

1 **FILAMENTOUS PLANT PATHOGEN EFFECTORS: COMMONALITIES AMID**
2 **DIVERSITY**

3

4 **Running title: Structural determinants of filamentous plant pathogen effectors**

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40 **SUMMARY**

41 Fungi and oomycetes are filamentous microorganisms that include a diversity of highly
42 developed pathogens of plants. These are sophisticated modulators of plant processes that secrete
43 an arsenal of effector proteins to target multiple host cell compartments and enable parasitic
44 infection. Genome sequencing revealed complex catalogues of filamentous pathogen effectors
45 with some species harbouring hundreds of effector genes. Although a large fraction of these
46 effector genes encode secreted proteins with weak or no sequence similarity to known proteins,
47 structural studies have revealed unexpected similarities amid the diversity. This article reviews
48 progress in our understanding of effector structure and function in light of these new insights.
49 We conclude that there is emerging evidence for multiple pathways of filamentous plant
50 pathogen effector evolution, but that some families have probably expanded by duplication and
51 diversification from a common ancestor. Conserved folds, such as the oomycete WY- and the
52 fungal MAX-domains, are not predictive of the precise function of the effectors but serve as a
53 chassis to support protein structural integrity, while providing enough plasticity for the effectors
54 to bind different host proteins and evolve unrelated activities inside host cells. Further effector
55 evolution and diversification arise via short linear motifs, domain integration and duplications,
56 and oligomerization.

57 INTRODUCTION

58 Filamentous pathogens (fungi and oomycetes) are the causative agents of some of the world's
59 most notorious plant diseases. Left unchecked they can devastate crop harvests, destroy managed
60 and wild forests, affect supply of ornamental plants and disturb natural ecosystems (1-3).
61 Perhaps the most famous plant disease outbreak was caused by the oomycete *Phytophthora*
62 *infestans*, which spread to Europe and triggered the 19th century Irish potato famine (4). This
63 pathogen remains relevant in agriculture today, infecting potato and tomato crops throughout the
64 world (5). Diseases caused by fungal pathogens, such as rice and wheat blast, and wheat stem
65 and stripe rust, are of immediate concern for global food security (1, 6, 7). A major factor in the
66 ability of these filamentous microbes to cause disease on their hosts are effectors, pathogen-
67 encoded proteins that are secreted to either the apoplast or specialized biotrophic interfaces (both
68 are spaces outside of plant cells), or are translocated inside host cells (8-11).

69 Effectors act to modulate host cell physiology to promote susceptibility to pathogens. In turn,
70 plants have evolved cell surface and intracellular receptors to detect the presence of pathogen
71 signatures and mount an immune response to restrict the progression of disease. Cell surface
72 receptors typically recognize microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs), derived from
73 abundant structural components of microbes' cell walls, or secreted proteins that function as
74 virulence effectors. Intracellular receptors respond to the presence of translocated effectors
75 and/or their activity on host cell targets. These intracellular receptors are nucleotide-binding
76 domain and leucine-rich repeat-containing (NLR) proteins that mediate innate immunity to
77 pathogens in both plants and animals (recently reviewed in (12)).

78 One of the defining features of effector proteins, be they of bacterial or filamentous pathogen
79 origin, is the lack of clear sequence similarity to proteins of known function. This is thought to

80 be the consequence of evolutionary pressure that drives rapid diversification of effector activities
81 in host cells to optimize function and/or avoid recognition by the innate immune system. The
82 frequent difficulty in recognizing common motifs that indicate function or activity of effectors
83 may be due to few of them having enzymatic activity, or absence of known domains for direct
84 interaction with host factors. In addition, many effectors are small proteins of < 15kDa and thus
85 their rapid diversification would result in loss of sequence similarity. With a few notable
86 exceptions (the RXLR motif of effectors in some oomycetes being the most prominent), this
87 sequence diversity has meant it is challenging to confidently produce catalogues of effectors
88 from filamentous plant pathogen genomes, despite many of these now being available. In some
89 cases, bioinformatic approaches have been useful in predicting and classifying candidate
90 effectors from filamentous plant pathogens (13-23). However, it can be challenging to pick the
91 most relevant proteins to select for further investigation from these lists. These bioinformatic
92 approaches use some of the commonalities identified among effectors from different organisms,
93 such as genomic context, presence of a secretion signal, absence of predicted transmembrane
94 domains, expression patterns, and lack of similarity to known protein domains. Recent advances
95 in computational prediction of effectors have employed machine learning approaches, which is
96 proving useful for prioritizing effectors for further study (24). There are also examples of
97 filamentous plant pathogen effectors that share common sequence motifs with known enzymes,
98 enzyme inhibitors, sugar-binding proteins, and toxins, with some shown to possess such
99 activities.

100 It is well established that protein structure is more conserved than amino acid sequence, and in
101 many cases this is due to the evolutionary relationship between structure and function (25). The
102 fact that structural conservation can be a powerful method for functional annotation of proteins is

103 a fundamental concept that has driven the development of structure determination as a tool to
104 understand effector biology of both mammalian and plant pathogens (26, 27). In particular, this
105 has been important where the lack of sequence similarity to known functional proteins has
106 prevented prediction of molecular mechanism.

107 In this review, we focus on recent advances that highlight commonalities shared by filamentous
108 plant pathogen effectors, focusing on functional similarities with known proteins, on effectors
109 which cluster into large structurally common but sequence divergent families comprising novel
110 folds, or those that share structural similarity to proteins of known function. It is timely to review
111 progress in this area in light of new insights. We conclude that there is emerging evidence for
112 multiple pathways of filamentous plant pathogen effector evolution, including that some families
113 appear to have evolved from a common ancestor by duplication and diversification in the
114 pathogen.

115 **FILAMENTOUS PLANT PATHOGEN EFFECTORS THAT ENCODE ENZYMES AND**
116 **PROTEASE INHIBITORS**

117 Structural studies of a number of bacterial plant pathogenic type III secreted effectors (T3SEs)
118 have revealed similarity with proteins of known function, which suggested both how these
119 proteins act, and experiments to test mechanisms (28-31). Remarkably, many of these proteins
120 appear to be enzymes, encoding the potential to catalyse a wide variety of different reactions,
121 such as E3 ligation, ADP ribosylation and proteolysis. In several cases, specific enzymatic
122 activities have been demonstrated for these proteins (32). In contrast, a number of filamentous
123 plant pathogen effectors have been predicted to have enzymatic activity, but only a few have had
124 such activities confirmed experimentally. To date, there are no structures of filamentous plant
125 pathogen effector enzymes, so these predictions typically rely primarily on sequence
126 comparisons.

127

128 **Proteases and protease inhibitors**

129 Analysis of fungal genomes including *Zymoseptoria tritici* (33), *Collectotricum sp.* (34), and
130 *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* (23), identified families of secreted proteases whose expression pattern
131 supports a putative role as effectors, to promote colonization and growth of the pathogen.
132 *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *lycopersicum* secretes a serine protease, Sep1, and a metalloprotease,
133 Mep1, that act synergistically to cleave host chitinases, preventing their activity in degrading
134 fungal cell walls (35). A double mutant of Sep1 and Mep1 showed reduced disease on tomato,
135 highlighting the importance of these proteins for full virulence.

136

137 The rice blast fungus *Magnaporthe oryzae* produces AVR-Pita, an effector with features typical
138 of zinc metalloproteases, including conserved residues known to mediate zinc co-ordination and
139 catalysis in homologues from other organisms (9, 36). However, to date, actual protease activity
140 for AVR-Pita has not been demonstrated.

141
142 A remarkable case is the GIP glucanase inhibitors that are proteins secreted by *Phytophthora*
143 spp. to inhibit the degradation of pathogen β -1,3/1,6 glucans and release of defense-eliciting
144 oligosaccharides by host β -1,3 endoglucanases (37, 38). GIPs share significant sequence
145 similarity with trypsin serine proteases but are predicted to be proteolytically nonfunctional
146 because they carry mutated catalytic residues.

147
148 Interestingly, filamentous plant pathogens also secrete protease inhibitors, which act on host
149 pathogenesis-related proteases to prevent their activities. Examples include EPI1 and EPI10 of *P.*
150 *infestans* which carry multiple domains with similarity to the Kazal family of serine protease
151 inhibitors (39, 40). In addition, the Avr2 effector of the fungal pathogen *Cladosporium fulvum*
152 (41), and the *P. infestans* effectors EPIC1 and EPIC2 (42) are unrelated in sequence but have
153 convergently evolved to target the same host proteases (43, 44). The oomycete EPIC family of
154 protease inhibitor effectors have similarity to the widespread cystatin domain (42) whereas *C.*
155 *fulvum* Avr2 is a small cysteine-rich protein without any notable sequence similarity to other
156 proteins (41).

157

158 **Fungal Cmu1, an enzyme interfering with metabolic flux**

159 The maize smut fungus *Ustilago maydis* translocates a chorismate mutase, Cmu1, into plant
160 cells. Cmu1 appears to benefit the pathogen by redirecting metabolic flux of chorismate away
161 from the biosynthesis of salicylic acid, suppressing accumulation of this defence-related
162 hormone during infection. Intriguingly, there is evidence to suggest that Cmu1 can move out of
163 infected cells into neighbouring cells, where the enzyme's activity can 'prime' the host tissue for
164 infection (45).

165

166 **Translocated oomycete effectors include enzymes**

167 Oomycete plant pathogens encode putative enzymes in their effector repertoires. *Phytophthora*
168 species have ~300-550 RXLR-type effectors that rarely have sequence similarity to known
169 enzyme folds. Yet, *P. infestans* and *P. sojae* contain a sequence signature suggestive of Nudix
170 hydrolase (phosphorylase) activity. The *P. sojae* effector Avr3b has been shown to possess ADP-
171 ribose/NADH pyrophosphorylase activity when expressed and epitope-purified from plant tissue
172 (46). Further, the virulence activity of Avr3b was dependent on the conserved Nudix motif.
173 Interestingly, the activity of Avr3b as a Nudix hydrolase is dependent on its modification by
174 plant cyclophilins; when produced in *E. coli*, the protein is not active (47). Recently, a putative
175 Nudix hydrolase effector (AvrM14) has been identified in the flax rust fungus *Melampsora lini*
176 (48), but catalytic activity for this protein has yet to be shown.

177

178 In addition to RXLR effectors, *Phytophthora* species also contain hundreds of 'Crinkler'
179 effectors (CRNs) (13, 16, 49). CRNs are modular proteins, some of which induce cell death on
180 expression in plant cells (13, 16). One C-terminal CRN domain has significant sequence
181 similarity to protein Ser/Thr kinases of the RD (Arginine-Aspartate) class. Indeed, *P. infestans*

182 CRN8 was shown to be an active kinase present in an auto-phosphorylated state in plant cells
183 (50). *In planta* expression of CRN8 enhanced the growth of *P. infestans* and this required the
184 intact RD motif, suggesting that the enzymatic activity of this kinase is relevant for virulence.

185

186 **FILAMENTOUS PLANT PATHOGEN EFFECTORS CAN SHARE FOLDS WITH** 187 **FUNCTIONALLY SIMILAR PROTEINS**

188

189 **Chitin-binding LysM effectors**

190 Chitin is a major component of fungal cell walls, and detection of this homopolymer in the
191 apoplast is used by plants as a strategy for initiating immune responses (51). Plants detect chitin-
192 derived oligosaccharides via cell surface receptors that contain extracellular lysin motif (LysM)
193 domains. Plant LysM domains comprise ~50 amino acids and adopt an $\beta\alpha\alpha\beta$ structural fold (52,
194 53) (**Figure 1**). To protect themselves from detection by the plant immune system, fungi use
195 LysM effectors to sequester chitin oligomers in the apoplast, outcompeting binding by host
196 receptor domains. The crystal structure of the *Cladosporium fulvum* Ecp6 confirmed that this
197 protein contained 3 modular LysM domains (54) (**Figure 1**). In a strategy to deliver high affinity
198 ligand interaction, two of the Ecp6 LysM domains (LysM1 and LysM3) dimerise to ‘sandwich’ a
199 chitin oligomer in a groove via multiple hydrogen bonds and hydrophobic interactions (**Figure**
200 **1A**). To date, this ligand-induced LysM dimerization to increase binding affinity is unique to
201 Ecp6, and highlights the propensity of pathogen effectors to adapt protein folds to acquire new
202 activities (51). Interestingly, the ligand-binding capability of the LysM2 domain of Ecp6 was
203 also shown to interfere with chitin-triggered immunity *in planta*, but the underlying mechanistic
204 basis remains unclear (55).

205

206 Multi-domain LysM effectors are also found in other fungal plant pathogens including the wheat
207 pathogen *Zymoseptoria tritici*, and the rice blast pathogen *Magnaporthe oryzae*, suggesting that
208 they represent a widespread mechanism for suppression of plant immune system detection.
209 However, unlike Ecp6, *Z. tritici* LysM effectors protect fungal hyphae against hydrolysis by host
210 chitinases, although the mechanism by which they achieve this is not understood (55).

211

212 **CBM14-like Avr4 effectors**

213 In a second strategy to evade chitin-mediated recognition by the plant immune system, fungi can
214 secrete effector proteins that bind to chitin in their cell wall and prevent the action of host
215 chitinases in generating chito-oligosaccharide fragments. The *Cladosporium fulvum* effector
216 Avr4 was predicted to adopt a carbohydrate binding module family 14 (CBM14)-like structure,
217 based on its disulphide-bond pattern, and *in vitro* Avr4 protects chitin from hydrolysis by plant
218 chitinases (56, 57). CBM14 proteins are defined as having chitin-binding activity, with one
219 characterized as having anti-microbial properties (58). The structure of the CBM14 member
220 tachycitin, from the horseshoe crab *Tachypleus tridentatus*, revealed a distorted β -sandwich fold
221 flanked by short loops and turns, stabilized by disulphide bonds (59). Tachycitin was described
222 as sharing some structural similarity to a domain found in the plant chitin-binding protein hevein
223 (60).

224

225 Avr4 homologues are found in a number of plant pathogenic fungal species. Recently, the crystal
226 structure of Avr4 from the tomato pathogen *Pseudocercospora fuligena* confirmed that the Avr4
227 family of effectors does adopt the CBM14-like fold (**Figure 2**), and this enabled investigation of

228 structure-function relationships in chitin-binding by these proteins (61). As predicted for
229 tachycitin, the chitin binding site of Avr4 is located between two β -strands, and the connecting β -
230 hairpin, and is mediated by aromatic amino acids and adjacent polar residues.

231

232 The evolutionary dynamics of CBM14 family proteins is complex (62). Whilst chitin-binding is
233 a critical feature of this fold for fungal defence against the plant immune system, it is clear that
234 other functions can be attributed to the wider family, given that CBM14 proteins occur in non-
235 pathogenic species and have previously been shown to have anti-microbial properties.

236

237 **NLPs**

238 NLPs (Necrosis- and ethylene-inducing peptide-1 like proteins) are a large family of secreted
239 proteins found in plant-associated fungi, oomycetes and bacteria. NLPs were initially
240 characterized by their ability to induce necrotic cell death in dicotyledonous plants (63), which is
241 thought to be dependent on toxin-induced host cell damage (64). However, it is now well
242 established that not all NLPs share this activity (65, 66). Despite this, both cytotoxic and non-
243 cytotoxic NLPs can trigger cell-surface dependent immune responses in plant cells, and this
244 activity has been localized to a 24 amino acid peptide (67, 68) recognized by a receptor complex
245 comprising RLP23/SOBIR-1/BAK1 (69). Clues to the mechanism of NLPs cytolytic activity
246 came from the crystal structures of NLPs from *Pythium aphanidermatum* and *Moniliophthora*
247 *perniciosa* (**Figure 3**), which showed this family of proteins share a fold with the actinoporin
248 pore-forming toxin stichoysin (64, 70). However, there is no experimental evidence for pore-
249 forming activity by NLPs, and their toxicity may be the result of NLP induced release of
250 membrane damage factors that are then sensed by the plant (68). Interestingly the 24 amino acid

251 peptide, which acts as a MAMP for the activation of plant immunity, is largely buried within the
252 core of the intact structure, with only a small number of residues displayed on the surface (67).
253 This suggests that the protein is probably unfolded and/or digested for recognition by the
254 receptor.

255

256 THE THREE-DIMENSIONAL STRUCTURES OF FILAMENTOUS PLANT 257 PATHOGEN EFFECTORS SHOW CONSERVED FOLDS WITHIN FAMILIES

258

259 **Oomycete effectors and the WY-fold**

260 The RXLR class of host-translocated oomycete effector proteins are defined by the presence of a
261 conserved N-terminal RXLR motif and a diverse C-terminal domain that exerts effector activity
262 inside the host cell (16, 71, 72). Analysis of the sequences of the RXLR repertoires of
263 *Phytophthora sojae* and *Phytophthora ramorum* identified conserved motifs which were named
264 ‘W’ (Trp), ‘Y’ (Tyr), and ‘L’ (Leu), after the single letter amino acid code for a highly conserved
265 residue in each sequence (73). Protein structural analysis subsequently revealed that the amino
266 acids at the conserved ‘W’ and ‘Y’ positions were buried in the hydrophobic core of a three α -
267 helical bundle, and stacked against one another in an energetically favourable interaction (74)
268 (**Figure 2**). Intriguingly, except for the *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* effector ATR13 (75),
269 all of the structures of oomycete RXLR effectors that have been determined to date adopt the
270 ‘WY-domain’ fold. Nonetheless, these proteins display significant primary sequence differences.
271 They also show diverse structural adaptations, including N- and C-terminal extensions, loop
272 regions, and domain duplication, that give rise to very different overall structures (74, 76-78)
273 (**Figure 2**). HMM-sequence searches, based on the knowledge of the WY-domain structure,

274 predicted that nearly half of the RXLR effector complement of *Phytophthora* species would
275 adopt this fold (74).

276

277 The structure of *P. infestans* effector PexRD2 is comprised of five α -helices, three of which
278 contribute to the WY-domain three α -helical bundle (**Figure 4A**). The additional helices (present
279 between two helices of the core WY-domain) are instrumental in forming an extensive
280 homodimeric interface in the PexRD2 structure, consistent with the observation that PexRD2
281 self-associates *in planta*. The structures of *P. capsici* AVR3a4 and AVR3a11 comprise
282 monomeric four helical bundles (**Figure 4B**), with an N-terminal helical extension to the WY-
283 domain fold (74). It is possible that the N-terminal helix is important for maintaining the stability
284 of monomeric, single WY-domain proteins, although this has not been explicitly tested.

285

286 The HMM-based sequence searches mentioned above revealed that these effectors could also
287 comprise tandemly repeated WY-domains encoded in a single gene. The first crystal structure of
288 a tandem WY-domain effector was that of ATR1 from *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* (76)
289 (**Figure 4C**). In ATR1, two WY-domains (each with an N-terminal helical extension) are
290 connected through an additional helix, which acts as a linker. Recently, the crystal structure of
291 PexRD54 reveals how five WY-domains can pack together in a stable structure with diverse
292 domain-domain interactions (78) (**Figure 4D**). Within each of these tandem WY-domain
293 structures the individual domains can be overlaid with high confidence, despite the limited
294 sequence identity (76, 78). Interestingly, PexRD54 employs a short linear motif known as the
295 ATG8 interacting motif (AIM) to engage with a host protein and to exert its virulence activity
296 (79). The AIM motif is presented at the C-terminus of PexRD54 and is linked to the last WY-

297 domain via a short helix. The structure of PexRD54 suggests that one function of tandem WY-
298 domains is to serve as a scaffold to present functional motifs for interaction with host proteins.

299 The WY-domain fold serves as a chassis for evolution of novel functions in oomycete effectors,
300 while maintaining their structural integrity. The fold presents a flexible platform that supports
301 effector evolution and diversification via acquisition of short linear motifs, domain duplications
302 and dimerization. Thus, the WY domain structure is not predictive of the precise function of the
303 effectors but appears to provide enough plasticity for the effectors to bind different host proteins
304 and evolve unrelated activities inside host cells.

305

306 **MAX effectors of *Magnaporthe***

307 Recently, a new family of filamentous plant pathogen effectors has been described that also
308 shares a conserved common structure, but displays diverse protein sequence. The *Magnaporthe*
309 AvrBs and ToxB-like (MAX) family was defined following structural work on effectors from the
310 fungal pathogen *M. oryzae*, the causal agent of rice blast disease (80). Despite typically sharing
311 less than 25% sequence identity, each member of this family which has had a structure
312 determined (80-84), shares a characteristic six-stranded β -sandwich fold (**Figure 5**). This fold is
313 stabilised by at least one di-sulphide bond, generally with Cys residues present in $\beta 1$ and in, or
314 immediately before, $\beta 5$. In most cases one of the β -sheets is formed by strands $\beta 1$, $\beta 2$ and $\beta 6$ and
315 the second by strands $\beta 3$, $\beta 4$ and $\beta 5$. The length and orientation of the different structural
316 elements is variable, in particular for strand $\beta 5$ and for the various connecting loops, giving rise
317 to proteins with distinct shapes and surface properties (80). In addition, the *M. oryzae* effector
318 AVR-PikD contains an N-terminal extension to the six-stranded β -sandwich structure (**Figure**
319 **5A**), and this region contains polymorphic residues that contribute to evasion of recognition by

320 the plant innate immune system (82, 85). Interestingly, *M. oryzae* effectors AVR-Pik, AVR-Pia
321 and AVR1-CO39 all bind to heavy metal associated (HMA) domains that have integrated in
322 intracellular plant immune receptors (NLRs) throughout evolution. This suggests that the
323 conserved MAX effector family fold is well-suited to interact with such domains and may
324 suggest a putative virulence target in host cells for these effectors.

325 Intriguingly, the MAX effector family includes ToxB, a proteinaceous toxin from the fungus
326 *Pyrenophora tritici-repentis* (86). This toxin shares the common three-dimensional structure of
327 MAX effectors (**Figure 5E,F**), but its mode of action is unclear, and no interacting partner has
328 been identified. However, the N-terminal region of ToxB has been shown to be essential for
329 activity, while both the central and C-terminal parts are required for full activity (87), suggesting
330 that the conserved structure is important for function. A naturally occurring non-toxic version of
331 ToxB (toxB) shares 78% sequence identity with the active protein. These proteins share
332 essentially the same structure, although toxB may overall be less stable than ToxB (81).

333 PSI-BLAST followed by a hidden Markov model (HMM)-based profile searches have revealed
334 that the majority of MAX effectors are found in *Magnaporthe* species (80). However, a small
335 number of hits were detected in other fungal species such as *Colletotrichum* (80). Thus, the
336 discovery of the MAX effectors enables a more robust prediction of candidate effectors in these
337 fungal pathogens.

338

339 **RALPH effectors of powdery mildew**

340 Nearly 500 candidate effectors of the barley powdery mildew fungus *Blumeria graminis* f. sp.
341 *hordei* (*B. graminis*) were predicted using bioinformatic tools from the genome sequence by

342 searching for genes with characteristics of effectors, particularly encoding small secreted
343 proteins. Many of these candidate effectors have been shown to be expressed during infection
344 (88-90).

345 To further characterise *B. graminis* candidate effectors, their sequences were subjected to
346 structural annotation using protein fold recognition methods. A sub-set of these candidate
347 effectors are predicted to have structural similarities with ribonucleases, and were named
348 RALPHs (RNase Like Proteins expressed in Haustoria (91)). Although confirmation that
349 RALPHs do adopt ribonuclease-like folds awaits the determination of an experimentally derived
350 structure, it is intriguing that many *B. graminis* effectors may share a common structural scaffold
351 to each other, a feature common in other families of filamentous plant pathogen effectors. In
352 another parallel with the MAX effectors, RALPHs have been predicted to contain a di-sulphide
353 bond, with Cys residues largely conserved towards both the N-terminus (contained within a
354 “YxC” motif) and C-terminus of the proteins.

355 Recently, data has emerged showing that RALPH effectors function as both virulence and
356 avirulence determinants in the *B. graminis*-barley and wheat interactions. Using host-induced
357 gene silencing, five RALPHs were shown to be involved in formation of haustoria (92, 93).
358 AVR_{A1} and AVR_{A13} were shown to be required for disease resistance in barley mediated by the
359 powdery mildew resistance loci Mla1 and Mla13, respectively (94), and AvrPm2 has recently
360 been cloned as the cognate effector of the wheat *Pm2* gene (95). Furthermore, *B. graminis* f. sp.
361 *tritici* suppressor of avirulence effector SvrPm3^{al/fl} (formerly called Bcg1^{avr}) has been shown to
362 suppress avirulence (96, 97). As with other host-translocated effectors, the ability of RALPHs to
363 activate plant immune responses may help explain the strong diversifying selection seen in these
364 proteins.

365 **OTHER NOTABLE FILAMENTOUS PLANT PATHOGEN EFFECTOR STRUCTURES**

366

367 **Flax rust effectors show divergent structures**

368

369 *Melampsora lini* causes rust disease on crop plants such as flax and linseed. Genomic analyses of
370 *M. lini* predicted that this fungus has a large repertoire of putative effector proteins (22). Unlike
371 oomycete RXLR and CRN effectors, but similar to effectors from other fungal species, no
372 widely conserved sequence-based motifs have been identified for flax rust effectors thus far. To
373 date, six *M. lini* effector proteins have been validated experimentally, based on their avirulence
374 activity (AvrL567, AvrM, AvrP4, AvrP123, AvrL2 and AvrM14) (48, 98-101). These effectors
375 trigger specific immune responses mediated by NLRs in the host cell. AvrL567, AvrM and their
376 cognate NLRs exhibit polymorphisms giving rise to allelic variants of the effector and receptor
377 with specific recognition profiles (98, 102). For example, AvrL567-A is recognized by the NLRs
378 L5 and L6 whereas AvrL567-D is recognized by L6 but not L5.

379

380 Crystal structures of AvrL567 alleles AvrL567-D and AvrL567-A revealed that the two proteins
381 share the same architecture, adopting a β -sandwich fold comprising seven antiparallel β -strands
382 (**Figure 6A**). Interestingly, the structures share some homology with ToxA (103), a host-
383 selective toxin of *Pyrenophora tritici-repentis*, which induces cell death in sensitive wheat
384 cultivars. ToxA was described as having a distant relationship to mammalian fibronectin
385 proteins, and an Arg-Glu-Asp (RGD) motif was found in a loop region of the protein that may
386 mediate interactions with plant cell integrin-like receptors (103). This motif was subsequently

387 shown to be required for protein internalization (104), although the precise mechanism remains
388 unclear. AvrL567 lacks the RGD motif, implying that it is internalized by a different mechanism.
389 Both AvrL567-D and -A display two positively charged patches on the protein surface and have
390 been shown to bind nucleic acid *in vitro* (105). However, the biological relevance of nucleic acid
391 binding remains unknown. Structure-led mutagenesis revealed that multiple contacts mediate
392 interaction between AvrL567 alleles and their cognate receptors (105).

393

394 Crystal structures of C-terminal domains of two allelic variants of AvrM (AvrM-A and avrM)
395 revealed an L-shaped α -helical fold comprising of two helical repeats (106) (**Figure 6B**). The
396 structural repeat, another example of modularity in filamentous plant pathogen effectors, was not
397 evident from sequence analysis and was only revealed after the structure was determined.

398

399 **AvrLm4-7, a lone effector structure with a novel fold**

400 AvrLm4-7 is a Cys-rich protein which is recognized by oilseed rape cultivars harbouring Rlm4
401 and Rlm7 resistance (107). The loss of AvrLm4-7 in the pathogen strong impacts pathogen
402 fitness (108, 109). The crystal structure of AvrLm4-7 does not share significant homology with
403 other structures in the Protein DataBank, and as such it has proven challenging to infer putative
404 protein function (110). The crystal structure did identify the positions of the four disulphide
405 bonds in the protein which, like for other effectors, are probably involved in stabilizing the
406 structure. In addition, a strongly positive patch was identified on the protein surface that may
407 represent a functionally relevant surface of the protein, although it has not been possible to show
408 that this region binds a negatively charged ligand. A single amino acid polymorphism that

409 perturbs the recognition of the effector by the Rlm4 is located on a loop of the protein, exposed
410 to the surface. It is therefore unlikely that this polymorphism affects the overall structure of the
411 protein, but maybe important for a specific recognition site.

412 **CONCLUSION**

413 The high complexity of the secretomes of filamentous plant pathogens points to a multitude of
414 independent evolutionary pathways to generate effector proteins that target a diversity of host
415 molecules and processes. Yet, despite this extraordinary sequence diversity, it is now evident that
416 some conserved protein folds, such as the WY- and MAX-domains, define widespread families
417 of effector proteins that occur across different plant pathogen taxa. There are both practical and
418 theoretical implications of this finding. Structure-guided sequence similarity searches enable
419 more precise and sensitive annotation of effector catalogues, notably of fungal effectors, which
420 have proven more difficult to annotate compared to their oomycete counterparts. This should
421 enable prioritisation of effectors for further study thus accelerating their functional
422 characterization. In addition, the conserved structures provide a framework to unravel how rapid
423 evolution of effector proteins has resulted in new host targeting activities, and tease out the
424 physical and physiological constraints that these proteins face. In this regard, the next phase of
425 research should go beyond the analyses of individual filamentous pathogen effector structures,
426 and consider the structures of effectors in complex with host proteins (78, 82). In the future, we
427 need to further improve our understanding of the biophysical properties of effector-host protein
428 complexes to gain a comprehensive knowledge of effector structures and functions.

429

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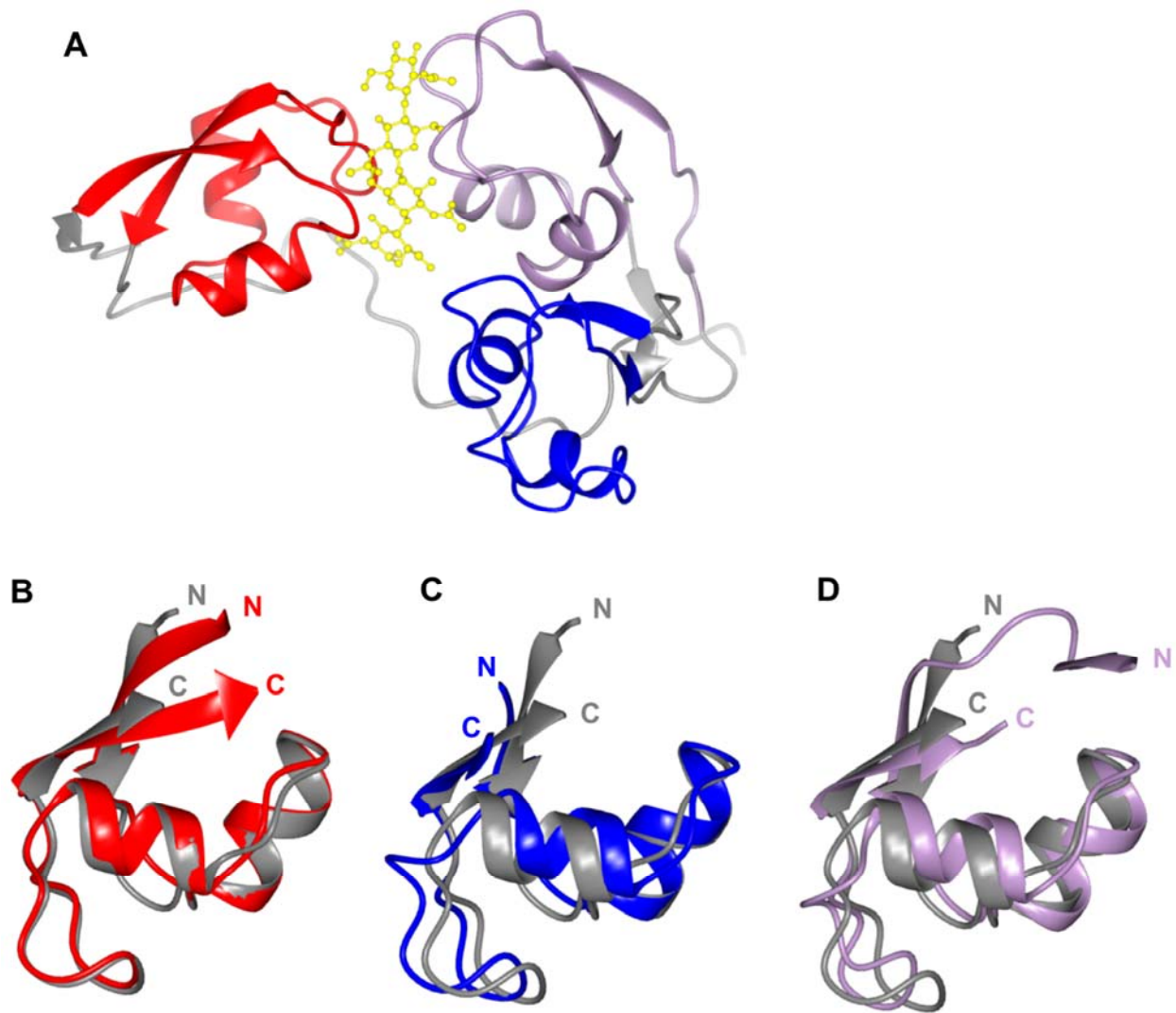
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824

825 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

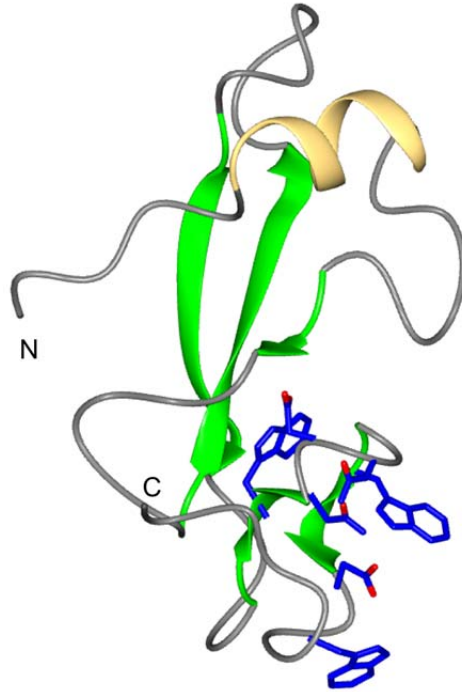
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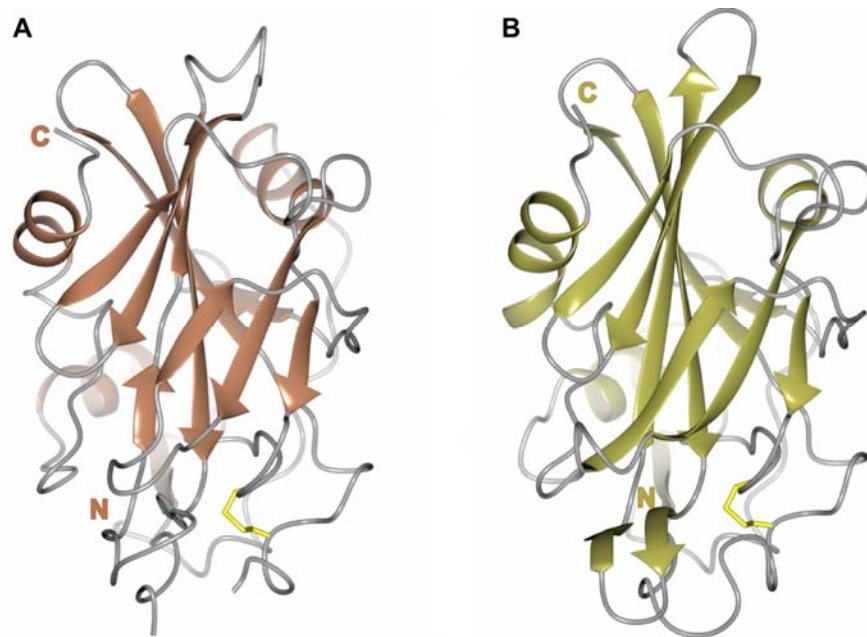
828 **Figure 1.** The crystal structure of the LysM effector Ecp6 shows how modularity can be used by
829 effectors to generate new functions (the three LysM domains are coloured red, blue and lilac
830 respectively). The top panel shows how two Ecp6 LysM domains combine to bind to a chitin
831 oligomer (shown in yellow). The bottom panel shows the superposition of the Ecp6 LysM
832 domains on the plant (rice) LysM receptor protein MoCVNH3 (in grey, LysM domains coloured
833 as above). The amino (N) and carboxyl (C) termini of the proteins are labelled.

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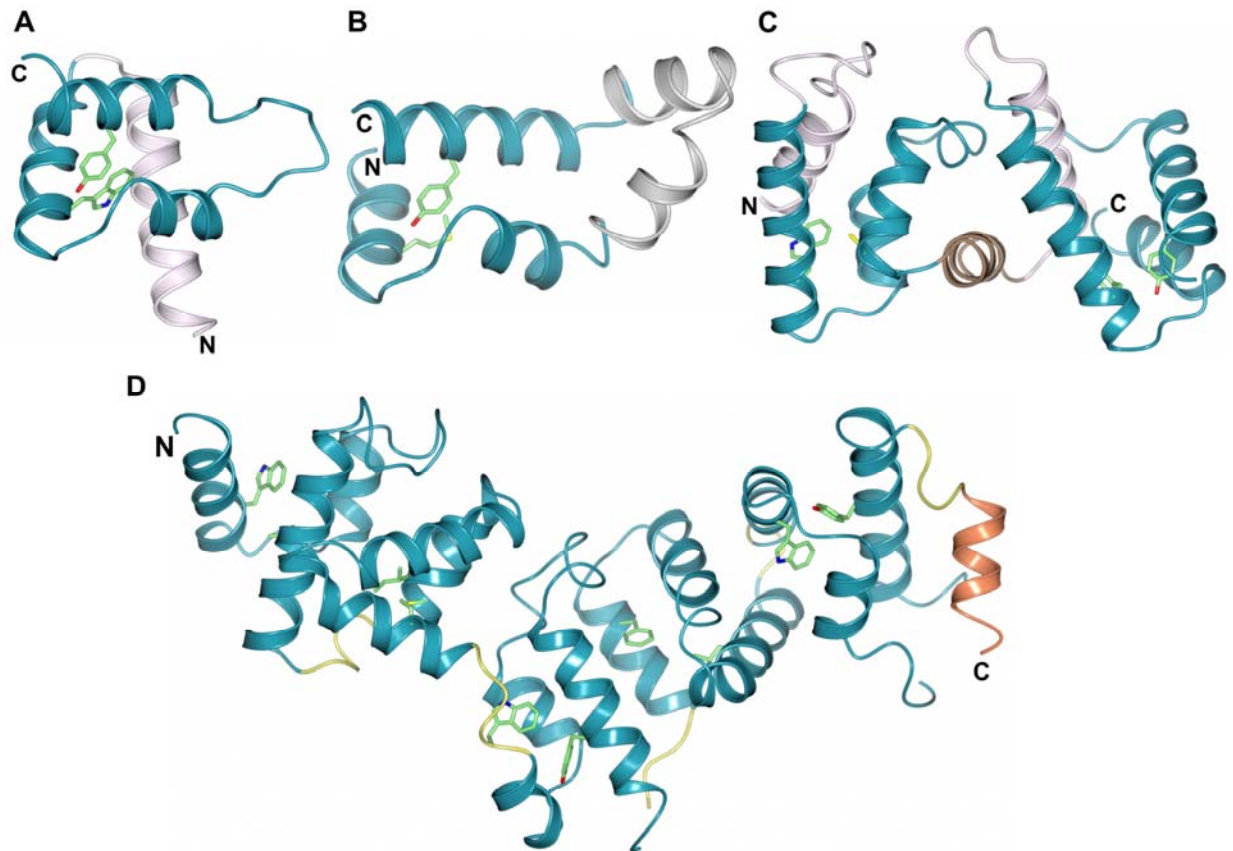
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836 **Figure 2.** The CBM14-family structure of *P. fuligena* Avr4. The structures comprises an alpha
837 helix (yellow) and five beta strands (green). The residues predicted to be involved in the
838 interaction with chitin are shown in blue.



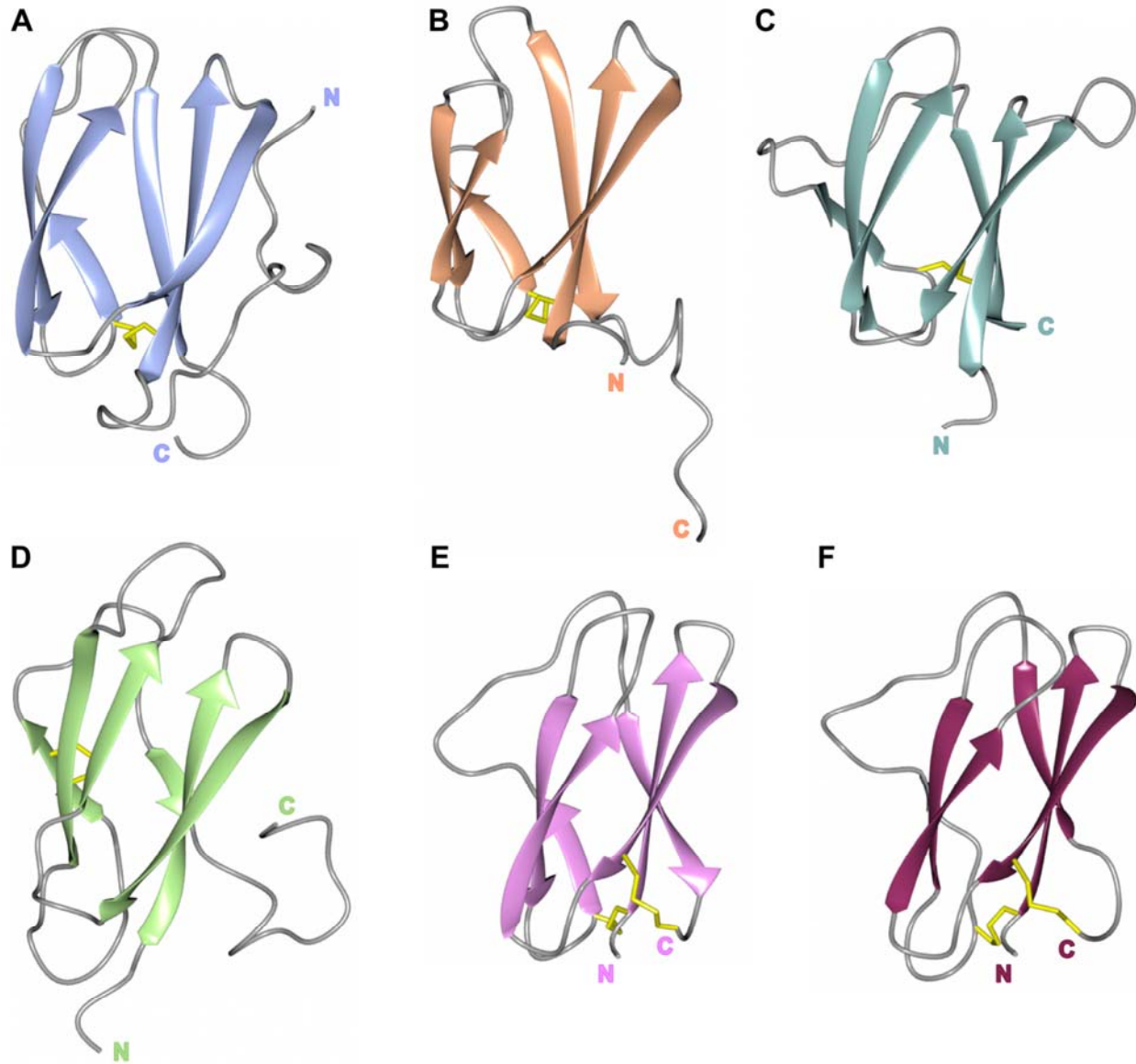
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841 **Figure 3.** Crystal structures of the NLP family members NLP_{Pya} (A) and MpNEP2 (B), showing
842 the central β -sandwich surrounded by 3 helices. The conserved structural elements are shown in
843 cartoon representation, with residues contributing to disulphide bridges shown as sticks (in
844 yellow), and loops in grey.



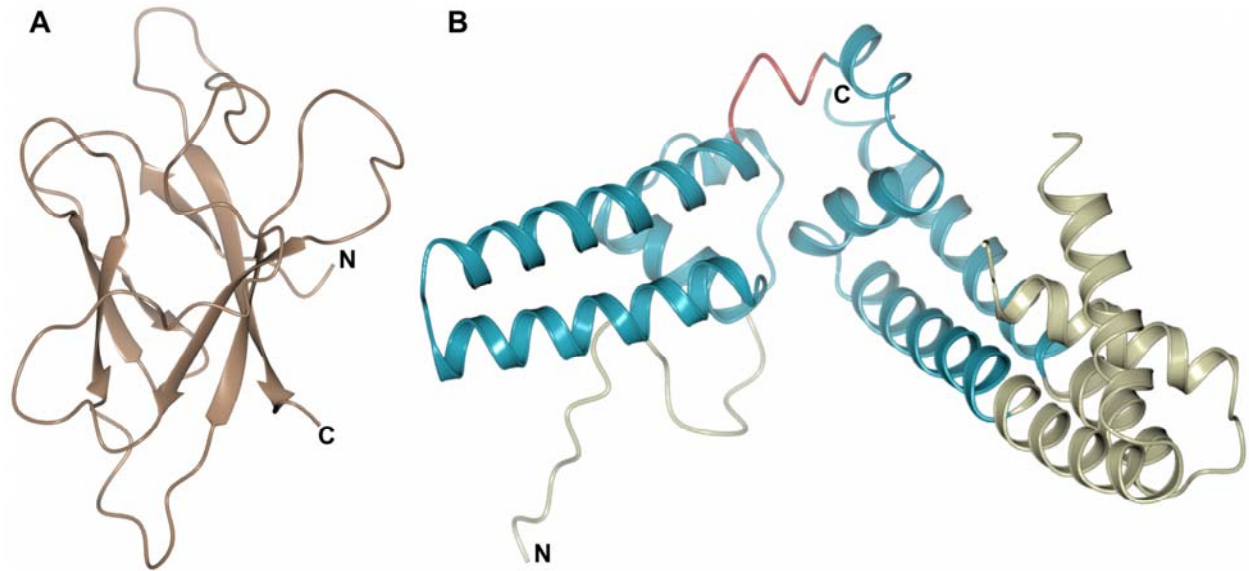
845

846 **Figure 4.** The structures of oomycete WY-domain effectors reveal how modularity and domain
 847 repeats give rise to different overall structures. For each panel, the region of the protein
 848 comprising the WY-domain fold is coloured in blue and the residues at the ‘W’ and ‘Y’ positions
 849 are shown as sticks (green carbon atoms). The panels show (A) Avr3a11 (Avr3a4 is essentially
 850 identical and not shown), (B) PexRD2 (monomer), (C) ATR1 (the region to the N-terminus that
 851 does not form a WY domain is not shown), and (D) PexRD54, with amino (N) and carboxyl (C)
 852 termini labelled. Avr3a11/4 and ATR1 carry an additional N-terminal helix (pink). The tandem
 853 WY-domains of ATR1 and PexRD54 are separated by a helix (brown) in ATR1, and loops
 854 (yellow) in PexRD54. PexRD54 carries a short helix (coral) at C-terminal end prior to the ATG8
 855 interacting motif (AIM, not seen as it was disordered in the crystals). All structure figures were
 856 prepared with ccp4mg (111).



857

858 **Figure 5.** The structures of MAX effectors reveals the shared β -sandwich fold. The conserved β -
 859 strands are shown in cartoon representation for each protein, with residues contributing to
 860 disulphide bridges shown as sticks (in yellow), and loops are in grey. The panels show (A) AVR-
 861 PikD, (B) AVR1-CO39, (C) AVR-Pia, and (D) AVR-Pizt, (E) ToxB, and (F) toxb, with amino
 862 (N) and carboxyl (C) termini labelled.



863

864 **Figure 6.** Divergent structures obtained for flax rust effectors. **(A)** a cartoon representation of
865 AvrL567-A (the -D allele is essentially identical and not shown), showing β -sandwich fold. **(B)**
866 a cartoon diagram of avrM, where the helical repeats, which have some resemblance to the
867 oomycete WY-domain fold, are coloured in blue and separated by a loop (red). The amino (N)
868 and carboxyl (C) termini of the proteins are labelled.

869 TABLES

870

871 **Table 1. Filamentous plant pathogen effectors that have sequence similarities with enzymes**
 872 **or enzyme inhibitors.**

Effector Class	Hyphal Pathogen	Example(s)	Citation
Chorismate mutases	<i>Ustilago maydis</i>	<i>cmu1</i>	(45)
lipase effector	<i>Fusarium graminearum</i>	FGL1	(112)
Enzyme inhibitors			
protease inhibitors	<i>Cladosporium fulvum</i>	Avr2	(41)
cystatin-like protease inhibitor domains	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>	EPIC1, EPIC2B	(42)
Chitinase inhibitor	<i>Cladosporium fulvum</i>	Avr4	(56)
Proteases and peptidases			
Proteases	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i> (<i>Mycosphaerella graminicola</i>)		(33)
	<i>Colletotrichum sp.</i>		(34)
Secreted peptidases	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i> (<i>Mycosphaerella graminicola</i>)	Astacin (Peptidase family M12A) Serine carboxypeptidase S28	(113)
serine protease	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> f. sp. <i>lycopersici</i>	Sep1	(35)
Alkaline serine protease alp1	<i>sclerotiorum</i>	Peptidase inhibitor I9	(23)
metalloprotease			
Zinc metalloprotease	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>	AVRPita (AVR2-YAMO)	(36, 114)
Deuterolysin metalloprotease	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	Deuterolysin metalloprotease (M35) family (PF02102) Homolog to <i>M. oryzae</i> AvrPita	(23)
metalloprotease	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> f. sp. <i>lycopersici</i>	Mep1	(35)
Nudix hydrolases			
	<i>Phytophthora sojae</i>	Avr3b	(46)

	<i>Colletotrichum truncatum</i>	CtNUDIX	(115)
	<i>Melampsora lini</i>	AvrM14	(48)
<hr/>			
Crinklers			
kinase activity	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>	CRN8	(50)
<hr/>			

873

874 **Table 2. Details of filamentous plant pathogen effectors that have had their structures determined.**

Protein	Origin	Targeted Process	Immune Receptor	Fold	Comparison to Known Structure		PDB Code	Refs
					RMSD, Å (no. of residues in overlay) ¹	Sequence Identity (%) ²		
Avr3a11	<i>P. capsici</i>	Unknown	-	WY	N.D.	N.D.	3ZR8	(74)
Avr3a4	<i>P. capsici</i>	Unknown	-	WY	1.26 (42)	79.0	2LC2	(77)
PexRD2	<i>P. infestans</i>	MAPKKK ϵ mediated immune signalling	-	WY	1.41 (40)	27.8	3ZRG	(74)
PexRD54	<i>P. infestans</i>	Autophagy	-	WY	1.73 (41)	20.0	5L7S	(78)
ATR1	<i>H. arabidopsdis</i>	Unknown	RPP1	WY	2.37 (36)	23.7	3RMR	(76)
AvrL567-D	<i>M. lini</i>	Unknown	L6	ToxA-like	2.74 (82)	22.2	2QVT	(116)
AvrL567-A	<i>M. lini</i>	Unknown	L5 and L6	ToxA-like	2.58 (81)	19.7	2OPC	(116)
avrM	<i>M. lini</i>	Unknown	-	WY-like	N.D.	26.1	4BJM	(106)
AvrM-A	<i>M. lini</i>	Unknown	M	WY-like	N.D.	23.9	4BJN	(106)
Avr-PikD (in complex)	<i>M. oryzae</i>	Unknown	Pik1/Pik2	MAX	N.D.	N.D.	5A6W	(82)
Avr1-CO39	<i>M. oryzae</i>	Unknown	RGA5/RGA4	MAX	1.36 (55)	17.2	2MYV	(80)
Avr-Pia	<i>M. oryzae</i>	Unknown	RGA5/RGA4	MAX	2.24 (52)	16.4	2MYW	(80)
AvrPiz-t	<i>M. oryzae</i>	E3 ligase mediated immunity	Piz-t	MAX	2.33 (58)	15.6	2LW6	(84)
Avr4	<i>P. fuligena</i>	Chitin mediated immunity (PTI) /fungal derived chitin perception	Cf-4	CBM14-like	1.98 (52)	22.2	4Z4A	(61)
Ecp6	<i>C. fulvum</i>	Chitin mediated immunity (PTI) /fungal derived chitin perception	-	LysM 1	0.8 (45)	35.9	4B8V	(54)
Ecp6	<i>C. fulvum</i>			LysM 2	1.17 (43)	37.1	4B8V	(54)

Ecp6	<i>C. fulvum</i>			LysM 3	1.51 (45)	20.8	4B8V	(54)
AvrLm4-7	<i>L. maculans</i>	Production of plant hormones and hydrogen peroxide / Plant hormone mediated immunity	Rlm4 and Rlm7	Unique	N.D.	N.D.	4FPR	(110)
ToxA	<i>P. tritici-repentis</i>	Photosynthesis	Tsn1 ³	ToxA-like	N.D.	N.D.	1ZLE	(103)
ToxB	<i>P. tritici-repentis</i>	Photosynthesis	-	MAX	2.25 (58)	25.4	2MM0	(81)
toxb	<i>P. tritici-repentis</i>	inactive allele	-	MAX	2.33 (57)	19.7	2MM2	(81)
NLP	<i>P. aphanidermatum</i>	Plasma membrane integrity	-	Actinoporin-like	2.34 (68)	21.9	3GNZ	(64)
NLP	<i>M. perniciososa</i>	Plasma membrane integrity	-	Actinoporin-like	2.24 (68)	19.3	3ST1	(70)

875 ¹ Template proteins used for comparison are Avr3a11 (WY, WY-like), Avr-PikD (MAX), Tachycitin (CBM14-like), MoCVNH3
876 (LysM), ToxA (ToxA-like), Sticholysin II (Actinoporin-like), N.D. (Not Determined, to either avoid comparison with self, or the
877 comparison is not meaningful).

878 ² N.D. (Not Determined, to either avoid comparison with self, or structure is unique)

879 ³ Tsn1 is a susceptibility factor

881

