1 Mechanosensing and Sphingolipid-Docking Mediate Lipopeptide-Induced

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Immunity in Arabidopsis

Jelena Pršić^{1†}, Guillaume Gilliard^{2†}, Heba Ibrahim³, Anthony Argüelles-Arias¹, Valeria
Rondelli⁴, Jean-Marc Crowet², Manon Genva², W. Patricio Luzuriaga-Loaiza¹, Estelle
Deboever², M. Nail Nasir², Laurence Lins², Marion Mathelie-Guinlet⁵, Farah Boubsi¹, Sabine
Eschrig⁶, Stefanie Ranf⁷, Stephan Dorey⁸, Barbara De Coninck³, Thorsten Nürnberger⁹,
Sébastien Mongrand¹⁰, Monica Höfte¹¹, Cyril Zipfel¹², Yves F. Dufrêne⁵, Alexandros
Koutsioubas¹³, Paola Brocca⁴, Magali Deleu^{2¹}*, and Marc Ongena^{1¹}*

11	¹ Microbial Processes and Interactions laboratory and ² Laboratory of Molecular Biophysics at
12	Interfaces, TERRA teaching and research centre, Gembloux Agro-Bio Tech, University of
13	Liège, Gembloux, 5030, Belgium
14	³ Division of Plant Biotechnics, Department of Biosystems, KU Leuven and KU Leuven Plant
15	Institute, Heverlee, 3001, Belgium
16	⁴ Department of Medical Biotechnologies and Translational Medicine, Università degli Studi
17	di Milano, Segrate, 20090, Italy
18	⁵ Institute of Biomolecular Science and Technology, Louvain University, Louvain-la-Neuve,
19	1348, Belgium
20	⁶ Chair of Phytopathology, School of Life Sciences Weihenstephan, Technical University of
21	Munich, Freising, 85354, Germany
22	⁷ Department of Biology, Faculty of Science and Medicine, University of Fribourg, Fribourg,
23	1700, Switzerland

24	⁸ Université de Reims Champagne Ardenne, RIBP-USC INRAE 1488, 51100 Reims , France
25	⁹ Centre of Plant Molecular Biology, Eberhard-Karls-University Tübingen, Tübingen, 72076,
26	Germany
27	¹⁰ Laboratoire de Biogenèse Membranaire, University of Bordeaux, Villenave d'Ornon, 33882,
28	France
29	¹¹ Laboratory of Phytopathology, Faculty of Bioscience engineering, Ghent University, Ghent,
30	9000, Belgium
31	¹² Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, Zurich-Basel Plant Science Center, University of
32	Zurich, Zurich, 8006, Switzerland
33	¹³ Jülich Centre for Neutron Science, Heinz Maier-Leibnitz Zentrum, Forschungszentrum Jülich
34	GmbH, Garching, 85748, Germany
35	
36	† JP and GG contributed equally to this article and share first authorship.
37	
38	$^{^{\intercal}}$ MD and MO contributed equally to the design and global supervision of the study and share
39	last authorship.
40	
41	*Corresponding authors: M.D. (magali.deleu@uliege.be) and M.O. (marc.ongena@uliege.be)

43 Abstract

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Bacteria-derived lipopeptides are immunogenic triggers of host defenses in metazoans and 45 plants. Root-associated rhizobacteria produce cyclic lipopeptides that activate systemically 46 induced resistance (IR) against microbial infection in various plants. How these molecules 47 are perceived by plant cells remains elusive. Here, we reveal that immunity activation in 48 Arabidopsis thaliana by the lipopeptide elicitor surfactin is mediated by docking into specific 49 50 sphingolipid-enriched domains and relies on host membrane deformation and subsequent 51 activation of mechanosensitive ion channels. This mechanism leads to host defense potentiation and resistance to the necrotroph B. cinerea but is distinct from host pattern 52 recognition receptor-mediated immune activation and reminiscent of damage-induced plant 53 54 immunity.

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56 Main Text

Lipopeptides (LPs) represent a prominent and structurally heterogeneous class of 57 molecules among the broad spectrum of small specialized metabolites synthesized by 58 59 bacteria. Besides serving key functions for the ecological fitness of the producer (motility, biofilm formation, colonization, nutrient acquisition, or antagonism towards competing 60 neighbors), some LPs also act as triggers of immune responses that restrict pathogen 61 infection of metazoans and plants^{1,2}. The vast majority of LPs formed by plant-associated 62 bacteria are comprised of a partly or fully cyclized oligopeptide linked to a single fatty acid 63 chain. Some of these cyclic lipopeptides (CLP) formed by beneficial species belonging to the 64 Pseudomonas and Bacillus genera are potent elicitors of immune responses in the host plant 65 leading to a systemically induced resistance (IR) against infection by microbial pathogens^{2,3}. 66

This CLP-induced plant resistance is a key process for biocontrol of crop diseases ⁴, but, in 67 contrast to pattern-triggered immunity (PTI), its molecular basis remains poorly understood. 68 Like in animals, PTI in plants relies on the detection of specific molecular motifs (Microbe-69 Associated Molecular Patterns (MAMPs) via cell-surface plasma membrane (PM)-localized 70 Pattern-Recognition Receptors (PRRs)⁵. Upon assembly of higher order receptor complexes 71 involving conserved co-receptors, PRRs activate receptor-like cytoplasmic kinases (RLCKs) 72 such as BIK1 and its closest homolog PBL1 described as key convergent signaling hubs. This 73 74 leads to phosphorylation of numerous substrate proteins and subsequent induction of a well-characterized immune response⁶. Early hallmarks of PTI signaling in plants include 75 apoplastic burst of reactive oxygen species ([ROS]_{apo}), calcium influx, medium alkalinization 76 indicating H⁺/K⁺ exchange and membrane depolarization, MAPK phosphorylation cascade 77 and initiation of transcriptional reprogramming ^{7,8,9,10}. 78

The CLP surfactin (Srf, Fig 1A) is well conserved in plant beneficial bacilli¹¹ and is 79 80 among the bacterial compounds best described as immunity elicitor in several plant species². In Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Col-0 (hereafter, Arabidopsis), root treatment with 81 purified Srf (at 10 μ M as minimal active concentration previously determined¹² and used as a 82 mix of naturally produced homologues slightly differing in the length of the fatty acid tail, 83 see **Suppl Fig 1**) triggers IR and significantly reduces leaf infection by the grey mold pathogen 84 Botrytis cinerea (Fig 1B). Therefore, we used Srf as a model to further investigate the 85 molecular mechanisms determining CLP perception and immunity stimulation in Arabidopsis 86 root cells. 87

We first performed quantitative and time-resolved measurements of early responses commonly associated with MAMP perception in *Arabidopsis* and other plants. [ROS]_{apo} burst is almost invariably associated with PTI⁷ but, by contrast to treatment with the MAMP

flagellin-derived peptide flg22 or with chitin, we did not observe a [ROS]_{app} burst in 91 Arabidopsis root cells treated with Srf based on a horseradish peroxidase-luminol assay 92 (Suppl Fig 2). Srf-mediated IR against B. cinerea is fully conserved in the rbohD mutant 93 94 lacking functional plasma membrane NADPH oxidase RBOHD responsible for MAMP-induced [ROS]_{app} burst¹³ (Suppl Fig 3). Hence, Srf-mediated activation of IR in the root does not 95 require RBOHD¹⁴. However, Srf triggered a fast and consistent increase in intracellular ROS 96 ([ROS]_{intra}) in root loaded with the fluorescent probe DCFH-DA (Fig 1C). This Srf-triggered 97 [ROS]_{intra} burst is also observed in the *rbohD* mutant (**Suppl Fig 4**), suggesting it is not caused 98 by the uptake of apoplastic ROS via aquaporins (see Suppl Fig 5 for response to flg22) but 99 may originate from different organelles as reported for abiotic stresses or other small 100 microbial compounds^{15,16,7,17}. Calcium influx typically associated with PTI in plants⁸ was 101 102 tested upon elicitation by Srf using an aequorin-based bioluminescence assay. It did not reveal any significant Ca^{2+} increase ($[Ca^{2+}]_{cvt}$) in root of the Col- O^{AEQ} reporter line in contrast 103 to the increase observed upon flg22 treatment (Fig 1D) or in response to chitin (Suppl Fig 6). 104 On the other hand, medium alkalinization occurs within minutes after Srf treatment (Fig 1E), 105 which indicates H^+/K^+ exchange possibly leading to membrane depolarization⁹. However, no 106 significant increase in conductivity was measured in the medium following Srf treatment 107 (Suppl Fig 7) indicating that the lipopeptide does not affect plasma membrane (PM) integrity 108 109 and does not cause massive electrolyte leakage. Cell viability tests confirmed that Srf is not toxic for Arabidopsis root cells at concentrations up to 50 μM (Suppl Fig 8). 110

111 Next, we explored early changes in the root transcriptome profile induced by Srf via 112 time course RNAseq analysis (30 min, 1h, 3h and 6h post treatment) using the same setup 113 previously reported for flg22 and the fungal MAMP chitin¹⁸. Data revealed a relatively low 114 transcriptional response to Srf elicitation over all sampling times with a total of 564

differentially expressed genes (DEGs, Log₂ Fold Change > 2, p<0.05; Fig 1F) compared to 115 approximately 5000 DEGs and 2000 DEGs reported upon flg22 and chitin treatment 116 respectively¹⁸. While MAMPs mainly up-regulate early responsive genes (30 min – 1 h)^{18,19}, 117 an almost equal number of up- and down-regulated DEGs were observed upon Srf treatment 118 at all time points (Fig 1F), with about half of the transcriptional changes specific to Srf 119 elicitation (47,9% and 58% compared with flg22 and chitin respectively)¹⁸. Strikingly, many of 120 the Srf down-regulated genes are upregulated by flg22 and chitin¹⁸ (Fig 1F, Suppl Table 1). 121 Differential expression was confirmed by quantitative RT-PCR performed on some selected 122 genes in plantlets elicited with the lipopeptide and with chitin (Suppl Fig 9). More 123 specifically, the expression of genes typically associated with early immune signaling 124 (receptor-like kinases, [ROS]_{apo} burst, calcium signaling or MAPK phosphorylation cascade¹⁰) 125 or defense mechanisms (pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins, callose deposition, lignification) 126 is not modulated or down-regulated by Srf by contrast with MAMP treatment (Fig 1G, Suppl 127 128 Table 1).. However, CYP71A12, encoding a key enzyme of the camalexin biosynthesis pathway²⁰, is among the late-responsive genes (6h) strongly stimulated by Srf. In 129 accordance, we measured significantly higher amounts of this phytoalexin, which is toxic to 130 B. cinerea^{21,22}, in infected leaves of Srf-treated plants compared with mock treatment (Fig. 131 **1H**). The key role of camalexin in disease control was confirmed by the loss of Srf-triggered 132 resistance in the pad3 mutant²³ unable to form camalexin²² (Fig 1I). Thus, by contrast to PTI 133 which is associated with substantial transcriptional reprogramming¹⁹, immunity stimulation 134 by Srf does not lead to major changes in the expression of genes involved in signaling and 135 defense. 136

137 Since the molecular basis of Srf-induced immune activation is signal-specific, we
138 hypothesized that plant cells perceive lipopeptides by a mechanism that differs from pattern

sensing. Srf possesses both a peptidic moiety and a fatty acid tail, but its IR-eliciting potential 139 140 is fully conserved in Arabidopsis mutants lacking functional PRRs that recognize either 141 bacterial proteinaceous immunogenic patterns or acyl chain epitopes such as medium chain 3-hydroxy fatty acids and HAAs^{24,25} (**Suppl Fig 10**). Srf elicitation is not significantly affected 142 either in mutants lacking co-receptors required for proper functioning of a wider range of 143 PRRs detecting immunogenic peptides such as Pep1²⁶, nlp20²⁷ and IF1²⁸ nor in the *bik1 pbl1* 144 double mutant lacking RLCKs that act downstream of the PRR-co-receptor complexes (Suppl 145 146 Fig 10). Although we only tested a small subset of the multitude of PRRs potentially expressed in Arabidopsis⁶ and although early cellular signaling may be BIK1/PBL1-147 independent²⁹, our data strongly suggest that *Arabidopsis* does not sense Srf via PRR-type 148 cell surface sentinels. This is in accordance with previous data from tobacco, which showed 149 150 that Srf is still active on protease-treated cells and that there is no refractory state upon repeated Srf treatment unlike typically observed for PTI³⁰. 151

Due to their amphipathicity, CLPs readily interact with biological membranes, causing 152 pore formation and membrane disruption responsible for their antimicrobial activities³¹. 153 Such an adverse effect is not expected on plant membranes, but we hypothesized that Srf 154 perception by root cells might primarily rely on its interaction with the lipid phase of the PM. 155 Complex sphingolipids glucosylceramides (GluCer) and glycosyl inositol phosphorylceramides 156 (GIPC) constitute more than 30% of Arabidopsis PM lipids and are key components required 157 for membrane integrity and functionality, notably by forming ordered nano-domains with 158 sterols^{32,33,34}. In silico docking simulation first revealed a more favorable interaction of Srf 159 with GluCer or GIPCs than with the other typical plant PM lipids PLPC (1-Palmitoyl-2-160 linoleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine as phospholipid) and ß-sitosterol (as main sterol) (Fig. 161 2A). To test this experimentally, we generated biomimetic liposomes using commercially 162

available GluCer, PLPC and ß-sitosterol. Isothermal titration calorimetry performed on 163 164 liposomes with increasing composition complexity in such lipids showed the highest binding 165 affinity of Srf to model membranes containing GluCer (Fig 2B). In support of a preferential interaction with sphingolipids, molecular dynamic (MD) simulation on the same ternary lipid 166 system showed the specific insertion of Srf in the vicinity of GluCer molecules or in GluCer-167 enriched areas in the membrane (Fig 2C). In light of these results, we tested Srf elicitor 168 activity on the Arabidopsis ceramide synthase mutant loh1 (LONGEVITY ASSURANCE 1 169 HOMOLOG1) which is depleted in these complex sphingolipids^{35,36}. We observed strongly 170 reduced [ROS]_{intra} responses (Fig 2D) as well as loss of IR to B. cinerea infection in loh1 171 compared to wild-type plants (Fig 2E). Such lipid-dependent [ROS]_{intra} elicitation was also 172 observed for other IR-eliciting CLPs such as orfamide and WLIP² isolated from beneficial 173 174 pseudomonads that resemble Srf in size and amphiphilic character (Suppl Fig 11). The CLP immunogenic activity thus relies on an intricate interaction with PM sphingolipids as 175 reported for other microbial compounds^{36,37,38}. 176

177 By inserting into lipid bilayers, Srf may transiently affect the local structure of membranes. Indeed, neutron reflectivity (NR) experiments (see Suppl Fig 12 for deuterated 178 179 Srf synthesis and characterization) demonstrate that Srf exclusively inserts into the outer leaflet of PLPC-ß-sitosterol-GluCer model membranes (Fig 3A). This is supported by MD 180 simulation showing that the Srf peptide backbone preferentially positions at the level of the 181 polar lipid heads of the membrane (Suppl Fig 13). Srf insertion does not affect the lipid 182 chain-chain interaction as shown by WAXS and FTIR (Suppl Fig 13). In addition, NR data 183 indicated that Srf insertion results in a decrease in membrane thickness (from 40 to 36Å), 184 which is more pronounced in ternary membranes than in membranes lacking GluCer (from 185 186 43 to 41Å) (Suppl Table 4). Analysis of the nanoscale morphology of supported PLPC-ß-

sitosterol-GluCer bilayers by Atomic Force Microscopy confirmed this membrane thinning caused by Srf insertion (**Suppl Fig 14**). An additional impact of the lipopeptide on PM physical properties was derived from coarse-grained MD simulation which revealed a strong curvature-inducing effect mediated by Srf docking on ternary membranes (**Fig 3B**).

In light of these biophysical data, a clear impact of Srf on PM structure can be 191 predicted but in integral root cells, the PM is physically connected to the thick and 192 mechanically strong cell wall polymer matrix, which provides structural support and might 193 stabilize the membrane into a flat conformation under low tension³⁹. We thus next tested 194 195 early Srf-induced immune responses in cell wall-free protoplasts. Use of PPs renders the PM more susceptible to deformation, which was used to study responses to cell swelling or 196 shrinkage/expansion during osmotic stresses^{40,41}. As in root cells, Srf triggered a consistent 197 [ROS]_{intra} burst in freshly isolated protoplasts (Suppl Fig 15). However, in contrast to roots, a 198 significant calcium influx, was observed in Srf-treated protoplasts by using the Col-O^{AEQ} 199 200 reporter line and also by loading Col-0 with the Fluo4-AM probe (Fig3C and Suppl Fig 16). This Srf-induced Ca²⁺ influx is comparable in amplitude to the one induced by MAMPs (Suppl 201 Fig 17). It involves some PM channels since it is abolished in protoplasts pre-treated with the 202 general channel blocker LaCl₃ (Suppl Fig 18) and considering that the lipopeptide does not 203 cause any detrimental effect on protoplast viability at the concentration used (Suppl Fig 19). 204 Additional assays on protoplasts revealed that activation of early responses by Srf requires 205 threshold concentrations of 5-10 μ M both for calcium influx (**Fig 3D**) and [ROS]_{intra} burst 206 (Suppl Fig 20), which is much higher than MAMPs detected at nanomolar concentrations. 207 208 This further indicates that Srf perception is not mediated by a high-affinity receptor-based detection system and is in accordance with the mechanism predicted from biophysics in 209 which threshold amounts of Srf molecules must dock into sphingolipid domains in order to 210

modulate PM structure. We tested the impact of the lipopeptide on protoplast membrane fluidity via measurements of laurdan generalized polarization (laurdan GP) related to the lipid bilayer order. Our results show that Srf treatment led to a significant increase in Δ GP values indicating a clear membrane rigidification effect as also observed upon interaction of the lipopeptide with PM mimicking liposomes (**Fig 3E**).

Altogether, these data obtained with protoplasts support the relevance of PM 216 deformation in the response to Srf. We therefore hypothesized that insertion of the CLP 217 could induce physical constrains resulting in increased lateral tension sufficient for activating 218 219 mechano-sensitive (MS) ion channels, in a process similar to the one observed for some anionic amphipathic chemicals^{42,43}. This was supported by the reduced calcium influx 220 observed upon pre-treatment of Col-0^{AEQ} protoplasts with the specific MS channel blocker 221 GsMTX-4 (Suppl Fig 21). Among stretch sensitive mechanosensors identified so far in plant 222 cells, MSL9, MSL10 and MCA1/2 localize in the PM ^{44,45,46} but do not require RLCK-mediated 223 224 phosphorylation of the cytoplasmic domains for gating unlike other MS ion channels such as OSCA1.3 which needs BIK1 phosphorylation to be activated ⁴⁷. Using Fluo-4, we thus tested 225 protoplasts prepared from the quintuple $ms/4/5/6/9/10^{48}$ and the double $mca1/2^{49}$ mutants 226 for their response to Srf and observed a significantly decreased calcium influx, to the same 227 extent as chemical inactivation with GsMTX-4 in Col-0 (Fig 3F). 228

We next evaluated the effect of inactivation or knock-out of *msl* and *mca* channels on intracellular ROS burst as early response of root tissues elicited by Srf. Pre-treatment with GsMTX-4, LaCl₃ or with the Ca²⁺ chelator EGTA eliminated the ROS burst triggered by Srf in root tissues (**Fig 3G**), supporting the importance of MS channels in the response and indicating that ion fluxes acts upstream of or are interdependent of [ROS]_{intra}⁸. An almost complete loss of [ROS]_{intra} burst was also observed upon Srf treatment in the *msl4/5/6/9/10*

and mca1/2 mutants as compared to Col-0 (Fig 3H). In addition, mca1/2 and msl4/5/6/9/10 235 236 plants were strongly impaired in mounting systemic resistance against B. cinerea upon Srf 237 treatment (Fig 3I), further indicating that functional MS channels are necessary for full response of Arabidopsis to Srf elicitation on roots. Data on protoplasts show that Srf may 238 trigger some calcium transients as early immune-related event but a detectable Ca²⁺ influx is 239 not required for defense activation in plantlets, which correlates with the fact that no 240 downstream components of calcium signaling are up-regulated upon perception of the 241 242 lipopeptide.

Collectively, although contributions of other channels cannot be ruled out⁴⁷, our data 243 provides evidence for a key role of PM-located mechanosensors in lipopeptide-induced plant 244 defenses. The relative contribution of each channel remains to be determined as they 245 246 display specific properties in terms of sensitivity to membrane tension and ion selectivity. MCA1/2 are described as genuine transporters of Ca^{2+ 46,50} while MSL10 is regarded as a non-247 selective ion transporter that is indirectly involved in calcium signaling upon wounding⁵¹ and 248 response to hypo-osmotic shock in cell swelling⁴¹. Both channels may thus act in a 249 coordinated fashion to tailor ion fluxes leading to cellular responses and PM depolarization. 250 As previously reported for other plant species², treatment with Srf prepares Arabidopsis to 251 mount defense responses culminating in the systemically expressed IR phenotype. We 252 provide new insights into the molecular basis of the well-known long-standing process of 253 CLP-triggered plant immunity activation by unveiling a new lipid-mediated mechanism for 254 the detection of these molecules at the cell surface. We infer from our data that CLP 255 insertion into sphingolipid-enriched PM domains causes deformation and increases lateral 256 tension in the membrane leading to rearrangement of the MS protein complexes and gating 257 258 of the channels. This allows ion influx and initiates chemical signaling that can be integrated by root cells to activate early immune responses in a process that remains to be deciphered.

Such a lipid-dependent perception at the cell surface may apply also to other bacterial 260 amphiphilic IR elicitors such as acyl-homoserine lactones and rhamnolipids which also 261 readily interact with membrane lipids and may thus be perceived via similar 262 mechanisms^{2,52,53,54,55}. The nature of PM lipids widely varies across plant species³⁴. This could 263 explain, at least in the case of Srf, why this molecule triggers immunity in dicots but is not 264 very active on monocots². We assume that the effect of a CLP on a particular target 265 membrane is also fine-tuned by precise structural traits in the molecule. It may explain why 266 some CLPs produced by *Pseudomonas* leaf pathogens act as virulence factors in a wide range 267 of plants by causing necrosis via pore formation in cellular membranes⁵⁶. However, further 268 investigation is required to capture the physico-chemical rules governing lipid selectivity and 269 270 CLP insertion dynamics.

As the two components of the plant immune system, PTI works in concert with 271 effector-triggered immunity (ETI) for mounting robust defense responses to biotrophic 272 invaders but ETI is not efficient against necrotrophic pathogens^{5,57}. Here, we describe a 273 novel molecular mechanism of defense activation in plants, which provides resistance to the 274 necrotroph B. cinerea via a unique process not related to the receptor-based surveillance 275 system involved in the recognition of MAMPs by plant cells or in the perception of the 276 Pam₃CSK₄ analog of triacylated lipopeptides produced by *Staphylococcus aureus* and acting 277 as agonists of Toll Like-type PRRs in metazoans⁵⁸. It therefore provides new insights in plant-278 microbe interactions mediated by small chemicals from beneficial bacteria. Collectively, our 279 data show that Srf perception leads to specific immune activation signature regarding the 280 type, timing, and amplitude of early defense-related events and the weak transcriptional 281 282 reprogramming as compared to PTI. This may explain why elicitation by Srf is cost-effective

for the host plant as it does not result in growth-defense trade-off^{59,60} nor does it cause a 283 strong response associated with the alertness state or a hypersensitive reaction leading to 284 285 cell death. Using CLPs as elicitors would enable bacteria to bypass a strong immune response and avoid their rejection as undesirable associate. Further investigations are needed for a 286 comprehensive understanding of the whole process from perception to systemic signaling 287 but the mechanistic basis of CLP-induced plant resistance reported here should contribute to 288 rationally implement the use of these compounds or their producers as bio-sourced 289 290 alternatives to chemicals in sustainable agriculture.

Fig. 1. Surfactin triggers systemic resistance in Arabidopsis associated with atypical 292 **immune responses.** (A) Structural model of the heptapeptide Srf (C14 acyl chain homologue) 293 294 in water (Gromacs v.4.5.4). Red: oxygen, white: hydrogen, dark blue: nitrogen, light blue: carbon. The polar amino acids are circled in yellow, and other amino acids and the acyl chain 295 constitute the non-polar part of the molecule. (B) Disease incidence caused by Botrytis 296 cinerea in Arabidopsis Col-0 plants pre-treated with Srf (10 µM) or not (mock treatment, 0.1 297 % ethanol) (n=28 replicates from three independent experiments). The box plots encompass 298 the 1st and 3rd quartiles, the horizontal line indicates the median, and bars extend from the 299 300 lower to the higher values. Disease reduction (D.R.) is calculated from the mean values of both treatments. Significant difference ***P<0.001, two-tailed t-test. (C) Burst in 301 intracellular ROS species in Arabidopsis Col-0 roots upon treatment with Srf (10 µM). Left, 302 time course of [ROS]_{intra} accumulation (Relative Fluorescence Units, RFU) with data at each 303 time point representing mean \pm SD, n=3 (independent root samples). Right, fold increase in 304 fluorescence values ± SD, at 30 min after the addition of Srf compared to mock-treated 305 roots. Data are pooled from three independent experiments (total n=9) and asterisks 306 indicate significant difference (***P<0.001, two-tailed t-test). (D) [Ca²⁺]_{cvt} kinetics in Srf-307 308 treated (10 μ M) or flg22-treated root tissues (1 μ M) (n=6) compared to mock treatment in the Arabidopsis Col-0^{AEQ} reporter line. Results are represented as luminescence counts per 309 310 second relative to total luminescence counts remaining (L/Lmax; mean ± SD). Experiments were repeated three times with similar results. (E) pH variation in Col-0 root medium 311 following mock treatment or addition of 10 μ M Srf. Values on the graph are normalized to 312 313 pH of the first time point ± SD and are from one representative experiment (n=4) out of 2 independent experiments showing similar results. (F) Number of DEGs (Log₂ Fold Change > 2, 314 P<0.05) in Arabidopsis root cells determined via RNAseq for each time point in response to 315

Srf treatment (10 μ M). Our data were compared with those reported for DEGs in response 316 to flg22 (1 μ M) and chitin (Chi, 1 mg/ml)¹⁸ and bars are subdivided by the number of genes 317 specifically responding to Srf and by the number of genes differentially (oppositely) 318 regulated by Srf and the two MAMPs. (G) Heatmap of the expression of genes putatively 319 320 associated with plant immune responses (listed in Supp table 1) that were modulated upon Srf treatment (S, left) (10 μ M) and compared with their expression in response to flg22 (1 321 μM) and chitin (1 mg/ml) (F and C respectively, right) based on published data¹⁸. Colour 322 scale represents Log₂ FC (> 2, P<0.05). (H) Camalexin response associated with IR triggered 323 by Srf. Camalexin accumulation 96 hours post B. cinerea inoculation (hpi) in Arabidopsis Col-324 0 leaves of mock- or 10 µM Srf-treated plants at the root level. Graph shows values obtained 325 in one experiment with each value representing a sample of five plants pooled together. 326 327 Asterisks indicate significant difference with ns, not significant; *P<0.05; ***P<0.001; twotailed *t*-test. (I) Disease incidence of *B. cinerea* in *pad3* mutant pretreated with 10 µM Srf or 328 mock-treated at the root level (n=30, values obtained from three independent experiments, 329 presented as differently shaded grey values). Data are represented as in fig 1B. Asterisks 330 331 indicate significant difference with ns, not significant; *P<0.05; ***P<0.001; two-way ANOVA and Sidak's multiple-comparison post-test. 332

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Fig. 2. Affinity for sphingolipids determines CLP-triggered immunity. (A) *In silico* docking simulation of the interaction between Srf and plant PM lipids with their associated energy of interaction (E_{int}). A lower E_{int} value indicates a more favorable interaction. Hydrogen, oxygen and phosphate atoms are respectively represented in grey, red and blue. Carbon atoms of Srf are in yellow and carbon atoms of GluCer, Sito and PLPC are in pink. (B) Binding coefficient (K) of Srf to liposomes with different lipid compositions. Graph presents values

from two independent experiments, mean ± SD. (C) Molecular dynamics simulation of Srf 340 341 insertion in GluCer-enriched domains of a PLPC-Sito-GluCer bilayer. Left: Top views of bilayers before and after Srf insertion (right). (D) [ROS]_{intra} accumulation in roots of Col-0 and 342 loh1 mutant. Data represents fold increase in fluorescence values ± SD (n=6 from two 343 independent experiments) at 30 min after Srf addition (10 µM) or not . Significant difference 344 ***P<0.001, two-tailed t-test. (E) Disease incidence of B. cinerea in Arabidopsis Col-0 and 345 loh1 mutant plants, pre-treated with Srf (10 μM) compared with mock treatment (n=30 from 346 two independent experiments). Data are represented as in fig 1B. ns = not significant, 347 ***P<0.001, two-way ANOVA and Sidak's multiple-comparison post-test. 348

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Fig. 3. Srf causes membrane deformation and activates mechanosensitive channel-350 dependent immune responses. (A) Membrane thickness determined via neutron scattering 351 length density (SLD) profiles of supported PLPC-Sito-GluCer membrane before (black) and 352 after (green) Srf addition to the final 95:5 membrane: Srf molar proportion (0.24 µM) 353 (below). Illustration (above) presents the correspondence between regions in the SLD profile 354 355 and specific zones in the membrane. (B) Molecular dynamics simulation of Srf-induced membrane curvature. (C) Left, $[Ca^{2+}]_{cvt}$ kinetics in Srf-treated (10 μ M) root cell protoplasts 356 (n=6) compared to mock treatment in the Arabidopsis Col-0^{AEQ} reporter line. Results are 357 represented as luminescence counts per second relative to total luminescence counts 358 remaining (L/Lmax; mean ± SD). Experiments were repeated three times with similar results 359 (see Suppl Fig 16 for additional experiments). Right, increase in [Ca²⁺]_{cvt} detected upon 360 loading root protoplasts of Col-0 with Fluo-4 in mock- or Srf-treated (10 µM). Experiments 361 were repeated three times with similar results. (D) Dose-dependent $[Ca^{2+}]_{cvt}$ increase 362 induced by Srf in root protoplasts of Arabidopsis Col-0^{AEQ}. Values are the average of L/Lmax 363

values from 1.5 to 4 min after treatment corresponding to the top of the peak. Mean ± SD of 364 at least 10 technical replicates from at least five independent experiments. Asterisks indicate 365 366 statistically significant differences to the mock treatment (ns= no significant difference; *P<0.05; ***P < 0.001; (a) two-tailed *t*-test; (b) Welch and Brown-Forsythe ANOVA). (E) 367 Change of laurdan generalized polarization (Δ GP) in Srf-treated (10 μ M) Col-0 root 368 protoplasts and in liposomes reflecting a change of membrane rigidity. ΔGP is defined as the 369 subtraction of GP measured at 10 min following treatment and GP measured before 370 treatment. Mean ± SD of 12 (for protoplasts) and 15 (for liposomes) replicates from 8 (for 371 protoplasts) and 5 (for liposomes) independent experiments. ***P<0.001, two-way ANOVA 372 and Sidak's multiple comparison test. (F) [Ca²⁺]_{cvt} response measured with Fluo-4 upon Srf 373 elicitation (10 µM) in Arabidopsis Col-0 root protoplasts with and without pre-treatment 374 with the mechanosensitive channel blocker GsMTX-4 (10 min incubation, 7.5 µM)(n=10) and 375 in root protoplasts of the mca1/2, and msl4/5/6/9/10 mutants (n=14). Mean ± SD from four 376 377 independent experiments. Letters represent statistically different groups at α = 0.05 (twoway ANOVA and Tukey's multiple-comparison post-test). (G) [ROS]_{intra} accumulation upon 378 379 addition of 10 µM Srf to Arabidopsis Col-0 roots upon pre-treatment or not (Col-0, n=16) with the mechanosensitive channel blocker GsMTX-4 (10 min incubation, 7.5 μ M) (n=12), 380 with the non-selective Ca^{2+} channel blocker LaCl₃ (10 mM) (n=7) and the Ca²⁺ chelator EGTA 381 (1 mM) (n=7). Data represent fold increase in fluorescence values 30 min after Srf addition 382 compared to mock-treated roots. Mean ± SD calculated from data from two independent 383 experiments. Letters represent statistically different groups at $\alpha = 0.05$ (two-way ANOVA 384 and Tukey's multiple-comparison post-test). (H) [ROS]_{intra} accumulation in Arabidopsis Col-0 385 (n=6), mca1/2 (n=7), and msl4/5/6/9/10 (n=8) roots following Srf treatment (10 μ M). Data 386 represent fold increase in fluorescence values 30 min after Srf addition compared to mock-387

388	treated roots. Mean \pm SD from two independent experiments. ** <i>P</i> <0.01, two-tailed <i>t</i> -test. (I)
389	Disease incidence of <i>B. cinerea</i> in Arabidopsis Col-0, mca1/2, and msl4/5/6/9/10 mutant
390	plants, mock- or Srf pre-treated (10 μM)(each n=30 from two independent experiments
391	represented as differently shaded grey values). Data are represented as in fig 1B.

392

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407

408 Author contributions

409	J.P.,	G.G., M.D. and M.O. conceived and designed experiments; J.P., G.G., H.I., A.A., V.R.,					
410	W.P.	L-L, E.D., M.N.N., M.M-G., S.E., A.K., P.B. and Y.F.D. performed experiments and analyzed					
411	data; J-M.C., M.G. and L.L. performed modeling; S.D., B.D.C, S.R., T.N., S.R., M.H. and C.Z.						
412	subs	cantially revised the manuscript and were involved in the discussion of the work; M.D.					
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417	Refe	rences					
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Figure 1



Hours (post treatment)





Е



Figure 3

