*, the infection phenotypes of insertion mutants in respective loci was examined. Homozygous mutants could be obtained for 38 of the 61 targeted loci (Supplemental Table 11). At first, the phenotype of loci also targeted by *Hpa* effectors was examined, as homozygous insertion lines for these genes could be provided by collaborators. I used the spore count assay I developed (see 2.1.3) to assess the contribution of single knock-out lines to immunity against *G. orontii* (Figure 14A). Of the 15 lines tested in the first screen, seven were found to display significant changes in reproductive success of *G. orontii*. A mutant of *CSN5a* was clearly more resistant to the fungus. This mutant corresponds to *csn5a-2* (Gusmaroli et al., 2007) and is therefore only a partial loss-of-function mutant. It does however show dwarfism and the lack of trichomes on the leaf, similar to the complete knock out *csn5a-1* (Gusmaroli et al., 2007). A pleiotropic effect of reduced CSN5a levels in the cell might therefore explain the phenotype observed. No developmental phenotype was detected for any other mutant line, but several mutants with an enhanced disease susceptibility (*eds*) phenotype were observed. Interestingly, this effect was most striking for the *TCP* genes, as insertion lines of *TCP14*, *TCP13* and *TCP15* allowed enhanced reproduction of the fungus. *TCP20* (AT3G27010) was also targeted by six effectors and displayed a slight, but not significant, *eds* phenotype (Figure 14B). For *tcp14*, the *eds* effect was as strong as for the positive control *eds1*, a mutant compromised in both salicylic acid-dependent and -independent defense signaling pathways (Bartsch et al., 2006). The similar phenotypes of these related, interacting TFs indicate a role of a TCP transcriptional complex in restricting *G. orontii* growth. Interestingly, similar observations were made with *Hpa* (Petra Epple, personal communication). Insertion mutants of *APC8* and a gene coding for a SBP family protein also allowed enhanced growth of *G. orontii*. In summary, insertion mutants in genes coding for six of the nine proteins targeted by all three pathogens had immunity phenotypes and five of these allowed enhanced colonization by the fungus (Figure 14A). Pathogen effectors thus converge onto proteins with important functions in immunity. The mode of action of these effectors however remains unclear.

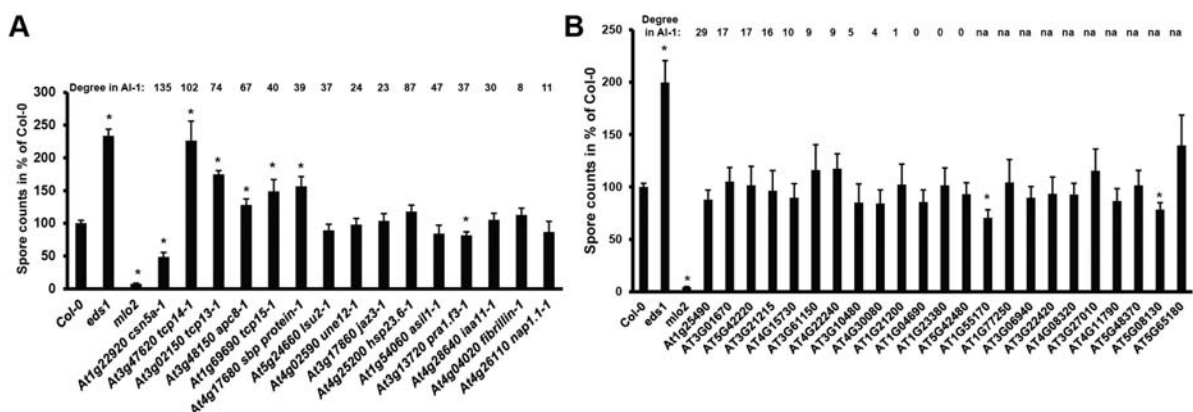


Figure 14: A subset of OEC target genes is involved in the plant immune response. Spore counts of indicated genotypes at 7 dpi normalized to seedling fresh weight. (A, B) Spore numbers per seedling fresh weight were determined from three replicates per genotype and experiment, normalized to the average of Col-0 within each experiment and subsequently

integrated. Bars represent the mean of three experiments (A) and four experiments (B) \pm SE. The degree of proteins from indicated loci in AI-1 are indicated above (na: not available, Space 2 protein). Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences to Col-0 in two-tailed Student's t-test ($p < 0,05$).

For another protein targeted by OECs, PRA1.F3, an enhanced resistance phenotype was observed and could also be verified by a second insertion mutant (Supplemental Figure 5). This protein is a member of a larger protein family in Arabidopsis, of which two closely related members, PRA1.F1 and PRA1.F2, were also targeted by the same, bacterial virulence enhancing effector, OEC65 (Supplemental Table 10). Insertion lines for these genes could not be obtained. PRA1 proteins are involved in vesicle trafficking by regulating the insertion of small GTPases into the membrane, which in turn regulate vesicle trafficking and fusion events (Alvim Kamei et al., 2008). Vesicle-mediated trafficking of defense compounds is an important component of plant immunity, and interfering with this process might render the plant more susceptible to pathogens (Collins et al., 2003; Kwon et al., 2008). For the insertion mutants of PRA1.F3, we observed an opposite effect. This indicates two possible scenarios. The protein might either be required to negatively regulate defense responses or be a susceptibility factor for powdery mildew infection. At the moment we cannot discriminate between these possibilities.

For proteins only targeted by effectors of *G. orontii*, the effects of gene disruption were less severe. Insertion lines of only two genes, an unknown gene (At1G55170) and *BIM1* (At5G08130), a TF involved in brassinosteroid (BR) signaling, displayed significantly reduced susceptibility (Figure 14B). For this second set of lines, the variation from experiment to experiment was generally larger, most probably due to strong fluctuations in the quality of the inoculum available.

It is important to note that for all nine insertion lines with powdery mildew phenotypes, the degree of the corresponding protein in AI-1 is ≥ 37 or unknown, while the average degree across AI-1 is 2.2 (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011). Gene disruption of mitochondrial heat shock protein 23.6, a hub targeted by *G. orontii* and *Hpa*, had no effect. Overall, this clearly illustrates that removal of highly connected proteins indeed destabilizes the cellular interaction network. Moreover, four of these nine mutants are hubs in AI-1, suggesting that *G. orontii* has evolved effectors that specifically target hubs to promote susceptibility.

2.3.8 Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) confirms Y2H interactions

Finally, I wanted to confirm the interactions of OECs with their Arabidopsis targets by an orthogonal assay. I focused on six of the seven shortlisted effectors (OEC25, OEC56, OEC60, OEC61, OEC63, OEC65), as most complementary information was available for these at the time. For OEC48, no interactors could be obtained. Eleven of the 14 effector targets could be cloned and used for bimolecular fluorescence complementation assays (BiFC) in *N. benthamiana* (Walter et al., 2004). A clone of *CSN5a* was kindly provided by the lab of Jane Parker (MPIPZ Cologne). To reduce the detection of false positive BiFC signals owing to strong p35S-based overexpression, a pAtUBQ10-based vector system was used which was previously shown to

result in 20-fold lower expression levels compared to p35S (Grefen et al., 2010). The well described interaction of EDS1 and SAG101 (Feys et al., 2005) was used as a positive control, while Y2H-negative OEC-Arabidopsis protein combinations were used as negative controls. These combinations faithfully produced nuclear or no BiFC signal, respectively (Figure 15). BiFC signals could be detected in four of the twelve OEC-target combinations tested with C-terminal fluorophore fusions. OEC56 was confirmed to interact with the Nucleosome assembly protein (NAP) 1.1. Members of this protein family are well described chaperones of the histone subunits H2A and H2B in yeast and humans (Park and Luger, 2006). In Arabidopsis, four isoforms (NAP1.1-4) have been identified and found to bind H2A *in vitro* (Liu et al., 2009b). NAP1.2 and NAP1.3 were also included in the Y2H library. While they did interact with NAP1.1, no interaction with OEC56 was detected, indicating a preferential binding of OEC56 to NAP1.1. All isoforms are primarily localized to the cytoplasm (Liu et al., 2009b). The BiFC signal of NAP1.1 and OEC56 is also localized to the cytoplasm and clearly excluded from the nucleus (Figure 15). OEC56-Citrine was however almost exclusively detected in the nucleus (Figure 10).

In addition, the interaction of OEC65 with PRA1.F1, PRA1.F2 and PRA1.F3 was confirmed by BiFC. The F subclade of this protein family contains a fourth member, PRA1.F4, which is sequence-divergent from the other three PRA1s and was previously shown not to interact with these in Y2H (Alvim Kamei et al., 2008). This protein and several other PRA1 proteins were included in the Y2H library but not found to interact with OEC65, indicating specificity of the interaction between OEC56 and PRA1.F1, PRA1.F2 and PRA1.F3. The BiFC signal for all three PRA1.F proteins was mostly localized to punctuate spots in the cell periphery, indicating localization in the secretory pathway of the cell.

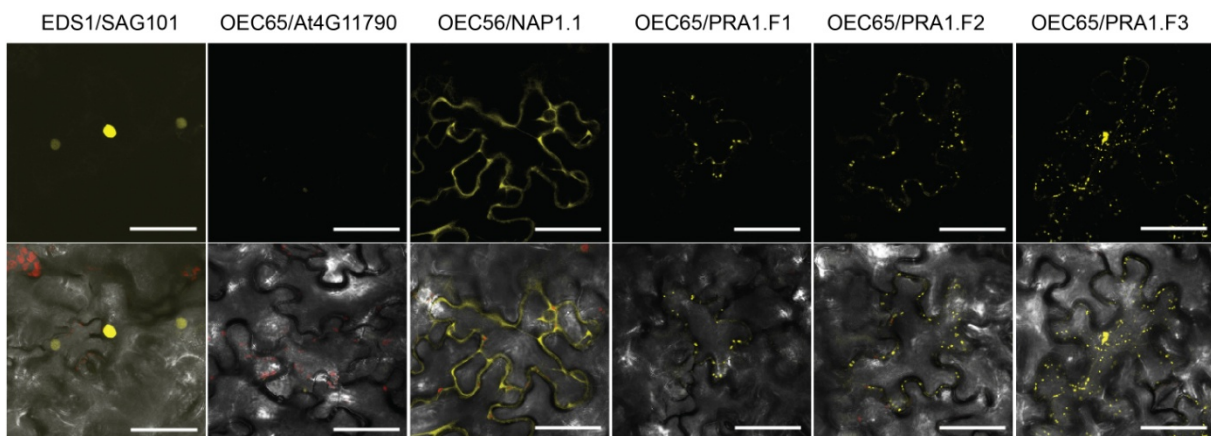


Figure 15: Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) confirms Y2H interactions. Agrobacteria carrying *At*-nYFP or OEC-cYFP constructs were co-infiltrated into *N. benthamiana* leaves using a pAtUBQ10-based promoter system and a tightly controlled infiltration protocol. Three leaves/infiltration were checked at 3 dpi by CLSM. EDS1/SAG101 and OEC65/At4G11790 were used as positive and negative controls, respectively. Representative images are shown. The experiment was repeated twice with similar results. Scale bar is 50 μ m.

Overall, four of the twelve interactions tested by C-terminal fusions in BiFC could be confirmed. This is in the range of 20-35% sensitivity observed for systematic reconfirmations of Y2H data by orthogonal assays (Braun et al., 2009). Additional interactions might be confirmed by N-terminal BiFC experiments or other assays. While the set of interactions tested was very small, the

recovery rate of 30% indicates a high quality of our interactome, as expected from the analysis of AI-1, which was generated via the same experimental pipeline (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011).

3 Discussion

3.1 Quantification of powdery mildew infections by qPCR and spore counts

In recent years the dicotyledonous model plant *A. thaliana* has been used to achieve great progress in the dissection of the interaction of powdery mildews with their host (Consonni et al., 2006; Shen et al., 2007). Easily usable medium- to high-throughput assays for the quantification of the powdery mildew infection are however currently lacking. I thus adopted a qPCR-based and a spore count-based method to the requirements of powdery mildew research and validated these assays on a set of hyper-susceptible and resistant mutant genotypes.

3.1.1 qPCR-based quantification of *G. orontii* biomass

Methods based on qPCR have been widely used for the quantification of phytopathogen biomass (Brouwer et al., 2003; Gachon and Saindrenan, 2004; Silvar et al., 2005). Surveying biomass instead of disease symptoms is often critical, as pathogen growth and macroscopic symptom development are not always correlated (Consonni et al., 2006; Thomma et al., 1999a; Thomma et al., 1999c) and symptoms often appear late in the infection cycle. This was also observed for the mutant set used in this study, as macroscopic disease symptoms did not appear on *mlo2*, *mlo2 mlo6 mlo12*, *edr1* and *pmr4* mutants, although they allowed different extents of hyphal proliferation (Figure 2 and (Consonni et al., 2006; Frye and Innes, 1998; Vogel and Somerville, 2000). The qPCR data correlate well with the microscopic analysis of the genotypes at 5 dpi (Figure 2). At this time, *eds1* plants display enhanced hyphal growth and more conidiation than the wild type. The *mlo* mutants show either strongly reduced (*mlo2*) or no hyphal growth (*mlo2 mlo6 mlo12*). Previous reports on the *mlo* mutants used penetration as well as conidiophore counts to assess differences in susceptibility among mutants and the wild type (Consonni et al., 2010; Consonni et al., 2006). While *mlo2* and *mlo2 mlo6 mlo12* plants differed considerably in penetration resistance, conidiophore counts were similar (both close to zero). The qPCR-based quantification of fungal biomass at 5 dpi therefore accurately reflects the impaired fungal development on enhanced disease resistance (*edr*) mutants. The method does, however, not reproducibly resolve differences in penetration rates at early time points, e.g. at 1 or 2 dpi (Figure 2B). In the *eds1* mutant, penetration rates are indistinguishable from wild type and hyper-susceptibility only becomes evident at later stages of infection (Dewdney et al., 2000; Töller, 2010). The qPCR assay can detect the hyper-susceptibility phenotype of this mutant already at 3 dpi, demonstrating the power of the method. Overall, 5 dpi is most suitable for the qPCR-based comparative quantification of *G. orontii* infection. At this time point differences in fungal biomass between genotypes are most pronounced and saturation effects are not yet noticeable. In other plant patho-systems, colonization differences could be detected at earlier time points. For *Phytophthora capsici* and *Botrytis cinerea*, differences in colonization could already be discerned as early as 1 dpi (Gachon and Saindrenan, 2004; Silvar et al., 2005). Disease progression was

however also faster in these systems, as maximum pathogen DNA was already detected at 3 dpi. This indicates that the *G. orontii* qPCR system has sufficient sensitivity to accurately reflect the slower disease progression in this system.

Plant cell death responses and tissue collapse in the case of necrotrophic fungi can lead to an overestimation of relative fungal biomass (Brouwer et al., 2003; Gachon and Saindrenan, 2004). Two mutants showing localized cell death at the penetration site after powdery mildew inoculation (*edr1* (Frye and Innes, 1998) and *pmr4* (Vogel and Somerville, 2000)), did however not display unexpected variations in relative DNA abundance. Previously, a similar reduction in hyphal length for *mlo2* (= *pmr2*) and *pmr4* in comparison to the wild type had been observed (Vogel and Somerville, 2000), and this was also detected in the assay (Figure 2). Additionally, the relative fungal DNA abundance on *edr1* was indistinguishable from the wild type at 5 dpi. This is in agreement with previous observations of the *edr1* mutant, which permits extensive hyphal growth (similar to wild type), but no conidiation (Frye and Innes, 1998). Thus, the qPCR assay faithfully reflects fungal development even in the context of powdery mildew-triggered host cell death. The possibility that a somewhat reduced plant DNA yield owing to localized cell death responses results in a slight overestimation of fungal biomass can however not be excluded in these instances.

3.1.2 Spore counts are a valid method to determine *G. orontii* reproductive success

Spore formation is the final stage of powdery mildew biogenesis and thus suitable to detect even small differences in susceptibility. I thus adopted a frequently used protocol for spore counts of another *Arabidopsis* infecting obligate biotrophic pathogen, the oomycete *Hpa* (Feys et al., 2005; Stuttmann et al., 2011) to the requirements of powdery mildew research. The results of the spore count assay accurately reflected the previously described phenotypes of the mutants used. While *eds1* plants were found to allow 2-fold increased spore production relative to the wild-type, spore production dropped to 10% and 0% of the wild type in *mlo2* and *mlo2 mlo6 mlo12* plants. This proportion exceeds, however, a previous report using conidiophore counts at the same time point (Consonni et al., 2006), probably due to the averaging effect on tissue types of different susceptibility, some of which are deliberately excluded from penetration and conidiophore counts. Six days after infection was chosen for the quantification, as macroscopic symptoms between *eds1* and the wild type were most easily distinguished at this time. The assay has a high dynamic range of four to five orders of magnitude (0 to about 120.000 spores/g fresh weight) and can thus reveal even small differences in susceptibility between genotypes. In subsequent experiments (Figure 14), I realized that by harvesting at 7 dpi the centrifugation step of the protocol could be omitted without compromising the reproducibility of results.

Both assays developed here yielded comparable results for the susceptibility of the genotypes tested and can easily be adapted to other *Arabidopsis*-infecting powdery mildew species and

other plant-powdery mildew patho-systems. Both methods require similar amounts of time for data generation. The qPCR method is intrinsically more cost-intensive but allows simultaneous DNA extraction and PCR analysis of many samples. Spore counts are more cost-effective and, owing to the lower number of practical steps involved, offer less possibilities for experimental error (Supplemental Figure 6). In addition, the spore count assay is based on many seedlings rather than few mature plants, which offers the advantage of an averaging effect, lowering the possibility of experimental outliers. This assay was therefore used for the subsequent analysis of mutant lines.

3.1.3 Comparison of developed to existing methods of powdery mildew quantification

Currently, powdery mildew infection is either assessed semi-quantitatively by coarse categorization and thus macroscopic symptoms or quantitatively by microscopic penetration rate counts at early, hyphal area quantification at intermediate and/or conidiophore counts at late stages (Table 3). Macroscopic symptom assessment is prone to subjectivity and can only reveal large differences in susceptibility. The other methods require staining, mounting and microscopy and are therefore time-consuming and labor-intensive. I thus developed two complementing assays that could overcome the limitations of the currently used experimental protocols.

Table 3: Comparison of methods to assess powdery mildew infection.

	Macroscopic categorization	Host cell entry counts	Conidiophore counts	Hyphal area quantification	qPCR	Conidia counts
Assays type	semi-quantitative	quantitative	quantitative	quantitative	quantitative	quantitative
Staining required?	no	yes	yes	yes	no	no
Microscopy required?	no	yes (hundreds of interaction sites)	yes (multiple colonies)	yes (multiple colonies)	no	yes
Stage of patho-genesis scored	late (conidiation)	early (host cell entry)	late (conidiation)	early to late (host cell entry to conidiation)	middle to late (hyphal expansion to conidiation)	late (conidiation)
Importance of equal inoculation density	high (no normalization)	low (internal normalization)	low (internal normalization)	low (internal normalization)	low (internal normalization)	medium (averaging effect of scoring multiple plants at once)
Suitable for high-throughput analysis	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes
Reference	(Humphry et al., 2010; Reuber et al., 1998)	(Consonni et al., 2010; Consonni et al., 2006)	(Reuber et al., 1998; Vogel and Somerville, 2000)	(Baum et al., 2011; Seiffert and Schweizer, 2005)	this publication	this publication

Both assays introduced here are quantitative and are applied at late stages of infection when differences between genotypes are more pronounced. In addition, these assays quantify fungal development, rather than disease symptoms, and can therefore also discriminate macroscopically not detectable phenotypes. They do not require staining, are easy to perform and can generate quantitative data for larger numbers of genotypes (Table 3). These assays can therefore complement and overcome limitations of currently used methods of powdery mildew

quantification. They might be particularly suitable for the assessment of larger number of different mutant lines, e.g. in the course of follow-up analyses of genes identified by –omics approaches.

3.2 Transcriptome analysis of enriched *G. orontii* haustoria

3.2.1 Assembly and annotation of the haustorial library

In the current study, next generation sequencing of a haustorial cDNA library of the Arabidopsis-infecting powdery mildew *G. orontii* was used to characterize the types of transcripts and their abundance in these infection structures. Using a cut-off of >5-fold AC, 7,077 distinct contigs were obtained, for which ~46% of the predicted proteins did not have any homologs in other organisms. Similarly, in a comparative transcriptomics study, 50% of transcripts from *Bgh* were found to lack homologs in the completed genomes of a range of ascomycete phytopathogens (Soanes and Talbot, 2006). This was the lowest number in the comparison and was attributed to the high specialization of the fungus, the only obligate biotroph in the study. A comparatively low number of genes with homologs is also within the range of reports from rust (*Puccinia striiformis* f.sp. *tritici*) haustorial cDNA libraries (Xu et al., 2011; Yin et al., 2009). The genome of *Bgh* contains 5,854 curated genes, a low number in comparison to other fungi (Schmidt and Panstruga, 2011; Spanu et al., 2010). A similar number of genes can be expected for related powdery mildews such as *G. orontii*. The ~3,100 protein-coding transcripts with hits in the NCBI nr database, in combination with the ~3,250 transcripts that are seemingly specific to *G. orontii*, therefore probably comprise the complete haustorial transcriptome (excluding presumptive retrotransposon transcripts). This was expected due to the high sequencing depth that is typically reached by next generation sequencing technologies.

The biological source material for the present analysis comprised an enriched preparation of haustorial complexes that were isolated from infected Arabidopsis plants at 4-6 dpi. At this stage of pathogenesis, fungal mycelia are fully developed and conidiophores emerge, but the colonies contain mixtures of juvenile and mature haustoria. The preparation of haustorial complexes, and thus the haustorial cDNA library, therefore derives from a blend of different developmental and likely functional stages. The purification protocol represents a second limitation of the analysis. The isolation and enrichment of haustorial complexes takes several hours, and although performed in cold conditions, this procedure may alter the physiological state of haustoria and/or might cause damage. The observation of intact extrahaustorial membranes around extracted haustoria (Figure 5B and C) however indicates limited mechanical damage during the isolation process. Nevertheless, the possibility remains that the transcript abundance seen in the haustorial cDNA library does not fully reflect the authentic *in vivo* situation. Despite attempts to exclude conidiospores during the preparation of haustoria, the final eluate still contained a significant amount of spores, although most were found to contain no cytoplasm (Cristina Micali, unpublished). In addition, bias during cDNA library construction and/or subsequent pyrosequencing may have further skewed the data. Indeed, results of qRT-PCR experiments revealed some differences in relative transcript abundance of selected genes compared to their relative transcript abundance in the haustorial cDNA library (Figure 6). Although it cannot be

stated with certainty which of the two data sets is more representative of biological reality, the quantitative aspects of the pyrosequencing approach might be regarded with caution.

3.2.2 Transcripts of primary metabolism dominate the haustorial transcriptome

Previously, haustorial transcriptomes of obligate biotrophic rust fungi have been shown to contain many transcripts involved in metabolism and protein synthesis as well as virulence (Catanzariti et al., 2006; Hahn and Mendgen, 1997; Xu et al., 2011; Yin et al., 2009). Similarly, elements of gene expression and protein turnover were found to be the most abundant transcripts in the library (Figure 4 and Supplemental Table 2). In addition, electron microscopic analyses revealed a high abundance of ribosomes in isolated haustorial complexes (Figure 5B and C). This observation has also been reported for haustoria of *Bgh in planta* (Hippe, 1985). Notably, genes and proteins involved in protein synthesis have been found in high numbers in both proteomic and transcriptomic studies at all stages of *Bgh* development (Bindschedler et al., 2009; Noir et al., 2009; Thomas et al., 2001). In a microarray study on *Bgh* development however, transcripts involved in protein biosynthesis were the most prominently up-regulated of all functional categories in post- relative to pre-penetration stages (Both et al., 2005b). The authors speculated that this effect is due to the switch from storage compound hydrolysis by preformed enzymes in spores to extensive invasive growth after penetration, which is most probably also the case for *G. orontii*. Similar observations were made in the rust fungi *Uromyces fabae*, *Hemileia vastatrix* and *Melampsora larici-populina*, where ribosomal transcripts were present at elevated levels in biotrophic mycelium compared to spores (Duplessis et al., 2011b; Fernandez et al., 2012; Jakupovic et al., 2006). Additionally, components of protein biosynthesis are significantly overrepresented in transcripts of ascomycete phytopathogens in comparison to non-pathogenic ascomycete fungi (Soanes and Talbot, 2006), indicating a general role of high translational activity during adaptation to the host environment.

In the enrichment analysis, elements of the respiratory chain were overrepresented in the highly expressed genes (Figure 5A, Supplemental Table 3), which suggests the occurrence of extensive oxidative processes in haustoria. This assumption is supported by electron microscopic analysis of the material used for the generation of this library, which revealed mitochondria to be the most prevalent haustorial organelles (Figure 5B and C and Micali et al., (2011)). Together, these findings indicate a high energy demand of these fungal infection structures. This is further underlined by the high percentage of sequences related to energy production in the cDNA library (Figure 4B).

3.2.3 Haustoria produce multiple ROS scavenging molecules

In the EST assembly several highly expressed genes coding for enzymes involved in ROS detoxification and tolerance were identified. The local generation of ROS at the cell wall is a

frequent plant response to pathogens and ROS production is also typically observed during the hypersensitive response. The latter often coincides with localized cell death that occurs in response to pathogens and is correlated with effective defense against *Bgh* (Hückelhoven and Kogel, 2003). ROS production after *G. orontii* infection has also been observed in Arabidopsis, although a role in penetration resistance could not be detected (Göllner et al., 2008). RPW8.2, one of the two R-protein isoforms effective against Arabidopsis powdery mildew fungi, also enhances localized ROS accumulation around the haustorium (Wang et al., 2009). In response, fungi express ROS-detoxifying enzymes, presumably to cope with and even disturb the plant ROS production. In this study high transcript levels of thioredoxin H, a TSA/AhpC family protein, a Mn-type superoxide dismutase, a mannitol dehydrogenase, a glutathione peroxidase and a putative Fe-type superoxide dismutase were found. These results are congruent with a microarray study of the bean rust fungus, *Uromyces fabae*, in which genes coding for a mannitol dehydrogenase, a manganese superoxide dismutase and a metallothionein were among the most highly up-regulated genes in rust-infected leaves compared to germinated spores (Jakupovic et al., 2006). *Uromyces fabae* has been shown to produce the ROS-scavenging compounds mannitol and arabitol during infection and to release these compounds into the plant apoplastic space, implicating mannitol dehydrogenases in ROS detoxification (Link et al., 2005). The presumed vital role of ROS scavenging during infection is further underlined by the discovery of several enzymes involved in the response to oxidative stress in proteomic studies on *Bgh* haustoria (Bindschedler et al., 2009; Bindschedler et al., 2011; Godfrey et al., 2009). The maize smut fungus *Ustilago maydis* also secretes Pep1, an effector that suppresses the oxidative burst by inhibiting host peroxidases (Hemetsberger et al., 2012). Additionally, transcripts of sequences related to cell rescue, defense, death and ageing are overrepresented in transcriptomes of phytopathogenic ascomycetes, indicating an important role of these protein classes in plant colonization (Soanes and Talbot, 2006). A putatively secreted Cu/Zn-type superoxide dismutase was also detected, which in comparison to the other detoxification enzymes has a rather low expression level (Supplemental Table 4). The qRT-PCR results however indicate higher expression levels of the respective gene at pre-penetration stages (Figure 6). The presumed early secretion of this enzyme would allow the detoxification of plant produced superoxide in the apoplast.

3.2.4 Transporter transcripts are not abundant in the haustorial cDNA library

Unexpectedly, only one transporter was among the Top50 transcripts encoding transmembrane proteins. The identified phosphate transporter is a member of the Pho88 group of inorganic phosphate transporters, which have not been attributed any specific function so far. The strong expression of this gene in haustoria could not be validated by qRT-PCR, but our time course analysis indicates that this transcript is constantly present throughout fungal development. Interestingly, in *Bgh*, a phosphate transporter homolog has been identified as part of a co-regulon of virulence-related genes (Both et al., 2005b). Phosphate metabolic genes are overrepresented

in ESTs from phytopathogenic versus non-pathogenic ascomycetes, suggesting an important role of phosphate metabolism in fungal pathogenesis (Soanes and Talbot, 2006). In addition, phosphate uptake is increased in powdery mildew infected barley plants, suggesting an induction of this process by fungal infection (Walters and Ayres, 1981).

Glucose seems to be the main carbon source of monocot-infecting powdery mildews (Sutton et al., 1999). Notably, no highly abundant transcripts coding for sugar transporters could be identified in the EST assembly. This contrasts with transcriptomic analysis of rust fungi, in which genes encoding hexose and amino acid transporters were highly represented in transcripts from infected leaves (Duplessis et al., 2011a; Duplessis et al., 2011b; Hahn and Mendgen, 1997; Jakupovic et al., 2006). I therefore carefully analyzed the *G. orontii* transcript library for homologies to known sugar and amino acid transporters but did not detect any highly represented transcripts (Supplemental Table 5). In agreement, proteomic studies of *Bgh* haustoria did not identify any sugar transporters (Bindschedler et al., 2009; Godfrey et al., 2009). However, both proteomic studies did detect PMA1, a plasma-membrane resident H⁺-ATPase that is believed to generate the proton gradient needed to drive sugar import. The transcript of this gene is present at the same level in our library as transcripts coding for the MFS-type sugar transporters. Transcripts coding for PMA1 and a MFS maltose transporter were among the three transcripts that were found by qRT-PCR to be induced in late stages of fungal development (Figure 6B). While transcript abundance does not solely determine protein levels, the low transcript levels in *G. orontii* and the lack of identification in proteomic studies in *Bgh* indicate that powdery mildews probably use low abundance sugar transporters for carbohydrate uptake. These might have very high substrate affinity, as recently evidenced for *UmSRT1*, a sucrose transporter of *Ustilago maydis* that is required for virulence (Wahl et al., 2010). Alternatively, powdery mildews may exploit atypical ways of nutrient absorption.

3.2.5 Conserved pathogenicity genes are expressed in *G. orontii* haustoria

The extrahaustorial matrix is believed to represent the major battleground of the powdery mildew–plant interaction (Panstruga and Dodds, 2009). Haustorial transcripts are therefore expected to comprise large numbers of virulence determinants. Indeed, “Pathogenesis” is among the significant GOSlim categories, supporting the notion that specific processes for host colonization take place in the haustorium. These sequences contain a large percentage of transcripts coding for proteins involved in signal transduction, including homologs of G-proteins, Rho GTPases, MAP kinases and elements of cyclic AMP signaling (Supplemental Table 6). This includes a homolog of *Magnaporthe grisea* PMK1, a MAP kinase that is essential for appressorium formation and infectious growth (GoEST_c4866) (Xu and Hamer, 1996). Several homologs of pathogenicity genes were also not correctly annotated by Blast2GO. Abundant transcripts for a homolog of the *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* CAP20 gene, which is expressed during appressorium formation and whose knock-out severely reduces virulence of the fungus

(Hwang et al., 1995), were identified (Supplemental Table 2). In the qRT-PCR analysis, transcripts of this gene were most abundant at 12 hpi (Figure 6). This is similar to *Bgh*, where a homolog of this gene shows highest transcript accumulation during appressorium formation (Both et al., 2005b). Additionally, transcripts of many secreted putative pathogenicity factors, e.g. a cell wall-linked protein that is a homolog of the EMP1 pathogenicity factor from *M. grisea* (Ahn et al., 2004), were also frequently detected. This protein likely functions in the adhesion of the appressorium to the host surface and respective knock-out lines display strongly reduced appressorium formation and virulence (Ahn et al., 2004). In a comparative genomics study, *EMP1* was found to be conserved in the genomes of filamentous ascomycetes, while lacking in yeasts (Soanes et al., 2008). Homologs of *EMP1* have been identified in many plant-pathogenic fungi (Cornelissen and Haring, 2001; Soanes et al., 2008), and the DRMIP-HESP domain (PF10342) present in this protein and GoEST_c4284 is also present in a haustorially expressed gene coding for a secreted protein of flax rust (Catanzariti et al., 2006). While one member of this protein class has been implicated in cell differentiation of *Lentinula edodes* (Szeto et al., 2007), DRMIP-HESP domain containing proteins have been found to be enriched in the secretomes of rust fungi (Saunders et al., 2012). Overall, this suggests an important role of these proteins during pathogenesis of haustoria forming pathogens that is conserved across fungal phyla.

In our analysis, two transcripts encoding secreted cell wall-modifying enzymes were detected, a putative chitinase and a glucanoyltransferase. The secreted glucanoyltransferase is a homolog of GEL1, a protein that is involved in fungal cell wall biogenesis and virulence of *Aspergillus fumigatus* and *Fusarium oxysporum* (Caracuel et al., 2005; Nierman et al., 2005). Interestingly, the *Bgh* homolog of this gene has a virulence function, as shown by transient silencing assays (Nowara et al., 2010). Overall, only very few transcripts coding for lytic enzymes were detected at the haustorial stage, which is in line with the reduced set of these genes in the genomes of powdery mildew fungi (Spanu et al., 2010). Taken together, many general virulence factors seem to be conserved between *G. orontii*, *Bgh* and other pathogenic fungi. However, also many species- and even isolate-specific fungal virulence factors have been described (Stergiopoulos and de Wit, 2009). The repertoire of these effectors encoded by *G. orontii* will be discussed in the subsequent section.

3.3 Functional characterization of *G. orontii* effector candidates.

Effectors allow plant pathogens to suppress host immune responses and thus prepare the plant for colonization (Ellis et al., 2009; Feng and Zhou, 2012). While these effectors have been first identified by their avirulence functions, their virulence functions are now also being elucidated (de Jonge et al., 2011; Stergiopoulos and de Wit, 2009). The analysis of effector functions and targets has yielded important insights into the coevolution of pathogens and their hosts in many patho-systems (Boch et al., 2009; Jones and Dangl, 2006; Ma et al., 2010; Moscou and Bogdanove, 2009). For the powdery mildew fungi, effector biology is still in its infancy as only few effector proteins have been cloned and or functionally characterized from the barley powdery mildew *Bgh* (Schmidt, 2010; Spanu et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2012). The Blumeriae species form a specific, Poaceae (grasses) infecting clade within the *Erysiphales*, while the vast majority of powdery mildew host plants (>90%) are dicotyledonous (Glawe, 2008; Takamatsu, 2004). The infection of *Arabidopsis* with powdery mildews has therefore recently been established as a model system for dicotyledonous plants (Micali et al., 2008). I used the haustorial cDNA described above to predict, clone and functionally characterize effectors of the *Arabidopsis* infecting powdery mildew *G. orontii*. The effectors analyzed in this study could potentially become the starting point for future research on effectors of dicot-infecting powdery mildews in general.

3.3.1 OECs display common features of effector proteins

In my analysis, I predicted 115 effector candidates, 19 of which are among the Top50 transcripts encoding secreted proteins in the haustorial library. The proteins encoded are considerably shorter than the residual secretome, are often cysteine-rich and contain only few recognizable domains, qualities that have been observed for effector proteins in general (Catanzariti et al., 2006; Godfrey et al., 2010; Spanu et al., 2010). Cysteine-rich effectors have mostly been found to act in the apoplast as protease inhibitors and protectors or scavengers of chitin (de Jonge et al., 2010; Tian et al., 2005; Tian et al., 2004; van den Burg et al., 2006). While several cysteine-rich effectors were identified, domains of protease inhibitors or chitin-binding proteins were not detected. For subsequent assays and reason of simplicity, I therefore assumed a cytoplasmic localization of the effectors. This might have prevented the accurate functional characterization of apoplastic OECs. Similar to reports on *Bgh* and the wheat stem rust *Puccinia graminis* f.sp. *tritici* a subset of 26 OECs contained a Y/F/WxC motif in their N-terminal region. This motif has been previously identified by effector analysis of *Bgh* and proposed to be involved in effector uptake by the host. It is however also widely present in both candidate effectors and non-secreted proteins of poplar rust, making a role in effector uptake unlikely (Duplessis et al., 2011a). Therefore, the role of this motif was not analyzed further.

In comparison to the 115 OECs, the effector arsenal of *Bgh* has recently been extended to 491 CSEPs (Pedersen et al., unpublished results). The discrepancy to this publication is probably due to the prediction of effectors from genomic DNA in *Bgh* in comparison to a single haustorial cDNA

library in the current study. Using an extensive set of RNAseq and cDNA libraries, most of the *Bgh* CSEPs were however found to be expressed at the haustorial stage (Spanu et al., (2010) and Pedersen et al, unpublished results). The limited number of OECs can also explain the few effector families detected, as additional family members possibly present in the *G. orontii* genome might have too low expression levels for contigs to be accurately assembled and/or might be expressed predominantly at different stages of development. In general, a more comprehensive analysis of the *G. orontii* effector arsenal would require an enhanced quality of the genome assembly and/or sequencing of transcriptome libraries representing additional stages of the *G. orontii* life-cycle.

Of the 115 OECs identified, 50 and 13 had homologs in the closer and more distantly related powdery mildews *E. pisi* and *Bgh*, respectively. This clearly reflects the evolutionary distance of the three pathogens but also indicates the existence of a core set of evolutionary ancient powdery mildew effectors that were retained in approx. 70 million years of divergent evolution (Spanu et al., 2010; Takamatsu, 2004). Of the eight OECs with predicted structural domains, three were similar to “Microbial Ribonucleases” (IPR016191) and each of these had homologies in the *E. pisi* genome and *Bgh* CSEPs. The microbial ribonuclease fold has been suggested as a stable structural template for effector sequence diversification in *Bgh* (Pedersen et al., unpublished results). Ancestral powdery mildew effectors that originated from a ribonuclease fold might thus be the basis of a shared powdery mildew effector set.

3.3.2 Cell death suppression by OECs

Localized cell death is the most effective defense response against powdery mildew fungi (Panstruga and Schulze-Lefert, 2002). For several pathogen effectors, the suppression of cell death has been described and was therefore also examined for the OECs (Dou et al., 2008; Kelley et al., 2010; Kleemann et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011). Co-infiltration experiments with *Agrobacteria* harboring OEC- or *ChNLP1*-expression vectors revealed a frequent (72%) suppression of cell death by OECs (Figure 8 and Table 1). The suppression of *PilNF1* triggered cell death, by contrast, was only detected for OEC63 and OEC66 and no OEC could inhibit R3a triggered HR. This is in line with the absence of *R* gene-triggered immunity to *G. orontii* in *Arabidopsis* (Micali et al., 2008). In a similar set-up using biotrophy-associated effectors of *Colletotrichum higginsianum*, from which *NLP1* originates, five of eight (62%) tested effectors suppressed *ChNLP1*-triggered cell death but none could suppress *INF1*-induced cell death. The necrosis-inducing peptides and R3a trigger different but overlapping downstream signaling pathways. While all require *NbSGT1* and *NbHSP90*, the JA co-receptor *COI1*, the mitogen activated protein kinase *NbMEK2* and the two SA-signaling proteins *NbNPR1* and *NbTGA2.2* are only required for cell death triggered by *PiNPP1.1* and not *PilNF1* (Kanneganti et al., 2006). At least *NbNPR1* is also not required for R3a induced HR (Cui et al., 2009). Cell death triggered by *PilNF1* in turn requires the E3 ligase *NbCMPG1* and the BAK1 homolog *NbSERK3*, while

NbCMPG1 is not required for R3a triggered HR (Chaparro-Garcia et al., 2011; González-Lamothe et al., 2006; Gilroy et al., 2011). The contribution of these components to NLP-triggered cell death is unknown. The *Pi* effector SNE1 can suppress cell death triggered by both *Pi*NPP1.1 and R3a, indicating that NLPs and R proteins also share common signaling cascades (Kelley et al., 2010). Taken together, OECs, similarly to *Ch* effectors, predominantly suppress a cell death signaling pathway elicited by *Ch*NLP that requires MAP kinase, JA and SA signaling but not CMPG1.

3.3.3 The virulence enhancing effect of OECs

In general, it has been difficult to define virulence contributions to single effectors, probably due to the small effect of most single effectors and their functional redundancy. The reassembly of the full *Pst* effector repertoire from an effectorless mutant also revealed interdependences between effectors, further complicating the picture (Cunnac et al., 2011). For obligate biotrophic pathogens, the challenges of defining effector contributions to virulence are even greater, due to the lack of efficient transformation techniques and the sheer size of the effector arsenal. The delivery of OECs to the plant cell by phytopathogenic bacteria was therefore used as a tool for OEC characterization (Sohn et al., 2007). Six effectors (OEC25, 48, 60, 61, 63 and 65 (~20% of the tested OECs)) were found to reliably and significantly enhance bacterial growth relative to the YFP control and, together with the nuclear effector OEC56, shortlisted for subsequent assays. Similarly, in a previous study on *Hpa* RXLR effectors, enhanced bacterial growth on Col-0 was detected for approximately 45% of 62 tested proteins (Fabro et al., 2011). The authors however implemented a less stringent threshold for scoring growth as being enhanced. In this study, several effectors also restricted bacterial growth, indicating recognition by *R* genes. In contrast to *Hpa*, *G. orontii* does not seem to have a long coevolution history with Arabidopsis and thus, no corresponding *R* genes are described in Arabidopsis (Micali et al., 2008). Accordingly, no OEC restricted growth of the delivering bacterial strain. An enhanced growth of already virulent, OEC-delivering *Pst* strains points to a strong role in MTI suppression of the OECs that utilizes different mechanisms or targets than *Pst*. Accordingly, two (OEC56 and 65) of the seven shortlisted effectors suppressed callose deposition, a characteristic MTI response that can also be suppressed by several *Pst* effectors (DebRoy et al., 2004; Hauck et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2007). Interestingly, callosic encasements of haustoria are always detected for the non-adapted powdery mildew *Bgh* in Arabidopsis and in about 20% of cases for *G. orontii*, indicating that the fungus can indeed partially suppress this response (Jacobs et al., 2003; Meyer et al., 2009). Another adapted powdery mildew species, *G. cichoracearum*, can completely suppress callose depositions, suggesting that it is even better adapted to interfering with cell wall based defenses of its host (Koh et al., 2005). Investigating *G. cichoracearum* effectors for their callose suppression activity would therefore be an interesting task. For *Hpa* effectors, as many as 78% of virulence enhancing effectors could also suppress callose deposition after delivery by *Pst* Δ CEL (Fabro et al., 2011), indicating that several effectors were potentially missed in my screen due to

the high variability of the assay. It has to be noted that *Hpa* still elicits callose deposits, these do however not seem to co-localize with haustorial encasements completely, indicating that *Hpa* can also manipulate their localization (Meyer et al., 2009). MTI responses are not limited to callose deposition and specific interference with the execution of other branches of MTI could not be analyzed with this assay. Assessment of additional MTI responses like ROS spiking or MAP kinase activation would also require the generation of transgenic Arabidopsis lines, which was unsuccessful in my hands.

3.3.4 Lessons from OEC localization

The OECs tested mostly localized to the cytoplasm and nucleus of *N. benthamiana* epidermal cells (Figure 10). The size of effector-fusion constructs was below the size exclusion limit of the nucleus, indicating that these proteins can enter via passive diffusion. OEC56 was localized exclusively to the nucleus, while OEC63 localized to net-like structures indicative of the ER. OEC65 was actively excluded from the nucleus and localized to the cytoplasm and several distinct foci. The diverse localization of this limited effector set indicates a number of different effector virulence targets within specific subcellular compartments. Effectors of diverse plant pathogens have also been found to localize to the nucleus, ER, Golgi, PM and the chloroplast where they exert different functions (Bartetzko et al., 2009; Caillaud et al., 2012; Deslandes et al., 2003; Jelenska et al., 2007; Nimchuk et al., 2000; Nomura et al., 2011; Schornack et al., 2010). A screen for *Hpa* effector localization revealed the nuclear/-cytoplasmic localization of 33% of tested candidates, while an additional 33% localized exclusively to the nucleus and 26% localized to different membranes (Caillaud et al., 2012). It is interesting to note that a canonical NLS was only predicted for 40% of strictly nuclear *Hpa* effectors (Caillaud et al., 2012), indicating that mere bioinformatic analysis cannot accurately predict the localization of OECs. Therefore, a systematic localization analysis of OECs should be undertaken in the future. Localization information can also be used to predict effector function. In the most striking example, the detection and confirmation of a NLS in the *Xanthomonas* AvrBs3 effector family (Van den Ackerveken et al., 1996; Yang and Gabriel, 1995) and the subsequent discovery of transcriptional activator functions for these proteins (Gu et al., 2005; Zhu et al., 1999) led to the discovery of specific TF activities of AvrBs3 (Kay et al., 2007; Römer et al., 2007). Subsequently, detailed studies revealed the molecular basis of DNA recognition by these effectors (Boch et al., 2009; Moscou and Bogdanove, 2009). This code can now be used to design specific DNA-binding motifs for different applications (Morbiter et al., 2010).

3.3.5 Expression of OECs – do effectors come in waves?

For most of the tested OECs (OEC25, OEC48, OEC63) a preferential expression before haustorium formation was detected (Figure 11). In the expression profiles I cannot distinguish preformed from plant-induced transcripts, as 0 hpi samples were taken after inoculation and no pure spore sample was included. The predominant early expression of these genes contrasts

their identification from a haustorial library, but might be explained by contaminations of the material used for library generation, as discussed above (see 3.2.1). Additional effectors were transcriptionally induced after haustorium formation (OEC56 at 24 hpi), at the sporulation stage (OEC61 at 7 dpi) or expressed throughout pathogenesis (OEC65). Due to the low sample size (six effectors) a general statement on effector expression in *G. orontii* cannot be made. The distinct expression patterns of the OECs are however reminiscent of the effector expression in waves that has been detected in other patho-systems. In the poplar rust *Melampsora larici-populina*, large sets of candidate effectors displayed distinct expression patterns, including expression at the spore stage and/or germination and subsequent down-regulation as well as up-regulation *in planta* at early and late stages of infection (Duplessis et al., 2011b). The authors suggest that effectors preformed in spores or induced at germination might be prime candidates for suppression of early host defenses. For *P. sojae*, a similar observation was made. Many effectors were already expressed in the inoculum and expression increased subsequently while another subset was only induced *in planta* (Wang et al., 2011). In this study, preformed effectors seemed to be associated with the suppression of ETI, thereby paving the way for PTI suppression by *in planta*-induced effectors. These results indicate that early-induced or preformed effectors are important virulence components that should be investigated more thoroughly, especially as most effectors characterized to date are induced *in planta* (Hahn and Mendgen, 1997; Mosquera et al., 2009; Spanu et al., 2010; Torto et al., 2003). Exploring early-acting effectors will probably generate important insights into the first molecular events of pathogen recognition by the plant. Additionally, characterizing the functions of effectors induced late in the life cycle could reveal host processes specifically target to meet the increased metabolic demand of pathogens at the sporulation stage.

3.3.6 The OEC-Arabidopsis interactome reveals potential virulence targets

Effectors mostly exert their function through the manipulation of host targets (Feng and Zhou, 2012). Protein-protein interaction assays have therefore been extremely useful for defining effector targets and functions in bacteria. Y2H approaches have for instance uncovered the interaction of AvrPto with Pto (Tang et al., 1996), RIN4 with AvrB and AvrRpm1 (Mackey et al., 2002) and HopM1 with AtMIN7 (Nomura et al., 2006). The first described intracellular host target of a filamentous pathogen effector, NbCMPG1 targeted by *Pi*Avr3a was also discovered by Y2H (Bos et al., 2010). Recently, this technique was used to systematically map host targets of both *Psy* and *Hpa* effectors (Mukhtar et al., 2011). This prompted us to also generate an interactome of the 84 cloned *G. orontii* effectors. Using a high-quality Y2H pipeline (Dreze et al., 2010), 132 high confidence interactions of 61 Arabidopsis proteins with 47 OECs were obtained (Figure 12A and Supplemental Table 10). Most OECs and Arabidopsis proteins only had few interactors, while a few proteins with many interactors were also detected. This is in line with observations from the *Hpa* and *Psy* interactome (Mukhtar et al., 2011) and suggests the existence of a few very important virulence targets in the host as well as promiscuous effectors in the pathogen. For *Pst*,

redundant targeting of host component has already been confirmed. At least four independent effectors (AvrRpm1, AvrB, AvrRpt2 and HopF2) target the host component RIN4 to suppress MTI and ETI (Kim et al., 2005a; Kim et al., 2005b; Mackey et al., 2002; Wilton et al., 2010). Conversely, AvrRpt2 cleaves at least five Arabidopsis proteins (Chisholm et al., 2005; Takemoto and Jones, 2005). Overall, effector targets were clearly enriched for protein binding and TF activities as well as nuclear and ER-resident proteins, while depleted in components of protein metabolism. Interestingly, only three proteins with described roles in the defense response (PRA1.F2, PRA1.F3 and Fibrillin) were directly targeted by effectors. Primary effector targets were however often found to interact with defense-related proteins, indicating indirect manipulations of immunity by *G. orontii*. Similar observations were made for *Hpa* and *Psy* (Mukhtar et al., 2011). It is interesting to note that 15 of the direct effector targets also interact with NB-LRR proteins. The recognition of effector activity, rather than the effector itself is proposed by the guard hypothesis (Dangl and Jones, 2001; Van Der Biezen and Jones, 1998). This would suggest the recognition of OEC activity by Arabidopsis, but again, no canonical R protein conferring resistance to *G. orontii* has been detected even after screening of multiple Arabidopsis accessions (Göllner et al., 2008). Therefore, these interactions either do not happen *in vivo*, due to different compartmentalization and/or expression patterns, or the guard recognizes other modifications of the guardee than those by OECs. This has been observed for RIN4, where RPM1 recognizes RIN4 phosphorylation induced by AvrRpm1 and AvrB but not RIN4 cleavage by AvrRpt2 which is detected by RPS2 instead (Chisholm et al., 2005; Day et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2005a; Mackey et al., 2002).

The screen results are certainly incomplete, as only a subset of the ~27.000 protein-coding genes of Arabidopsis were surveyed and additional OECs remain to be discovered and/or cloned. Still, significant convergence of the OECs onto a limited set of host proteins could be detected (Figure 12C), as previously found for *Hpa* and *Psy* effectors (Mukhtar et al., 2011). It is interesting to note that for a small set of effectors from *Phytophthora infestans*, for which Arabidopsis is a non-host, convergence was not detected (Pascal Braun, personal communication). Therefore, this phenomenon might be associated with adaptation to the host and thus the ability for MTI suppression.

3.3.7 Unrelated phytopathogens converge onto hubs in the plant cellular network

In the analysis of the integrated interaction network of *Psy*, *Hpa* and *G. orontii* effectors, it became apparent that different pathogens mostly target separate proteins in the host (Figure 13). This is conceivable, as all three pathogens show different lifestyles and/or routes of colonization, indicating that they might manipulate different processes in the cell and/or different cell types to promote susceptibility. *Pseudomonas syringae* is a hemibiotrophic bacterial pathogen that enters the leaf through wounds or stomata and subsequently proliferates in the apoplast where it

promotes nutrient leakage from mesophyll cells (Katagiri et al., 2002). *Hpa*, by contrast, is an obligate biotrophic oomycete that penetrates the leaf through anticlinal epidermal cell walls into the mesophyll, where it establishes haustoria and hyphal elongation takes place (Koch and Slusarenko, 1990). Sporulation occurs then by the outward growth of sporangiophores through stomata. *G. orontii* in turn completes its lifecycle on top of the epidermal cell layer and acquires all its nutrients through haustoria in epidermal cells (Micali et al., 2008). These cell types are different in both their morphology and gene expression profile (Brandt et al., 2002), possibly requiring distinct manipulation for susceptibility by the fungus. *Psy* effectors also target more defense compounds directly relative to *Hpa* and *G. orontii*. This observation can however be explained by a bias in the literature for defense proteins identified through the study of *Pseudomonas* and its effectors (Feng and Zhou, 2012).

Strikingly, the three pathogens examined also have nine host targets in common (Figure 13), indicating that they also manipulate common host processes in the plant. All three pathogens have to suppress MTI in order to be pathogenic, which suggests that common targets function in the MTI pathway. Most common targets are TFs or involved in transcriptional processes, indicating that they might interfere with MAMP-triggered transcriptional reprogramming rather than perception or signaling. This is in contrast to previous data on *Pseudomonas* effectors, which mostly interfere with MAMP-signaling directly at or immediately after MAMP-perception (Feng and Zhou, 2012). For filamentous pathogens, effector targets are mostly unknown. None of the common targets has been explicitly implicated in the defense response to any of these pathogens so far, indicating that in depth analysis of their contribution to resistance can reveal important insights into the defense response of Arabidopsis. Only for JAZ3 a link to defense processes is obvious. JAZ proteins are repressors of the JA signaling pathway which perceive JA in a complex with COI1 and are subsequently ubiquitinated by the SCF^{COI1} complex and degraded (Chini et al., 2007; Sheard et al., 2010; Thines et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2007). This allows the induction of JA-responsive genes by the TF MYC2. While JA induced defenses are usually attributed to defense against necrotrophic pathogens, they can also be effective against *G. orontii* (Glazebrook, 2005; Zimmerli et al., 2004). *Pst* utilizes the phytotoxin coronatine, a structural analog of JA-isoleucine, to induce JA signaling (Weiler et al., 1994; Yan et al., 2009). This leads to increased susceptibility owing to the suppression of SA-induced responses by hormonal crosstalk (Brooks et al., 2005; Uppalapati et al., 2007). It is therefore conceivable that *Hpa*, *G. orontii* and *Psy* target JAZ3 to promote JA- and thereby inhibit SA signaling. Transposon-insertion lines of *JAZ3* did however not display an infection phenotype with *G. orontii* (Figure 14), probably due to redundancy of the twelve JAZ proteins in Arabidopsis.

The common targets of the three pathogens have a high degree in AI-1 and four of them (CSN5a, TCP14, TCP13, APC8), are actually hubs within the cellular network. The high degree of the common targets provokes the idea of “sticky” proteins for which the interaction with effectors is not specific. It is therefore important to note that only four of the 15 hubs in AI-1 were targeted

commonly by the three pathogens. In addition, the targeting of hubs has been frequently observed for the interaction of bacteria and viruses with their human host, indicating a specific virulence strategy (Calderwood et al., 2007; Dyer et al., 2008; Dyer et al., 2010; Pfefferle et al., 2011; Simonis et al., 2012).

3.3.8 Hubs are involved in the defense response

Cellular interaction networks of all organisms examined so far resemble a scale-free network (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011; Giot et al., 2003; Ito et al., 2001b; Li et al., 2004; Rual et al., 2005; Stelzl et al., 2005; Uetz et al., 2000). Network theory has shown that scale-free networks, like social networks, the internet or cells are resilient to perturbations of random proteins but very susceptible to attacks on their hubs (Albert et al., 2000). The common targeting of highly connected nodes by three unrelated phytopathogens evoked the question if immune responses could be compromised by node removal. I thus assembled a set of T-DNA insertion mutants for these genes and systematically screened them for altered susceptibility to *G. orontii*, which was detected in nine of the 38 tested lines (Figure 14). While insertion mutants of *CSN5a*, *PRA1.F3*, an unknown gene (At1G55170) and *BIM1* decreased susceptibility to *G. orontii*, the susceptibility was increased in mutants of *TCP14*, *TCP13*, *APC8*, *TCP15* and a gene encoding a SBP-family protein. The *csn5a* mutant shows dwarfism and other pleiotropic phenotypes due to the multitude of process regulated by the COP9 signalosome (Gusmaroli et al., 2007). Reduced expression of either one of the CUL3 isoforms in the *csn5a* background can however restore most of these pleiotropic phenotypes to wild type (Gusmaroli et al., 2007) and *csn5a-2 cul3a* plants display enhanced resistance to *Hpa* (Mukhtar et al., 2011), suggesting that CSN5A is specifically involved in plant immunity. These lines were however not tested for susceptibility to *G. orontii*. Furthermore, the expression of *CSN5* was induced 18-fold by *G. orontii* infection in local tissue, suggesting a specific role of this protein in the defense response (Chandran et al., 2010).

The CSN5 subunits of the COP9 signalosome catalyze the removal of the RUB moiety (Related to ubiquitin, called Nedd8 in yeast and animals) from CUL1, CUL3 and CUL4 (Gusmaroli et al., 2007; Lyapina et al., 2001). Cullins are one subunit of the cullin RING (Really interesting new gene) ligases (CRLs), the largest group of E3 ligases, which catalyze the transfer of ubiquitin to target proteins. Cycles of rubylation and derubylation seem to control the activity of these protein complexes (Hotton and Callis, 2008). CUL1 is part of the four subunit SCF complexes. In Arabidopsis, up to 700 F-box proteins have been detected, and these create the specificity of the complex (Hua et al., 2011). SCF complexes comprise, among many others, SCF^{COI1}, SCF^{TIR1} and SCF^{GID2}, which perceive the plant hormones JA, auxin and GA, respectively (Santner and Estelle, 2009) as well as SCF^{ETP1/2} and SCF^{EBF1/2}, which regulate ethylene responses (Guo and Ecker, 2003; Potuschak et al., 2003). Finally, an CUL3 based complex is involved in SA perception (Fu et al., 2012). Targeting of CSN5a might thus allow the manipulation of single or

several hormonal pathways simultaneously. Silencing of *CSN5* in tomato, for example, leads to increased JA but unaltered SA levels, making plants more resistant to herbivore and necrotrophic pathogen attack (Hind et al., 2011). It has to be noted that a first attempt to confirm the interaction of OEC61 and CSN5a by BiFC was successful. The interaction of CSN5a with *Hpa* effectors has however been confirmed (Yatusevich et al., unpublished results). Generally, it is not likely that pathogen effectors induce CSN5a degradation, as lack of this subunit leads to destabilization of the CSN complex and strong pleiotropic phenotypes (Gusmaroli et al., 2007). The geminivirus coat protein C2, for instance, targets CSN5a to interfere with CUL1 derubylation and several hormonal responses without disrupting the CSN complex. Most specifically, this leads to the repression of JA-responsive genes. JA application, in turn, induces resistance to the virus, indicating a specific repression of the JA response via CSN5a by the virus to promote susceptibility (Lozano-Durán et al., 2011).

PRA1.F3, whose knock-out leads to reduced susceptibility of Arabidopsis to *G. orontii*, and its two close homologs PRA1.F1 and PRA1.F2 interacted with OEC65 in Y2H and BiFC (Figure 12 and Figure 15). PRA1 proteins form a 19 member gene family in Arabidopsis which has expanded relative to green algae and other eukaryotes (Alvim Kamei et al., 2008). The F clade is specifically targeted by OECs. PRA1 proteins are involved in vesicle trafficking by regulating the insertion of small GTPases into the membrane (Dirac-Svejstrup et al., 1997; Sivars et al., 2003). The human bacterial pathogen *Legionella pneumophila* also uses the effector SidM, which has both PRA and GEF activity to manipulate the human Rab GTPase Rab1 and recruit membrane material from the ER. This leads to the establishment of a pathogen-induced compartment, the *Legionella*-containing vacuole, underlining the importance of the PRA system for the structure of the endomembrane system (Ingmundson et al., 2007; Machner and Isberg, 2007; Zhu et al., 2010). The BiFC signal of OEC65 and its interacting PRA1.F proteins was localized in spots close to the cell periphery (Figure 15), indicating a specific interaction at an unknown endomembrane compartment. PRA1.F1 co-localizes almost exclusively with a marker of the endosomal and prevacuolar compartment (PVC), RabF2b, suggesting that the interaction of OEC65 and the PRA1 proteins take place there (Alvim Kamei et al., 2008). This is in line with reports from humans, where PRA1 localizes to the Golgi apparatus and endosomes. Without co-localization studies of compartmental marker proteins with the BiFC signal however, no final conclusions can be drawn.

The question thus remains how the lack of PRA1.F3 generates enhanced resistance to *G. orontii*. It is unlikely that PRA proteins are negative regulators of defense signaling, as their biochemical activity is well described, at least in humans (Sivars et al., 2003). Recently, a negative role for AtPRA1.B6 in ER to Golgi trafficking has been established (Lee et al., 2011). The vacuolar and PM trafficking of a subset of marker proteins were inhibited at the ER to an extent proportional to PRA1.B6 protein level. Steady-state PRA1.B6 levels were in turn found to be controlled by proteasome-mediated degradation. It can thus be imagined that PRA1.F proteins function in the

negative regulation of defense component trafficking towards the fungal penetration site. Due to the localization of PRA1.F1 to the endosome/PVC, these trafficking events might involve MVBs, which have been detected at powdery mildew penetration sites in both *Arabidopsis* and barley (An et al., 2006; Bushnell, 1972; Micali et al., 2011). OEC65 might stabilize the PRA1.F proteins to exploit their inhibitory role and increase susceptibility. In this scenario, insertion mutants of *PRA1.F3* would show enhanced resistance due to increased defense component trafficking, as experimentally determined (Figure 14). Components of defense-related trafficking and the glucosinolate response could also be affected by this process as PEN1, VAMP722 and PEN3 have been found to localize to haustorial encasements and might be transported there by MVBs (Meyer et al., 2009). Interestingly, rat PRA1 also interacts with the v-SNARE VAMP2, potentially interconnecting VAMP and Rab functions in vesicle trafficking (Martincic et al., 1997). Recently, two ARF1 proteins were shown to control callose deposition at the infection site in barley (Böhlenius et al., 2010). These proteins were found to co-localize with *AtRabF2b* in barley, but the significance of this signal is currently under debate (Robinson et al., 2011). Expression of dominant negative versions of the ARFs resulted in a lack of callose deposits at the infection site. PRA1.F3 also interacts with three ARF-GTPases (*Arabidopsis* Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011). Taken together, the interaction of OEC65 with PRA1.F3, the interaction of PRA1.F3 with several ARF-GTPases and its presumably similar localization to ARF1 as well as the reduction of callose deposits observed after bacterial delivery of OEC65 provokes a scenario in which stabilization of PRA1.F proteins by OEC65 interferes with ARF-mediated trafficking events leading to callose deposition. The accuracy of this model remains to be determined.

BIM1 is also involved in the defense response to *G. orontii*, as an insertion mutant line displayed enhanced resistance to the fungus. This basic helix-loop-helix TF is involved in BR-signaling by binding to E-boxes upstream of BR-induced genes and synergistically activating these genes together with another TF, BES1 (Yin et al., 2005). The role of BR in defense responses is currently not clearly determined. While BR application increases resistance to pathogens in tobacco and rice (Nakashita et al., 2003), the effect of BR signaling on MTI in *Arabidopsis* is still under debate (Albrecht et al., 2012; Albrecht et al., 2008; Belkhadir et al., 2012). The effect of the *bim1* mutant on BR signaling is subtle. BIM1 also interacts with two TF involved in embryo patterning, DORNRÖSCHEN and DORNRÖSCHEN-LIKE, and the mutant also has an embryo patterning phenotype (Chandler et al., 2009), suggesting that it is involved in several different transcriptional complexes. Dissecting the pathways leading to enhanced resistance to *G. orontii* in *bim1* will thus be challenging.

Apart from three *TCP* genes, which will be discussed below, mutants in *APC8* and a gene encoding a SBP-family protein displayed enhanced susceptibility towards *G. orontii*. No function has been attributed to the SBP-family protein (*At4G17680*) yet. *SBP* genes have first been identified as interactors of S-RNase, one of the major components of gametophytic self-incompatibility (Sims and Ordanic, 2001). They do contain a RING domain, implicating a role in

ubiquitin-based degradation of target proteins. Not surprisingly, the protein encoded by AT4G17680 interacts, among others, with an F-box protein (Mukhtar et al., 2011). An interaction with two TCP TFs, TCP11 and TCP14 has also been detected. The insertion mutant of the gene is more resistant to a compatible *Hpa* isolate. This suggest an opposite role of this protein in defense against *G. orontii* and *Hpa*, which is surprising given that both are obligate biotrophic pathogens.

APC8 is a subunit of the anaphase promoting complex, an E3 ligase which regulates cell cycle progression by the ubiquitination of cell cycle regulators (Peters, 2006). Interestingly, the APC contains two subunits with a cullin and RING finger domain, respectively, suggesting a structural relationship to SCF complexes (Kramer et al., 1998; Yu et al., 1998; Zachariae et al., 1998). Disruptive knock-outs of the APC are lethal in higher organisms. APC8 contains several tetratricopeptide repeats (TPRs) and has been shown to bind the APC coactivator CCS52 (CDH1 in human) and CDC20, which are the substrate binding proteins of the E3 ligase complex (Matyskiela and Morgan, 2009). Interestingly, the APC is targeted by many human viruses, most probably to induce a S-phase like state that is conducive for viral replication (Mo et al., 2012). The APC also has a role in endoreduplication (Cebolla et al., 1999; Serralbo et al., 2006), a process that is induced by and important for *G. orontii* infection (Chandran et al., 2010). An insertion mutant of *APC8* displays reduced effectiveness of R protein-triggered immunity against *Hpa* (Mukhtar et al., 2011). Recently, an *apc8* mutant was isolated from an Ethylmethylsulfonate (EMS) mutagenized population and shown to display strong developmental phenotypes (Zheng et al., 2011). This sheds doubt on the effect of the transposon insertion mutant used in this study, which was developmentally normal, that still need to be resolved.

I found that *TCP* genes play an important role in the defense against *G. orontii*. Collectively, TCP TFs were targeted 36 times by OECs, with 23 OECs targeting TCP14 (Table 2). This TF was also targeted by 25 *Hpa* and 4 *Psy* effectors, indicating preferential targeting by filamentous and/or obligate biotrophic pathogens. Accordingly, insertion mutant lines of *TCP14* and *TCP13* show enhanced susceptibility to *Hpa* infection (Petra Epple, personal communication). The insertion mutant lines of all *TCPs* tested (*TCP14*, *TCP13*, *TCP15*, *TCP20*) displayed enhanced susceptibility to *G. orontii*, with *tcp14* showing the most prominent effect. Previously, only very mild or no developmental phenotypes have been observed for TCP single mutants, probably due to functional redundancy (Hervé et al., 2009; Kieffer et al., 2011; Li et al., 2012). The prominent infection phenotype of the single knock-out lines with *G. orontii* thus indicates an important role of these TFs in the defense response. TCP14, TCP15 and TCP20 are class I TCPs, while TCP13 is a member of the CIN subclade of class II TCPs (Martín-Trillo and Cubas, 2010). The TCP TFs have generally been associated with developmental processes and class I and II TCPs seem to act antagonistically (Danisman et al., 2012; Li et al., 2005). The role of type I genes in development has been mostly investigated for TCP20. This TF was found to be involved in the coordination of cell expansion, cell division, and cell growth genes (Hervé et al., 2009; Li et al.,

2005; Tatematsu et al., 2005). TCP14 and TCP15 were found to have redundant functions in the regulation of cell proliferation and the entry into the endocycle (Kieffer et al., 2011) and TCP15 was recently found to regulate endoreduplication (Li et al., 2012). The type II TF TCP13 is localized to both the nucleus and chloroplast and regulates the expression of a photosystem subunit (Baba et al., 2001; Suzuki et al., 2001). Together with other CIN-type TCPs, it is also involved in regulating the morphology of leaves (Efroni et al., 2008; Koyama et al., 2007). TCP14 and TCP13 interact in Y2H (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011), although heterodimerization has previously only been reported for members of the same class (Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002). Accordingly, TCP20 was found to interact with TCP14, TCP15 and several other class I TCPs (Danisman et al., 2012). Several TCP TFs might thus function in a defense-related transcriptional complex to fine tune defense responses. The TCPs interact with several other TFs (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011) and hetero-dimers of TCPs bind DNA more efficiently than homo-dimers (Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002). The site II element bound by TCP genes is also often associated with other *cis*-acting elements (Hervé et al., 2009; Vandepoele et al., 2006), further strengthening the idea of a transcriptional complex involving TCP TFs. Site II elements have been detected with high frequency in 5-10% of Arabidopsis gene promoters, indicating that TCP TFs can regulate a substantial subset of the transcriptome (Welchen and Gonzalez, 2006). But how do these developmental TFs influence the plant response to *G. orontii*?

Several scenarios are possible. Initially, TCP proteins could be regulated by and cooperate with their interactors to induce defense responses. TCP14 and TCP13 interact with each other and WRKY36, a TF that is differentially regulated during defense responses and could potentially bind to W-boxes in defense-related genes (Rushton et al., 2010). Currently, I am therefore investigating the contribution of WRKY36 to the defense against *G. orontii*. TCP14 also interacts with MPK3, a MAP kinase involved in MTI signal transduction (Pitzschke et al., 2009). MPK3 has been shown to phosphorylate and thus activate the defense-related TF WRKY33 (Mao et al., 2011) and the inhibition of MPK3, MPK4 and MPK6 by the *Pseudomonas* effector HopA11 leads to enhanced bacterial virulence, demonstrating the importance of MAP kinase signaling for plant immunity (Zhang et al., 2007). Proteins involved in calcium-signaling, redox-maintenance and other processes with implications for pathogen defense also interact with TCP14, possibly regulating its activity (Mukhtar et al., 2011). The initiation of defense responses is a costly process for the plant, as it leads to reduced fitness (Bolton, 2009). TCP TFs might constitute a platform for the integration of defense and developmental signals, thus fine-tuning the trade-off between growth and immunity.

Currently, I can envision different but connected scenarios for the downstream targets of the TCP transcriptional complex. One potential mechanism is the control of JA levels in the plant. TCP20 has been found to bind to the promoter and along with TCP9 to repress the expression of *LOX2*, a key gene of JA biosynthesis (Danisman et al., 2012). Transposon insertion mutants of class I

TCP genes might thus examine increased JA levels and a JA-based repression of SA responses. The opposite scenario has been described for CIN-type TCPs like TCP13, which are positive regulators of JA biosynthetic genes (Schommer et al., 2008). These proteins are targeted by the phytoplasma effector SAP11, which destabilizes several CIN type TCPs to reduce JA levels in the plant, thus rendering it more susceptible to its insect vector, a grass hopper species (Sugio et al., 2011). A detailed analysis of SA and JA accumulation in the TCP mutants could help to reconcile the similar and opposing roles of class I and II TCPs in the regulation of susceptibility to *G. orontii* and JA biosynthesis. Interestingly, some JA-responsive genes are induced locally at the *G. orontii* infection site (Chandran et al., 2010) and JA-based defenses are effective against *G. orontii* when triggered extensively (Zimmerli et al., 2004), further complicating this scenario.

An additional scenario involves the regulation of the cell cycle by TCP TFs, most importantly the repression of endoreduplication. The endocycle is induced by several cues, including symbiotic interactions with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and rhizobia as well as parasitic interactions with nematodes and *G. orontii* (Bainard et al., 2011; Cebolla et al., 1999; Chandran et al., 2010; Williamson and Hussey, 1996). An inhibition of endoreduplication leads to decreased colonization by both pathogens and symbionts, illustrating its importance for successful infection (Chandran et al., 2010; Vinardell et al., 2003). Endoreduplication is achieved by a modification of the cell cycle, leading to DNA replication but an omission of mitosis, thus doubling cellular DNA content (De Veylder et al., 2011). The class I TCPs positively control cell cycle gene expression, thus linking them to endoreduplication conceptually. The B-type cyclins and cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs) in particular are key regulators of G2 to M phase transition (G2-M) and their inhibition is associated with progression into the endocycle (Boudolf et al., 2004; Porceddu et al., 2001; Schnittger et al., 2002). Notably, the expression of some of these genes is repressed at the *G. orontii* infection site (Chandran et al., 2010). TCP20 partially controls *CyclinB1;1* expression at G2-M by directly binding to its promoter (Li et al., 2005). Additionally, insertion mutants of *TCP14* and *TCP15* show reduced expression of several cell cycle genes along with signs of increased ploidy (Kieffer et al., 2011). Recently, transcriptional repressor fusions or overexpression of *TCP15* were also found to increase and reduce endoreduplication, respectively (Li et al., 2012). This is achieved by binding of TCP15 to the promoters of *Retinoblastoma-related 1 (Rbr1)* and *CyclinA2.3*, which are involved in the negative regulation of endoreduplication (Li et al., 2012). The endoreduplication observed after *G. orontii* infection is dependent on the Myb three repeat (MYB3R) TF MYB3R4 (Chandran et al., 2010). Unfortunately, this protein was not included in the Y2H library, so information on direct MYB – TCP interaction is not available. MYB3R TFs do however also control the expression of G2-M expressed genes, including B-type cyclins, linking them to TCP TFs mechanistically (Haga et al., 2007; Ito et al., 2001a). The transcriptional control is mediated through binding to the M-phase specific activator (MSA) element and its repressor or activator function is controlled by phosphorylation (Haga et al., 2007). Interestingly, the MSA and the site II element that is bound by TCP TFs have cooperative functions in the promoter of *CyclinB1;1* (Li et al., 2005). This could indicate that MYB3R4 and TCP TFs act cooperatively to

regulate the transcription of a specific gene set. Insertion mutant lines of MYBR3A and the TCP TFs do however show contrary phenotypes. While MYBR3A is required for full susceptibility (Chandran et al., 2010), the TCP TFs limit the susceptibility of the host. This is in line with the positive and negative regulatory roles of MYBR3A and TCP TFs in the initiation of endoreduplication, underlining the importance of this process during *G. orontii* pathogenesis. The opposing actions of the TFs could be balanced in the transcriptional complex containing them. Both site II and MSA elements are enriched in promoters of genes differentially regulated at the *G. orontii* infection site, further strengthening this model (Chandran et al., 2010). Interestingly, a SCF complex also partially regulates the switch from cell division to endoreduplication (del Pozo et al., 2006) and the APC marks mitotic cyclins for degradation, thereby promoting endoreduplication (Peters, 2006). Finally, JA also modulates the cell cycle (Pauwels et al., 2008). Several distinct effector targets might therefore be involved for the induction of endoreduplication. At least for nematodes, the specific induction of their multinucleate feeding organs by the manipulation of plant developmental pathways has been described (reviewed in (Gheysen and Mitchum, 2011)). However, it still remains to be investigated if the induction of endoreduplication is cause or consequence of *G. orontii* induced cellular changes.

Endoreduplication in general leads to enhanced expression of genes involved in protein synthesis, carbohydrate metabolism and energy generation as well as increased cell surface area and might thus increase nutrient availability for the pathogen or symbiont (Wildermuth, 2010). These processes are also induced by *G. orontii* infection (Chandran et al., 2010) and, together with the observed down-regulation of photosynthesis-related genes, turn the infection site from a nutrient source to a nutrient sink (Berger et al., 2007; Chandran et al., 2010; Chandran et al., 2009; Swarbrick et al., 2006). The infection by powdery mildews also induces the transcriptional activation of genes coding for cell wall invertases and hexose transporters, further increasing nutrient availability (Chandran et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2010; Swarbrick et al., 2006). The presumed induction of endoreduplication by *G. orontii* effectors would thus help to generate a suitable metabolic environment for colonization. This model requires the translocation of OECs from the fungus to epidermal cells and subsequently to adjacent mesophyll cells. While not described in powdery mildew fungi, the cell-to-cell movement of effectors has been detected in other patho-systems (Djamei et al., 2011; Khang et al., 2010).

The susceptibility phenotypes of the insertion mutants seem to indicate a direct role of host targets in the defense response. This is corroborated by the enhanced susceptibility of *eds1*, which is comprised in both SA-dependent and independent defense pathways. Effector virulence functions have often been investigated for their role in suppressing the defense response, and this approach has been successful in uncovering important components of host immunity (Feng and Zhou, 2012). However, it is also conceivable that these mutants induce a cellular state more permissive to *G. orontii* infection. This has been described for TAL-effectors of the rice pathogen *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. *oryzae* (Antony et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2006) which induce the

transcription of genes coding for SWEET type glucose transporters, presumably to increase glucose availability in the apoplast (Chen et al., 2010). In Arabidopsis, SWEET transporters are also induced by *Pst* and powdery mildew infection (Chen et al., 2010). Importantly, a subset of *SWEETs* is induced in a T3SS-dependent manner, implicating effectors in their induction. Another TAL effector, AvrBs3, induces hypertrophy (increased cell size) of mesophyll cells, probably to facilitate bacterial release from the plant (Marois et al., 2002). Hypertrophy is often associated with endoreduplication (Breuer et al., 2010), but the ploidy level of hypertrophic mesophyll cells remains to be determined. In the future, fungal effectors needed for the induction of nutrient leakage and haustorium formation will certainly be uncovered.

In this study, I characterized the functions of host proteins in the defense response after the assessment of insertion mutant lines. While frequently and successfully used in the past, this tool does have a pitfall. In network terms, insertion mutants lead to node removal (absence of the protein and all its interactions), rather than the loss or change of edges (differences in protein affinity or specificity) (Dreze et al., 2009; Zhong et al., 2009). For pathogen effectors, at least of bacteria, the manipulation of host proteins is as important as degradation (Feng and Zhou, 2012). Many interesting virulence targets might thus be missed by insertion mutant screens. Accordingly, more than 50% of human diseases are associated with amino acid changes (~edgetic perturbation) rather than severe truncations of proteins (~node removal), suggesting that alterations in protein affinity can have strong impacts on cellular networks (Zhong et al., 2009).

3.3.9 Y2H interactions can be confirmed by BiFC

Finally, I attempted to confirm the interaction of shortlisted OECs with their respective targets derived from Y2H. Four of twelve tested interactions could be confirmed (Figure 15), a ratio expected from previous large scale interactome confirmation attempts (Braun et al., 2009; Venkatesan et al., 2009). Unfortunately, the interactions of OECs with CSN5a, TCP14 and TCP13 were not among the confirmed interactions. These proteins are targeted by several other effectors and the additional interactions remain to be confirmed. The interaction of OEC65 and PRA1.F1, PRA1.F2 and PRA1.F3 gave positive signals in BiFC, making these proteins prime candidates for further characterization (for discussion see above). In addition, I could confirm the interaction of OEC56 and NAP1.1. NAP1.1 and its three paralogs NAP1.2-4 are putative histone chaperones (Park and Luger, 2006) and have been found to bind H2A *in vitro* (Liu et al., 2009b). NAP1.1 and its paralogs are primarily localized to the cytoplasm, where the interaction with OEC56 was observed. A fusion protein of OEC56 and Citrine was however detected almost exclusively in the nucleus (Figure 10). Binding of OEC56 to NAP1.1 might thus mask its NLS or induce a NAP1.1-mediated exclusion of the hybrid from the nucleus, thereby shifting the balance between nuclear and cytoplasmic pools of both OEC56 and NAP1.1. Currently, these two scenarios cannot be discriminated. Also, no infection phenotype was detected for the *nap1.1* insertion mutant (Figure 14), in line with the genetic redundancy and compensatory expression

observed for the *NAP1* paralogs (Liu et al., 2009b). Roles for NAP1 proteins in nucleotide excision repair, transcriptional processes, homologous recombination and ABA responses have been described (Gao et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2009a; Liu et al., 2009b). The role of NAP1 proteins in these processes can be explained by the regulation of chromatin accessibility. The role of chromatin modifications in defense signaling is only beginning to be elucidated, but defense gene expression is certainly relying on a permissive chromatin state (Berr et al., 2012). OEC56 might thus modify NAP1.1-dependent H2A/B insertions to repress the expression of certain genes. The expression of this effector is induced rather late (>24 hpi), suggesting it interferes with late host responses. Interestingly, NAP1.1 has been found to interact with PNM1 (PPR protein localized to the nucleus and mitochondria 1) in the nucleus and this protein in turn interacts with TCP8 (Hammani et al., 2011). This interaction could link NAP1.1 to the TCP-dependent transcriptional processes described above.

3.4 Concluding remarks

In this thesis, I have established new protocols for the quantification of powdery mildew pathogenesis on *Arabidopsis* and analyzed the haustorial transcriptome of *G. orontii*. In addition, I have identified and characterized a subset of the effector arsenal used by the biotrophic powdery mildew fungus *G. orontii*. Some of these effectors can suppress cell death and enhance the virulence of bacteria delivering them to the plant. I have characterized the subcellular localization and expression profiles of selected candidates and subsequently determined the host-pathogen interactome of the OECs. This uncovered a multitude of host processes targeted by effectors, among them vesicle trafficking, protein degradation, hormone signaling and endoreduplication. The screen complements previously described interactomes and revealed common host targets of three unrelated phytopathogens. These targets are highly connected in the host interactome and are required for an efficient immune response against *G. orontii*, further corroborating the hypothesis that pathogens specifically target hubs to promote susceptibility. The effector targets identified will therefore form the basis of subsequent effector research in this patho-system. Additionally, a network analysis of plant-pathogen interactions will hopefully provide a tool for an integrated view of the multiple evolutionary forces shaping the plant immune response at the systems level.

4 Materials and Methods

4.1 Materials

4.1.1 Plant material

In this study the *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 genotype and the *edr1-1* (Frye and Innes, 1998), *eds1-2* (Bartsch et al., 2006), *pmr4-1* (Vogel and Somerville, 2000), *mlo2-6* single and *mlo2-5 mlo6-2 mlo12-1* triple mutants (Consonni et al., 2006) in the Col-0 genetic background were used. Additionally, a transgenic line expressing *NahG* (Gaffney et al., 1993) in the Col-0 genetic background was employed. The set of homozygous T-DNA insertion lines screened is described in Supplemental Table 11. Two different plant densities were used for growing. Either approximately 100 seeds were sown per pot of soil substrate and five pots were used per genotype (quantification of powdery mildew infection) or five plants/ pot were used (EDV assays, qRT-PCR). After stratification for 2 d at 4°C in darkness plants were grown for 18 d (quantification) or 4-5 weeks at a day/night cycle of 10/14 h in a light chamber with 22°C/20°C day/night temperature and a relative humidity of 60%.

4.1.2 Strains and plasmids

Below the bacterial and yeast strains as well as cloning and expression vectors used in this study are presented. *Escherichia coli*, *Agrobacteria*, *Pseudomonas* and yeast were grown at 37°C, 28°C, 28°C (all 220rpm) and 30°C (180rpm), respectively.

Table 4: Strains of microorganisms used in this study.

Organism	Strain	Source	Resistance
<i>E. coli</i>	DH5α	Invitrogen, Heidelberg, Germany	Nalidixic acid
<i>E. coli</i>	DB3.1	Invitrogen, Heidelberg, Germany	Spec Strep
<i>E. coli</i>	TOP10	Invitrogen, Heidelberg, Germany	Spec Strep
<i>E. coli</i>	HB101 pRK2013	Jonathan Jones, Sainsbury Lab, Norwich, UK	Kan
<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i>	GV3101 pMP90RK	Csaba Conz, MPIPZ, Cologne, Germany	Rif Kan
<i>A. tumefaciens</i>	C58C1 pGV2260	Csaba Conz, MPIPZ, Cologne, Germany	Rif Carb
<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> pv. <i>tomato</i> (<i>Pst</i>)	DC3000	Roger Innes, Indiana University, USA	Rif
<i>Pst</i>	LUC	Jonathan Jones, Sainsbury Lab, Norwich, UK	Rif Kan
<i>Pst</i>	ΔCEL	Jonathan Jones, Sainsbury Lab, Norwich, UK	Rif Spec Strep
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	Y8800	Pascal Braun, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, USA	
<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	Y8930	Pascal Braun, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, USA	

Table 5: Vectors used in this study.

Vector	Source	Resistance
p35S-GW-Citrine	Anja Reinstädler, MPIPZ, Cologne, Germany	Amp
pAM-PAT-GW-3xHA	Anja Reinstädler, MPIPZ, Cologne, Germany	Amp
pB7WG2-Strep-HA-GW	Jaqueline Bautor, MPIPZ, Cologne, Germany	Spec Strep
pB7WG2-ChNLP1	Jochen Kleeman, MPIPZ, Cologne, Germany	Spec Strep
pB7WG2-Strep-HA-PiINF1	Jaqueline Bautor, MPIPZ, Cologne, Germany	
pCR8/GW/TOPO	Invitrogen, Heidelberg, Germany	Spec Strep
pDON201	Invitrogen, Heidelberg, Germany	Kan
pEDV6	Jonathan Jones, Sainsbury Lab, Norwich, UK	Gent
pUBC-nYFP	Christopher Grefen, University of Glasgow, UK	Spec Strep
pUBC-cYFP	Christopher Grefen, University of Glasgow, UK	Spec Strep
pDEST-AD	Pascal Braun, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, USA	Spec Strep/ TRP1
pDEST-DB	Pascal Braun, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, USA	Spec Strep/ LEU2

4.1.3 Reagents, chemicals and antibiotics

Restriction enzymes were purchased from New England Biolabs (NEB, Frankfurt/Main, Germany) and Fermentas (St. Leon-Rot, Germany). Restriction digestions were performed following the manufacturer's instructions, using the provided 10 x reaction buffer.

Laboratory grade chemicals and reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Deisenhofen, Germany), Roche (Mannheim, Germany), Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany), Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), Invitrogen (Karlsruhe, Germany), Serva (Heidelberg, Germany), Duchefa (Haarlem, The Netherlands) and Thermo Fisher Scientific (Rockford, USA) unless otherwise stated.

The antibiotics used and their stock concentration are listed below.

Table 6: Antibiotics used in this study.

Antibiotic	Stock	Solvent	Source
Ampicilin	50 mg/mL	H2O	Roth
Carbencilin	50 mg/mL	H2O	Sigma
Gentamycin	25 mg/mL	H2O	Sigma
Kanamycin	50 mg/mL	H2O	Sigma
Rifampicin	100 mg/mL	DMSO	Sigma
Spectinomycin	50 mg/mL	H2O	Duchefa
Streptomycin	25 mg/mL	H2O	Sigma

4.1.4 Antibodies

Primary and secondary antibodies used in this study are listed below.

Table 7: Antibodies used in this study.

Antibody	Source	Conjugate	Dilution	Source
anti-HA	rat, monoclonal		1:5000	Roche
anti-GFP	mouse, monoclonal (7.1 and 13.1)		1:5000	Roche
anti-rat IgG	goat, polyclonal	Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)	1:5000	Santa Cruz Biotechnology
anti-mouse IgG	rabbit, polyclonal	HRP	1:5000	Sigma

4.1.5 Media

Sterilized media were used for growing bacteria or yeast. For sterilization, media were autoclaved for 20 min at 121°C and cooled down prior to adding heat instable antibiotics or other supplements. Heat instable compounds were filter-sterilized before use. Agar for 1.5 % agar plate preparation was purchased from Becton (Franklin Lakes, USA). Bacterial media compositions are outlined below.

<u>NYG medium (<i>Pst</i>)</u>	<u>LB medium (<i>E.coli</i>)</u>	<u>YEB medium (<i>A.tumefaciens</i>)</u>
Bactopeptone 5 g/l	Tryptone 10 g/l	Beef extract 5 g/l
Yeast extract 3 g/l	Yeast extract 5 g/l	Yeast extract 1 g/l
Glycerol 20 ml/l	NaCl 5 g/l	Tryptone 3 g/l
pH 7.0	pH 7.0	Sucrose 5 g/l
		pH 7.2

For a detailed description of yeast media see Dreze et al. (2009).

4.2 Methods

4.2.1 Standard molecular and biochemical methods

4.1.2.1 Agarose gel electrophoresis

DNA fragments were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis in gels of 1 - 2 % (w/v) agarose (Bio-Budget Technologies, Krefeld, Germany) supplied with ethidium bromide solution (1:40000) in TAE buffer (400 mM Tris-HCl; 10 mM Na₂-ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA); 200 mM acetic acid; pH 8.5).

4.1.2.2 DNA sequencing

DNA sequences were determined by the “Automated DNA isolation and sequencing” (ADIS) service unit at the Max-Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research (Cologne, Germany) on Abi Prism 377 and 3700 sequencers (Applied Biosystems, Weiterstadt, Germany) using Big Dye-terminator chemistry. Sequence data were analyzed using LaserGene suite version 8.00 (DNASar, Madison, USA).

4.1.2.3 **Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)**

For non-cloning purposes, PCR reactions were performed using home-made *Taq* DNA polymerase in a DNA engine Tetrad 2 (Bio-Rad, Munich, Germany). A 10 x PCR buffer containing 750mM Tris-HCl pH 8.8; 200 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄; 0.1 % (v/v) Tween 20; 25 mM MgCl₂ was used. For cloning of OECs and Arabidopsis genes, a proof-reading polymerase (Phusion, NEB) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions. For a list of primers used see Supplemental Table 1.

4.1.2.4 **Total plant protein extract**

Plant material was frozen in liquid nitrogen and homogenized in lysis buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5; 13 % Sucrose; 1 mM EDTA; 1 mM DTT; 0.01 % Triton, 1x complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)) using a concentric drill. Samples were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm, 4 °C for 10 min and the supernatant retained. Subsequently, 2x loading buffer (125 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8; 5 % sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS); 25 % Glycerol (v/v); 0,025 % Bromphenol blue (w/v); 0.2 M DTT) was added, samples incubated at 96°C for 5 min and used for SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE).

4.1.2.5 **SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting**

Denaturing SDS-PAGE was carried out using the Mini-PROREAN® 3 system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, USA) and discontinuous SDS-polyacrylamide gels according to standard procedures (Laemmli, 1970). A separating gel (Table 8) was poured between two glass plates and overlaid with isopropanol. After polymerization the isopropanol was removed and a stacking gel was poured onto the separating gel (Table 8). The gel was placed into the electrophoresis tank and submerged in 1x SDS running buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl; 250 mM Glycine; 0.1 % SDS). A pre-stained molecular weight marker (Precision plus protein standard dual color, Bio-Rad) and 35µl denatured protein samples were loaded onto the gel and run at 100 V (stacking gel) and 130 V (separating gel).

Proteins were transferred to a Hybond™-ECL™ nitrocellulose membrane (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK) in a Mini Trans-Blot® Cell (Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer's instruction. The transfer was carried out in 1 x transfer buffer (15 mM NaPO₄; 0.05 % SDS; 20 % Ethanol) at 100 V for 1 h or 30mA o/n. Subsequently, membranes were stained with Ponceau S (0.5 % Ponceau S (w/v) in 5 % (v/v) acetic acid) for 10 min, washed 3 x 5 min with TBS-T (10 mM Tris, 1.5 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 0.05% (v/v) Tween20) and blocked for 1 h in TBS-T containing 5 % (w/v) non-fat dry milk (AppliedChem, Germany). The blocking solution was removed and membranes were washed 3 x 5 min with TBS-T. Incubation with primary antibodies was carried out overnight by slowly shaking at 4 °C in TBS-T or 2h at RT. Membranes were washed 3 x 5 min with TBS-T at room temperature. Bound primary antibodies were detected using HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies diluted in TBS-T for 1 h at room temperature. For antibodies see

Table 7. Membranes were washed 3 x 5 min with TBS-T. Finally, bands were visualized using a 1:1 mixture of Super Signal West Pico and Femto kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and imaged with Kodak scientific imaging film.

Table 8: Composition of SDS-PAGE gels used in this study.

	Separating Gel			Stacking Gel	
	8%	10%	12%		
H ₂ O	9,2 ml	4 ml	3 ml	H ₂ O	6,8 ml
Polyacrylamide 30%	5,4 ml	5 ml	6 ml	Polyacrylamide 30 %	1,66 ml
1M Tris pH8,8	5,0 ml	5,7 ml	5,7 ml	1 M Tris pH6,8	1,26 ml
10% SDS	0,2 ml	150 µl	150 µl	10% SDS	100 µl
10% APS	0,2 ml	150 µl	150 µl	10% APS	100 µl
TEMED	12 µl	6 µl	6 µl	TEMED	10 µl

4.1.2.6 Trypan Blue staining

Trypan Blue staining was used to reveal the occurrence of plant cell death. Before the experiment, a Trypan Blue Stock solution (10 mg Trypan Blue (Sigma) in 40 ml lactophenol) was diluted 1:1 with ethanol. Leaves were boiled for 1 min in 500 µl of fresh trypan blue working solution, destained for 1 h in 4 ml chloral hydrate and destained a second time o/n with gentle agitation. Finally, chloral hydrate was removed and samples were stored in 70% glycerol.

4.1.2.7 Coomassie staining

For the visualization of fungal structures, seedlings were harvested at indicated time points and destained and stored in ethanol: glacial acetic acid 3:1 (v/v). Fungal structures were stained with 0,6% Coomassie Brilliant Blue in ethanol as described previously (Göllner et al., 2008) and brightfield images obtained using an AxioImager.A2 system with an AxioCam HRc (Zeiss, Jena, Germany).

Powdery mildew inoculations

The *G. orontii* isolate MPIPZ was propagated on four week old *eds1* plants and conidia were used at 11-21 dpi. Inoculations were either performed by brush inoculations (Göllner et al., 2008) or by using a simple 80 cm high cardboard settling tower whose opening was covered with a 80 µm nylon mesh (Reuber et al., 1998). The tower contained up to nine pots per inoculation. Therefore, consecutive rounds of infection had to be used. In each round, pots of different genotypes were included. A fine paint brush was used to harvest conidia from four heavily infected leaves and to separate the conidia by brushing them through the nylon mesh. Inoculation

density was approximately 750 spores/cm². Newly inoculated plants were then returned to the growth chamber.

4.2.2 Quantification of powdery mildew infection

4.2.2.1 Genomic DNA extraction

Ten seedlings per genotype were harvested across pots and frozen in liquid nitrogen. Genomic DNA was extracted essentially as previously described (Brouwer et al., 2003). Approximately 15 1 mm and 100 mg 0.2 mm diameter glass beads were added and the frozen material was disrupted in a MM400 mixer mill (Retsch, Haan, Germany) for 2x 1 min at 30 Hz. Subsequently, 300 µl lysis buffer (2.5 M LiCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 62.5 mM EDTA, and 4.0% Triton X-100, pH 8.0) and an equal volume of phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1 v/v, Roth) were added and samples were homogenized for 30 s at 30 Hz in the mixer mill. After centrifugation (5 min, 16.000 g) the supernatant was recovered and the genomic DNA was precipitated by the addition of two volumes of 100% ethanol, incubation for 15 min at -20°C and another round of centrifugation. The DNA pellet was washed with 70% ethanol, air dried and resuspended in Millipore water. DNA quality and concentration were inspected on a Nanodrop system (Thermo Scientific).

4.2.2.2 qPCR on genomic DNA

For qPCR 15 µl samples were prepared using the Brilliant Sybr Green QPCR Reagent Kit (Stratagene, Waldbronn, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The *Taq* DNA polymerase provided was replaced by another *Taq* polymerase (Ampliqon, Odense, Denmark) and the according standard buffer. Final primer concentration of 0.4 µM and three technical replicates per sample were employed. qPCR was carried out according to the following protocol: denaturation at 95°C for 3 min, 40 repeats of 95°C for 20 s, 61°C for 20 s and 72°C for 15 s. A melting curve analysis was conducted from 55°C-95°C in 0.5°C steps and 10 s dwell time to confirm the amplification of single amplicons. Additionally, amplicon size and identity were confirmed on a 2% agarose gel and by DNA sequencing, respectively. The ratio of *G. orontii* to Arabidopsis genomic DNA was calculated using the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method (Pfaffl, 2001).

4.2.2.3 Spore counts

For the establishment of the method the following protocol was used: At 6 dpi, three samples of approximately 500 mg of seedlings were harvested per genotype. Five ml H₂O was added and spores liberated by vortexing for 30 s at maximum speed. The spore solution was filtered through Miracloth (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) to remove large debris and spores were 4-fold concentrated by centrifugation (5 min, 4000g). For each sample, spores were counted in eight 1 mm² fields of a Neubauer-improved haemocytometer (Marienfeld, Lauda-Königshofen, Germany) and results were averaged. Finally, spore counts were normalized to the initial weight of seedlings.

During the continued application of the method I realized that sampling at 7dpi is generally more reliable and allows omitting the centrifugation step. Therefore this modified protocol was used for the results in Figure 14 and Supplemental Figure 5.

4.2.3 Generation and analysis of the haustorial library

The isolation of haustorial complexes and library generation was performed and partially described previously (Micali et al., 2011). Briefly, infected leaves of *NahG*-expressing plants were harvested at 4-6 dpi, homogenized, and haustorial complexes were isolated by isopycnic centrifugation on a Percoll cushion. RNA was extracted from the haustorial fraction using the RNeasy Plant Miniprep Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. A non-normalized cDNA library was synthesized from 3.5 µg total RNA with the Mint-Universal kit (Evrogen, Moscow, Russia). 454 sequencing libraries were constructed by using self-made adaptors with Multiplex Identifiers (MIDs) following Roche's technical bulletin TCB 09004 introducing *Sfi*I restriction sites (Knaust et al., unpublished results). The so obtained 454 libraries were immobilized on beads and clonally amplified using the GS FLX Titanium LV emPCR Kit. The libraries were then sequenced using the GS FLX Titanium Sequencing Kit XLR70 and GS FLX Titanium PicoTiterPlate Kit on a GS FLX Instrument (Roche 454 Life Sciences, Mannheim, Germany). All kits used were purchased from Roche 454 Life Sciences and used according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Only reads were included in the assembly that mapped with at least 100 bases (BLASTN, $\geq 95\%$ identity) to the draft genome assembly of *G. orontii*, leaving 679,000 reads. Adapters were removed using the cross_match algorithm (minmatch=8, minscore=12). In total, 620,000 reads were placed into 31,051 contigs by the MIRA assembler version 3 (job='denovo,est,normal,454', 454_SETTINGS '-LR:mxti=no -CL:qc=no:mbc=yes') (<http://sourceforge.net/projects/mira-assembler/>). For contigs that aligned to the same regions of the genome (best BLASTn hit) only the contig with the highest AC was selected, which resulted in a set of 20,259 unique contigs. Open reading frames were predicted from these contigs using BestORF with the *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* matrix (Softberry, Mount Kisco, NY, U.S.A.). Predicted proteins were then annotated by Blast2GO (Conesa et al., 2005) using default parameters. Briefly, sequences were compared to the non-redundant database at NCBI by BLASTp ($e < 1e-5$) (Altschul et al., 1990), Gene ontology (GO) terms were retrieved from the Top20 BLAST hits and, together with GO terms obtained by InterProScan analysis (InterPro version 29.0), used for *de novo* functional annotation of predicted proteins. If necessary, categorization was completed by hand. Only contigs with ≥ 5 AC were used for subsequent analysis. For visualization, sequences were grouped into categories according to the GOSlim file for *Candida albicans* (http://www.candidagenome.org/download/go/go_slim/). Secreted proteins were predicted from Open reading frames (ORFs) containing a genuine start codon by SignalP 3.0 (HMM_Sprob ≥ 0.9) (Bendtsen et al., 2004). Transmembrane proteins were excluded by TMHMM analysis

(<http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM>) of protein sequences lacking the first 20 amino acids (to prevent the false-positive assignment of N-terminal signal peptides as transmembrane domains).

The enrichment analysis was performed using the Blast2GO Fisher's exact test plugin with default parameters.

4.2.4 qRT-PCR

Four to five week old plants were infected with *G. orontii* by brush inoculation and total leaf material was harvested at indicated time points. For the samples containing total mycelium, eight infected leaves from four different wild type plants were harvested per time point, pooled, and directly frozen in liquid nitrogen. For mycelium-removed samples, cellulose acetate peelings were performed at 24 hpi and subsequent time points (72 hpi, 7 dpi) by painting ~15 leaves from 8 plants with 5% cellulose acetate in acetone using a fine brush. After the evaporation of acetone the mycelium was peeled off, the leaves were pooled and directly frozen in liquid nitrogen. The experiment was repeated once with wild type and once with *NahG* transgenic plants. For both sample types, total RNA was extracted from 100 mg tissue with the RNeasy Plant Miniprep Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was synthesized using Superscript II Reverse Transcriptase (Roche) with oligo-dT primers according to the manufacturer's instructions. qRT-PCR was carried out with three technical replicas of cDNA corresponding to 75 ng RNA in an iQ5Cycler (Bio-Rad). The iQSybr Mastermix (Bio-Rad) was used with 0.5 μ M final concentration of each primer and amplification conducted according to the following protocol: denaturation at 95°C for 3 min, then 40 repeats of 95°C 20 s, 55°C 20 s, 72°C 10 s. Subsequently, a melting curve analysis of 55-95°C in 0.5°C steps with a dwell time of 10 s per step was used to verify the amplification of single amplicons. In addition, amplicons were visualized on a 2% agarose gel and their identity confirmed by DNA sequencing. Expression was calculated relative to *Go β -tubulin* (GoEST_4780) using the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method (Pfaffl, 2001). Sequences and amplification efficiencies of oligonucleotide primers used are given in Supplemental Table 1.

4.2.5 Transmission electron microscopy

Preparation of samples (high pressure freezing, freeze substitution, embedding and sectioning) and transmission electron microscopy of haustorial complexes was performed as described in Micali et al. (2011).

4.2.6 Prediction and bioinformatic analysis of effectors

The set of secreted proteins identified in the analysis of the haustorial cDNA library (4.2.3) was used as the starting point of OEC prediction. The set of candidates was extended by lowering the SignalP threshold to 0.8 and using all contigs with ≥ 2 AC. Additionally, a size cut-off of ≥ 60 amino acids was implemented. The absence of homologs for these proteins in unrelated species was

confirmed by repeated BLAST analysis. In a second round of predictions, the set 491 *Bgh* CSEPs (Pedersen et al., unpublished) and effector candidates from the first round were used as templates for the tBLASTn and BLASTp analysis of the haustorial cDNA library. Putative homologs or paralogs of predicted effectors were then subjected to SignalP and TMHMM analysis to prevent false positives. This process was repeated twice to generate a list of 115 OECs. These effector candidates were then analyzed for their cysteine content, occurrence of the YxC motif (Godfrey et al., 2010) and the presence of putative NLS by NLStradamus and NucPred (Brameier et al., 2007; Nguyen Ba et al., 2009). Finally, the conservation of OECs in the genomes of *Bgh* and *E. pisi* was queried by tBLASTn (Spanu et al., 2010). A multiple sequence alignment of the OECs was created by ClustalW (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalw2/>) and imported into MEGA4 (Tamura et al., 2007). The phylogeny was computed with default parameters using the Neighbor-joining algorithm and a p-distance model for amino acid substitutions.

4.2.7 *Pseudomonas* EDV assays

Transgenic *Pst* clones were prepared by standard triparental mating. *Pst* or *Pst* Δ CEL, *E. coli* carrying pEDV6-OEC constructs and the *E. coli* helper strain HB101 (pRK2013) were grown on plate overnight (o/n), mixed 2:1:1 in H₂O, washed once and transferred onto 1 % agar LB plates without antibiotics. After o/n incubation the mixture was streaked onto selective NYGA plates and grown 2-3 days. Three independent single colonies were restreaked and analyzed by colony PCR. Positive clones were checked for luciferase and EDV construct expression.

Luciferase expression was determined by growing strains in 1 mL of NYG o/n, 20-fold dilution with fresh medium and further growth until OD_{600nm} 0.2. Cultures were then diluted to OD_{600nm} 0.15, 0.1 and 0.05 and luciferase activity was measured for 10s in a luminometer (Centro LB 960 microplate luminometer, Berthold Technologies, Wildbach, Germany).

The expression of AvrRPS4-HA-OEC fusion proteins was determined by an *in vitro* secretion assay similar to previously described (Fabro et al., 2011). *Pst* strains were grown o/n in 25 ml liquid media to high density, centrifuged, washed twice with 10 mM MgCl₂ and diluted to OD_{600nm} 0.3 in 20 ml minimal media (50 mM potassium phosphate buffer, 7.6 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄, 1.7 mM MgCl₂, 1.7 mM NaCl, pH 6.0, with 20 mM glucose added). The cultures were incubated at 22°C and 200 rpm o/n to a final OD_{600nm} of 1.0. Cells were harvested from 1mL culture, resuspended in 2x loading buffer, lysed at 96°C for 10min and used for Western Blotting (pellet fraction). The residual culture was spun down (5200g, 15min, 4°C), the supernatant was retained and filtered through a 0.2µm pore filter. The supernatant was then concentrated to 2ml final volume in 9kDa cut-off protein concentrator columns (Thermo Fisher Scientific) by sequential centrifugations (5200g, 4°C, 20min). Proteins in the concentrated supernatant were precipitated using 10 µl Strataclean beads (Stratagene, Santa Clara, USA) per ml supernatant. The mixture was incubated 15 min at 4°C inverting gently, centrifuged at 2000 g for 2 min and re-suspended in 60 µl 2x loading buffer containing 0.1 M NaOH (supernatant fraction). Samples were boiled for 5

minutes at 96°C and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 30 minutes before loading. The pellet and supernatant fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE, electro blotted onto nitrocellulose membrane, and probed with anti-HA and the secondary anti-rat IgG antibody.

The preliminary Luciferase-based screen was carried out as follows. Fresh bacteria were diluted in H₂O, plated on selective media and incubated o/n. Before spraying, plants were incubated in a high humidity environment for 3h to open stomata. The bacteria were harvested in 10 mM MgCl₂, OD_{600nm} adjusted to 0.2 in 10 mM MgCl₂ with 0.04% Silwet L-77 (Lehle seeds, USA) and sprayed onto plants until droplet run-off. Leaves were allowed to dry and plants incubated for three days in a growth cabinet with a 10/14 h day/night cycle at 23°C. Four leaves were harvested from three replicated pots, washed in 70% ethanol and two times in H₂O. One leaf disc was punched from each leaf and measured in a luminometer for 10 s. Means and standard errors were calculated. *Pst* pEDV-OEC strains with ≥ 10-fold enhanced growth relative to the pEDV-YFP control (provided by Jacqueline Bautor, MPIPZ) in three of four repeated experiments were selected for subsequent bacterial titer analyses.

For bacterial titer analysis, infections were performed as described above. At day zero, three biological replicates with three leaves per replicate were harvested, surface sterilized and leaf discs isolated. These were collected in 1 mL 10 mM MgCl₂ with 0.01% Silwet L-77 and bacteria isolated by shaking at 28°C, 650 rpm. 20 µl aliquots were plated on selective plates and scored after two days at 28°C. At day three, bacteria were isolated using the same procedure but only 500 µl 10 mM MgCl₂ with 0.01% Silwet. After isolation, a five step 10-fold dilution series in 10 mM MgCl₂ was prepared. 20 µl aliquots were plated on selective plates and incubated at 28°C. Colonies were counted two days later. Means and standard errors were calculated and significant differences determined by a two-tailed Student's t-test. Only strains with 10-fold enhanced growth relative to the pEDV-YFP control were used for subsequent analyses.

To determine if OECs could suppress callose deposition, *Pst*, *Pst* ΔCEL and *Pst* ΔCEL pEDV clones were used. Bacteria and plants were prepared as described above, but Silwet L77 was omitted. Leaves were infiltrated with bacteria or 10 mM MgCl₂ using a 1 ml syringe and plants were stored in the lab until harvest. At 12-14 hpi, 20 leaves were harvested per *Pst* strain, and destained in 100% Methanol three times. Callose was stained with 0.05% Aniline blue in 50 mM Phosphate buffer (pH 8.5) for at least 24 hrs. Samples were analyzed on an AxioImagerA2 system at 10x magnification. Callose foci were counted by automated image analysis using ImageJ (Abramoff et al., 2004). Parameters applied were Threshold low=9000 high=1683; Analyze Particles size=10-150, circularity 0.5-1. The mean and standard deviation was calculated and three independent experiments were integrated to generate Figure 9B.

4.2.8 Transient expression assays

4.8.2.1 Transient expression in *N. benthamiana*

For transient expression studies in *N. benthamiana*, OECs were transferred into pAM-PAT-GW-3xHA, p35S-GW-Citrine or pUBC-GW-cYFP vectors by recombination. Arabidopsis proteins were cloned into pDONR201 and transferred to pUBC-GW-nYFP. Recombinant plasmids were isolated and transformed into *A. tumefaciens* GV3101 pMP90RK (pAM-PAT and p35S vectors) or C58C1 pGV2260 (pUBC vectors). Positive clones were used for subsequent experiments.

The infiltration protocol used for cell death assays and localization studies is derived from (Kleemann et al., 2012). To analyze the necrosis-suppressing function of OECs, Agrobacteria containing vectors for either OEC, YFP or necrosis-necrosis inducing peptide expression were grown overnight to stationary phase, harvested (5000g, 15min, RT) and resuspended to OD_{600nm} 0.5 (OECs) and 1 (necrosis-inducing peptides) in infiltration buffer (10 mM 2-(*N*-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES), pH 5.6; 10 mM MgCl₂; 200 μM Acetosyringon). After incubation at RT for 4h, Agrobacteria solutions harboring the inducing peptides were mixed with OEC or YFP strains 1:10. The mixtures were then infiltrated into the abaxial side of leaves of five week old *N. benthamiana* plants using a needle-less syringe. Combinations of YFP or OEC and the necrosis-inducing peptide were infiltrated on opposite sides of the same leaf. Subsequently, plants were incubated in a controlled environment chamber (19 °C/21 °C day/night temperature cycles and 16-h-light/8-h-dark cycles. Macroscopic symptoms on three leaves from three different plants were documented per OEC at 7 dpi.

A similar protocol was used for the localization studies. Infiltration cultures were prepared from Agrobacteria carrying OEC-Citrine fusions (OD_{600nm} 0.5) and the p19 silencing suppressor (final OD_{600nm} 0.1) (Voinnet et al., 2003), respectively. The mixtures were infiltrated and plants incubated as described above. At 2dpi, Citrine fluorescence was visualized by CLSM on a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta for at least three epidermal cells on two different leaves.

For the BiFC analysis, a modified protocol was employed as described (Grefen et al., 2010). Agrobacterium cultures were grown to early stationary phase (OD_{600nm} ~2.5) and diluted 1:10 in fresh medium. After 6 h incubation (28°C, 220rpm, OD_{600nm} 1-2), bacteria were harvested (5000g, 15min, RT) and resuspended to OD_{600nm} 0.4 in infiltration buffer. Agrobacteria solutions of corresponding BiFC candidates were mixed 1:1 and directly used for leaf infiltrations. BiFC signals were visualized at 3 dpi, which corresponds to the highest expression from the vectors used (Grefen et al., 2010), by CLSM on a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta for at least three epidermal cells on two different leaves.

4.8.2.2 Particle bombardment of Arabidopsis

Ballistic transformation of single Arabidopsis epidermal cells was performed similar to previously described (Schweizer et al., 1999; Shirasu et al., 1999). Briefly, gold particles of 1 µm diameter (Bio-Rad) were coated with 1 µg OEC-Citrine and mCherry plasmids and biolistically delivered into detached leaves of 4 week old Arabidopsis plants using a particle gun equipped with a Hepta adapter (Biolistic PDS-1000/He, Bio-Rad). At 2 dpi, fluorescence was visualized by CLSM on a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta for at least three epidermal cells on two different leaves.

4.2.9 Yeast-two-hybrid

A detailed protocol of the Y2H pipeline used is presented in (Dreze et al., 2010). I will summarize the protocol below.

The 84 cloned OECs were transferred into pDest-AD and pDest-DB vectors by recombination. Successful recombination was confirmed by PCR analysis. Isolated destination clones were transferred into *S. cerevisiae* Y8930 (for DB clones; MAT α) and *S. cerevisiae* Y8890 (for AD clones; MAT α) by Lithium-Acetate based transformation. Transgenic clones were selected on selective medium and stored in 20% glycerol at -80°C before use. For autoactivator removal, DB- and AD-OEC clones were mated with yeast clones containing an empty bait or prey vector on YPED medium. After o/n incubation, colonies were transferred to selective media for diploid yeast (Sc-Leu-Trp) and incubated o/n. Then, diploid colonies were transferred to interaction media (Sc-Leu-Trp-His + 3-Amino-1,2,4-triazole (3-AT)), incubated o/n and replica-cleaned (excess yeasts were removed by pushing plates onto a fine velvet on a replica plating block). Three days later, growth phenotypes were scored and autoactivators removed from the OEC libraries. The AD-OEC yeast clones were pooled by separately growing o/n and unification into one solution. Equal representation of clones in pools was confirmed by plating and colony PCR on 30 colonies. The Arabidopsis library used is described in (Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium, 2011; Mukhtar et al., 2011). For the screen, single DB-OEC clones were mated with pools of 192 AD-At clones, while single DB-At clones were screened against the AD-OEC pool. The screen was repeated once. Five µl of freshly grown DB- and AD- yeast were spotted on top of each other on YPED medium using a robotic fluid handling device. Plates were incubated o/n, colonies replated onto interaction medium as well as autoactivator test plates, incubated o/n and replica-cleaned. After five days incubation, single colonies were isolated and rearranged into 96-well plates. These primary positive interactors were reevaluated in a secondary screen. They were plated onto diploid-selection medium, incubated two days, and transferred to interaction medium plates (Sc-Leu-Trp-His+3-AT). Three autoactivator plates (Sc-Leu-His + 1 mM 3-AT + CHX (1 mg/l)) were also included. Plates were replica-cleaned and incubated three days. Positive clones were restreaked to diploid selection medium, incubated two days and lysed. PCR was used to obtain sequence information on corresponding AD- and DB-clones per colony. The interactors were identified by BLAST searches, single clones of these interactors retrieved from the stock

and rearrayed for the retest screen. Matings of single clones were performed as described above, but phenotypes were scored on both Sc–Leu–Trp–His +3-AT and Sc–Leu–Trp–Ade plates. Interactions were scored as confirmed when they were positive in three of four repeated matings and autoactivation was never detected. For all matings performed, a set of six control interactors was used to confirm expected phenotypes.

4.2.9.1 Statistical analysis of Y2H results

First, the probability of the observed number of OEC targets occurring by chance was calculated. To estimate the probability of a specific number of targets dependent on a subset of interactions (i.e. interactions between a specific effector and an Arabidopsis protein being represented in AI-1) between pathogen effectors and Arabidopsis targets, a Monte-Carlo-Simulation was conducted. The number of interactions with targets being represented in AI-Main was counted, then that number of targets was selected at random from a list of AI-1 with replacement. In this list, a protein occurs as often as it shows interactions in AI-1, dependent on its degree. Subsequently, for each sample the total number of different targets was calculated and summarized in a Monte-Carlo-Ranking. For visualization, the frequency of a certain number was counted and the p-value for the observed total number of targets was calculated based on the ranking.

Secondly, the probability of the observed number of shared targets between all three pathogens occurring by chance was calculated. To estimate the probability of a specific number of shared targets in intersections between different pathogens, a Monte-Carlo-Simulation was conducted. First, random samples of targets were created for each pathogen according to the observed total number of targets. Then, random samples were chosen and the intersection of targets, based on all proteins in AI-1, was calculated. This was done 1000 times. Subsequently, the total number of targets being shared was summarized in a Monte-Carlo-Ranking for calculating the p-value of the observed shared targets.

All network representations were drawn using Cytoscape (Shannon et al., 2003). Statistical analysis of network properties was performed by Christine Gläßer, Helmholtz Center Munich, Germany using R (Team, 2008).

5 References

- Aarts, N., et al.**, 1998. Different requirements for EDS1 and NDR1 by disease resistance genes define at least two R gene-mediated signaling pathways in Arabidopsis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 95, 10306-10311.
- Abramoff, M. D.**, et al., 2004. Image processing with ImageJ. Biophotonics Int. 11, 36-42.
- Adam, L., et al.**, 1999. Comparison of *Erysiphe cichoracearum* and *E. cruciferarum* and a survey of 360 *Arabidopsis thaliana* accessions for resistance to these two powdery mildew pathogens. Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact. 12, 1031-1043.
- Ahn, N., et al.**, 2004. Extracellular matrix protein gene, EMP1, is required for appressorium formation and pathogenicity of the rice blast fungus, *Magnaporthe grisea*. Mol. Cells. 17, 166-173.
- Albert, R., et al.**, 2000. Error and attack tolerance of complex networks. Nature. 406, 378-382.
- Albrecht, C., et al.**, 2012. Brassinosteroids inhibit pathogen-associated molecular pattern-triggered immune signaling independent of the receptor kinase BAK1. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 109, 303-308.
- Albrecht, C., et al.**, 2008. Arabidopsis SOMATIC EMBRYOGENESIS RECEPTOR KINASE proteins serve Brassinosteroid-dependent and -independent signaling pathways. Plant Physiol. 148, 611-619.
- Altschul, S. F., et al.**, 1990. Basic local alignment search tool. J. Mol. Biol. 215, 403-410.
- Alvim Kamei, C. L., et al., 2008. The PRA1 gene family in Arabidopsis. Plant Physiol. 147, 1735-1749.
- An, Q., et al.**, 2006. Multivesicular bodies participate in a cell wall-associated defence response in barley leaves attacked by the pathogenic powdery mildew fungus. Cell. Microbiol. 8, 1009-1019.
- Anderson, J. P., et al.**, 2004. Antagonistic interaction between Abscisic Acid and Jasmonate-Ethylene signaling pathways modulates defense gene expression and disease resistance in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell Online. 16, 3460-3479.
- Antony, G., et al.**, 2010. Rice xa13 recessive resistance to bacterial blight is defeated by induction of the disease susceptibility gene Os-11N3. The Plant Cell Online. 22, 3864-3876.
- Arabidopsis Interactome Mapping Consortium**, 2011. Evidence for network evolution in an Arabidopsis interactome map. Science. 333, 601-607.
- Armstrong, M. R.**, et al., 2005. An ancestral oomycete locus contains late blight avirulence gene Avr3a, encoding a protein that is recognized in the host cytoplasm. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 102, 7766-7771.
- Ausubel, F. M.**, 2005. Are innate immune signaling pathways in plants and animals conserved? Nat Immunol. 6, 973-979.
- Baba, K., et al.**, 2001. Involvement of a nuclear-encoded basic helix-loop-helix protein in transcription of the light-responsive promoter of psbD. Plant Physiol. 125, 595-603.

- Bainard, L. D., et al.**, 2011. Mycorrhizal symbiosis stimulates endoreduplication in angiosperms. *Plant, Cell Environ.* 34, 1577-1585.
- Bartetzko, V., et al.**, 2009. The *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *vesicatoria* type III effector protein XopJ inhibits protein secretion: Evidence for interference with cell wall-associated defense responses. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 22, 655-664.
- Bartsch, M., et al.**, 2006. Salicylic acid independent ENHANCED DISEASE SUSCEPTIBILITY1 signaling in Arabidopsis immunity and cell death is regulated by the monooxygenase FMO1 and the nudix hydrolase NUDT7. *Plant Cell.* 18, 1038-1051.
- Baum, T., et al.**, 2011. HyphArea—Automated analysis of spatiotemporal fungal patterns. *J. Plant Physiol.* 168, 72-78.
- Bednarek, P., et al.**, 2009. A Glucosinolate metabolism pathway in living plant cells mediates broad-spectrum antifungal defense. *Science.* 323, 101-106.
- Belkhadir, Y., et al.**, 2012. Brassinosteroids modulate the efficiency of plant immune responses to microbe-associated molecular patterns. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 109, 297-302.
- Bendahmane, A., et al.**, 1999. The Rx Gene from Potato Controls Separate Virus Resistance and Cell Death Responses. *The Plant Cell Online.* 11, 781-791.
- Bendtsen, J. D., et al.**, 2004. Improved Prediction of Signal Peptides: SignalP 3.0. *J. Mol. Biol.* 340, 783-795.
- Berger, S., et al.**, 2007. Plant physiology meets phytopathology: plant primary metabolism and plant-pathogen interactions. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58, 4019-4026.
- Berr, A., et al.**, 2012. Chromatin modification and remodelling: a regulatory landscape for the control of Arabidopsis defence responses upon pathogen attack. *Cell. Microbiol.* 14, 829-839.
- Bindschedler, L., et al.**, 2009. In planta proteomics and proteogenomics of the biotrophic barley fungal pathogen *Blumeria graminis* f. sp. *hordei*. *Mol. Cell. Proteomics.* 8, 2368.
- Bindschedler, L. V., et al.**, 2011. Proteogenomics and in silico structural and functional annotation of the barley powdery mildew *Blumeria graminis* f. sp. *hordei*. *Methods.* 54, 432-441.
- Boch, J., et al.**, 2009. Breaking the code of DNA binding specificity of TAL-type III effectors. *Science.* 326, 1509-1512.
- Böhlenius, H., et al.**, 2010. The Multivesicular Body-Localized GTPase ARFA1b/1c Is Important for Callose Deposition and ROR2 Syntaxin-Dependent Preinvasive Basal Defense in Barley. *The Plant Cell Online.* 22, 3831-3844.
- Boller, T., Felix, G.,** 2009. A Renaissance of Elicitors: Perception of Microbe-Associated Molecular Patterns and Danger Signals by Pattern-Recognition Receptors. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* 60, 379-406.
- Bolton, M. D.,** 2009. Primary Metabolism and Plant Defense—Fuel for the Fire. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 22, 487-497.
- Bolton, M. D., et al.**, 2008. The novel *Cladosporium fulvum* lysin motif effector Ecp6 is a virulence factor with orthologues in other fungal species. *Mol. Microbiol.* 69, 119-136.

- Bos, J. I. B., et al.**, 2010. *Phytophthora infestans* effector AVR3a is essential for virulence and manipulates plant immunity by stabilizing host E3 ligase CMPG1. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.
- Bos, J. I. B., et al.**, 2006. The C-terminal half of *Phytophthora infestans* RXLR effector AVR3a is sufficient to trigger R3a-mediated hypersensitivity and suppress INF1-induced cell death in *Nicotiana benthamiana*. The Plant Journal. 48, 165-176.
- Both, M., et al.**, 2005a. Gene expression profiles of *Blumeria graminis* indicate dynamic changes to primary metabolism during development of an obligate biotrophic pathogen. Plant Cell. 17, 2107-2122.
- Both, M., et al.**, 2005b. Transcript profiles of *Blumeria graminis* development during infection reveal a cluster of genes that are potential virulence determinants. Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact. 18, 125-133.
- Boudolf, V., et al.**, 2004. The plant-specific Cyclin-dependent kinase CDKB1;1 and transcription factor E2Fa-DPa control the balance of mitotically dividing and endoreduplicating cells in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell Online. 16, 2683-2692.
- Bozkurt, T. O., et al.**, 2012. Oomycetes, effectors, and all that jazz. Curr. Opin. Plant Biol. 15, 483-492.
- Bozkurt, T. O., et al.**, 2011. *Phytophthora infestans* effector AVRblb2 prevents secretion of a plant immune protease at the haustorial interface. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 108, 20832-20837.
- Brameier, M., et al.**, 2007. NucPred—Predicting nuclear localization of proteins. Bioinformatics. 23, 1159-1160.
- Brandt, S., et al.**, 2002. Using array hybridization to monitor gene expression at the single cell level. J. Exp. Bot. 53, 2315-2323.
- Braun, P., et al.**, 2009. An experimentally derived confidence score for binary protein-protein interactions. Nat Meth. 6, 91-97.
- Breuer, C., et al.**, 2010. Developmental control of endocycles and cell growth in plants. Curr. Opin. Plant Biol. 13, 654-660.
- Brooks, D. M., et al.**, 2005. The *Pseudomonas syringae* phytotoxin coronatine promotes virulence by overcoming salicylic acid-dependent defences in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Mol. Plant Pathol. 6, 629-639.
- Brouwer, M., et al.**, 2003. Quantification of disease progression of several microbial pathogens on *Arabidopsis thaliana* using real-time fluorescence PCR. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 228, 241-248.
- Brutus, A., et al.**, 2010. A domain swap approach reveals a role of the plant wall-associated kinase 1 (WAK1) as a receptor of oligogalacturonides. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.
- Büschges, R., et al.**, 1997. The barley Mlo gene: A novel control element of plant pathogen resistance. Cell. 88, 695-705.
- Bushnell, W. R.**, 1972. Physiology of fungal haustoria. Annu. Rev. Phytopathol. 10, 151-176.
- Cabral, A., et al.**, 2012. Nontoxic Nep1-like proteins of the downy mildew pathogen *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis*: Repression of necrosis-inducing activity by a surface-exposed region. Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact. 25, 697-708.

- Caillaud, M.-C., et al.**, 2012. Subcellular localization of the *Hpa* RxLR effector repertoire identifies a tonoplast-associated protein HaRxL17 that confers enhanced plant susceptibility. *The Plant Journal*. 69, 252-265.
- Calderwood, M. A., et al.**, 2007. Epstein–Barr virus and virus human protein interaction maps. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 104, 7606-7611.
- Cao, H., et al.**, 1994. Characterization of an Arabidopsis mutant that is nonresponsive to inducers of systemic acquired resistance. *The Plant Cell Online*. 6, 1583-1592.
- Caracuel, Z., et al.**, 2005. *Fusarium oxysporum gas1* encodes a putative β -1, 3-glucanotransferase required for virulence on tomato plants. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 18, 1140-1147.
- Catanzariti, A.-M., et al.**, 2006. Haustorially expressed secreted proteins from flax rust are highly enriched for avirulence elicitors. *Plant Cell*. 18, 243-256.
- Cebolla, A., et al.**, 1999. The mitotic inhibitor ccs52 is required for endoreduplication and ploidy-dependent cell enlargement in plants. *EMBO J.* 18, 4476-4484.
- Chandler, J., et al.**, 2009. BIM1, a bHLH protein involved in brassinosteroid signalling, controls Arabidopsis embryonic patterning via interaction with DORNROESCHEN and DORNROESCHEN-LIKE. *Plant Mol. Biol.* 69, 57-68.
- Chandran, D., et al.**, 2010. Laser microdissection of Arabidopsis cells at the powdery mildew infection site reveals site-specific processes and regulators. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 107, 460-465.
- Chandran, D., et al.**, 2009. Temporal Global Expression Data Reveal Known and Novel Salicylate-Impacted Processes and Regulators Mediating Powdery Mildew Growth and Reproduction on Arabidopsis. *Plant Physiol.* 149, 1435-1451.
- Chaparro-Garcia, A., et al.**, 2011. The receptor-like kinase SERK3/BAK1 is required for basal resistance against the late blight pathogen *Phytophthora infestans* in *Nicotiana benthamiana*. *PLoS ONE*. 6, e16608.
- Chen, L.-Q., et al.**, 2010. Sugar transporters for intercellular exchange and nutrition of pathogens. *Nature*. 468, 527-532.
- Cheng, W., et al.**, 2011. Structural analysis of *Pseudomonas syringae* AvrPtoB bound to host BAK1 reveals two similar kinase-interacting domains in a type III effector. *Cell Host & Microbe*. 10, 616-626.
- Chinchilla, D., et al.**, 2007. A flagellin-induced complex of the receptor FLS2 and BAK1 initiates plant defence. *Nature*. 448, 497-500.
- Chini, A., et al.**, 2007. The JAZ family of repressors is the missing link in jasmonate signalling. *Nature*. 448, 666-671.
- Chisholm, S. T., et al.**, 2005. Molecular characterization of proteolytic cleavage sites of the *Pseudomonas syringae* effector AvrRpt2. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 102, 2087-2092.
- Clay, N. K., et al.**, 2009. Glucosinolate metabolites required for an Arabidopsis innate immune response. *Science*. 323, 95-101.

- Clough, S. J., et al.**, 2000. The Arabidopsis *dnd1* “defense, no death” gene encodes a mutated cyclic nucleotide-gated ion channel. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 97, 9323-9328.
- Collins, N. C., et al.**, 2003. SNARE-protein-mediated disease resistance at the plant cell wall. *Nature.* 425, 973-977.
- Conesa, A., et al.**, 2005. Blast2GO: a universal tool for annotation, visualization and analysis in functional genomics research. *Bioinformatics.* 21, 3674-3676.
- Consonni, C., et al.**, 2010. Tryptophan-derived metabolites are required for antifungal defense in the Arabidopsis *mlo2* mutant. *Plant Physiol.* 152, 1544-1561.
- Consonni, C., et al.**, 2006. Conserved requirement for a plant host cell protein in powdery mildew pathogenesis. *Nat Genet.* 38, 716-720.
- Cornelissen, B., Haring, M.**, 2001. FEM1, a *Fusarium oxysporum* glycoprotein that is covalently linked to the cell wall matrix and is conserved in filamentous fungi. *Mol. Genet. Genomics.* 265, 143-152.
- Cui, H., et al.**, 2010. *Pseudomonas syringae* effector protein AvrB perturbs Arabidopsis hormone signaling by activating MAP kinase 4. *Cell host & microbe.* 7, 164-175.
- Cui, Y., et al.**, 2009. Studies on signal pathways of the potato late blight resistance gene R3a, RB using VIGS. *Acta Horticulturae Sinica.* 36, 997-1004.
- Cunnac, S., et al.**, 2011. Genetic disassembly and combinatorial reassembly identify a minimal functional repertoire of type III effectors in *Pseudomonas syringae*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 108, 2975-2980.
- Cunnac, S., et al.**, 2009. *Pseudomonas syringae* type III secretion system effectors: repertoires in search of functions. *Curr. Opin. Microbiol.* 12, 53-60.
- Dangl, J. L., Jones, J. D. G.**, 2001. Plant pathogens and integrated defence responses to infection. *Nature.* 411, 826-833.
- Danisman, S., et al.**, 2012. Arabidopsis class I and class II TCP transcription factors regulate Jasmonic Acid metabolism and leaf development antagonistically. *Plant Physiol.* 159, 1511-1523.
- Day, B., et al.**, 2005. Molecular basis for the RIN4 negative regulation of RPS2 disease resistance. *The Plant Cell Online.* 17, 1292-1305.
- de Jonge, R., et al.**, 2011. How filamentous pathogens co-opt plants: the ins and outs of fungal effectors. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 14, 400-406.
- de Jonge, R., et al.**, 2010. Conserved fungal LysM effector Ecp6 prevents chitin-triggered immunity in plants. *Science.* 329, 953-955.
- De Veylder, L., et al.**, 2011. Molecular control and function of endoreplication in development and physiology. *Trends Plant Sci.* 16, 624-634.
- DebRoy, S., et al.**, 2004. A family of conserved bacterial effectors inhibits salicylic acid-mediated basal immunity and promotes disease necrosis in plants. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 101, 9927-9932.

- del Pozo, J. C., et al.**, 2006. The Balance between cell division and endoreplication depends on E2FC-DPB, transcription factors regulated by the Ubiquitin-SCFSKP2A pathway in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell Online. 18, 2224-2235.
- Deslandes, L., et al.**, 2003. Physical interaction between RRS1-R, a protein conferring resistance to bacterial wilt, and PopP2, a type III effector targeted to the plant nucleus. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 100, 8024-8029.
- Dewdney, J., et al.**, 2000. Three unique mutants of *Arabidopsis* identify *eds* loci required for limiting growth of a biotrophic fungal pathogen. Plant J. 24, 205-218.
- Dirac-Svejstrup, A. B., et al.**, 1997. Identification of a GDI displacement factor that releases endosomal Rab GTPases from Rab-GDI. EMBO J. 16, 465-472.
- Dixon, M. S., et al.**, 2000. Genetic complexity of pathogen perception by plants: The example of Rcr3, a tomato gene required specifically by Cf-2. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 97, 8807-8814.
- Djamei, A., et al.**, 2011. Metabolic priming by a secreted fungal effector. Nature. 478, 395-398.
- Doares, S. H., et al.**, 1995. Oligogalacturonides and chitosan activate plant defensive genes through the octadecanoid pathway. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 92, 4095-4098.
- Doehlemann, G., et al.**, 2009. Pep1, a secreted effector protein of *Ustilago maydis*, is required for successful invasion of plant cells. PLoS Pathog. 5, e1000290.
- Dou, D., et al.**, 2008. Conserved C-terminal motifs required for avirulence and suppression of cell death by *Phytophthora sojae* effector Avr1b. Plant Cell. 20, 1118-1133.
- Dreze, M., et al.**, 2009. 'Edgetic' perturbation of a *C. elegans* BCL2 ortholog. Nat Meth. 6, 843-849.
- Dreze, M., et al.**, Chapter 12 - High-quality binary interactome mapping. In: W. Jonathan, et al., (Eds.), Methods Enzymol. Academic Press, 2010, pp. 281-315.
- Duplessis, S., et al.**, 2011a. Obligate biotrophy features unraveled by the genomic analysis of rust fungi. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.
- Duplessis, S., et al.**, 2011b. *Melampsora larici-populina* transcript profiling during germination and timecourse infection of poplar leaves reveals dynamic expression patterns associated with virulence and biotrophy. Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact. 24, 808-818.
- Durrant, W. E., Dong, X.**, 2004. Systemic Acquired Resistance. Annu. Rev. Phytopathol. 42, 185-209.
- Dyer, M. D., et al.**, 2008. The landscape of human proteins interacting with viruses and other pathogens. PLoS Pathog. 4, e32.
- Dyer, M. D., et al.**, 2010. The human-bacterial pathogen protein interaction networks of *Bacillus anthracis*, *Francisella tularensis*, and *Yersinia pestis*. PLoS ONE. 5, e12089.
- Efroni, I., et al.**, 2008. A protracted and dynamic maturation schedule underlies Arabidopsis leaf development. The Plant Cell Online. 20, 2293-2306.
- Ellis, J., et al.**, 2009. Recent progress in discovery and functional analysis of effector proteins of fungal and oomycete plant pathogens. Curr Opin Plant Biol. 12, 399 - 405.

- Ellis, J. G., et al.**, 2007. Flax rust resistance gene specificity is based on direct resistance-avirulence protein interactions. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 45, 289-306.
- Fabro, G., et al.**, 2011. Multiple candidate effectors from the oomycete pathogen *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* suppress host plant immunity. *PLoS Pathog.* 7, e1002348.
- Falk, A., et al.**, 1999. EDS1, an essential component of R gene-mediated disease resistance in *Arabidopsis* has homology to eukaryotic lipases. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 96, 3292-3297.
- Feng, F., et al.**, 2012. A *Xanthomonas* uridine 5'-monophosphate transferase inhibits plant immune kinases. *Nature.* 485, 114-118.
- Feng, F., Zhou, J.-M.**, 2012. Plant–bacterial pathogen interactions mediated by type III effectors. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 15, 469-476.
- Fernandez, D., et al.**, 2012. 454-pyrosequencing of *Coffea arabica* leaves infected by the rust fungus *Hemileia vastatrix* reveals in planta-expressed pathogen-secreted proteins and plant functions in a late compatible plant–rust interaction. *Mol. Plant Pathol.* 13, 17-37.
- Feys, B. J., et al.**, 2001. Direct interaction between the *Arabidopsis* disease resistance signaling proteins, EDS1 and PAD4. *EMBO J.* 20, 5400-5411.
- Feys, B. J., et al.**, 2005. *Arabidopsis* SENESCENCE-ASSOCIATED GENE101 stabilizes and signals within an ENHANCED DISEASE SUSCEPTIBILITY1 complex in plant innate immunity. *Plant Cell.* 17, 2601-2613.
- Flor, H. H.**, 1971. Current status of the gene-for-gene concept. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 9, 275-296.
- Frye, C. A., Innes, R. W.**, 1998. An *Arabidopsis* mutant with enhanced resistance to powdery mildew. *The Plant Cell Online.* 10, 947-956.
- Fu, Z. Q., et al.**, 2007. A type III effector ADP-ribosylates RNA-binding proteins and quells plant immunity. *Nature.* 447, 284-288.
- Fu, Z. Q., et al.**, 2012. NPR3 and NPR4 are receptors for the immune signal salicylic acid in plants. *Nature.* 486, 228-232.
- Gachon, C., Saindrenan, P.**, 2004. Real-time PCR monitoring of fungal development in *Arabidopsis thaliana* infected by *Alternaria brassicicola* and *Botrytis cinerea*. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 42, 367-371.
- Gaffney, T., et al.**, 1993. Requirement of salicylic acid for the induction of systemic acquired resistance. *Science.* 261, 754-756.
- Gao, J., et al.**, 2012. NAP1 family histone chaperones are required for somatic homologous recombination in *Arabidopsis*. *The Plant Cell Online.* 24, 1437-1447.
- Gheysen, G., Mitchum, M. G.**, 2011. How nematodes manipulate plant development pathways for infection. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 14, 415-421.
- Gil, F., Gay, J. L.**, 1977. Ultrastructural and physiological properties of the host interfacial components of haustoria of *Erysiphe pisi* in vivo and in vitro. *Physiol. Plant Pathology.* 10, 1-4, IN1-IN8, 5-12.

- Gilroy, E. M., et al.**, 2011. CMPG1-dependent cell death follows perception of diverse pathogen elicitors at the host plasma membrane and is suppressed by *Phytophthora infestans* RXLR effector AVR3a. *New Phytol.* 190, 653-666.
- Gimenez-Ibanez, S., et al.**, 2009. AvrPtoB targets the LysM receptor kinase CERK1 to promote bacterial virulence on plants. *Curr. Biol.* 19, 423-429.
- Giot, L., et al.**, 2003. A protein interaction map of *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Science.* 302, 1727-1736.
- Glawe, D. A.**, 2008. The powdery mildews: A review of the world's most familiar (yet poorly known) plant pathogens. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 46, 27-51.
- Glazebrook, J.**, 2005. Contrasting mechanisms of defense against biotrophic and necrotrophic pathogens. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 43, 205-227.
- Godfrey, D., et al.**, 2010. Powdery mildew fungal effector candidates share N-terminal Y/F/WxC-motif. *BMC Genomics.* 11, 317.
- Godfrey, D., et al.**, 2009. A proteomics study of barley powdery mildew haustoria. *Proteomics.* 9, 3222 - 3232.
- Göhre, V., et al.**, 2008. Plant pattern-recognition receptor FLS2 is directed for degradation by the bacterial ubiquitin ligase AvrPtoB. 18, 1824-1832.
- Göllner, K., et al.**, 2008. Natural genetic resources of *Arabidopsis thaliana* reveal a high prevalence and unexpected phenotypic plasticity of *RPW8*-mediated powdery mildew resistance. *New Phytol.* 177, 725-742.
- Gómez-Gómez, L., Boller, T.**, 2000. FLS2: An LRR receptor-like kinase involved in the perception of the bacterial elicitor flagellin in *Arabidopsis*. *Mol. Cell.* 5, 1003-1011.
- Gómez-Gómez, L., et al.**, 1999. A single locus determines sensitivity to bacterial flagellin in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *The Plant Journal.* 18, 277-284.
- González-Lamothe, R., et al.**, 2006. The U-Box Protein CMPG1 Is Required for Efficient Activation of Defense Mechanisms Triggered by Multiple Resistance Genes in Tobacco and Tomato. *The Plant Cell Online.* 18, 1067-1083.
- Goritschnig, S., et al.**, 2012. Computational Prediction and Molecular Characterization of an Oomycete Effector and the Cognate *Arabidopsis* Resistance Gene. *PLoS Genet.* 8.
- Grefen, C., et al.**, 2010. A ubiquitin-10 promoter-based vector set for fluorescent protein tagging facilitates temporal stability and native protein distribution in transient and stable expression studies. *The Plant Journal.* 64, 355-365.
- Grell, M. N., et al.**, 2003. A *Blumeria graminis* gene family encoding proteins with a C-terminal variable region with homologues in pathogenic fungi. *Gene.* 311, 181-192.
- Griesbeck, O., et al.**, 2001. Reducing the Environmental Sensitivity of Yellow Fluorescent Protein. *J. Biol. Chem.* 276, 29188-29194.
- Gu, K., et al.**, 2005. R gene expression induced by a type-III effector triggers disease resistance in rice. *Nature.* 435, 1122-1125.

- Guo, H., Ecker, J. R.,** 2003. Plant Responses to Ethylene Gas Are Mediated by SCFEBF1/EBF2-Dependent Proteolysis of EIN3 Transcription Factor. *Cell*. 115, 667-677.
- Gusmaroli, G., et al.,** 2007. Role of the MPN Subunits in COP9 Signalosome Assembly and Activity, and Their Regulatory Interaction with Arabidopsis Cullin3-Based E3 Ligases. *The Plant Cell Online*. 19, 564-581.
- Haas, B., et al.,** 2009. Genome sequence and analysis of the Irish potato famine pathogen *Phytophthora infestans*. *Nature*. 461, 393 - 398.
- Haga, N., et al.,** 2007. R1R2R3-Myb proteins positively regulate cytokinesis through activation of KNOLLE transcription in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Development*. 134, 1101-1110.
- Hahn, M., Mendgen, K.,** 1997. Characterization of in planta—induced rust genes isolated from a haustorium-specific cDNA library. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 10, 427-437.
- Hammani, K., et al.,** 2011. An Arabidopsis Dual-Localized Pentatricopeptide Repeat Protein Interacts with Nuclear Proteins Involved in Gene Expression Regulation. *The Plant Cell Online*. 23, 730-740.
- Hann, D. R., Rathjen, J. P.,** 2007. Early events in the pathogenicity of *Pseudomonas syringae* on *Nicotiana benthamiana*. *The Plant Journal*. 49, 607-618.
- Hauck, P., et al.,** 2003. A *Pseudomonas syringae* type III effector suppresses cell wall-based extracellular defense in susceptible Arabidopsis plants. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 100, 8577-8582.
- Heidrich, K., et al.,** 2011. Arabidopsis EDS1 Connects Pathogen Effector Recognition to Cell Compartment—Specific Immune Responses. *Science*. 334, 1401-1404.
- Hemetsberger, C., et al.,** 2012. The *Ustilago maydis* effector Pep1 suppresses plant immunity by inhibition of host peroxidase activity. *PLoS Pathog.* 8, e1002684.
- Herbers, K., et al.,** 1996. Salicylic acid-independent induction of pathogenesis-related protein transcripts by sugars is dependent on leaf developmental stage. *FEBS Lett.* 397, 239-244.
- Hervé, C., et al.,** 2009. In Vivo Interference with AtTCP20 Function Induces Severe Plant Growth Alterations and Deregulates the Expression of Many Genes Important for Development. *Plant Physiol.* 149, 1462-1477.
- Hind, S. R., et al.,** 2011. The COP9 signalosome controls jasmonic acid synthesis and plant responses to herbivory and pathogens. *The Plant Journal*. 65, 480-491.
- Hippe, S.,** 1985. Ultrastructure of haustoria of *Erysiphe graminis* f. sp. *hordei* preserved by freeze-substitution. *Protoplasma*. 129, 52-61.
- Hiruma, K., et al.,** 2010. Entry Mode—Dependent Function of an Indole Glucosinolate Pathway in Arabidopsis for Nonhost Resistance against Anthracnose Pathogens. *The Plant Cell Online*. 22, 2429-2443.
- Hogenhout, S. A., et al.,** 2009. Emerging Concepts in Effector Biology of Plant-Associated Organisms. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 22, 115-122.
- Hotton, S. K., Callis, J.,** 2008. Regulation of Cullin RING Ligases. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* 59, 467-489.

- Houterman, P. M., et al.**, 2008. Suppression of Plant Resistance Gene-Based Immunity by a Fungal Effector. *PLoS Pathog.* 4, e1000061.
- Hua, Z., et al.**, 2011. Phylogenetic Comparison of F-Box Gene Superfamily within the Plant Kingdom Reveals Divergent Evolutionary Histories Indicative of Genomic Drift. *PLoS ONE.* 6, e16219.
- Huang, S., et al.**, 2005. Comparative genomics enabled the isolation of the R3a late blight resistance gene in potato. *The Plant Journal.* 42, 251-261.
- Hückelhoven, R., Kogel, K.-H.**, 2003. Reactive oxygen intermediates in plant-microbe interactions: Who is who in powdery mildew resistance? *Planta.* 216, 891-902.
- Hückelhoven, R., Panstruga, R.**, 2011. Cell biology of the plant–powdery mildew interaction. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 14, 738-746.
- Huffaker, A., et al.**, 2006. An endogenous peptide signal in *Arabidopsis* activates components of the innate immune response. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 103, 10098-10103.
- Humphry, M., et al.**, 2010. A regulon conserved in monocot and dicot plants defines a functional module in antifungal plant immunity. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 107, 21896-21901.
- Hwang, C. S., et al.**, 1995. Cloning of a gene expressed during appressorium formation by *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* and a marked decrease in virulence by disruption of this gene. *Plant Cell.* 7, 183-193.
- Ingmundson, A., et al.**, 2007. *Legionella pneumophila* proteins that regulate Rab1 membrane cycling. *Nature.* 450, 365-369.
- Ito, M., et al.**, 2001a. G2/M-Phase–Specific Transcription during the Plant Cell Cycle Is Mediated by c-Myb–Like Transcription Factors. *The Plant Cell Online.* 13, 1891-1905.
- Ito, T., et al.**, 2001b. A comprehensive two-hybrid analysis to explore the yeast protein interactome. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 98, 4569-4574.
- Jacobs, A. K., et al.**, 2003. An *Arabidopsis* Callose Synthase, *GSL5*, Is Required for Wound and Papillary Callose Formation. *The Plant Cell Online.* 15, 2503-2513.
- Jakupovic, M., et al.**, 2006. Microarray analysis of expressed sequence tags from haustoria of the rust fungus *Uromyces fabae*. *Fungal Genet. Biol.* 43, 8-19.
- Jelenska, J., et al.**, 2007. A J Domain Virulence Effector of *Pseudomonas syringae* Remodels Host Chloroplasts and Suppresses Defenses. *Curr. Biol.* 17, 499-508.
- Jin, Q., He, S.-Y.**, 2001. Role of the Hrp Pilus in Type III Protein Secretion in *Pseudomonas syringae*. *Science.* 294, 2556-2558.
- Joergensen, J. H.**, 1994. Genetics of Powdery Mildew Resistance in Barley. *Crit. Rev. Plant Sci.* 13, 97 - 97.
- Jones, J. D. G., Dangl, J. L.**, 2006. The plant immune system. *Nature.* 444, 323-329.
- Kamoun, S., et al.**, 1997. A Gene Encoding a Protein Elicitor of *Phytophthora infestans* Is Down-Regulated During Infection of Potato. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 10, 13-20.

- Kanneganti, T.-D., et al.**, 2006. Synergistic Interactions of the Plant Cell Death Pathways Induced by *Phytophthora infestans* Nep1-Like Protein PiNPP1.1 and INF1 Elicitor. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 19, 854-863.
- Katagiri, F., et al.**, 2002. The *Arabidopsis thaliana* - *Pseudomonas syringae* interaction. *The Arabidopsis Book*. e0039.
- Kay, S., et al.**, 2007. A Bacterial Effector Acts as a Plant Transcription Factor and Induces a Cell Size Regulator. *Science*. 318, 648-651.
- Kelley, B. S., et al.**, 2010. A secreted effector protein (SNE1) from *Phytophthora infestans* is a broadly acting suppressor of programmed cell death. *The Plant Journal*. 62, 357-366.
- Kemen, E., Jones, J. D. G.**, 2012. Obligate biotroph parasitism: can we link genomes to lifestyles? *Trends Plant Sci.* 17, 448-457.
- Kemen, E., et al.**, 2005. Identification of a protein from rust fungi transferred from haustoria into infected plant cells. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 18, 1130-1139.
- Khang, C. H., et al.**, 2010. Translocation of *Magnaporthe oryzae* Effectors into Rice Cells and Their Subsequent Cell-to-Cell Movement. *Plant Cell*. 22, 1388-1403.
- Kieffer, M., et al.**, 2011. TCP14 and TCP15 affect internode length and leaf shape in *Arabidopsis*. *The Plant Journal*. 68, 147-158.
- Kim, H.-S., et al.**, 2005a. The *Pseudomonas syringae* effector AvrRpt2 cleaves its C-terminally acylated target, RIN4, from *Arabidopsis* membranes to block RPM1 activation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 102, 6496-6501.
- Kim, M. G., et al.**, 2005b. Two *Pseudomonas syringae* Type III Effectors Inhibit RIN4-Regulated Basal Defense in *Arabidopsis*. *Cell*. 121, 749-759.
- Kleemann, J., et al.**, 2012. Sequential Delivery of Host-Induced Virulence Effectors by Appressoria and Intracellular Hyphae of the Phytopathogen *Colletotrichum higginsianum*. *PLoS Pathog.* 8, e1002643.
- Koch, E., Slusarenko, A.**, 1990. *Arabidopsis* is susceptible to infection by a downy mildew fungus. *The Plant Cell Online*. 2, 437-45.
- Koh, S., et al.**, 2005. *Arabidopsis thaliana* subcellular responses to compatible *Erysiphe cichoracearum* infections. *The Plant Journal*. 44, 516-529.
- Kosugi, S., Ohashi, Y.**, 2002. DNA binding and dimerization specificity and potential targets for the TCP protein family. *The Plant Journal*. 30, 337-348.
- Koyama, T., et al.**, 2007. TCP Transcription Factors Control the Morphology of Shoot Lateral Organs via Negative Regulation of the Expression of Boundary-Specific Genes in *Arabidopsis*. *The Plant Cell Online*. 19, 473-484.
- Kramer, K. M., et al.**, 1998. Budding yeast RSI1/APC2, a novel gene necessary for initiation of anaphase, encodes an APC subunit. *EMBO J.* 17, 498-506.
- Krol, E., et al.**, 2010. Perception of the *Arabidopsis* Danger Signal Peptide 1 Involves the Pattern Recognition Receptor AtPEPR1 and Its Close Homologue AtPEPR2. *J. Biol. Chem.* 285, 13471-13479.

- Kunze, G., et al.**, 2004. The N Terminus of Bacterial Elongation Factor Tu Elicits Innate Immunity in Arabidopsis Plants. *The Plant Cell Online*. 16, 3496-3507.
- Kwon, C., et al.**, 2008. Co-option of a default secretory pathway for plant immune responses. *Nature*. 451, 835-840.
- Lacombe, S., et al.**, 2010. Interfamily transfer of a plant pattern-recognition receptor confers broad-spectrum bacterial resistance. *Nat Biotech*. 28, 365-369.
- Laemmli, U. K.**, 1970. Cleavage of Structural Proteins during the Assembly of the Head of Bacteriophage T4. *Nature*. 227, 680-685.
- Lee, M. H., et al.**, 2011. An Arabidopsis Prenylated Rab Acceptor 1 Isoform, AtPRA1.B6, Displays Differential Inhibitory Effects on Anterograde Trafficking of Proteins at the Endoplasmic Reticulum. *Plant Physiol*. 157, 645-658.
- Lee, S.-W., et al.**, 2009. A Type I-Secreted, Sulfated Peptide Triggers XA21-Mediated Innate Immunity. *Science*. 326, 850-853.
- Leon-Reyes, A., et al.**, 2009. Ethylene Modulates the Role of NONEXPRESSOR OF PATHOGENESIS-RELATED GENES1 in Cross Talk between Salicylate and Jasmonate Signaling. *Plant Physiol*. 149, 1797-1809.
- Li, C., et al.**, 2005. Arabidopsis TCP20 links regulation of growth and cell division control pathways. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 102, 12978-12983.
- Li, S., et al.**, 2004. A Map of the Interactome Network of the Metazoan *C. elegans*. *Science*. 303, 540-543.
- Li, Z.-Y., et al.**, 2012. The Arabidopsis Transcription Factor AtTCP15 Regulates Endoreduplication by Modulating Expression of Key Cell-cycle Genes. *Molecular Plant*. 5, 270-280.
- Link, T., et al.**, 2005. Characterization of a novel NADP(+)-dependent D-arabitol dehydrogenase from the plant pathogen *Uromyces fabae*. *Biochem. J*. 389, 289-295.
- Lipka, V., et al.**, 2005. Pre- and Postinvasion Defenses Both Contribute to Nonhost Resistance in Arabidopsis. *Science*. 310, 1180-1183.
- Liu, Z.-Q., et al.**, 2009a. A Truncated Arabidopsis NUCLEOSOME ASSEMBLY PROTEIN 1, AtNAP1;3T, Alters Plant Growth Responses to Abscisic Acid and Salt in the *Atnap1;3-2* Mutant. *Molecular Plant*. 2, 688-699.
- Liu, Z., et al.**, 2009b. Molecular and reverse genetic characterization of NUCLEOSOME ASSEMBLY PROTEIN1 (NAP1) genes unravels their function in transcription and nucleotide excision repair in Arabidopsis thaliana. *The Plant Journal*. 59, 27-38.
- Lorenzo, O., et al.**, 2004. JASMONATE-INSENSITIVE1 Encodes a MYC Transcription Factor Essential to Discriminate between Different Jasmonate-Regulated Defense Responses in Arabidopsis. *The Plant Cell Online*. 16, 1938-1950.
- Lorenzo, O., et al.**, 2003. ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR1 Integrates Signals from Ethylene and Jasmonate Pathways in Plant Defense. *The Plant Cell Online*. 15, 165-178.

- Lozano-Durán, R., et al., 2011.** Geminiviruses Subvert Ubiquitination by Altering CSN-Mediated Derubylation of SCF E3 Ligase Complexes and Inhibit Jasmonate Signaling in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *The Plant Cell Online*.
- Lozano-Torres, J. L., et al., 2012.** Dual disease resistance mediated by the immune receptor Cf-2 in tomato requires a common virulence target of a fungus and a nematode. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 109, 10119-10124.
- Lu, D., et al., 2010.** A receptor-like cytoplasmic kinase, BIK1, associates with a flagellin receptor complex to initiate plant innate immunity. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 107, 496-501.
- Lyapina, S., et al., 2001.** Promotion of NEDD8-CUL1 Conjugate Cleavage by COP9 Signalosome. *Science*. 292, 1382-1385.
- Ma, L.-J., et al., 2010.** Comparative genomics reveals mobile pathogenicity chromosomes in *Fusarium*. *Nature*. 464, 367-373.
- Machner, M. P., Isberg, R. R., 2007.** A Bifunctional Bacterial Protein Links GDI Displacement to Rab1 Activation. *Science*. 318, 974-977.
- Macho, A. P., et al., 2010.** The *Pseudomonas syringae* effector protein HopZ1a suppresses effector-triggered immunity. *New Phytol.* 187, 1018-1033.
- Mackey, D., et al., 2002.** RIN4 Interacts with *Pseudomonas syringae* Type III Effector Molecules and Is Required for RPM1-Mediated Resistance in *Arabidopsis*. *Cell*. 108, 743-754.
- Mao, G., et al., 2011.** Phosphorylation of a WRKY Transcription Factor by Two Pathogen-Responsive MAPKs Drives Phytoalexin Biosynthesis in *Arabidopsis*. *The Plant Cell Online*. 23, 1639-1653.
- Marois, E., et al., 2002.** The *Xanthomonas* Type III Effector Protein AvrBs3 Modulates Plant Gene Expression and Induces Cell Hypertrophy in the Susceptible Host. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 15, 637-646.
- Martín-Trillo, M., Cubas, P., 2010.** TCP genes: a family snapshot ten years later. *Trends Plant Sci.* 15, 31-39.
- Martincic, I., et al., 1997.** Isolation and Characterization of a Dual Prenylated Rab and VAMP2 Receptor. *J. Biol. Chem.* 272, 26991-26998.
- Matsuda, S., Takamatsu, S., 2003.** Evolution of host-parasite relationships of *Golovinomyces* (Ascomycete: Erysiphaceae) inferred from nuclear rDNA sequences. *Mol. Phylog. Evol.* 27, 314-327.
- Matyskiela, M. E., Morgan, D. O., 2009.** Analysis of Activator-Binding Sites on the APC/C Supports a Cooperative Substrate-Binding Mechanism. *Mol. Cell.* 34, 68-80.
- Meyer, D., et al., 2009.** Extracellular transport and integration of plant secretory proteins into pathogen-induced cell wall compartments. *Plant J.* 57, 986-999.
- Micali, C., et al., 2008.** The powdery mildew disease of *Arabidopsis*: A paradigm for the interaction between plants and biotrophic fungi. *The Arabidopsis Book*. 6, 1-19.
- Micali, C. O., et al., 2011.** Biogenesis of a specialized plant-fungal interface during host cell internalization of *Golovinomyces orontii* haustoria. *Cell. Microbiol.* 13, 210-226.

- Miya, A., et al.**, 2007. CERK1, a LysM receptor kinase, is essential for chitin elicitor signaling in Arabidopsis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 104, 19613-19618.
- Mo, M., et al.**, 2012. How viruses affect the cell cycle through manipulation of the APC/C. Trends Microbiol. 20, 440-448.
- Morbiter, R., et al.**, 2010. Regulation of selected genome loci using de novo-engineered transcription activator-like effector (TALE)-type transcription factors. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.
- Moscou, M. J., Bogdanove, A. J.**, 2009. A Simple Cipher Governs DNA Recognition by TAL Effectors. Science. 326, 1501.
- Mosquera, G., et al.**, 2009. Interaction Transcriptome Analysis Identifies *Magnaporthe oryzae* BAS1-4 as Biotrophy-Associated Secreted Proteins in Rice Blast Disease. The Plant Cell Online. 21, 1273-1290.
- Mou, Z., et al.**, 2003. Inducers of Plant Systemic Acquired Resistance Regulate NPR1 Function through Redox Changes. Cell. 113, 935-944.
- Mukhtar, M. S., et al.**, 2011. Independently Evolved Virulence Effectors Converge onto Hubs in a Plant Immune System Network. Science. 333, 596-601.
- Mysore, K. S., Ryu, C.-M.**, 2004. Nonhost resistance: how much do we know? Trends Plant Sci. 9, 97-104.
- Nakashita, H., et al.**, 2003. Brassinosteroid functions in a broad range of disease resistance in tobacco and rice. The Plant Journal. 33, 887-898.
- Naseem, M., et al.**, 2012. Integrated Systems View on Networking by Hormones in Arabidopsis Immunity Reveals Multiple Crosstalk for Cytokinin. The Plant Cell Online. 24, 1793-1814.
- Navarro, L., et al.**, 2008. DELLAs Control Plant Immune Responses by Modulating the Balance of Jasmonic Acid and Salicylic Acid Signaling. Current biology : CB. 18, 650-655.
- Navarro, L., et al.**, 2004. The Transcriptional Innate Immune Response to flg22. Interplay and Overlap with Avr Gene-Dependent Defense Responses and Bacterial Pathogenesis. Plant Physiol. 135, 1113-1128.
- Nguyen Ba, A., et al.**, 2009. NLStradamus: a simple Hidden Markov Model for nuclear localization signal prediction. BMC Bioinformatics. 10, 202.
- Nierman, W. C., et al.**, 2005. Genomic sequence of the pathogenic and allergenic filamentous fungus *Aspergillus fumigatus*. Nature. 438, 1151-1156.
- Nimchuk, Z., et al.**, 2000. Eukaryotic Fatty Acylation Drives Plasma Membrane Targeting and Enhances Function of Several Type III Effector Proteins from *Pseudomonas syringae*. Cell. 101, 353-363.
- Nishimura, M. T., et al.**, 2003. Loss of a Callose Synthase Results in Salicylic Acid-Dependent Disease Resistance. Science. 301, 969-972.
- Noir, S., et al.**, 2009. A proteomic analysis of powdery mildew (*Blumeria graminis* f. sp. *hordei*) conidiospores. Mol. Plant Pathol. 10, 223.
- Nomura, K., et al.**, 2006. A Bacterial Virulence Protein Suppresses Host Innate Immunity to Cause Plant Disease. Science. 313, 220-223.

- Nomura, K., et al.**, 2011. Effector-triggered immunity blocks pathogen degradation of an immunity-associated vesicle traffic regulator in Arabidopsis. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*.
- Nowara, D., et al.**, 2010. HIGS: Host-induced gene silencing in the obligate biotrophic fungal pathogen *Blumeria graminis*. *Plant Cell*. 22, 3130-3141.
- O'Connell, R. J., Panstruga, R.**, 2006. Tête à tête inside a plant cell: establishing compatibility between plants and biotrophic fungi and oomycetes. *New Phytol.* 171, 699-718.
- Oh, S.-K., et al.**, 2009. In Planta Expression Screens of *Phytophthora infestans* RXLR Effectors Reveal Diverse Phenotypes, Including Activation of the *Solanum bulbocastanum* Disease Resistance Protein Rpi-blb2. *The Plant Cell Online*. 21, 2928-2947.
- Ottmann, C., et al.**, 2009. A common toxin fold mediates microbial attack and plant defense. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 106, 10359-10364.
- Panstruga, R., Dodds, P. N.**, 2009. Terrific protein traffic: The mystery of effector protein delivery by filamentous plant pathogens. *Science*. 324, 748-750.
- Panstruga, R., Schulze-Lefert, P.**, 2002. Live and let live: insights into powdery mildew disease and resistance. *Mol. Plant Pathol.* 3, 495-502.
- Park, Y.-J., Luger, K.**, 2006. The structure of nucleosome assembly protein 1. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 103, 1248-1253.
- Pauwels, L., et al.**, 2010. NINJA connects the co-repressor TOPLESS to jasmonate signalling. *Nature*. 464, 788-791.
- Pauwels, L., Goossens, A.**, 2011. The JAZ Proteins: A Crucial Interface in the Jasmonate Signaling Cascade. *The Plant Cell Online*. 23, 3089-3100.
- Pauwels, L., et al.**, 2008. Mapping methyl jasmonate-mediated transcriptional reprogramming of metabolism and cell cycle progression in cultured Arabidopsis cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 105, 1380-1385.
- Peters, J.-M.**, 2006. The anaphase promoting complex/cyclosome: a machine designed to destroy. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*. 7, 644-656.
- Pfaffl, M. W.**, 2001. A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time RT-PCR. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 29, e45.
- Pfefferle, S., et al.**, 2011. The SARS-Coronavirus-Host Interactome: Identification of Cyclophilins as Target for Pan-Coronavirus Inhibitors. *PLoS Pathog*. 7, e1002331.
- Pieterse, C., et al.**, 2009. Networking by small-molecule hormones in plant immunity. *Nat Chem Biol*. 5, 308 - 316.
- Pitzschke, A., et al.**, 2009. MAPK cascade signalling networks in plant defence. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol*. 12, 421-426.
- Plotnikova, J. M., et al.**, 1998. Powdery mildew pathogenesis of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Mycologia*. 90, 1009-1016.
- Porceddu, A., et al.**, 2001. A Plant-specific Cyclin-dependent Kinase Is Involved in the Control of G2/M Progression in Plants. *J. Biol. Chem*. 276, 36354-36360.

- Potuschak, T., et al.**, 2003. EIN3-Dependent Regulation of Plant Ethylene Hormone Signaling by Two Arabidopsis F Box Proteins: EBF1 and EBF2. *Cell*. 115, 679-689.
- Pré, M., et al.**, 2008. The AP2/ERF Domain Transcription Factor ORA59 Integrates Jasmonic Acid and Ethylene Signals in Plant Defense. *Plant Physiol*. 147, 1347-1357.
- Qiao, H., et al.**, 2009. Interplay between ethylene, ETP1/ETP2 F-box proteins, and degradation of EIN2 triggers ethylene responses in Arabidopsis. *Genes Dev*. 23, 512-521.
- Rehmany, A. P., et al.**, 2005. Differential Recognition of Highly Divergent Downy Mildew Avirulence Gene Alleles by RPP1 Resistance Genes from Two Arabidopsis Lines. *The Plant Cell Online*. 17, 1839-1850.
- Reuber, T. L., et al.**, 1998. Correlation of defense gene induction defects with powdery mildew susceptibility in Arabidopsis enhanced disease susceptibility mutants. *Plant J*. 16, 473-485.
- Richards, T. A., et al.**, 2006. Evolution of Filamentous Plant Pathogens: Gene Exchange across Eukaryotic Kingdoms. *Curr. Biol*. 16, 1857-1864.
- Robatzek, S., et al.**, 2007. Molecular identification and characterization of the tomato flagellin receptor *LeFLS2*, an orthologue of Arabidopsis *FLS2* exhibiting characteristically different perception specificities. *Plant Mol. Biol*. 64, 539-547.
- Robinson, D. G., et al.**, 2011. ARF1 Localizes to the Golgi and the Trans-Golgi Network. *The Plant Cell Online*. 23, 846-849.
- Römer, P., et al.**, 2007. Plant Pathogen Recognition Mediated by Promoter Activation of the Pepper Bs3 Resistance Gene. *Science*. 318, 645-648.
- Rooney, H. C. E., et al.**, 2005. *Cladosporium* Avr2 Inhibits Tomato Rcr3 Protease Required for Cf-2-Dependent Disease Resistance. *Science*. 308, 1783-1786.
- Rual, J.-F., et al.**, 2005. Towards a proteome-scale map of the human protein-protein interaction network. *Nature*. 437, 1173-1178.
- Rushton, P. J., et al.**, 2010. WRKY transcription factors. *Trends Plant Sci*. 15, 247-258.
- Santner, A., Estelle, M.**, 2009. Recent advances and emerging trends in plant hormone signalling. *Nature*. 459, 1071-1078.
- Saunders, D. G. O., et al.**, 2012. Using hierarchical clustering of secreted protein families to classify and rank candidate effectors of rust fungi. *PLoS ONE*. 7, e29847.
- Schlaeppli, K., et al.**, 2010. Disease resistance of Arabidopsis to *Phytophthora brassicae* is established by the sequential action of indole glucosinolates and camalexin. *The Plant Journal*. 62, 840-851.
- Schmidt, S. M.**, Identification and functional characterization of powdery mildew effectors. Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, Vol. Ph.D. University of Cologne, Cologne, Germany, 2010.
- Schmidt, S. M., Panstruga, R.**, 2011. Pathogenomics of fungal plant parasites: what have we learnt about pathogenesis? *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol*. 14, 392-399.
- Schnittger, A., et al.**, 2002. Ectopic B-Type Cyclin Expression Induces Mitotic Cycles in Endoreduplicating Arabidopsis Trichomes. *Current biology : CB*. 12, 415-420.

- Schommer, C., et al., 2008. Control of Jasmonate Biosynthesis and Senescence by miR319 Targets. PLoS Biol. 6, e230.
- Schornack, S., et al.**, 2010. Ancient class of translocated oomycete effectors targets the host nucleus. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 107, 17421-17426.
- Schweizer, P., et al.**, 1999. Transient expression of members of the germin-like gene family in epidermal cells of wheat confers disease resistance. The Plant Journal. 20, 541-552.
- Seiffert, U., Schweizer, P.**, 2005. A pattern recognition tool for quantitative analysis of *in planta* hyphal growth of powdery mildew fungi. Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact. 18, 906-912.
- Serralbo, O., et al.**, 2006. Non-cell-autonomous rescue of anaphase-promoting complex function revealed by mosaic analysis of HOBBIT, an Arabidopsis CDC27 homolog. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 103, 13250-13255.
- Shan, X., et al.**, 2012. Comparison of phytohormone signaling mechanisms. Curr. Opin. Plant Biol. 15, 84-91.
- Shannon, P., et al.**, 2003. Cytoscape: A Software Environment for Integrated Models of Biomolecular Interaction Networks. Genome Res. 13, 2498-2504.
- Sheard, L. B., et al.**, 2010. Jasmonate perception by inositol-phosphate-potentiated COI1-JAZ co-receptor. Nature. 468, 400-405.
- Shen, Q.-H., et al.**, 2007. Nuclear activity of MLA immune receptors links isolate-specific and basal disease-resistance responses. Science. 315, 1098-1103.
- Shirasu, K., et al.**, 1999. Cell-autonomous complementation of mlo resistance using a biolistic transient expression system. The Plant Journal. 17, 293-299.
- Silvar, C., et al.**, 2005. Real-time polymerase chain reaction quantification of *Phytophthora capsici* in different pepper genotypes. Phytopathology. 95, 1423-1429.
- Simonis, N., et al.**, 2012. Host-pathogen interactome mapping for HTLV-1 and -2 retroviruses. Retrovirology. 9, 26.
- Sims, T. L., Ordanic, M.**, 2001. Identification of a S-ribonuclease-binding protein in *Petunia hybrida*. Plant Mol. Biol. 47, 771-783.
- Sivars, U., et al.**, 2003. Yip3 catalyses the dissociation of endosomal Rab-GDI complexes. Nature. 425, 856-859.
- Soanes, D. M., et al.**, 2008. Comparative genome analysis of filamentous fungi reveals gene family expansions associated with fungal pathogenesis. PLoS ONE. 3, e2300.
- Soanes, D. M., Talbot, N. J.**, 2006. Comparative genomic analysis of phytopathogenic fungi using expressed sequence tag (EST) collections. Mol. Plant Pathol. 7, 61-70.
- Sohn, K. H., et al.**, 2007. The downy mildew effector proteins ATR1 and ATR13 promote disease susceptibility in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Plant Cell. 19, 4077-4090.
- Solomon, P., Oliver, R.**, 2002. Evidence that γ -aminobutyric acid is a major nitrogen source during *Cladosporium fulvum* infection of tomato. Planta. 214, 414-420.
- Song, J., et al.**, 2009. Apoplastic effectors secreted by two unrelated eukaryotic plant pathogens target the tomato defense protease Rcr3. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 106, 1654-1659.

- Spanu, P. D., et al.**, 2010. Genome expansion and gene loss in powdery mildew fungi reveal tradeoffs in extreme parasitism. *Science*. 330, 1543-1546.
- Spoel, S. H., et al.**, 2003. NPR1 Modulates Cross-Talk between Salicylate- and Jasmonate-Dependent Defense Pathways through a Novel Function in the Cytosol. *The Plant Cell Online*. 15, 760-770.
- Spoel, S. H., et al.**, 2009. Proteasome-Mediated Turnover of the Transcription Coactivator NPR1 Plays Dual Roles in Regulating Plant Immunity. *Cell*. 137, 860-872.
- Stein, M., et al.**, 2006. Arabidopsis PEN3/PDR8, an ATP Binding Cassette Transporter, Contributes to Nonhost Resistance to Inappropriate Pathogens That Enter by Direct Penetration. *The Plant Cell Online*. 18, 731-746.
- Stelzl, U., et al.**, 2005. A Human Protein-Protein Interaction Network: A Resource for Annotating the Proteome. *Cell*. 122, 957-968.
- Stergiopoulos, I., de Wit, P. J. G. M.**, 2009. Fungal effector proteins. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 47, 233-263.
- Stotz, H. U., et al.**, 2011. Role of camalexin, indole glucosinolates, and side chain modification of glucosinolate-derived isothiocyanates in defense of Arabidopsis against *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*. *The Plant Journal*. 67, 81-93.
- Stuttmann, J., et al.**, 2011. Perturbation of Arabidopsis amino acid metabolism causes incompatibility with the adapted biotrophic pathogen *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis*. *Plant Cell*. 23, 2788-2803.
- Sugio, A., et al.**, 2011. Phytoplasma protein effector SAP11 enhances insect vector reproduction by manipulating plant development and defense hormone biosynthesis. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 108, E1254–E1263.
- Sutton, P. N., et al.**, 1999. Glucose, and not sucrose, is transported from wheat to wheat powdery mildew. *Planta*. 208, 426-430.
- Suzuki, T., et al.**, 2001. Two Types of Putative Nuclear Factors that Physically Interact with Histidine-Containing Phosphotransfer (Hpt) Domains, Signaling Mediators in His-to-Asp Phosphorelay, in Arabidopsis thaliana. *Plant and Cell Physiology*. 42, 37-45.
- Swarbreck, D., et al.**, 2008. The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR): gene structure and function annotation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 36, D1009-D1014.
- Swarbrick, P. J., et al.**, 2006. Metabolic consequences of susceptibility and resistance (race-specific and broad-spectrum) in barley leaves challenged with powdery mildew. *Plant, Cell Environ.* 29, 1061-1076.
- Szeto, C. Y. Y., et al.**, 2007. Le.MAPK and its interacting partner, Le.DRMIP, in fruiting body development in *Lentinula edodes*. *Gene*. 393, 87-93.
- Tada, Y., et al.**, 2008. Plant Immunity Requires Conformational Changes of NPR1 via S-Nitrosylation and Thioredoxins. *Science*. 321, 952-956.
- Takai, R., et al.**, 2008. Analysis of Flagellin Perception Mediated by flg22 Receptor OsFLS2 in Rice. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 21, 1635-1642.

- Takamatsu, S.**, 2004. Phylogeny and evolution of the powdery mildew fungi (Erysiphales, Ascomycota) inferred from nuclear ribosomal DNA sequences. *Mycoscience*. 45, 147-157.
- Takemoto, D., Jones, D. A.**, 2005. Membrane Release and Destabilization of Arabidopsis RIN4 Following Cleavage by *Pseudomonas syringae* AvrRpt2. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 18, 1258-1268.
- Takken, F. L. W., Tameling, W. I. L.**, 2009. To Nibble at Plant Resistance Proteins. *Science*. 324, 744-746.
- Tamura, K., et al.**, 2007. MEGA4: Molecular evolutionary genetics analysis (MEGA) software version 4.0. *Mol Biol Evol.* 24, 1596 - 1599.
- Tang, X., et al.**, 1996. Initiation of Plant Disease Resistance by Physical Interaction of AvrPto and Pto Kinase. *Science*. 274, 2060-2063.
- Tatematsu, K., et al.**, 2005. Identification of cis-Elements That Regulate Gene Expression during Initiation of Axillary Bud Outgrowth in Arabidopsis. *Plant Physiol.* 138, 757-766.
- Team, R. D. C.**, 2008. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing.
- Thines, B., et al.**, 2007. JAZ repressor proteins are targets of the SCFCO11 complex during jasmonate signalling. *Nature*. 448, 661-665.
- Thomas, S., et al.**, 2001. Gene identification in the obligate fungal pathogen *Blumeria graminis* by expressed sequence tag analysis. *Fungal Gen Biol.* 33, 195 - 211.
- Thomma, B. P. H. J., et al.**, 1999a. Requirement of Functional Ethylene-Insensitive 2Gene for Efficient Resistance of Arabidopsis to Infection by *Botrytis cinerea*. *Plant Physiol.* 121, 1093-1101.
- Thomma, B. P. H. J., et al.**, 1999b. Deficiency in phytoalexin production causes enhanced susceptibility of *Arabidopsis thaliana* to the fungus *Alternaria brassicicola*. *The Plant Journal*. 19, 163-171.
- Thomma, B. P. H. J., et al.**, 2011. Of PAMPs and Effectors: The Blurred PTI-ETI Dichotomy. *The Plant Cell Online*. 23, 4-15.
- Thomma, B. P. H. J., et al.**, 1999c. Disturbed correlation between fungal biomass and β -glucuronidase activity in infections of *Arabidopsis thaliana* with transgenic *Alternaria brassicicola*. *Plant Sci.* 148, 31-36.
- Thordal-Christensen, H.**, 2003. Fresh insights into processes of nonhost resistance. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 6, 351-357.
- Tian, M., et al.**, 2005. A Second Kazal-Like Protease Inhibitor from *Phytophthora infestans* Inhibits and Interacts with the Apoplastic Pathogenesis-Related Protease P69B of Tomato. *Plant Physiol.* 138, 1785-1793.
- Tian, M., et al.**, 2004. A Kazal-like Extracellular Serine Protease Inhibitor from *Phytophthora infestans* Targets the Tomato Pathogenesis-related Protease P69B. *J. Biol. Chem.* 279, 26370-26377.
- Töller, A.**, Studies of plant innate immunity provide new functional insights on class IIa WRKY transcription factors and reveals a role for two Glucan Synthase-Like genes in gametophyte

- development. Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, Vol. Ph.D. University of Cologne, Cologne, Germany, 2010.
- Torres, M. A., et al.**, 2006. Reactive Oxygen Species Signaling in Response to Pathogens. *Plant Physiol.* 141, 373-378.
- Torto, T. A., et al.**, 2003. EST Mining and Functional Expression Assays Identify Extracellular Effector Proteins From the Plant Pathogen *Phytophthora*. *Genome Res.* 13, 1675-1685.
- Tsuda, K., Katagiri, F.**, 2010. Comparing signaling mechanisms engaged in pattern-triggered and effector-triggered immunity. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 13, 459-465.
- Tsuda, K., et al.**, 2009. Network Properties of Robust Immunity in Plants. *PLoS Genet.* 5, e1000772.
- Uetz, P., et al.**, 2000. A comprehensive analysis of protein-protein interactions in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Nature.* 403, 623-627.
- Underwood, W., et al.**, 2007. The *Pseudomonas syringae* type III effector tyrosine phosphatase HopAO1 suppresses innate immunity in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *The Plant Journal.* 52, 658-672.
- Uppalapati, S. R., et al.**, 2007. The Phytotoxin Coronatine Contributes to Pathogen Fitness and Is Required for Suppression of Salicylic Acid Accumulation in Tomato Inoculated with *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 20, 955-965.
- van Damme, M., et al.**, 2012. The Irish Potato Famine Pathogen *Phytophthora infestans* Translocates the CRN8 Kinase into Host Plant Cells. *PLoS Pathog.* 8, e1002875.
- Van den Ackerveken, G., et al.**, 1996. Recognition of the Bacterial Avirulence Protein AvrBs3 Occurs inside the Host Plant Cell. *Cell.* 87, 1307-1316.
- van den Burg, H. A., et al.**, 2006. *Cladosporium fulvum* Avr4 Protects Fungal Cell Walls Against Hydrolysis by Plant Chitinases Accumulating During Infection. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 19, 1420-1430.
- Van Der Biezen, E. A., Jones, J. D. G.**, 1998. Plant disease-resistance proteins and the gene-for-gene concept. *Trends Biochem. Sci.* 23, 454-456.
- van der Hoorn, R. A. L., Kamoun, S.**, 2008. From Guard to Decoy: A New Model for Perception of Plant Pathogen Effectors. *The Plant Cell Online.* 20, 2009-2017.
- van Loon, L. C., et al.**, 2006. Significance of Inducible Defense-related Proteins in Infected Plants. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 44, 135-162.
- Vandepoele, K., et al.**, 2006. Identification of novel regulatory modules in dicotyledonous plants using expression data and comparative genomics. *Genome Biology.* 7, R103.
- Venkatesan, K., et al.**, 2009. An empirical framework for binary interactome mapping. *Nat Meth.* 6, 83-90.
- Vernoud, V., et al.**, 2003. Analysis of the Small GTPase Gene Superfamily of *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Physiol.* 131, 1191-1208.
- Vinardell, J. M., et al.**, 2003. Endoreduplication Mediated by the Anaphase-Promoting Complex Activator CCS52A Is Required for Symbiotic Cell Differentiation in *Medicago truncatula* Nodules. *The Plant Cell Online.* 15, 2093-2105.

- Vleeshouwers, V. G. A. A., et al.**, 2008. Effector Genomics Accelerates Discovery and Functional Profiling of Potato Disease Resistance and *Phytophthora infestans* Avirulence Genes. PLoS ONE. 3, e2875.
- Voegelé, R. T., Mendgen, K.**, 2003. Rust haustoria: nutrient uptake and beyond. New Phytol. 159, 93-100.
- Vogel, J., Somerville, S.**, 2000. Isolation and characterization of powdery mildew-resistant *Arabidopsis* mutants. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 97, 1897-1902.
- Vogel, J. P., et al.**, 2002. *PMR6*, a pectate lyase-like gene required for powdery mildew susceptibility in *Arabidopsis*. Plant Cell. 14, 2095-2106.
- Voinnet, O., et al.**, 2003. An enhanced transient expression system in plants based on suppression of gene silencing by the p19 protein of tomato bushy stunt virus. The Plant Journal. 33, 949-956.
- Wahl, R., et al.**, 2010. A novel high-affinity sucrose transporter is required for virulence of the plant pathogen *Ustilago maydis*. PLoS Biol. 8, e1000303.
- Walter, M., et al.**, 2004. Visualization of protein interactions in living plant cells using bimolecular fluorescence complementation. The Plant Journal. 40, 428-438.
- Walters, D. R., Ayres, P. G.**, 1981. Phosphate uptake and translocation by roots of powdery mildew infected barley. Physiol. Plant Pathology. 18, 195-205.
- Wan, J., et al.**, 2008. A LysM Receptor-Like Kinase Plays a Critical Role in Chitin Signaling and Fungal Resistance in *Arabidopsis*. The Plant Cell Online. 20, 471-481.
- Wang, D., et al.**, 2007. Salicylic Acid Inhibits Pathogen Growth in Plants through Repression of the Auxin Signaling Pathway. Curr. Biol. 17, 1784-1790.
- Wang, K. L.-C., et al.**, 2002. Ethylene Biosynthesis and Signaling Networks. The Plant Cell Online. 14, S131-S151.
- Wang, Q., et al.**, 2011. Transcriptional Programming and Functional Interactions within the *Phytophthora sojae* RXLR Effector Repertoire. The Plant Cell Online.
- Wang, R., Brattain, M. G.**, 2007. The maximal size of protein to diffuse through the nuclear pore is larger than 60kDa. FEBS Lett. 581, 3164-3170.
- Wang, W., et al.**, 2009. Specific targeting of the *Arabidopsis* resistance protein RPW8.2 to the interfacial membrane encasing the fungal haustorium renders broad-spectrum resistance to powdery mildew. Plant Cell. 21, 2898-2913.
- Wang, Y., et al.**, 2010. A *Pseudomonas syringae* ADP-Ribosyltransferase Inhibits *Arabidopsis* Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase Kinases. The Plant Cell Online.
- Wasternack, C.**, 2007. Jasmonates: An Update on Biosynthesis, Signal Transduction and Action in Plant Stress Response, Growth and Development. Ann. Bot. 100, 681-697.
- Weiler, E. W., et al.**, 1994. The *Pseudomonas* phytotoxin coronatine mimics octadecanoid signalling molecules of higher plants. FEBS Lett. 345, 9-13.

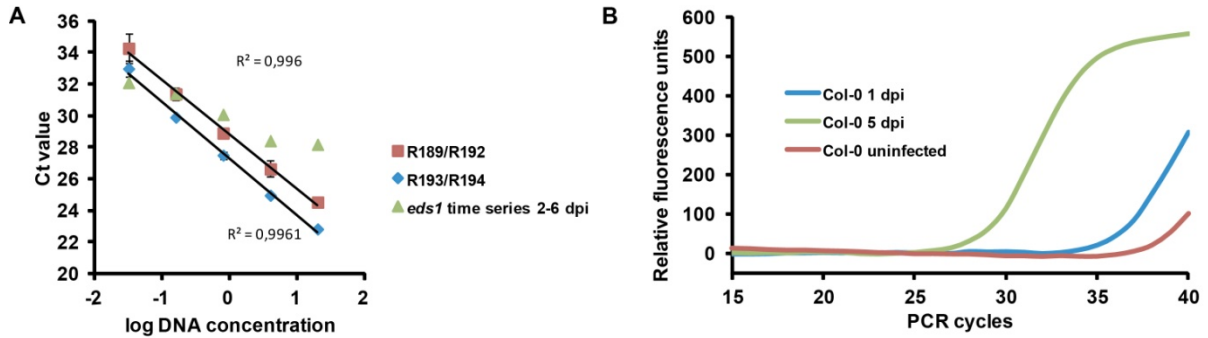
- Welchen, E., Gonzalez, D. H.**, 2006. Overrepresentation of Elements Recognized by TCP-Domain Transcription Factors in the Upstream Regions of Nuclear Genes Encoding Components of the Mitochondrial Oxidative Phosphorylation Machinery. *Plant Physiol.* 141, 540-545.
- Whisson, S. C., et al.**, 2007. A translocation signal for delivery of oomycete effector proteins into host plant cells. *Nature.* 450, 115-118.
- Wildermuth, M. C.**, 2010. Modulation of host nuclear ploidy: a common plant biotroph mechanism. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 13, 449-458.
- Wildermuth, M. C., et al.**, 2001. Isochorismate synthase is required to synthesize salicylic acid for plant defence. *Nature.* 414, 562-565.
- Williamson, V. M., Hussey, R. S.**, 1996. Nematode pathogenesis and resistance in plants. *The Plant Cell Online.* 8, 1735-45.
- Wilton, M., et al.**, 2010. The type III effector HopF2 Pto targets Arabidopsis RIN4 protein to promote *Pseudomonas syringae* virulence. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 107, 2349-2354.
- Wu, Y., et al.**, 2012. The Arabidopsis NPR1 Protein Is a Receptor for the Plant Defense Hormone Salicylic Acid. *Cell Reports.* 1, 639-647.
- Xiao, S., et al.**, 2005. The atypical resistance gene, RPW8, recruits components of basal defence for powdery mildew resistance in Arabidopsis. *The Plant Journal.* 42, 95-110.
- Xiao, S., et al.**, 2001. Broad-spectrum mildew resistance in *Arabidopsis thaliana* mediated by *RPW8*. *Science.* 291, 118-120.
- Xie, D.-X., et al.**, 1998. COI1: An Arabidopsis Gene Required for Jasmonate-Regulated Defense and Fertility. *Science.* 280, 1091-1094.
- Xu, J., Hamer, J.**, 1996. MAP kinase and cAMP signaling regulate infection structure formation and pathogenic growth in the rice blast fungus *Magnaporthe grisea*. *Genes Dev.* 10, 2696.
- Xu, J., et al.**, 2011. Gene discovery in EST sequences from the wheat leaf rust fungus *Puccinia triticina* sexual spores, asexual spores and haustoria, compared to other rust and corn smut fungi. *BMC Genomics.* 12, 161.
- Yamada, K., et al.**, 2003. Empirical Analysis of Transcriptional Activity in the Arabidopsis Genome. *Science.* 302, 842-846.
- Yamaguchi, Y., et al.**, 2010. PEPR2 Is a Second Receptor for the Pep1 and Pep2 Peptides and Contributes to Defense Responses in Arabidopsis. *The Plant Cell Online.* 22, 508-522.
- Yamaguchi, Y., et al.**, 2006. The cell surface leucine-rich repeat receptor for AtPep1, an endogenous peptide elicitor in Arabidopsis, is functional in transgenic tobacco cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 103, 10104-10109.
- Yan, J., et al.**, 2009. The Arabidopsis CORONATINE INSENSITIVE1 Protein Is a Jasmonate Receptor. *The Plant Cell Online.* 21, 2220-2236.
- Yan, Y., et al.**, 2007. A Downstream Mediator in the Growth Repression Limb of the Jasmonate Pathway. *The Plant Cell Online.* 19, 2470-2483.
- Yang, B., et al.**, 2006. Os8N3 is a host disease-susceptibility gene for bacterial blight of rice. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 103, 10503-10508.

- Yang, Y., Gabriel, D. W.,** 1995. *Xanthomonas* avirulence/pathogenicity gene family encodes functional plant nuclear targeting signals. *Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact.* 8, 627-631.
- Yasuda, M., et al.,** 2008. Antagonistic Interaction between Systemic Acquired Resistance and the Abscisic Acid-Mediated Abiotic Stress Response in Arabidopsis. *The Plant Cell Online.* 20, 1678-1692.
- Yin, C., et al.,** 2009. Generation and analysis of expression sequence tags from haustoria of the wheat stripe rust fungus *Puccinia striiformis* f. sp. *tritici*. *BMC Genomics.* 10, 626.
- Yin, Y., et al.,** 2005. A New Class of Transcription Factors Mediates Brassinosteroid-Regulated Gene Expression in Arabidopsis. *Cell.* 120, 249-259.
- Yu, H., et al.,** 1998. Identification of a Cullin Homology Region in a Subunit of the Anaphase-Promoting Complex. *Science.* 279, 1219-1222.
- Zachariae, W., et al.,** 1998. Mass Spectrometric Analysis of the Anaphase-Promoting Complex from Yeast: Identification of a Subunit Related to Cullins. *Science.* 279, 1216-1219.
- Zhang, J., et al.,** 2010. Receptor-like Cytoplasmic Kinases Integrate Signaling from Multiple Plant Immune Receptors and Are Targeted by a *Pseudomonas syringae* Effector. *Cell Host & Microbe.* 7, 290-301.
- Zhang, J., et al.,** 2007. A *Pseudomonas syringae* Effector Inactivates MAPKs to Suppress PAMP-Induced Immunity in Plants. *Cell Host & Microbe.* 1, 175-185.
- Zhang, W.-J., et al.,** 2012. Interaction of barley powdery mildew effector candidate CSEP0055 with the defence protein PR17c. *Mol. Plant Pathol.*, n/a-n/a.
- Zhang, Z., et al.,** 2004. *Blumeria graminis* secretes an extracellular catalase during infection of barley: potential role in suppression of host defence. *Mol. Plant Pathol.* 5, 537-547.
- Zheng, B., et al.,** 2011. The Anaphase-Promoting Complex Is a Dual Integrator That Regulates Both MicroRNA-Mediated Transcriptional Regulation of Cyclin B1 and Degradation of Cyclin B1 during Arabidopsis Male Gametophyte Development. *The Plant Cell Online.* 23, 1033-1046.
- Zhong, Q., et al.,** 2009. Edgetic perturbation models of human inherited disorders. *Mol Syst Biol.* 5.
- Zhou, N., et al.,** 1998. PAD4 Functions Upstream from Salicylic Acid to Control Defense Responses in Arabidopsis. *The Plant Cell Online.* 10, 1021-1030.
- Zhu, S., et al.,** 2011. SAG101 Forms a Ternary Complex with EDS1 and PAD4 and Is Required for Resistance Signaling against Turnip Crinkle Virus. *PLoS Pathog.* 7, e1002318.
- Zhu, W., et al.,** 1999. The C Terminus of AvrXa10 Can Be Replaced by the Transcriptional Activation Domain of VP16 from the Herpes Simplex Virus. *The Plant Cell Online.* 11, 1665-1674.
- Zhu, Y., et al.,** 2010. Structural mechanism of host Rab1 activation by the bifunctional *Legionella* type IV effector SidM/DrrA. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 107, 4699-4704.
- Zimmerli, L., et al., 2004. Host and non-host pathogens elicit different jasmonate/ethylene responses in Arabidopsis. *The Plant Journal.* 40, 633-646.
- Zipfel, C., et al.,** 2006. Perception of the Bacterial PAMP EF-Tu by the Receptor EFR Restricts Agrobacterium-Mediated Transformation. *Cell.* 125, 749-760.

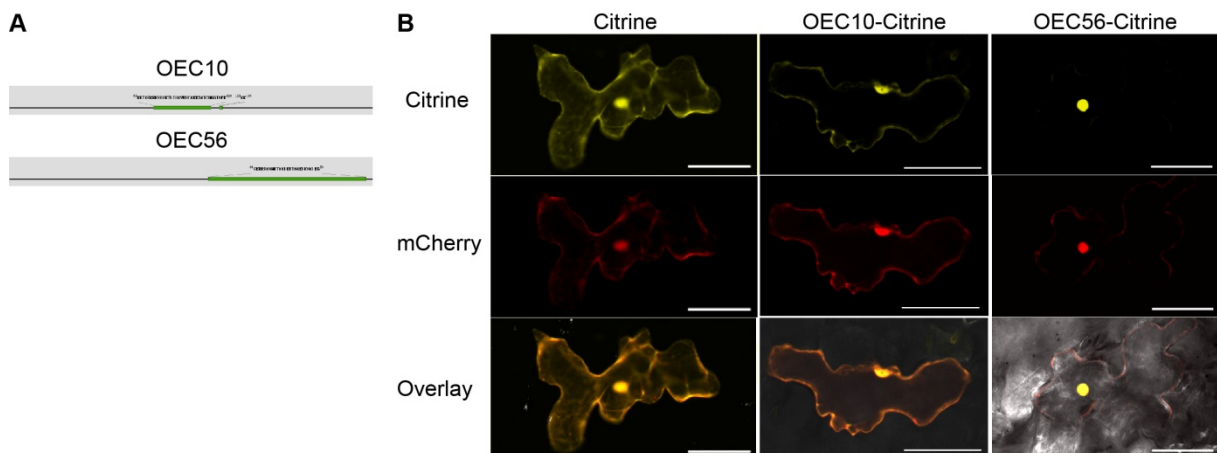
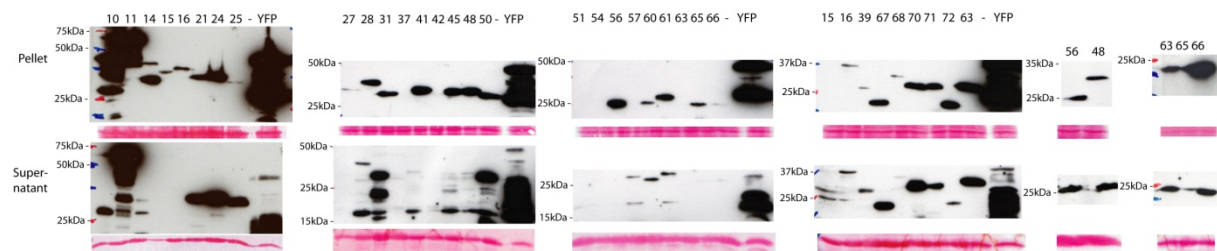
Zipfel, C., et al., 2004. Bacterial disease resistance in Arabidopsis through flagellin perception. Nature. 428, 764-767.

6 Supplemental Data

6.1 Supplemental Figures

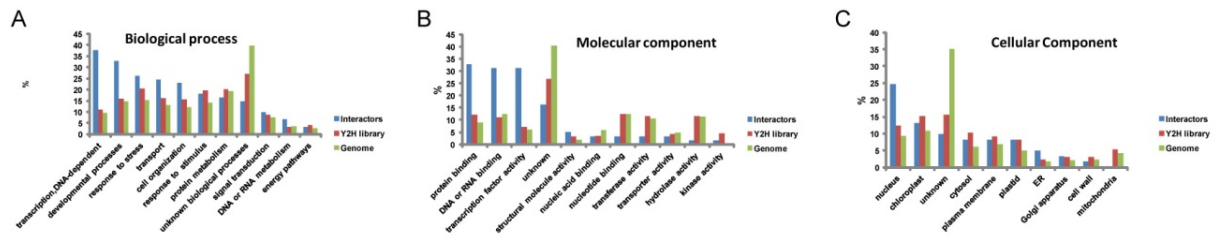


Supplemental Figure 1: Documentation of technical details related to the qPCR assay. (A) Primer efficiency calculations for primer sets R189/R192 (red) and R193/R194 (blue). Efficiency was calculated from a 5-fold dilution series. The respective correlation coefficients (R^2) are indicated. Ct values of *G. orontii* gDNA amplification from the *eds1* time series from 2-6 dpi are presented in green for comparison. **(B)** Comparison of amplification plots of *G. orontii*-infected Col-0 at 1 (blue) and 5 dpi (green) and the uninfected Col-0 control (red). Raw fluorescence data were exported and used for visualization. Ratios of *G. orontii* to Arabidopsis gDNA were determined by qPCR with primers R189/R192 and R193/R194, respectively.

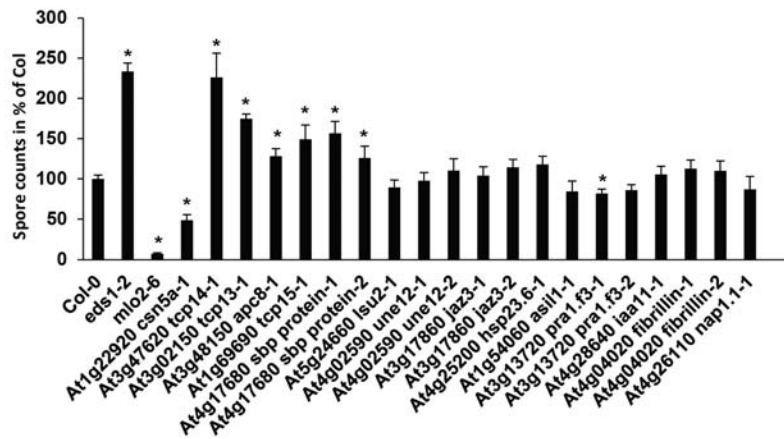


Supplemental Figure 3: Only OEC56 localizes exclusively to the nucleus in Arabidopsis. (A) Nuclear localization signals predicted for OEC10 and OEC56 by NLStradamus. **(B)** Biolistic transformation of single epidermal cells of Arabidopsis with vectors carrying Citrine, OEC10-Citrine or OEC56-Citrine. A construct carrying mCherry was cobombarded as a transformation

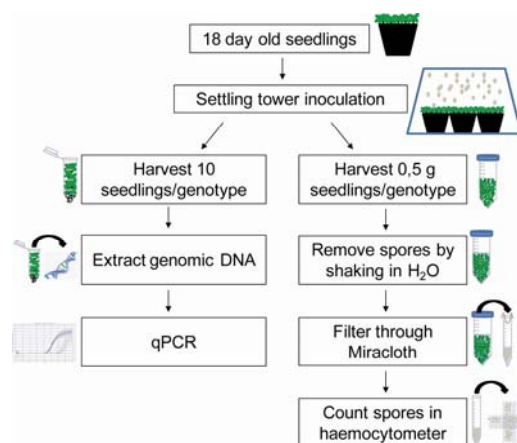
and localization control. Transformed cells were visualized by CLSM at 2dpi. 5 cells were imaged per transformation. Experiment was repeated once with similar results.



Supplemental Figure 4: Gene ontology distribution of OEC interacting Arabidopsis proteins. Gene Ontology distribution among OEC interactors (blue), Y2H library proteins (red) and the TAIR10 Arabidopsis proteome (green) for biological process (A), molecular component (B) and cellular component (C) categories. GO terms and distributions were retrieved from TAIR. Individual proteins may be represented in more than one category.



Supplemental Figure 5: Spore counts on additional lines. Spore numbers per seedling fresh weight were determined at 7dpi from three replicates per genotype and experiment, normalized to the average of Col-0 within each experiment and subsequently integrated. Bars represent the mean of three experiments \pm SE. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences to Col-0 in two-tailed Student's t-test ($p < 0,05$).



Supplemental Figure 6: Schematic overview of developed methods. Simplified view of the workflow of the qPCR- and spore count-based powdery mildew quantification procedures. For further details see main text.

6.2 Supplemental Tables

Supplemental Table 1: List of primers used in this study.

qRT-PCR Target	Name	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer
	OE61	GCGAGAGCGGAAGTCTGTA	CAGGAACCCCTGCCTGTAT
	OE63	CCAGTTTCTGGCGCAAAT	GGAGCTTGCATGTGTGTAAT
	OE65	TCAAATCTGGGCAATCTCT	ACAAGGTTCAACAGCAGCT
	OE25	ACGTTTGCCGTGGCTGTAAAT	GTCAACACCCGAGGTAAAGAA
A13C21215	RNA-binding family protein	GAACCAACCCTTACACCAG	GAGSAGGASGTTGGTATGA
AT1G16300	G-3-P dehydrogenase of plastid 2	AGCACCCTCCCTGCTTCTAT	CTTTCACCTGCTCCTGACR244
Go_V1_Contig3757	Plasma membrane ATPase 1	TCGCCGTATATTGGAGTC	CTGGGTCAGATGTTCCACT
Go_V1_Contig76	GDSL-like lipase	TCTTGGTGGCAGCAATGAC	AGTCCGAGATGGGAGCAGAC
GoEST_c2903	OE70	ATCTTGGCCCTATTTGTCTC	GTATGGTGGGAGATGAGT
GoEST_c2438	OE48	ACGCATCACATTCATTTCTC	TCTTGGGAATGCAATCTGTC
GoEST_c253	OE56	ACTCAGGGGAATCTTCGAT	ATTCTTTCTGCGCTTTCC
GoEST_c501	Conserved hypothetical protein	CACTACTCCAGCTTCATCT	TAGCAGCAAAATCCAATCA
GoEST_c5204	PMA1	GCAACATTGAACGCCTACT	TTGTAACGGCTAGATGTCT
GoEST_c5054	MFS maltose permease	ACGTGGAACACTATTTGGAG	TCTTTGTTCTACGCGAAT
GoEST_c22345	GLTRN1	TCGGCGAAGAAAGCTTGTAGT	CTTGGCTTCAATCCGAATA
GoEST_c311	GABA Permease	ACCGGGTGTATGTCACATGG	AACACCCGGACACAGTAGT
GoEST_c1259	SOD	GGGAAAAACCGGAAAGATCA	GGCTGTTCCATGGTGAAGTT
GoEST_c38	Phosphate transporter	GGATCACAAAGGAGGCCAAA	TTGGACTTCAGAACCCTCT
GoEST_c986	CAP20	ACCGTGAAGCCAGACAGACT	TGTGGAGATATGGCAGTA
GoEST_c4780	β-Tubulin	TGTTGGAGATCAATTTACCG	TCACCCCTCAGAGATAGAACC
Sequencing			
pB7W62		ATGACGCACAATCCCACTATCCTCGCA	AGCGAAAACCCATAAAGA
pDest-AD		CGCGTTTGGAACTACTACAGGG	GGAGACTTGAACAAACCTCTGGCG
pDest-DB		GGCTTTCAGTGGAGACTGATATGCCCTC	see above
pEDV		TACACCCAATCCCTATTGG	CCTTAAACACCGCCCGAGT
pUBQ	pUB-Vectors	ccaatttggattattctgg	TCTGGAACTACTCACAC
	pAM-PAT	ACAATCCCACTATCCTTC	
	pDONR201	TCGGTTAACGCTAGCTGGATCTC	GTAACATCAGAGATTTTGAGACAC
Cloning			
AT3G47620noStop	TCP14	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
AT5G24680noStop	LSU2	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCGGAAAGGAGAAACAT	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTACGAGGAGCAGAGCGAC
AT4G24840noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGATGCAAGATGAAGAAAGAAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAAACCAATTAATGAGTTTGCCCTA
AT3G21490noStop	Heavy metal transport/detoxification superfamily protein	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAAAGAAAGAACAACATGGCTTTG
AT4G26110noStop	NAP1.1	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCATG
AT3G02150noStop	TCP13	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
AT4G17680noStop	SBP family protein	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
AT4G11790noStop	PH domain superfamily protein	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
AT1G17700noStop	PR1.F1	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
AT1G55190noStop	PR1.F2	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
AT3G13720noStop	PR1.F3	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
AT3G47620	TCP14	see above	
AT5G24680	LSU2	see above	
AT4G24840		see above	
AT3G21490		see above	
AT4G26110	NAP1.1	see above	
AT4G17680		see above	
AT4G11790		see above	
AT1G17700	PR1.F1	see above	
AT1G55190	PR1.F2	see above	
AT3G13720	PR1.F3	PR1.F3	
OE9noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE9		see above	
OE10noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE10		see above	
OE11noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE11		see above	
OE13short			
OE14noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE14		see above	
OE15noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE15		see above	
OE16noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE16		see above	
OE16a		ATGCACATCCTTACTCGCAGTGT	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE20		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE21noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE21		see above	
OE22		ATGCTCTCAATAATCCCTCTCCTC	GCCTTCGGTGAATGAACTTGGT
OE23		ATGGTCGAGCCCCAGACTTGTGATG	GCCTTCGGTGAATGAACTTGGT
OE23a		ATGGTTCGCTCGAGCCGCC	TTATTTGGTGAATGAACTTGGT
OE23b		ATGGTTCCGCTTGAAGCTCTATTA	TTATTTGGTGAATGAACTTGGT
OE24noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE24		see above	
OE25noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE25		see above	
OE25b		ATGGCCAATAACCCCACTCAATAT	GCCTTCGGTGAATGAACTTGGT
OE27noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE27		see above	
OE28noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE28		see above	
OE29		ATGGGAATCGTTTTTTTGGTC	
OE30		ATGTTCCCAAAGGCCAACA	
OE31noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE31		see above	
OE33		ATGGCTCCCTACAGAAAATCTG	
OE35		ATGATGACCCACACAGATAAC	
OE38noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE38		see above	
OE37noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE37		see above	
OE38		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE39noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE39		see above	
OE41noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE41		see above	
OE42noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE42		see above	
OE43		ATGATCCTACTCTTATGAAC	
OE44		ATGGTCAACAAGGCCACTACTC	
OE45noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE45		see above	
OE47		ATGCAGCGCTCCGCAGCAAG	
OE48		see above	
OE49		ATGTTCAACAGTTTCACTCTCTC	
OE50noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE50		see above	
OE51noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE51		see above	
OE54noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE54		see above	
OE55noStop		GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTGATGCAAAAAAGCAACATCAAG	GGGGACCACCTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAACTTCTGCTGATCCCTCCTCATG
OE55		see above	

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Table 2 (continued from last page)

G. orontii EST contig ^a	Protein description ^b	Sequence length ^c	Average coverage ^d	E-value ^e	Gene Bank Id ^f	Species ^g
Protein catabolic process						
GoEST_c104	Conserved hypothetical protein	79	875	1.45E-13	XP_001931052	<i>Pyrenopeziza tritici-repentis</i>
GoEST_lrc4675	Proteasome component y7	120	658	1.78E-33	EEQ31310	<i>Pyrenopeziza tritici-repentis</i>
GoEST_c1083	Aspartyl protease	61	464	7.49E-08	XP_001557997	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Protein folding						
GoEST_c1770	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase	149	301	2.58E-57	AAQ16572	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c525	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase	174	259	1.20E-66	AAQ16572	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Lipid metabolic process						
GoEST_c1373	Protein	105	463	1.69E-24	XP_369287	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>
GoEST_c445	Acyl carrier	128	292	1.07E-34	XP_001783316	<i>Phaeosphaeria nodorum</i>
GoEST_c916	Glutathion s-transferase	140	258	5.14E-34	XP_001550749	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Nucleobase, nucleoside, nucleotide and nucleic acid metabolic process						
GoEST_c1856	Small nuclear ribonucleoprotein	93	380	2.47E-33	XP_748912	<i>Aspergillus terreus</i>
GoEST_c45	Adomet-dependent tma methyltransferase complex subunit	162	241	3.57E-39	EEU44619	<i>Nectria haematococca</i>
GoEST_lrc4686	Exosome complex exonuclease rrp41	72	232	2.16E-24	XP_001791170	<i>Phaeosphaeria nodorum</i>
Generation of precursor metabolites and energy						
GoEST_c1652	ATP synthase subunit	88	332	5.32E-08	XP_001552079	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c116	ATP synthase d mitochondrial	159	325	4.90E-68	XP_001593857	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c209	CHCH domain protein	153	218	1.51E-21	XP_001545865	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Organelle organization						
GoEST_c1342	Histone H3	136	472	5.35E-72	NP_001106556	<i>Xenopus (Silurana) tropicalis</i>
GoEST_c699	Profilin	129	458	7.78E-30	XP_386568	<i>Gibberella zeae</i>
GoEST_c400	Histone H4	103	440	6.60E-40	EEU42757	<i>Podospore anserina</i>
Cellular homeostasis						
GoEST_c351	TSA/AhpC family protein	161	467	3.01E-43	XP_001555759	<i>Penicillium marneffii</i>
GoEST_c612	Thioredoxin H	115	284	2.54E-20	XP_001829191	<i>Coprinus comatus</i>
Cell cycle						
GoEST_c245	HSP90 binding co-chaperone	160	290	6.23E-30	XP_370172	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>
Ion transport						
GoEST_c38	Phosphate transporter	152	216	3.95E-62	XP_001597838	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
Mycelium development						
GoEST_c1119	Conidiation-specific protein-8	83	947	4.53E-10	XP_001562999	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c586	Conserved hypothetical protein	201	846	5.62E-46	XP_001590087	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c886	CAP20 homolog	144	264	4.94E-51	AAK69534	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>
GoEST_c284	G-protein complex beta subunit	196	226	9.38E-68	EEU45366	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>
Vitamin metabolic process						
GoEST_c729	Riboflavin kinase	218	283	7.98E-49	Q6M923	<i>Schizophyllum commune</i>
Pathogenesis						
GoEST_c231	Extracellular matrix protein	221	224	3.03E-22	CAQ16265	<i>Glomerella graminicola</i>
Protein localization						
GoEST_c32	Membrane biogenesis protein	171	292	1.34E-63	XP_001598467	<i>Phaeosphaeria nodorum</i>
No functional annotation						
GoEST_c2903	--NA--	102	1463			
GoEST_c2438	--NA--	108	925			
GoEST_c1507	--NA--	135	923			
GoEST_c2235	--NA--	18	695			
GoEST_c697	--NA--	171	866			
GoEST_c501	Conserved hypothetical protein	207	864	8.24E-15	XP_001595620	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c2503	--NA--	101	635			
GoEST_c2918	--NA--	89	571			
GoEST_c1211	--NA--	91	453			
GoEST_c735	--NA--	69	453			
GoEST_c1162	--NA--	65	431			
GoEST_c1495	--NA--	58	406			
GoEST_c658	Conserved hypothetical protein	177	371	1.14E-20	XP_001556665	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_lrc4679	--NA--	139	349			
GoEST_c740	--NA--	35	309			
GoEST_c636	--NA--	168	306			
GoEST_c268	CFEM domain containing protein	154	305	1.30E-05	XP_001911616	<i>Podospore anserina</i>
GoEST_c484	Conserved hypothetical protein	113	287	1.44E-22	XP_002560580	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c2693	--NA--	104	257			
GoEST_c541	Conserved hypothetical protein	159	256	1.03E-11	XP_001596723	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c819	--NA--	45	234			
GoEST_c85	--NA--	163	223			
GoEST_c184	--NA--	141	218			

a: Identifier of assembled EST contigs
b: Description of haustorial genes derived from Blast2GO
c: Length of predicted proteins
d: Average coverage of transcripts
e: e-value as reported by blastp from Blast2GO
f: Gene identifier of best hit reported by Blast2GO
g: Species of best hit reported by Blast2GO

Supplemental Table 3: Top50 expressed transmembrane protein encoding genes of the G. orontii haustorial library.

G. orontii EST contig ^a	Protein description ^b	Sequence length ^c	Average coverage ^d	E-value ^e	Gene Bank Id ^f	Species ^g
Protein localization						
GoEST_c32	Membrane biogenesis protein Yop1	171	292	1.34E-63	XP_001598467	<i>Phaeosphaeria nodorum</i>
GoEST_c25	Synaptobrevin	121	173	1.21E-38	XP_002148838	<i>Penicillium chrysogenum</i>
GoEST_c1027	Mitochondrial import receptor subunit tom22	117	70	2.56E-19	XP_001598196	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c282	Endosomal cargo receptor	210	68	7.54E-80	XP_001554064	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c402	Mitochondrial import receptor subunit tom22	119	67	3.52E-20	XP_001598196	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
Generation of precursor metabolites and energy						
GoEST_c183	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit V	176	144	8.75E-58	XP_001591171	<i>Chaetomium globosum</i>
GoEST_c208	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit VIa	117	136	1.16E-31	XP_001546435	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c272	NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase subunit	125	133	3.03E-29	XP_001592645	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c41	Cytochrome c	80	125	4.87E-21	XP_001546681	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c11	Mitochondrial f1f0 atp synthase subunit f	101	121	4.24E-39	XP_001547689	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c42	Succinate dehydrogenase cytochrome b560 subunit	163	111	3.21E-45	XP_001547075	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c147	Cytochrome c oxidase assembly protein ctg	104	101	1.29E-20	XP_001545817	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c515	Conserved hypothetical protein	281	84	4.14E-21	XP_001596851	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c35	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 9.5 kda subunit	118	63	8.42E-23	XP_001552000	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c4	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 213 kda subunit	192	80	1.72E-35	XP_001550622	<i>Coccidioides posadasii</i>
GoEST_c128	Cytochrome C1	281	70	2.46E-119	XP_001556506	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c495	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 14 kda	92	65	6.71E-25	XP_002484810	<i>Paracoccidioides brasiliensis</i>
Lipid metabolic process						
GoEST_c103	C-4 methyl sterol oxidase	303	71	6.23E-126	XP_001547478	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
Protein modification process						
GoEST_c477	Prenyl cysteine carboxyl methyltransferase	229	92	6.08E-28	XP_362626	<i>Gibberella zeae</i>
GoEST_c135	Dolichyl-phosphate mannosyltransferase polypeptide 3	92	66	7.76E-13	EEY23436	<i>Verticillium albo-atrum</i>
Response to stimulus						
GoEST_c69	Stress response rci	57	135	1.44E-13	XP_569421	<i>Coccidioides immitis</i>
GoEST_c478	Stress response rci	77	87	4.11E-13	CAP65494	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>
GoEST_c569	Opsin 1	135	60	2.83E-58	XP_001597420	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
Ion transport						
GoEST_c38	Phosphate transporter	152	216	3.95E-62	XP_001597838	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
Mycelium development						
GoEST_c589	Integral membrane protein	112	63	7.88E-07	XP_001222747	<i>Chaetomium globosum</i>
Regulation of apoptosis						
GoEST_c70	Mitochondrial membrane fission protein	154	101	2.16E-61	XP_001548925	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c53	Bax inhibitor family protein	125	63	2.93E-32	XP_001595227	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>

Supplemental Table 3 (continued from last page)

G. orontii EST contig ^a	Protein description ^b	Sequence length ^c	Average coverage ^d	E-value ^e	Gene Bank Idf	Species ^g
No functional annotation						
GoEST_irc4907	---NA---	139	350			
GoEST_c636	---NA---	168	306			
GoEST_c641	Hypothetical protein	159	256	1,03E-11	XP_001596723	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c184	---NA---	141	218			
GoEST_c17	Mitochondrial hypoxia responsive domain protein	167	104	5,83E-45	XP_001545600	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c80	Conserved hypothetical protein	146	158	9,45E-30	XP_001560656	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c133	Hypothetical protein	93	154	2,94E-14	XP_001586834	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c450	Conserved hypothetical protein	201	149	5,82E-41	XP_001593371	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c674	Conserved hypothetical protein	254	122	4,60E-58	XP_001560540	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c249	Cytochrome b5	134	119	1,78E-36	XP_001585515	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c504	Conserved hypothetical protein	237	111	3,15E-50	XP_001545677	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c120	Conserved hypothetical protein	96	91	1,90E-23	XP_001588360	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c7	Conserved hypothetical protein	165	86	5,38E-27	XP_001557757	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c304	Staphylococcal nuclease domain containing protein	223	84	1,44E-74	XP_001559036	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c108	NAD-binding domain 4 protein	409	83	8,46E-71	XP_001390934	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
GoEST_c517	Ubiquitin-domain protein	237	76	6,87E-34	XP_001910410	<i>Podospira anserina</i>
GoEST_c568	Conserved hypothetical protein	128	71	1,44E-18	XP_001593081	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c895	Hypothetical protein	76	61	1,98E-33	XP_001597584	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c239	---NA---	90	61			
GoEST_c368	---NA---	237	60			
GoEST_c833	Conserved hypothetical protein	150	58	4,18E-10	XP_001560812	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c678	---NA---	279	57			

a: Identifier of assembled EST contigs
b: Description of haustorial genes derived from Blast2GO
c: Length of predicted proteins
d: Average coverage of transcripts
e: e-value as reported by blastp from Blast2GO
f: Gene identifier of best hit reported by Blast2GO
g: Species of best hit reported by Blast2GO

Supplemental Table 4: Top50 expressed secreted protein encoding genes of the *G. orontii* haustorial library.

G. orontii EST contig ^a	Protein description ^b	Sequence length ^c	Average coverage ^d	E-value ^e	Gene Bank Idf	Species ^g	Effector candidate
No functional annotation							
GoEST_c2438	---NA---	108	925				x
GoEST_c997	---NA---	171	666				x
GoEST_c501	Conserved hypothetical protein	207	664	8,24E-15	XP_001595620	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
GoEST_irc4679	---NA---	139	349				x
GoEST_c268	CFEM domain containing protein	154	305	1,30E-05	XP_001911616	<i>Podospira anserina</i>	
GoEST_c47	---NA---	28	188				
GoEST_c367	Hypothetical protein	91	180	1,80E-05	XP_001590989	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
GoEST_c500	---NA---	206	136				x
GoEST_c2239	---NA---	109	122				x
GoEST_c62	---NA---	133	118				x
GoEST_c253	---NA---	86	78				x
GoEST_c285	Conserved hypothetical protein	181	77	1,02E-25	EELI43966	<i>Gibberella zeae</i>	
GoEST_c392	Conserved hypothetical protein	216	66	5,54E-45	EELI43966	<i>Verticillium albo-atrum</i>	
GoEST_c348	---NA---	113	64				x
GoEST_c1080	---NA---	79	48				x
GoEST_c4732	---NA---	76	41				x
GoEST_c956	Carbonic anhydrase	281	41	6,74E-66	XP_001552065	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>	
GoEST_c821	Allergen asp f4	344	36	3,03E-54	XP_001559716	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>	
GoEST_c943	Conserved hypothetical protein	173	35	6,94E-29	XP_001597032	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>	
GoEST_c1195	---NA---	117	34				x
GoEST_c808	---NA---	213	33				x
GoEST_irc11563	Conserved hypothetical protein	137	27	3,68E-25	XP_001593371	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
GoEST_c5169	---NA---	144	27				x
GoEST_c27130	---NA---	65	26				x
GoEST_c5274	---NA---	116	23				x
GoEST_c5194	Covalently-linked cell wall protein	329	20	2,65E-58	AAK95385	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>	
GoEST_c5773	---NA---	100	19				x
GoEST_c4872	---NA---	137	19				x
GoEST_c2118	---NA---	194	19				x
GoEST_c5051	---NA---	176	18				x
GoEST_c5962	---NA---	70	17				x
GoEST_c4284	Extracellular serine-threonine rich protein	291	17	2,25E-17	XP_001594618	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
GoEST_c5451	---NA---	202	15				x
Protein metabolic process							
GoEST_c424	60s acidic ribosomal protein p2	110	281	1,10E-16	XP_965172	<i>Sordaria macrospora</i>	
GoEST_c335	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase b	209	120	1,90E-66	XP_001556077	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>	
GoEST_c115	Aspartic endopeptidase pep2	396	81	7,22E-167	XP_001554261	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>	
GoEST_c13	Serine protease	358	57	9,10E-84	XP_001588618	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
GoEST_c262	FKBP-type peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase	168	55	9,29E-46	XP_001585920	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
GoEST_c5463	Oligosaccharyltransferase subunit ribophorin	136	23	3,32E-22	XP_001937381	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
Carbohydrate metabolic process							
GoEST_c4743	Beta-glucanoyltransferase GEL1	415	29	0,00E+00	XP_001550496	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>	
GoEST_c4968	Chitin deacetylase	324	27	1,90E-134	AAK84438	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>	
GoEST_c4808	Xylanase 3	378	18	2,24E-92	XP_001597291	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
Mycelium development							
GoEST_c260	CFEM-domain containing protein	210	195	2,64E-22	XP_001549293	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>	
Transport							
GoEST_c242	Endoplasmic reticulum vesicle protein	204	136	1,00E-69	XP_001588872	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
GoEST_c227	Endosomal cargo receptor	124	84	1,94E-24	XP_001545203	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>	
GoEST_c583	Secretory pathway protein	220	50	3,19E-46	XP_001556350	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>	
Lipid metabolic process							
GoEST_c5560	Conserved hypothetical protein	157	24	6,29E-44	XP_001593645	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	
Pathogenesis							
GoEST_c231	Extracellular matrix protein	221	224	3,03E-17	CAQ16265	<i>Glomerella graminicola</i>	
GoEST_c5330	Cell surface protein	365	16	6,45E-108	AAK25793	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>	
Superoxide metabolic process							
GoEST_c1259	Cu Zn superoxide dismutase	233	30	1,92E-63	XP_001556224	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>	

a: Identifier of assembled EST contigs
b: Description of haustorial genes derived from Blast2GO
c: Length of predicted proteins
d: Average coverage of transcripts
e: e-value as reported by blastp from Blast2GO
f: Gene identifier of best hit reported by Blast2GO
g: Species of best hit reported by Blast2GO

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Table 5: Transporter proteins present in the *G. orontii* haustorial library.

G. orontii EST contig ^a	Protein description ^b	Sequence length ^c	Average coverage ^d	E-value ^e	Gene Bank Id ^f	Species ^g
Sugar transporters						
GoEST_c5014	MFS sugar	256	26	3.38E-72	EEU39950	<i>Nectria haematococca</i>
GoEST_c5054	MFS maltose permease	247	17	2.00E-128	XP_002484658	<i>Talaromyces stipitatus</i>
GoEST_c5149	MFS sugar	215	16	2.60E-95	XP_001803583	<i>Phaeosphaeria nodorum</i>
GoEST_c5621	Sucrose transporter	152	16	7.99E-45	XP_001240500	<i>Coccidioides immitis</i>
GoEST_c5621	Sucrose transporter	152	16	7.99E-45	XP_001240500	<i>Coccidioides immitis</i>
GoEST_c6506	Maltose permease	323	11	1.52E-84	EEU35698	<i>Nectria haematococca</i>
GoEST_c6236	MFS monosaccharide	377	9	1.94E-104	XP_001590994	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c6579	MFS sugar	95	9	5.04E-14	EDP48424	<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>
GoEST_c10133	High affinity glucose transporter rgt2	135	8	2.25E-31	XP_001594028	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c8982	High-affinity glucose transporter	142	8	8.30E-42	XP_001594028	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
Amino Acid transporters						
GoEST_c311	GABA permease	298	49	2.98E-116	XP_001552644	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c4777	MFS amine	140	41	2.37E-28	XP_001523046	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>
GoEST_c4945	GABA permease	353	16	1.66E-154	XP_001592106	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c6938	Amino acid permease	169	7	1.66E-94	XP_001554295	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
	Large neutral amino acids transporter small subunit 2	174	6	1.98E-80	XP_001598606	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c9414	Oligopeptide transporter	215	5	2.48E-68	CAI79386	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>
Drug Efflux transporters						
GoEST_c153	MFS drug efflux	314	60	2.41E-58	XP_660841	<i>Aspergillus nidulans</i>
GoEST_c1098	MFS multidrug	235	40	7.97E-26	XP_002486702	<i>Talaromyces stipitatus</i>
GoEST_c728	MFS multidrug	398	31	2.79E-97	XP_001550345	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c755	MFS multidrug	344	30	1.52E-92	XP_383231	<i>Gibberella zeae</i>
GoEST_c5353	MFS multidrug	90	14	1.21E-70	XP_001559102	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c7565	MFS multidrug transporter	272	12	3.02E-30	XP_002145814	<i>Penicillium marneffeii</i>
GoEST_c7486	MFS drug efflux	365	10	2.74E-125	XP_001401988	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>
GoEST_c6501	MFS multidrug	80	9	1.91E-15	XP_001906690	<i>Podospora anserina</i>
Other transporters						
GoEST_c38	Phosphate transporter	152	216	8.60E-60	XP_001597838	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c378	Izh family channel protein	389	58	1.08E-152	ACA43006	<i>Sporothrix schenckii</i>
GoEST_c4720	MFS monocarboxylic acid transporter	274	22	4.68E-72	XP_001555261	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c5331	Sulfate transporter	303	17	6.00E-45	EEY21422	<i>Verticillium albo-atrum</i>
GoEST_c5530	Pantothenate transporter liz1	217	13	6.08E-45	XP_001593662	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c6922	Potassium ion transporter	111	13	2.35E-28	XP_001558290	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c7783	MFS	205	10	2.81E-43	EEY22694	<i>Verticillium albo-atrum</i>
GoEST_c7062	Voltage-gated chloride channel	218	9	1.40E-94	XP_001552228	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c7409	High-affinity iron transporter	106	8	1.83E-64	XP_001597434	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c7295	MFS transporter	339	8	2.62E-107	XP_001585932	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c9403	Calcium ion transporter	179	7	2.03E-53	XP_001560775	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
	C4-dicarboxylate transporter malic acid transport	277	7	1.00E-106	XP_001596399	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c10216	MFS phosphate transporter	91	6	1.40E-49	XP_958868	<i>Neurospora crassa</i>
GoEST_c10623	Na+ H+ antiporter nha1	95	6	3.12E-33	XP_001598436	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c7720	Urea transporter	231	6	1.01E-93	XP_964341	<i>Neurospora crassa</i>
GoEST_c11501	Membrane transporter	88	5	1.89E-18	XP_001585435	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>

a: Identifier of assembled EST contigs

b: Description of haustorial genes derived from Blast2GO

c: Length of predicted proteins

d: Average coverage of transcripts

e: e-value as reported by blastp from Blast2GO

f: Gene identifier of best hit reported by Blast2GO

g: Species of best hit reported by Blast2GO

Supplemental Table 6: Pathogenesis-related transcripts identified in the *G. orontii* haustorial library.

G. orontii EST contig ^a	Protein description ^b	Sequence length ^c	Average coverage ^d	E-value ^e	Gene Bank Id ^f	Species ^g
Pathogenesis						
GoEST_c136	Autophagic death protein aut7	89	130	8.4E-36	XP_001909318	<i>Trichophyton verrucosum</i>
GoEST_c41	Cytochrome C	80	125	4.9E-21	XP_001546681	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c126	Exosome complex subunit	233	91	7.6E-80	XP_001554662	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c615	Fungal specific transcription	113	53	4.3E-17	XP_002144445	<i>Talaromyces stipitatus</i>
GoEST_c139	G-protein alpha subunit	206	51	2E-108	CAC10177	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>
GoEST_c1044	Eggh16	208	37	2.7E-83	AAB05211	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>
GoEST_c4898	ER lumen protein retaining	106	36	1.5E-33	XP_001597574	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c730	Adenylation cyclase	286	32	2E-119	CAC19663	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>
GoEST_c4866	Mitogen-activated protein kinase	246	24	2E-133	AAG53654	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>
GoEST_c4904	Peroxisomal hydratase-dehydrogenase-epimerase	275	22	7.1E-94	XP_001589313	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c4882	Guanine nucleotide-binding protein beta subunit	149	20	2.5E-77	XP_001595393	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c1475	Rho GTPase	199	20	5E-103	XP_360655	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>
GoEST_c5253	Neutral trehalase	329	18	4E-139	XP_001593547	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c5330	Cell surface protein	365	16	6E-113	AAK25793	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>
GoEST_c5597	Hypothetical protein	207	14	2.4E-47	XP_001554384	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c6529	Polymerase zeta subunit	136	14	6.2E-56	EEU47080	<i>Nectria haematococca</i>
GoEST_c6706	Guanine nucleotide-binding protein beta subunit	89	11	1.5E-23	AAL90861	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c6115	Transcription factor stea	331	11	9.6E-78	ACJ06644	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c6291	Hypothetical protein	87	11	1.2E-22	XP_001587154	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c7421	cAMP-dependent protein kinase catalytic subunit 1	91	10	1.3E-42	CAB61490	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>
GoEST_c6322	Carnitine o-acetyltransferase	395	10	0	XP_001547114	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c6555	Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase	394	9	0	XP_001596065	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c7900	Neutral trehalase	165	9	1.6E-73	XP_001547841	<i>Podospora anserina</i>
GoEST_c7068	Hypothetical protein	414	8	2E-118	XP_001561172	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c7493	Hypothetical protein	223	8	2.7E-57	XP_001405070	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>
GoEST_c7138	Y1521-b-like splicing	326	8	4.6E-95	XP_001553612	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c6762	Dual specificity protein kinase pom1	151	7	8.9E-82	EEY14178	<i>Sordaria macrospora</i>
GoEST_c6908	Developmental regulator flba	143	7	1.2E-47	XP_001589336	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c8367	RNAii degradation factor	113	6	7.4E-11	XP_001592227	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c12113	S-adenosylmethionine synthetase	82	6	1E-37	XP_001556886	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c9383	Rho-like gtpase cdc42	194	6	1E-104	XP_368778	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>
GoEST_c8081	Rhomboid family membrane protein	227	6	2.9E-65	XP_001553034	<i>Podospora anserina</i>
GoEST_c9267	Hypothetical protein	249	5	1.2E-93	XP_001588481	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c8707	Peroxisomal multifunctional beta-oxidation protein	187	5	5.1E-82	XP_001400728	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>
GoEST_c9724	Serine threonine protein kinase	187	5	3.3E-55	XP_001556061	<i>Botryotinia fuckeliana</i>
GoEST_c10398	SH3 domain protein	124	5	5.3E-59	XP_961833	<i>Sordaria macrospora</i>

a: Identifier of assembled EST contigs

b: Description of haustorial genes derived from Blast2GO

c: Length of predicted proteins

d: Average coverage of transcripts

e: e-value as reported by blastp from Blast2GO

f: Gene identifier of best hit reported by Blast2GO

g: Species of best hit reported by Blast2GO

Supplemental Table 10: Interactions of Arabidopsis proteins with OECs as determined by Y2H

AGI identifier	Space	Interacting OEC	AGI identifier	Space	Interacting OEC
AT1G12520	1	OEC45	AT3G48150	1	OEC67
AT1G21200	1	OEC45	AT3G51960	1	OEC112
AT1G22920	1	OEC21	AT3G51960	1	OEC25
AT1G22920	1	OEC25	AT3G51960	1	OEC45
AT1G22920	1	OEC81	AT3G61150	1	OEC25
AT1G22920	1	OEC67	AT4G00120	1	OEC45
AT1G22920	1	OEC70	AT4G01090	1	OEC45
AT1G22920	1	OEC71	AT4G02590	1	OEC78
AT1G22920	1	OEC78	AT4G04020	1	OEC78
AT1G22920	1	OEC85	AT4G08150	1	OEC45
AT1G22920	1	OEC89	AT4G15730	1	OEC45
AT1G25490	1	OEC119	AT4G17680	1	OEC61
AT1G25490	1	OEC70	AT4G22240	1	OEC78
AT1G25550	1	OEC67	AT4G24840	1	OEC25
AT1G25550	1	OEC78	AT4G25200	1	OEC117
AT1G31880	1	OEC78	AT4G25200	1	OEC76
AT1G54060	1	OEC70	AT4G25200	1	OEC78
AT1G55190	1	OEC65	AT4G25200	1	OEC88
AT1G63480	1	OEC45	AT4G26110	1	OEC56
AT1G69690	1	OEC21	AT4G28640	1	OEC115
AT1G69690	1	OEC39	AT4G30080	1	OEC78
AT1G69690	1	OEC67	AT5G11980	1	OEC25
AT1G69690	1	OEC78	AT5G24660	1	OEC25
AT1G71230	1	OEC21	AT5G42220	1	OEC70
AT1G71230	1	OEC25	AT1G04690	2	OEC55
AT1G71230	1	OEC36	AT1G17700	2	OEC65
AT1G71230	1	OEC49	AT1G23380	2	OEC84
AT1G71230	1	OEC67	AT1G55170	2	OEC118
AT1G71230	1	OEC70	AT1G77250	2	OEC45
AT1G71230	1	OEC71	AT2G02540	2	OEC21
AT1G71230	1	OEC77	AT2G02540	2	OEC45
AT1G71230	1	OEC78	AT2G02540	2	OEC78
AT1G71230	1	OEC85	AT2G45680	2	OEC27
AT2G05230	1	OEC118	AT2G45680	2	OEC39
AT2G23420	1	OEC123	AT2G45680	2	OEC49
AT2G23420	1	OEC16	AT2G45680	2	OEC67
AT2G23420	1	OEC25b	AT2G45680	2	OEC70
AT2G23420	1	OEC54	AT2G45680	2	OEC76
AT2G37020	1	OEC67	AT3G06940	2	OEC25
AT3G01670	1	OEC83	AT3G14750	2	OEC118
AT3G02150	1	OEC45	AT3G22420	2	OEC45
AT3G02150	1	OEC61	AT3G27010	2	OEC119
AT3G02150	1	OEC78	AT3G27010	2	OEC14
AT3G08530	1	OEC45	AT3G27010	2	OEC21
AT3G08530	1	OEC63	AT3G27010	2	OEC67
AT3G10480	1	OEC115	AT3G27010	2	OEC68
AT3G13720	1	OEC65	AT3G27010	2	OEC77
AT3G17860	1	OEC78	AT3G58030	2	OEC78
AT3G21215	1	OEC45	AT4G08320	2	OEC59
AT3G21490	1	OEC115	AT4G11790	2	OEC63
AT3G21490	1	OEC56	AT5G08130	2	OEC115
AT3G25800	1	OEC119	AT5G42480	2	OEC78
AT3G47620	1	OEC101	AT5G48370	2	OEC103
AT3G47620	1	OEC103	AT5G48370	2	OEC78
AT3G47620	1	OEC106	AT5G48370	2	OEC84
AT3G47620	1	OEC110	AT5G65180	2	OEC35
AT3G47620	1	OEC113	AT5G65180	2	OEC78
AT3G47620	1	OEC117			
AT3G47620	1	OEC119			
AT3G47620	1	OEC120			
AT3G47620	1	OEC123			
AT3G47620	1	OEC125			
AT3G47620	1	OEC16a			
AT3G47620	1	OEC21			
AT3G47620	1	OEC23a			
AT3G47620	1	OEC23b			
AT3G47620	1	OEC27			
AT3G47620	1	OEC35			
AT3G47620	1	OEC39			
AT3G47620	1	OEC45			
AT3G47620	1	OEC55			
AT3G47620	1	OEC60			
AT3G47620	1	OEC70			
AT3G47620	1	OEC88			
AT3G47620	1	OEC92			

Supplemental Table 11: T-DNA insertion lines used in this study. Lines were either obtained from NASC and screened for homozygous insertions with the primers listed or homozygous lines were provided by Jeff Dangl, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, USA as indicated.

AGI identifier	Name	T-DNA insertion line	Left Primer	Right Primer	TDNA Primer
AT1G04690		SALK_030039	GAGGGAAATAGCTCCCTTTGTTG	GATGTGAAAAGCGGAAATCG	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT1G21200		SALK_101859	TGTAGTGCCTCGCGGATATC	ACTTATCCCTCAGATTGCTCGG	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT1G23380		SALK_054482	AGCAGACAGAAAACAAAACCC	GTTTCCCTCCGATTACCAAC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT1G85170		SALK_002678	GCAGGATGCTGTAATCAGAAG	GATGCATACCACAAAACACC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT1G72750		SALK_012299	CGTAGTTCGGAAAGCTGAACAC	AACCATTCCATTTGGAACC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT2G37020		SAIL_36	GGAGAAGTGAACACAGGCAG	TCAGTAGGATGCTAAGGGGG	TGAATTTATAACCAATCTCGATACAC
AT3G01670		SALK_148614	CTGATGATCACCATTGTTGCTG	TCTCCGAAACTTCGATAAACG	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT3G06940		SALK_045336	TTCCGATCCTCATTCTGATG	TTTGCATTTGACAGACACTCG	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT3G10480		SALK_026244	TCCTAGCCTTTGTAATCTTTGAAC	TTCAATTCCTGATCCACAAGC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT3G21215		SALK_059597	TTGAGATGTTGCTGCTGTTAC	AGGCTCCTCAATTCTCTTGG	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT3G22420		SALK_121042	CTCGTCTCATCTCATCTCCG	TTGCGTTGGTACTTCAAACCC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT3G27010		SALK_016203	AAATTTCTTGAACCCACCACC	CCACCTGCAAGTTCAAACAC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT3G61150		SALK_062171	CGACAAAGCTTAGGGGTTTTT	TTGAGATCTCACCATAACGG	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT4G08320		SAIL_731	GTTTGGTTGGCTTTTCAAGTTG	GGAAAATATGCCGAGGCTATC	TGAATTTATAACCAATCTCGATACAC
AT4G11790		SALK_043553	GTTTGGGTTCTTTGAAAGG	AAGAAAGATTGCCAACAATTCTC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT4G15730		SALK_094600	AACTTTAAAGCGGCTCGAGG	TGCCATAATTGATGAAGGTGG	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT4G22240		SAIL_384	AGAGTTTTCAAAGTCCGAGCC	GGCCATAGACGAGATGTTCTG	TGAATTTATAACCAATCTCGATACAC
AT4G30980		SAIL_272	TTATTTTCGGGAAAATTTTCG	TCGAGCATCTAATGCCCTTGAC	TGAATTTATAACCAATCTCGATACAC
AT5G08130		SALK_132178	TGTATTGTCCGAGATTCCACC	CACCTCCTGAATTCTCAATGC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT5G42220		SALK_151742	GCTTGACTTGTGAGGAAAC	TTGCTAGGTTGTGAATGACC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT5G42480		SAIL_693	ATCAGCAACGGACATTCAAC	TAAATGTTTTAAGCGGTGTGC	TGAATTTATAACCAATCTCGATACAC
AT5G48370		SALK_122483	GCTGGCATGTGAGAGAAATCC	TCTTACCACCAATGAAATTC	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT5G65180		SALK_119527	TGCTCTCAGAAAGCTCCAC	AAGTTTGTAGCTTCGGCTG	ATTTTGCCGATTTGGAAC
AT1G22920	<i>csn5a-1</i>	SALK_027705			
AT1G54060	<i>osil1-1</i>	SALK_124095C			
AT1G69690	<i>tcp15-1</i>	SALK_011491C			
AT3G02150	<i>tcp13-1</i>	SM_3_23151			
AT3G13720	<i>pro1.f3-1</i>	SALK_116960C			
AT3G13720	<i>pro1.f3-2</i>	SALK_079876			
AT3G17860	<i>jax3-2</i>	SALK_067825C			
AT3G17860	<i>jax3-1</i>	SALK_139337C			
AT3G47620	<i>tcp14-1</i>	SAIL_1145_H03			
AT3G48150	<i>apc8-1</i>	SALK_000028C			
AT4G02590	<i>une12-1</i>	SALK_010825C			
AT4G02590	<i>une12-2</i>	SALK_135303			
At4g04020	<i>fibrillin-1</i>	SALK_024528C			
At4g04020	<i>fibrillin-2</i>	SALK_130350			
AT4G17680	<i>sbp protein-1</i>	SAIL_71_D10			
AT4G17680	<i>sbp protein-2</i>	SAIL_420_E12			
At4g25200	<i>hsp23 6-1</i>	SAIL_373_B09			
At4g26110	<i>nap1.1-1</i>	SALK_144711			
At4G28640	<i>iao1-1</i>	SALK_033787C			
AT5G24660	<i>lsu2-1</i>	SALK_031648C			

homozygous lines below were provided by Jeff Dangl, University of North Carolina, USA

Acknowledgements

An dieser Stelle möchte ich mich bei all Jenen bedanken die durch ihre Unterstützung zum Gelingen dieser Arbeit beigetragen haben, insbesondere bei:

Dir Ralph, für das Ersinnen des *G. orontii* Projekt nachdem aus den RNasen nichts wurde, es hat sich glaube ich gelohnt. Danke für deine Unterstützung während der gesamten Arbeit, besonders beim Schreiben der Paper. Zudem ein großer Dank für dein Blick für das Wesentliche und Machbare, ich habe viel gelernt.

Prof. Paul Schulze-Lefert für die Möglichkeit in seinem Department in einer wissenschaftlich inspirierenden Umgebung meine Doktorarbeit verfassen zu können. Danke auch für die wiederkehrenden Hinweise auf Nachteile der Effektorforschung, die Diskussionen mit dir regen zum Nachdenken an.

Dr. Pascal Braun für die anstrengende aber ertragreiche Zeit am CCSB in Boston, die nachfolgende Kooperation bei der Analyse der Y2H Daten und die „Netzwerksicht“ der Dinge.

Prof. Martin Hülskamp für die Übernahme des Koreferats

Dr. Frank Takken for becoming my external examiner

Prof. Ulf Ingo Flügge für die Übernahme des Prüfungsvorsitz

Emiel ver Loren van Themaat, Takayuki Shindo und Amber Stephens für bioformatische Analysen bzw. die Klonierung der OECs.

Dem Team des CCSB, Dana-Farber Cancer Institut, Boston, USA für die Hilfe beim „High-throughput interactome mapping“ und den damit verbundenen Problemchen.

Danken möchte ich auch der gesamten Panstruga-Gruppe. Ihr Alle habt viel zum Gelingen dieser Arbeit beigetragen, gerade auch durch die super Atmosphäre und das Gequatsche nebenbei. Besonders danken möchte ich Mark für die Einführung in die confocale Welt. Ein großer Dank auch an Justine, Johanna und Jens für das Abfedern des langsamen Braindrains der AG Panstruga. Jens – viel Glück als last (half) man standing ;). Eine große Umarmung aus Papier auch für dat Kölsche Mädchen Anja. Du hast ein soooo großes Herz, das passt gar nicht auf diese Seite (und immer nen guten fachlichen Rat).

Ein großer Dank an Matze und Anne für die Zeit in der Bib und die Einsicht das das doch alles gar nicht so schlimm ist. Es ist vorbei!

Mein vorletzter Dank gilt meine Eltern. Man sagt ja so schön „Zwei Dinge sollen Kinder von ihren Eltern bekommen: Wurzeln und Flügel.“ Ihr habt mir Beides gegeben, mich in die Welt geschickt und mich immer und ausnahmslos unterstützt, und das auch kritisch. Danke dafür.

Mein letzter aber größter Dank gilt dir, Lisa. Wie du mich antreibst, aufmunterst, beruhigst und mir den Spiegel vorhält ist wunderbar. Danke für deine Unterstützung und Liebe, insbesondere während des Schreibens. Du hast in letzter Zeit viel alleine machen müssen. Und schließlich: Danke für Oskar. Dieses kleine Wunder ist das Beste was mir je passiert ist. Ich genieße jede Minute mit euch.

Erklärung

Ich versichere, dass ich die von mir vorgelegte Dissertation selbständig angefertigt, die benutzten Quellen und Hilfsmittel vollständig angegeben und die Stellen der Arbeit - einschließlich Tabellen, Karten und Abbildungen -, die anderen Werken im Wortlaut oder dem Sinn nach entnommen sind, in jedem Einzelfall als Entlehnung kenntlich gemacht habe; dass diese Dissertation noch keiner anderen Fakultät oder Universität zur Prüfung vorgelegen hat; dass sie - abgesehen von auf Seite I angegebenen Teilpublikationen - noch nicht veröffentlicht worden ist sowie, dass ich eine solche Veröffentlichung vor Abschluss des Promotionsverfahrens nicht vornehmen werde. Die Bestimmungen dieser Promotionsordnung sind mir bekannt. Die von mir vorgelegte Dissertation ist von Prof. Dr. Paul Schulze-Lefert betreut worden.

Köln, den 01.06.2013 _____

Ralf Weßling