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1 **A negative feedback loop controls ROS production in plant immunity**

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9 Over the past two decades the view of reactive oxygen species (ROS) as merely cytotoxic
10 compounds has changed considerably (Waszczak *et al.*, 2018). While still reactive chemicals
11 with potentially devastating detrimental effects, research has shown that plants and animals
12 alike use ROS as messengers in numerous signaling networks including responses to biotic
13 and abiotic environmental cues as well as developmental processes (Waszczak *et al.*, 2018;
14 Zandalinas *et al.*, 2020). The production of ROS as by-products of cellular metabolism as
15 well as the active production of ROS in different subcellular localization is tightly controlled
16 (Castro *et al.*, 2021). However, mechanistic details on how ROS are sensed and how
17 specificity in ROS signaling is achieved remain scarce. Few intracellular ROS sensors have
18 been characterized on a molecular level and recently the first sensor for extracellular ROS,
19 HPCA1, has been identified (Wu *et al.*, 2020). However, the broad involvement of ROS in
20 signal transduction in plants suggests the existence of a far larger and more diverse sensory
21 array.

22 The activation of stimulus-induced ROS production in the extracellular space by plasma
23 membrane-localized NADPH oxidases, referred to as respiratory burst oxidase homologs
24 (RBOH) in plants, is an intensively investigated research area (Castro *et al.*, 2021). However,
25 in contrast to the activation mechanisms, the inactivation or negative regulation of the ROS
26 producing activity of plant RBOHs remains largely elusive. Phosphorylation by kinases,
27 together with calcium-binding, is firmly established as activation mechanism for plant
28 NADPH oxidases (Kadota *et al.*, 2015). Few reports suggest that phosphorylation can also
29 reduce the ROS producing activity and stability of RBOHs (Castro *et al.*, 2021; Lee *et al.*,
30 2020). In addition, S-nitrosylation has been described as an element for the negative
31 regulation of the ROS producing activity of RBOHD but how this modification is integrated
32 into the regulatory circuitry surrounding RBOHD has remained elusive (Yun *et al.*, 2011). In

33 the current issue of Molecular Plant, Chae and colleagues (Chae *et al.*, 2021) now provide
34 evidence, that ROS production is sensed by the plant quiescin sulfhydryl oxidase homolog
35 (QSOX1) which subsequently provides negative regulation of S-nitrosoglutathione reductase
36 (GSNOR). Thereby, QSOX1 links ROS and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) signalling to
37 limit ROS production and consequently negatively regulate plant immunity (Figure 1).

38 Chae *et al.* (2021) started by mining the <http://www.arabidopsis.org> data based for redox
39 proteins and identified a candidate with strong homology to mammalian QSOX. This protein
40 contains two distinct redox-active domains: a PDI-like oxidoreductase with an active CxxC
41 motif embedded in a thioredoxin (Trx)-like fold as well as a sulfhydryl oxidase mitochondrial
42 ERV/ALR-related domain with two CxxC motifs and a flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD)-
43 binding motif. Electrons are transferred from the Trx domain with its low pKa via
44 dithiol/disulfide relay to the EVR/ALR domain and FAD and subsequently to terminal
45 electron acceptors. Via this mechanism, QSOX could be able to sense ROS and adjust the
46 oxidation status of interacting proteins in response to a variety of stimuli.

47 Within hours following biotic stimuli or treatment with the defense hormones salicylic acid
48 (SA) and jasmonic acid (JA), *QSOX1* transcript abundance increased. Chae *et al.* proceed to
49 validate the oxidoreductase activity of QSOX1 and found that recombinant QSOX1 exhibited
50 FAD-dependent activity *in vitro* towards artificial substrates. Their approach allowed Chae
51 and colleagues to design mutant variants of QSOX1 with no detectable oxidoreductase
52 activity. Intriguingly, in line with the results from transcriptional analyses of QSOX1, *qsox1*
53 mutant plants displayed reduced susceptibility towards the bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas*
54 *syringae* pv. tomato DC3000 suggesting that the protein indeed participates in the
55 coordination of plant defense responses. Variants of QSOX1 with mutations, that abate the
56 enzymatic oxidoreductase activity, were not able to complement for the loss of QSOX1
57 highlighting that the oxidoreductase activity of QSOX1 is essential for its function.

58 ROS production is an integral part of the plant defense response (Castro *et al.*, 2021; Kimura
59 *et al.*, 2017). Chae *et al.* (2021) found that RBOHD-dependent pathogen-triggered ROS
60 production was enhanced in the *qsox1* mutant. Surprisingly, QSOX1 did not interact with
61 RBOHD directly, suggesting that QSOX1 would exert an indirect effect on the ROS-
62 producing activity of RBOHD. During effector-triggered immunity there is not only
63 accumulation of ROS, but also reactive nitrogen species (RNS; Bleau and Spoel, 2021),
64 including S-nitrosoglutathione (GSNO). GSNO can react with RBOHD and S-nitrosylation

65 of a conserved cysteine residue leads to inactivation of RBOHD by ejection of FAD from the
66 enzyme (Yun *et al.*, 2011). GSNOR catabolizes GSNO and thereby could provide a
67 regulatory link to RBOHD. Thus, the authors hypothesized that QSOX1 could interact with
68 GSNOR. Indeed, Chae *et al.* found an oxidoreductase activity-independent interaction
69 between GSNOR and QSOX1 at the cell periphery. Both QSOX1 and GSNOR existed in a
70 reduced state prior to pathogen application but became increasingly oxidized within hours of
71 infection. In the *qsox1* mutant however, GSNOR was no longer oxidized and consequently
72 not inhibited. This was reflected in the observation that GSNOR and NADPH oxidase
73 activities were enhanced in *qsox1* mutants while SNO content was accordingly reduced.

74 The work of Chae *et al.* (2021) provides an excellent starting point for asking further research
75 questions. One question concerns the temporal coordination of events. The ROS burst is a
76 rather rapid response to pathogen infection or treatment with microbe-associated molecular
77 patterns (MAMPs) occurring within minutes of signal perception. However, following the
78 initial rapid ROS burst, a second peak of ROS production is typically observed within hours.
79 With *QSOX1* transcript starting to accumulate only twelve hours after pathogen infection, it is
80 unlikely that QSOX1 would participate in the negative regulation of the first ROS burst
81 event. Here, it can be speculated that other post-translational mechanisms including
82 phosphorylation and dephosphorylation events could participate in the negative regulation of
83 RBOHD activity. However, QSOX1 could provide a safeguard mechanism that would
84 prevent long-lasting and potentially damaging RBOHD-dependent ROS production (Figure
85 1) working in concert with other regulatory elements converging on RBOHD. It is also highly
86 likely that GSNOR is not the only target of QSOX1 (Figure 1). Thus, based on the work of
87 Chae *et al.* (2021) another interesting research direction will be to investigate, which other
88 proteins are regulated by QSOX1 but also by the homolog QSOX2.

89 In summary, Chae *et al.* (2021) elegantly provide evidence for a regulatory circuit where
90 pathogen-induced ROS production through RBOHD activates the sensor and regulator
91 QSOX1 (Figure 1). QSOX1 subsequently deactivates GSNOR, thereby preventing it from
92 catabolizing GSNO. The accumulating GSNO then leads to S-nitrosylation and inactivation
93 of RBOHD. ROS and RNS are not only involved in the response to biotic stress. In the
94 future, it will be exciting to test whether QSOX1 or QSOX2 also participate in maintaining
95 the intricate balance of ROS and RNS in the responses to abiotic stimuli and regulation of
96 developmental processes.

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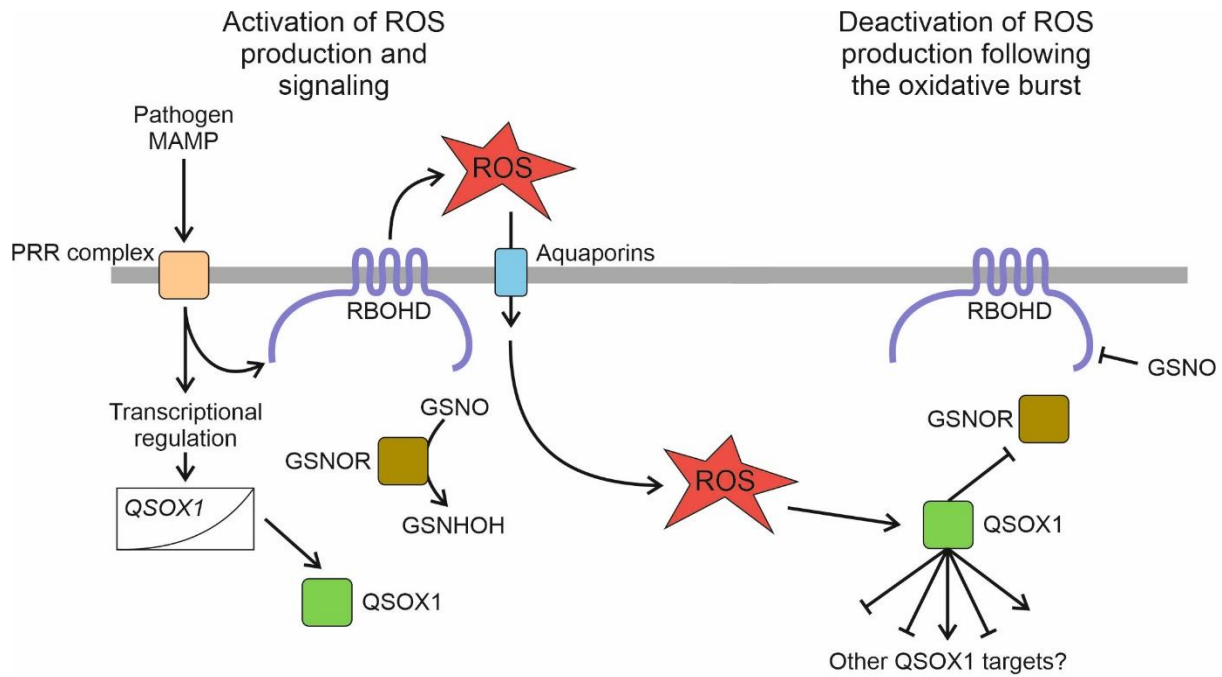
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136 **Figure 1. Schematic overview over the conceptual role of QSOX1 in the regulation of**
 137 **pathogen-induced ROS production.**

138 Following perception of pathogen perception by the pattern-recognition receptor (PRR)
 139 complex, kinases phosphorylate and thereby activate RBOHD. Enhanced pathogen-triggered
 140 calcium influx contributes to the activation of RBOHD by calcium binding and activation of
 141 calcium-dependent protein kinases (CPKs). Active RBOHD produces superoxide in the
 142 apoplast which is dismutated to hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂). H₂O₂ can enter the cytosol
 143 through aquaporins leading to ROS signaling inside the cell. GSNOR catabolizes GSNO
 144 preventing inactivation of RBOHD by S-nitrosylation. Pathogen perception also, through
 145 other signaling components, leads to transcriptional reprogramming, eventually resulting in
 146 the accumulation of *QSOX1* transcript and QSOX1 protein. QSOX1 is oxidized by elevated
 147 ROS levels in the cytosol and oxidizes and thereby inactivates GSNOR. The accumulation of
 148 GSNO then leads to S-nitrosylation and inactivation of RBOHD to prevent further ROS
 149 production in the apoplastic space.