

A Noncanonical Role for the CKI-RB-E2F Cell-Cycle Signaling Pathway in Plant Effector-Triggered Immunity

Shui Wang,^{1,2,3,*} Yangnan Gu,^{2,3} Sophia G. Zebell,^{2,3} Lisa K. Anderson,² Wei Wang,² Rajinikanth Mohan,² and Xinnian Dong^{2,*}

¹Shanghai Center for Plant Stress Biology, Shanghai Institutes for Biological Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai 201602, China

²Department of Biology, Howard Hughes Medical Institute-Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation, P.O. Box 90338, Duke University, Durham, NC 27708, USA

³Co-first author

*Correspondence: swang@sibs.ac.cn (S.W.), xdong@duke.edu (X.D.)

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SUMMARY

Effector-triggered immunity (ETI), the major host defense mechanism in plants, is often associated with programmed cell death (PCD). Plants lack close homologs of caspases, the key mediators of PCD in animals. So although the NB-LRR receptors involved in ETI are well studied, how they activate PCD and confer disease resistance remains elusive. We show that the *Arabidopsis* nuclear envelope protein, CPR5, negatively regulates ETI and the associated PCD through a physical interaction with cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors (CKIs). Upon ETI induction, CKIs are released from CPR5 to cause overactivation of another core cell-cycle regulator, E2F. In *cki* and *e2f* mutants, ETI responses induced by both TIR-NB-LRR and CC-NB-LRR classes of immune receptors are compromised. We further show that E2F is deregulated during ETI, probably through CKI-mediated hyperphosphorylation of retinoblastoma-related 1 (RBR1). This study demonstrates that canonical cell-cycle regulators also play important noncanonical roles in plant immunity.

INTRODUCTION

Each plant genome encodes hundreds of nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat (NB-LRR) proteins, which are structurally similar to the mammalian intracellular innate immune receptors, nod-like receptors (NLRs) (Ausubel, 2005). In the mammalian system, activation of NLRs can trigger programmed cell death (PCD) through recruitment of caspases (Ting et al., 2008). In plants, the presence of a pathogen effector detected by the cognate NB-LRR triggers effector-triggered immunity (ETI), accompanied with rapid and often visible PCD (Jones and Dangl, 2006). However, plant genomes do not carry close homologs of caspases, but more distant metacaspases (Coll et al., 2010). Therefore, PCD is likely executed in plants through a unique mechanism.

In mammals, expression of caspases is tightly controlled by two transcription factors (TFs): p53 and E2F (Polager and Ginsberg, 2009). Although a homolog of the p53 protein has not been found in plants, all of the core E2F signaling proteins, including CDK inhibitors (CKIs), cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs), retinoblastoma (RB), and E2Fs, are present and function as their mammalian counterparts (De Veylder et al., 2007), but their roles in regulating plant immunity are not known.

Genetic screens performed in *Arabidopsis* have identified enhanced disease susceptibility 1 (EDS1) as a key downstream signaling component for the Toll Interleukin 1 Receptor (TIR)-NB-LRR class of immune receptors (Parker et al., 1996). To confer full immunity, the nucleocytoplasmic coordination of the effector/NB-LRR/EDS1 protein complex is required (Bhattacharjee et al., 2011; Heidrich et al., 2011). This requirement was also implicated genetically through isolation of the *modifier of snz1* (*mos*) mutants. Mutations in the nuclear transport receptor (*mos6*) and nuclear pore complex (*mos3* and *mos7*) blocked nuclear retention of some NB-LRRs as well as EDS1 and compromised resistance (Cheng et al., 2009). These data suggest that the nuclear membrane is a potential regulatory site of plant immune signaling.

Besides EDS1 and MOSs, which are positive regulators of NB-LRR-mediated immunity, “lesion-mimic” mutants have also been studied extensively in searches for negative regulators of effector-triggered PCD and resistance. The *lesion simulating disease 1* mutant was found to have runaway PCD upon pathogen challenge due to improper activation of a class of “helper” NB-LRR proteins which act downstream of effector-specific NB-LRRs (Bonardi et al., 2011). Recently, a cell death enhancer mutant screen discovered that misregulation of the anaphase-promoting complex/cyclosome, a ubiquitin E3 ligase complex controlling cell-cycle progression, could lead to upregulation of NB-LRR gene expression (Bao et al., 2013). Since these negative regulators function upstream of EDS1 (Bao et al., 2013; Rustérucci et al., 2001), the signaling components linking EDS1 to activation of PCD genes remain to be discovered.

The *Arabidopsis* lesion-mimic mutant *constitutive expresser of pathogenesis-related genes 5* (*cpr5*) may shed light on this downstream signaling pathway. The *cpr5* mutant has enhanced resistance to biotrophic pathogens *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *maculicola* (*Psm*) and *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* (*Hpa*) (Bowling et al., 1997; Kirik et al., 2001). However, unlike the other

lesion-mimic mutants, the *cpr5* phenotype could not be suppressed by *eds1* (Clarke et al., 2001), suggesting that the mutation affects a component either downstream of EDS1 or independent of it (Figure S1A available online). Nor was the phenotype of *cpr5* significantly affected by *nonexpresser of pathogenesis-related genes 1* (*npr1*), a mutant insensitive to the immune signal salicylic acid (SA) (Clarke et al., 2000). However, blocking SA accumulation with the *eds5* mutant did suppress the disease resistance phenotype of *cpr5*, but not its lesioning phenotype, nor the stunted growth morphology, placing *cpr5* upstream of SA synthesis (Figure S1A). These results are consistent with the fact that SA, which is often produced during ETI (Vlot et al., 2009), is not only an essential signal in conferring NPR1-dependent resistance, but is also involved in augmenting ETI in an NPR1-independent manner (Feys et al., 2001). Apparently, in the *cpr5* mutant, this NPR1-independent defense is sufficiently activated to confer disease resistance.

In this study, we show that mutations of two CKIs, *SIAMESE* (*SIM*) and *SIAMESE-RELATED 1* (*SMR1*), fully suppressed pleiotropic phenotypes of *cpr5*. CPR5 is localized to the nuclear envelope where it physically interacts with SIM, and this interaction is dynamically regulated during ETI. In both the *cpr5* mutant and wild-type (WT) plants undergoing ETI, SIM and SMR1 are involved in hyperphosphorylation of the cell-cycle regulator retinoblastoma-related 1 (RBR1) and overexpression of E2F target genes. In addition, both the *sim smr1* and the *e2f* mutants are compromised in resistance. Our study, therefore, reveals a cell-cycle-related signaling pathway for ETI.

RESULTS

Constitutive Expresser of Pathogenesis-Related Genes 5 Is a Negative Regulator of Plant Programmed Cell Death and Effector-Triggered Immunity

CPR5 was first discovered in a genetic screen for mutants with spontaneous PCD and constitutively enhanced resistance to biotrophic pathogens (Bowling et al., 1997). The CPR5 protein has 4–5 predicted transmembrane domains (Figure S1B) and was detected predominantly in the nuclear membrane, but not the plasma membrane fraction (Figures S1C and S1D). To address whether CPR5 plays a direct role in defense, we analyzed independent 35S:*GFP-CPR5 Arabidopsis* transgenic lines in the *cpr5* mutant background. We found that transgenic lines with different levels of the GFP-CPR5 protein (Figure 1A) could fully complement the *cpr5* mutant morphology, similar to those with the transgene driven by the native CPR5 promoter (Figure S1E). In contrast to the loss-of-function *cpr5* mutant, these transgenic lines showed compromised PCD and diminished immunity against the bacterial pathogen *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* (Figures 1B and 1C). These data demonstrate that CPR5 is a negative regulator of PCD and immunity against biotrophic pathogens.

Constitutive Expresser of Pathogenesis-Related Genes 5 Negatively Regulates Effector-Triggered Immunity through Association with the Kip-Related Protein Family of Cyclin-Dependent Kinase Inhibitors

To further understand CPR5 function, we carried out a genetic screen for suppressors of *cpr5* in NPR1-independent *Hpa* resis-

tance (*svi* mutants; Figures 1D and S1F). The recessive *svi1* mutation was mapped to a deletion containing six putative genes (Figure S1G; Table S1). Among them, *Kip-related protein 2* (*KRP2*) belongs to the KRP family of CKIs. Both KRP2 and a close member of this family, KRP1, have been found previously to control cell-cycle progression, cell death, and trichome development (Schnittger et al., 2003; Verkest et al., 2005), which is relevant to the phenotype of *cpr5*. Similar to *svi1*, a *krp2* transfer DNA insertion mutation also partially restored *Hpa* Noco2 susceptibility when crossed into the *cpr5 npr1* mutant, and *krp2* and *npr1* have additive effects on suppression of *cpr5*-induced resistance (Figure 1E).

The KRP family contains at least 18 members and is homologous to the human CDK interacting protein/Kinase inhibitory protein (Cip/Kip) proteins (Figure S1H; Table S2) (Wang et al., 1997). To determine the functional redundancy of *Arabidopsis* KRP genes in resistance observed in *cpr5*, we crossed *cpr5* with other *krp* mutants. While the *krp1 krp2* double mutant was not viable, the *sim smr1* double mutant dramatically suppressed *cpr5* morphological phenotypes (data not shown) and resistance (Figure 1F). Therefore, SIM and SMR1 function redundantly downstream of CPR5 and play a positive role in defense against *Hpa*.

To determine the relationship between CPR5 and SIM/SMR1, we first ruled out a possible regulation at the transcriptional or the translational level (Figures S1I and S1J). We then tested whether CPR5 and SIM/SMR1 function in the same protein complex. Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) showed that they could interact *in vivo* in the nuclear periphery (Figures 1G and S1K). This interaction was further verified by a split luciferase assay (Figures 1H and S1L) and yeast two-hybrid analysis (Figure S1M). These results demonstrate that CPR5 not only genetically, but also physically interacts with CKIs.

To reveal the regulatory mechanism of this interaction, we performed a semi-*in vitro* coimmunoprecipitation experiment by adding recombinant SIM protein to extracts prepared from leaves infected with either *Psm* ES4326 or *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2*. While no degradation of the recombinant SIM protein was detected, we found that its association with CPR5 was reduced in response to *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2*, but not to *Psm* ES4326 (Figure 1I). This result suggests that CPR5 may negatively regulate SIM through the physical interaction, which can be disrupted upon ETI induction. However, detailed molecular mechanism and the kinetics of the interaction at the physiological level require further investigation.

Constitutive Expresser of Pathogenesis-Related Genes 5 Regulates Effector-Triggered Immunity-Specific Defense Gene Expression through SIAMESE/SIAMESE-RELATED 1 and E2F

The epistatic relationship of *sim smr1* to *cpr5* was further confirmed by the whole genome microarray analysis (Gene Expression Omnibus [GEO], GSE40322). As shown in Figure 2A, WT, *sim smr1*, and *cpr5 sim smr1* shared expression patterns at the whole genome level, which were largely distinct from that of the *cpr5* mutant. Volcano plots of differentially expressed genes in *cpr5* and *cpr5 sim smr1* also revealed an overwhelming dependency of the *cpr5*-induced transcriptomic changes on SIM/SMR1 (Figure 2B). To further quantify this dependency, we built a series of statistical models and performed factorial analysis. As

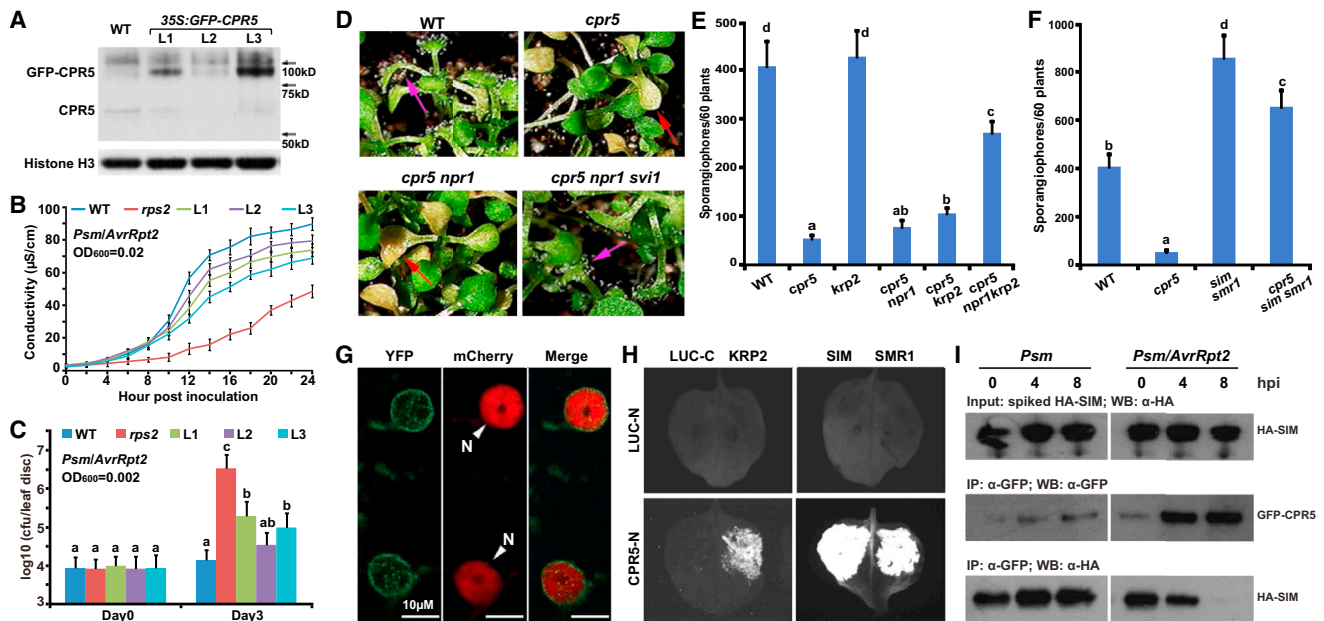


Figure 1. The Nuclear Envelope Protein Constitutive Expresser of Pathogenesis-Related Genes 5 Negatively Regulates Effector-Triggered Programmed Cell Death and Resistance through Interactions with Cyclin-Dependent Kinase Inhibitors

(A) Nuclear proteins were purified from 2-week-old WT and three independent 35S:GFP-CPR5 transgenic plants in the *cpr5-1* mutant background (L1, L2, and L3). The western blot was probed with α -CPR5 and α -histone H3.

(B) There were 3-week-old WT, *rps2*, and 35S:GFP-CPR5 transgenic plants that were inoculated with *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* ($OD_{600} = 0.02$). Leaf discs were harvested 30 min after inoculation, and ion leakage was measured every 2 hr using the conductivity assay. Error bars represent SEs. Experiments were carried out two times with similar results.

(C) WT, *rps2*, and 35S:GFP-CPR5 transgenic plants were inoculated with *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* ($OD_{600} = 0.002$). Bacterial growth (colony forming unit [cfu]) was measured right after inoculation (Day 0) and 3 days later (Day 3). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals ($n = 8$). Experiments were conducted three times with similar results.

(D) *Arabidopsis* seedlings (7–10 days old) were inoculated with *Hpa Noco2* spores (5×10^4 spores/ml). *Hpa* sporangiophores (pink arrow) and *cpr5*-mediated early senescence (red arrow) were visualized 7 days later.

(E and F) *Arabidopsis* seedlings were inoculated with *Hpa Noco2* spores (5×10^4 spores/ml). After 7 days, the sporangiophores were counted after trypan blue staining. Error bars represent SEs. Experiments were conducted three times with similar results.

(G) BiFC assay was carried out in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves. The N and C terminus of YFP were fused to SIM (SIM-nYFP) and full-length CPR5 (cYFP-CPR5), respectively. The free mCherry served as a nuclear marker. N, nucleus.

(H) Split luciferase assay was performed in *N. benthamiana* leaves. The N terminus of luciferase (LUC-N) was fused to the C terminus of CPR5 (N-terminal 339 amino acids), and the C-terminal half of luciferase (LUC-C) was fused to the N terminus of KRP2, SIM, or SMR1.

(I) Leaves of 35S:GFP-CPR5 transgenic plants (4 weeks old) were infiltrated with *Psm* ES4326 or *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* at $OD_{600} = 0.02$. Total proteins were extracted at indicated hour post infiltration (hpi) and coimmunoprecipitated (co-IP) with wheat germ-synthesized HA-SIM. The input HA-SIM protein was taken at end of the co-IP incubation and detected using western blot with α -HA. The binding of HA-SIM to GFP-CPR5 was detected by western blot using the antibodies α -GFP and α -HA.

See also Figure S1 and Tables S1 and S2.

shown in Figure S2A, in all cases, $\sim 90\%$ of *cpr5*-upregulated genes were dependent on SIM/SMR1, further confirming that SIM and SMR1 are required for *cpr5*-mediated gene expression.

Further characterization of *cpr5*-mediated differentially expressed genes (t test, p value < 0.05 , and $FC > 2$) (Figures 2C and S2B; Table S3) revealed that the most significantly enriched gene ontology term (<http://geneontology.org/>) was “defense-related” (hypergeometric test, p value ≈ 0). Comparative analysis with other defense-related microarray data sets (GSE34047 and GSE58954) revealed significant overlap with *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2*-induced genes and the SA-induced genes, but limited overlap with the microbe-associated molecular pattern (MAMP) elf18-induced genes (Figures 2D and S2C). Since the SA signaling mutant *npr1* had little effect on *cpr5* at the genomic level (GSE5745; Figure S2D), we concluded that

the *cpr5* mutation could induce defense genes independent of NPR1, consistent with the genetic data (Clarke et al., 2000) (Figure S1A).

The microarray data clearly support our hypothesis that CPR5 and SIM/SMR1 are negative and positive regulators of ETI, respectively. Since SA is produced during ETI, it is not surprising that there was a significant overlap between *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2*- and SA-induced genes, which comprised the majority of *cpr5*-induced genes (Figures 2D and S2C). Moreover, in *cpr5 sim smr1*, both the SA synthesis gene expression and the SA level were restored to WT (Figures S2E and S2F).

To understand how SIM/SMR1 positively controls defense gene expression, we considered the canonical core cell-cycle signaling pathway CKI-CDK-RB-E2F (Sherr and Roberts, 1999) because the CKI function of SIM/SMR1 has been previously

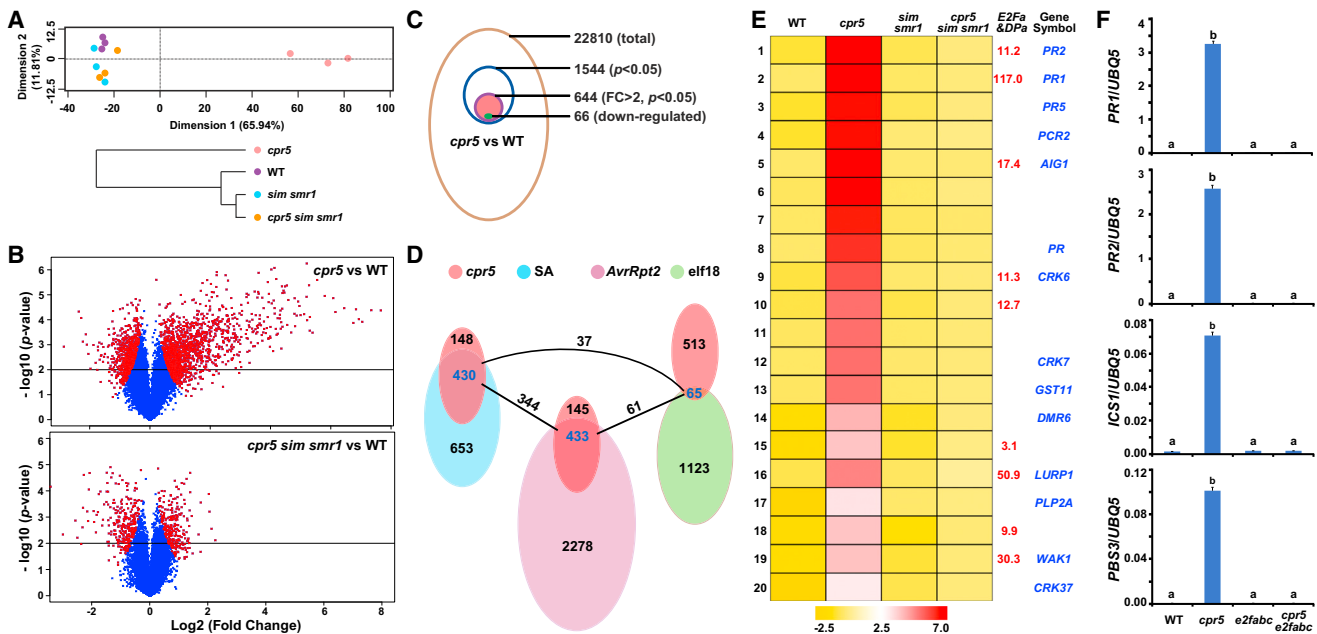


Figure 2. Constitutive Expresser of Pathogenesis-Related Genes 5 Regulates Effector-Triggered Immunity-Specific Defense Gene Expression through SIAMESE/SIAMESE-RELATED 1 and E2F

(A) Principal component analysis of the microarray data and hierarchical clustering of the averaged genomic expression pattern. Genotypes with replicates were color labeled. The microarray experiments were conducted using 10-day-old plants in three biological replicates.

(B) Volcano plots illustrating differentially expressed genes (p value < 0.01) with permutation ($n = 1,000$) in *cpr5* and *cpr5 sim smr1* compared to WT. James-Stein shrinkage estimates of the error variance were used.

(C) Summary of differential gene expression in the *cpr5* mutant comparing to WT. Student's t test is used and p values are computed asymptotically and subject to Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment. Fold change (FC).

(D) Comparative analysis of *cpr5* microarray data with defense-related data sets (GSE34047 and GSE58954). Lists of upregulated genes were generated using t test with p value < 0.05 and $\text{FC} > 2$. Numbers in blue are the overlapping genes between data sets and numbers above the lines are the overlaps between the blue numbers.

(E) The top 20 *cpr5*-induced genes (p value < 0.05), shown in the heatmap, include 14 designated as defense-related (named in blue) and nine E2Fa/DPa-target genes (Vandepoele et al., 2005) (reported fold induction in E2Fa/DPa-overexpressing plants is shown in red). Pathogenesis-related 1/2/5 (*PR1/2/5*), plant cadmium resistance 2 (*PCR2*), *AvrRpt2*-induced gene 1 (*AIG1*), cysteine-rich RLK 6/7/37 (*CRK6/7/37*), glutathione *S*-transferase 11 (*GST11*), downy mildew resistant 6 (*DMR6*), late upregulated in response to *Hyaloperonospora parasitica* 1 (*LURP1*), phospholipase A 2A (*PLP2A*), and cell wall-associated kinase 1 (*WAK1*).

(F) Quantitative RT-PCR was performed on *PR1*, *PR2*, *ICS1*, and *PBS3* in 10-day-old seedlings. *UBQ5* was used as an internal control. Error bars represent SEs. Experiments were conducted in triplicate.

See also Figure S2; Tables S3 and S4.

demonstrated (Walker et al., 2000). We found that among the top 20 induced genes in *cpr5* (based on p values), nine are also significantly induced in E2Fa/DPa-overexpressing transgenic plants (Vandepoele et al., 2005) (Figure 2E). E2Fs are known downstream TFs of cell cycle, cell death, and immune response in mammals (Polager and Ginsberg, 2008). To study the role of E2F genes in plants, we first examined the mutants of all three canonical E2F genes of *Arabidopsis*. We found that the double mutants were indistinguishable from WT in plant growth (data not shown), while the *e2fa e2fb e2fc* triple mutant (*e2fabc*) showed near normal vegetative growth, but severely compromised fertility (Figure S2G). This result indicates that these three E2Fs play a redundant role in *Arabidopsis* reproduction. We found that in the *cpr5 e2fabc* quadruple mutant, defense genes upregulated in *cpr5* were fully restored to WT levels (Figure 2F). Moreover, similar to *sim smr1*, *e2fabc* was more susceptible to *Psm* ES4326 than WT (Figure S2H). These data suggest that CPR5 and SIM/SMR1 may signal through E2F during the plant immune response.

SIAMESE/SIAMESE-RELATED 1 and E2F Are Required for Pathogen Effector-Triggered Programmed Cell Death and Immunity

Our microarray data suggest that like mammalian Cip/Kip proteins, which are known to play a key role in integrating stress signals into cell fate determination (Besson et al., 2008), plant CKIs and E2Fs may be important regulators of PCD in response to pathogen challenge. This is consistent with the genetic data showing that the *cpr5*-associated PCD in cotyledons was fully suppressed by both *sim smr1* and *e2fabc* (Figures 3A and 3B). To further test whether the CPR5-SIM/SMR-E2F signaling pathway plays a role in ETI, we inoculated *sim smr1* and *e2fabc* with *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2*. After 24 hr, a strong effector-triggered PCD and resistance were observed in WT plants, but not in *sim smr1* and *e2fabc*, similar to the resistant to *pseudomonas syringae* 2 (*rps2*) mutant lacking the cognate coiled-coil (CC)-NB-LRR immune receptor for *AvrRpt2* (Figures 3C, 3D, and S3A). This indicates that SIM/SMR1 and E2Fs are downstream components required for the onset of

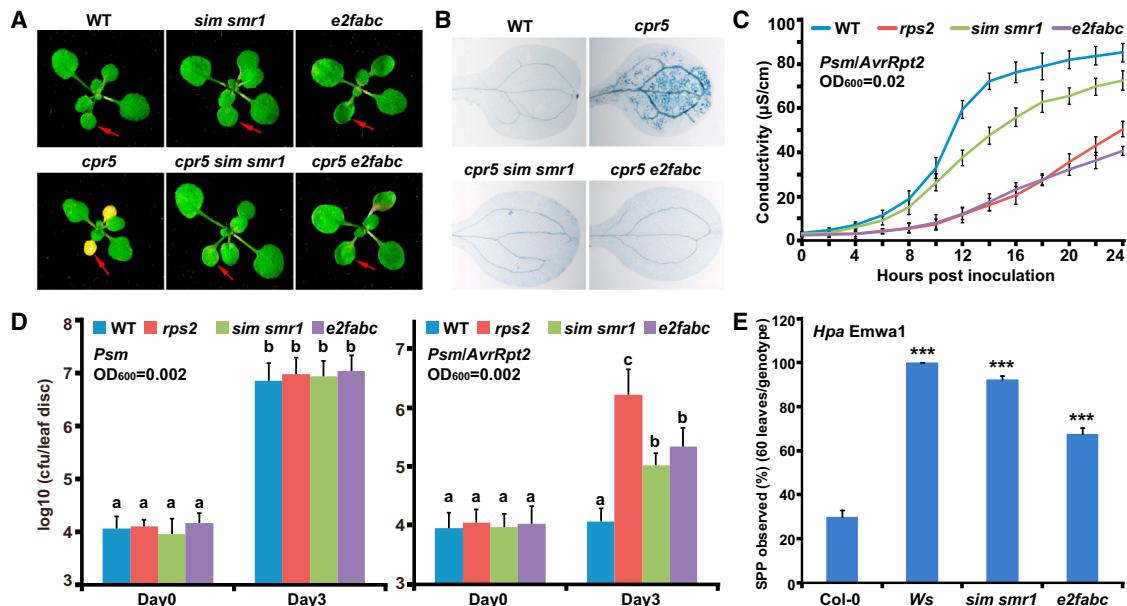


Figure 3. SIAMESE/SIAMESE-RELATED 1 and E2F Are Required for *cpr5*-Mediated and Effector-Triggered Programmed Cell Death and Immunity

(A) There were 2-week-old plants that were examined and photographed for early senescence of cotyledons (arrows).
 (B) There were 2-week-old cotyledons that were stained using trypan blue for cells that have undergone PCD.
 (C) There were 4-week-old plants that were infected with *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* ($OD_{600} = 0.02$). Leaf discs were harvested 30 min after inoculation, and ion leakage was measured every 2 hr. Error bars represent SEs. Experiments were carried out three times with similar results.
 (D) There were 4-week-old plants that were inoculated with *Psm* ES4326 (left panel) or *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* (right panel) ($OD_{600} = 0.002$; a high dosage normally used for observing ETI). Bacterial growth (cfu) was measured right after inoculation (Day 0) and 3 days later (Day 3). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals ($n = 8$). Experiments were conducted three times with similar results.
 (E) There were 7-day-old seedlings that were inoculated with a suspension of asexual spores (5×10^5 spores per ml) of *Hpa* Emwa1. The RPP4-deficient *Ws* accession was used as a negative control. Plants were collected 7 days post inoculation (dpi), stained with trypan blue, and scored for the presence of sporangioophores (SPP). Error bars represent SD, *** p value < 0.001 compared to WT by binomial test. Experiment was repeated three times with similar results.

See also Figure S3.

ETI. The defense phenotype of the mutants was unlikely due to a deficiency in SA synthesis, which was only slightly delayed in the *sim smr1* mutant after *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* inoculation (Figure S3B). We also performed an infection experiment using *Hpa* Emwa1 for which the *Arabidopsis* Col-0 accession carries the TIR-NB-LRR class of immune receptor, RPP4. We found that similar to the RPP4-deficient *Ws* accession, *sim smr1* and *e2fabc* were compromised in RPP4-mediated ETI (Figure 3E), indicating that SIM/SMR1 and E2Fs are positive regulators of ETI mediated by both CC-NB-LRR (e.g., RPS2) and TIR-NB-LRR (e.g., RPP4) classes of immune receptors.

Even though the *sim smr1* and *e2fabc* mutants were also defective in basal resistance (Figure S2H), this phenotype was not discernible at the higher inoculum of *Psm* ES4326 without the effector (left panel, Figure 3D). Since *sim smr1* and *e2fabc* responded normally to MAMPs flg22 and elf18 (Figure S3C), their enhanced disease susceptibility may be caused by a deficiency downstream of the MAMP-triggered defense. Whether it involves a deficiency in the synthesis of SA, an inducer of general disease resistance in plants (Durrant and Dong, 2004), or compromised ETI triggered by other minor effectors in the pathogens remains to be tested.

Constitutive Expresser of Pathogenesis-Related Genes 5 and SIAMESE/SIAMESE-RELATED 1 Control Effector-Triggered Immunity through Hyperphosphorylation of Retinoblastoma-Related 1 and Activation of E2F

We next investigated how SIM and SMR1 control ETI. In mammals, the transcriptional activity of E2F is regulated by CKIs through CDK phosphorylation of RB. RB is normally bound to E2F to repress E2F activity. Phosphorylation of RB by CDK results in E2F release to activate gap1 (G1) to synthesis (S) cell-cycle transition. However, hyperphosphorylation of RB can instead lead to PCD (Harbour and Dean, 2000). To test the possibility that SIM and SMR1 regulate E2F activity through CDK-mediated phosphorylation of RBR1 in *Arabidopsis*, we first examined the level of CDKA1, a homolog of mammalian CDK2, which is a known regulator of RB (Harbour and Dean, 2000). We found that while the *CDKA1* transcript level was unaffected in *cpr5* (Figure S4A), more CDKA1 protein was detected in *cpr5* than WT, but not in *cpr5 sim smr1* (Figure S4B). This result indicates that in the absence of CPR5, SIM and SMR1 promote the accumulation of CDKA1. Overexpression of KRP2 had a similar effect on the CDKA1 protein (De Veylder et al., 2001), suggesting that these CKIs can not only inhibit the CDK activity, but also stabilize the CDK protein.

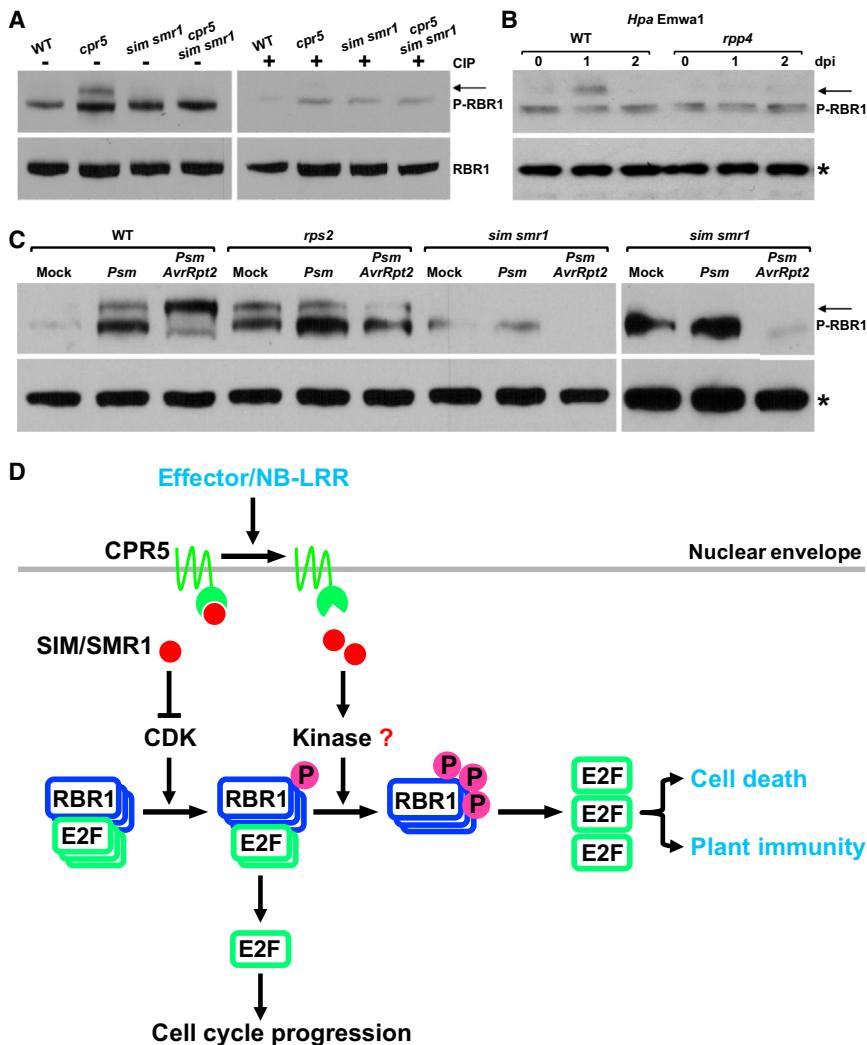


Figure 4. SIAMSE and SIAMSE-RELATED 1 Confer Plant Programmed Cell Death and Immunity through Hyperphosphorylation of Retinoblastoma-Related 1

(A) Western blot analysis was performed on protein extracts from 10-day-old plants. α -P-RB and α -RBR1 were used to detect phosphorylated and total AtRBR1, respectively. The hyperphosphorylated AtRBR1 in *cpr5* is indicated by an arrow. The same set of samples was treated with CIP (+) to dephosphorylate the protein.

(B) There were 7-day-old seedlings that were inoculated with *Hpa Emwa1*. Samples were taken at 0, 1, and 2 dpi. α -P-RB was used to detect phosphorylated AtRBR1. The hyperphosphorylated AtRBR1 is marked by an arrow. * indicates a nonspecific band used as a loading control.

(C) There were 3-week-old plants that were inoculated with 10 mM $MgCl_2$ (Mock), *Psm* ES4326 (*Psm*; $OD_{600} = 0.02$), and *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* (*Psm AvrRpt2*; $OD_{600} = 0.02$). Protein extracts were made 12 hr later and analyzed by western blotting using α -P-RB. To better visualize the signals of the last three lanes (left panel), a longer exposure of the film is also shown (right panel). The hyperphosphorylated AtRBR1 is marked by an arrow. * indicates a nonspecific band used as a loading control.

(D) Proposed downstream signaling events in effector-triggered PCD and immunity. Under normal conditions, SIM and SMR1 serve as CDK inhibitors in regulation of cell-cycle progression. Recognition of a pathogen effector by the cognate NB-LRR triggers dissociation of SIM and SMR1 from the nuclear envelope protein CPR5. Consequently, SIM and SMR1 acquire the ability to facilitate RB hyperphosphorylation through an unknown kinase (?), resulting in E2F overactivation and effector-triggered PCD and disease resistance.

See also Figure S4.

The CDK target sequence in RB is highly conserved in both animals and plants (Figure S4C), allowing the antibody raised against the phosphorylated serine 807 of the human RB protein (α -P-RB) to recognize the phosphorylated serine 911 of the *Arabidopsis* RBR1 (Magyar et al., 2012). We further confirmed the specificity of this antibody (Figure S4D).

Using α -P-RB, we next examined RBR1 phosphorylation in the *cpr5* and *sim smr1* mutants. As shown in Figure 4A, RBR1 phosphorylation was increased in *sim smr1*, consistent with their role as CKIs. Intriguingly, in *cpr5*, RBR1 phosphorylation was also increased, consistent with the higher CDKA1 protein level detected in this mutant (Figure S4B). Moreover, an additional protein band was detected in *cpr5*. Since this upshifted band disappeared after calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase (CIP) treatment, we postulated that it was RBR1 hyperphosphorylated at the additional CDK target sites (Figure S4E). More importantly, this additional band was diminished in *cpr5 sim smr1* (Figure 4A), indicating that in *cpr5*, SIM and SMR1 acquired the additional activity of facilitating RBR1 hyperphosphorylation, possibly through CDKA1.

Based on these data, we hypothesize that RBR1 hyperphosphorylation (Figure 4A) and aberrant elevation of E2F activities

(Figures 2E and 3) result in spontaneous PCD in *cpr5*. To investigate whether RBR1 hyperphosphorylation is a physiological response in ETI, we performed a western blot on plants infected with *Hpa Emwa1*. As shown in Figure 4B, the upshifted RBR1 band was also observed using α -P-RB 1 day after inoculation when effector-triggered PCD was expected to occur (Wang et al., 2011), and this band was significantly weakened in *rpp4*, a mutant of the cognate NB-LRR. We then tested RBR1 phosphorylation in ETI mediated by RPS2 and found that while RBR1 phosphorylation and hyperphosphorylation were induced after virulent *Psm* ES4326 infection, RBR1 hyperphosphorylation was markedly enhanced in WT plants inoculated with *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2*, where effector-triggered PCD occurred (Figure 4C). This RBR1 hyperphosphorylation was blocked in *rps2*. In support of our hypothesis, the *AvrRpt2*-induced RBR1 hyperphosphorylation was also absent in *sim smr1* (right panel, Figure 4C). These data demonstrate that recognition of pathogen effectors by both the TIR-NB-LRR (e.g., RPP4) and CC-NB-LRR (e.g., RPS2) classes of immune receptors can trigger plant cell death and immunity through SIM/SMR1-mediated RBR1 hyperphosphorylation and subsequent overactivation of E2Fs.

DISCUSSION

The fundamental mechanism of cell-cycle regulation is highly conserved among eukaryotes (Harashima et al., 2013). SIM and SMR1 are the plant counterparts of the mammalian Cip/Kip family of CKIs (Walker et al., 2000). These CKIs are known to control RB phosphorylation by inhibiting CDK activity. Our study shows that besides their canonical CKI function in cell-cycle regulation, SIM and SMR1 also function to facilitate RBR1 hyperphosphorylation upon pathogen challenge (Figure 4D). Whether this is achieved through stabilization of CDKA1 (Figure S4B) or activation of a different kinase requires further investigation. This latter scenario is quite plausible given the fact that CKIs have flexible structures, allowing them to bind different partners besides CDKs (Starostina and Kipreos, 2012).

Strikingly, activation of both TIR- and CC-NB-LRR NLR proteins induce hyperphosphorylation of RBR1 (Figures 4B and 4C), suggesting a general role for this regulatory mechanism in ETI. RBR1 hyperphosphorylation is correlated with the deregulation of E2F target genes (Figures 2E and 2F), which we propose leads to PCD and pathogen resistance (Figure 3). Like their counterparts in mammals (Polager and Ginsberg, 2009), the plant E2Fs can induce opposing biological processes, i.e., cell proliferation during normal development and PCD during ETI. For the immune response, higher levels of free E2F may be required, as well as additional TFs, such as WRKYs, which can be specifically induced or activated upon pathogen challenge.

The *sim smr1* and *e2fab* mutants are not only defective in ETI (Figure 3), but also more susceptible to virulent pathogens (Figures 1F and S2H). The underlying mechanism is not clear since basal resistance could be conferred by different immune mechanisms, and the interplay between them is complex and not completely understood. In a recent report, an atypical E2F, DEL1, was found to be a transcriptional repressor of SA biosynthesis (Chandran et al., 2014). Since the *sim smr1* and *e2fab* mutants could only block SA biosynthesis induced in *cpr5* (Figure S2F), not by *Psm* ES4326/*AvrRpt2* (Figure S3B for *sim smr1*), a defect in SA synthesis is unlikely the explanation for the enhanced disease susceptibility in the mutants. Thus, the CPR5-CKI-RBR1-E2F signaling pathway is directly involved in ETI and affects basal resistance through an unknown mechanism.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Pathogen Infection

Infection of *Arabidopsis* plants with *Hpa* Noco2, *Hpa* Emwa1, and *Psm* ES4326 with or without *AvrRpt2* was carried out as previously described (Fu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011).

Ion Leakage Measurement

Psm ES4326/*AvrRpt2*-induced ion leakage was measured as previously described (Mackey et al., 2002).

Mutant Screen and Tiling Array-Based Cloning

The *cpr5-1 npr1-1* seeds were mutagenized using fast neutron bombardment. The genetic screen for *svi* mutants was carried out as described (Parker et al., 1996). Tiling array-based cloning was performed as described (Wang et al., 2010).

Bimolecular Fluorescence Complementation and Split Luciferase Assays

The split luciferase assay was carried out as described (Chen et al., 2008). The BiFC using the yellow fluorescence protein (YFP) was performed as described (Qi et al., 2012).

Coimmunoprecipitation

There were 4-week-old plants that were infiltrated with pathogen. Total protein was extracted from 250 mg of the infiltrated leaves in 1 ml immunoprecipitation (IP) buffer consisting 50 mM Tris (pH 7), 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 0.2% NP-40, 40 μ M MG115, and protease inhibitor (Sigma). HA-SIM protein (~0.5 μ g) (synthesized by wheat germ-based transcription/translation system, BioSieg) was added to plant extract and incubated with GFP-Trap agarose beads (ChromoTek) for indicated hours at 4°C. While 40 μ l IP reaction was taken for SIM protein input control, beads in the remaining reaction were washed four times with IP buffer and then mixed with protein loading buffer containing 50 mM dithiothreitol.

Microarray Procedure and Analysis

The GeneChip *Arabidopsis* ATH1 Genome Arrays (Affymetrix) were processed as described (Pajerowska-Mukhtar et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2010). For the *cpr5*, *sim smr1*, and *cpr5 sim smr1* data set, 10-day-old seedlings were used for RNA preparation. For the ETI data set, 4-week-old plants were infected with *Psm* ES4326 carrying *AvrRpt2* at OD₆₀₀ 0.01 for 0 and 6 hr. The SA and *elf18* data sets were published (Pajerowska-Mukhtar et al., 2012). Array data were summarized using the Robust Multiarray Average method with the baseline transformed to the median of all samples. Statistical analysis was performed using GeneSpring (Agilent, GX 11.5, 2010) and R packages (R 3.0.1, 2013).

Statistics

Unless otherwise stated, statistical analysis was performed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc test. The letter above the bar indicates a statistically significant difference between groups at *p* value < 0.01.

ACCESSION NUMBERS

The Gene Expression Omnibus accession numbers for the microarray data reported in this paper are GSE40322 and GSE58954. Also utilized in this study were data previously available in the GEO under the accession numbers GSE34047 (Pajerowska-Mukhtar et al., 2012) and GSE5745 (Anderson, 2006).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, four figures, and four tables and can be found with this article online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2014.10.005>.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

S.W., Y.G., S.G.Z., L.K.A., W.W., and R.M. designed and performed the experiments, and X.D. supervised the project. All authors participated in the manuscript preparation.

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