NLR Mutations Suppressing Immune Hybrid Incompatibility and Their Effects on Disease Resistance1[OPEN]

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Genetic divergence between populations can lead to reproductive isolation. Hybrid incompatibilities (HI) represent intermediate points along a continuum toward speciation. In plants, genetic variation in disease resistance (R) genes underlies several cases of HI. The progeny of a cross between Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) accessions Landsberg erecta (Ler, Poland) and Kashmir2 (Kas2, central Asia) exhibits immune-related HI. This incompatibility is due to a genetic interaction between a cluster of eight TNL (Toll/INTERLEUKIN1 RECEPTOR-NUCLEOTIDE BINDING-LEU RICH REPEAT) RPP1 (RECOGNITION OF PERONOSPORA PARASITICA1)-like genes (R1–R8) from Ler and central Asian alleles of a Strubbelig-family receptor-like kinase (SRF3) from Kas2. In characterizing mutants altered in Ler/Kas2 HI, we mapped multiple mutations to the RPP1-like Ler locus. Analysis of these suppressors of Ler/Kas2 incompatibility (sulki) mutants reveals complex, additive and epistatic interactions underlying RPP1-like Ler locus activity. The effects of these mutations were measured on basal defense, global gene expression, primary metabolism, and disease resistance to a local Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis isolate (Hpa Gw) collected from Gorzów (Gw), where the Landsberg accession originated. Gene expression sectors and metabolic hallmarks identified for HI are both dependent and independent of RPP1-like Ler members. We establish that mutations suppressing immune-related Ler/Kas2 HI do not compromise resistance to Hpa Gw. QTL mapping analysis of Hpa Gw resistance point to RPP7 as the causal locus. This work provides insight into the complex genetic architecture of the RPP1-like Ler locus and immune-related HI in Arabidopsis and into the contributions of RPP1-like genes to HI and defense.

Hybrid vigor is a common phenomenon in plants. Genetic differentiation between individuals of the same species at specific loci can also lead to a dramatic reduction of hybrid fitness in the F1 or later generations, due to negative epistasis. Certain interacting alleles are not deleterious in their respective backgrounds, but they can become lethal when combined in the same hybrid genome. Such negative genetic interactions might constitute an early stage of species isolation (Coyne, 1992; Coyne and Orr, 2004). Plant hybrid necrosis or hybrid weakness has been documented in crops and model species (Bomblies and Weigel, 2007). In the last decade, identification of genetic determinants of some hybrid incompatibilities (HIs) revealed that immune gene variability could underlie this phenomenon. Immune-related incompatible hybrids are temperature dependent and exhibit reduced growth, deregulated cell death, and sterility (Bomblies et al., 2007; Alcázar et al., 2009; Jeucken et al., 2009; Yamamoto et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2014). The metabolic costs of maintaining a constitutively active immune system might contribute to reduced fitness. In many cases, mapping of causal genes identified at least one polymorphic Nucleotide-binding/Leu-rich-repeat (NLR) locus encoding intracellular pathogen recognition (NLR) receptors (Alcázar et al., 2012; Chae et al., 2014). NLR-interacting loci include other disease Resistance (R) genes or genes with diverse functions (Bomblies and Weigel, 2007; Alcázar et al., 2009; Yamamoto et al., 2010; Chae et al., 2014). In Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana), the DANGEROUS MIX2 (DM2) locus mapping to a
polymorphic \textit{RPP1} (RECOGNITION OF \textit{PERONOSPORA PARAStica1})-like gene cluster underlies at least five documented cases of immune-related HIs between accessions Uk-1 (DM2, \textit{RPP1-like})/Uk-3 (DANGEROUS MIX1, SUPPRESSOR OF SALICYLIC ACID INSENSITIVE4; Bomblies et al., 2007), \textit{Landsberg erecta} (Ler) (DM2, \textit{RPP1-like})/Kas2 (STRUBBELIG RECEPTOR FAMILY3; Alcázar et al., 2009), Bla-1 (DM2, \textit{RPP1-like})/Hh-0 (DANGEROUS MIX3, prolyl aminopeptidase \textit{At3g51540}, Dog-4 (DM2, \textit{RPP1-like})/ICE163 (DANGEROUS MIX5), and TueWa1-2 (\textit{RPP1-like})/ICE163 (DANGEROUS MIX4, overlapping with RPP8; Chae et al., 2014). Therefore, the \textit{RPP1-like} locus is a hotspot for temperature-dependent immune-related HI in Arabidopsis (Alcázar et al., 2009; Chae et al., 2014; Stuttmann et al., 2016).

Immune-related HIs have also been reported in rice (\textit{Oryza sativa}), lettuce (\textit{Lactuca sativa}), tomato (\textit{Solanum lycopersicum}), the genus \textit{Capsella}, and other species. An interspecific hybrid weakness in rice involves two dominant loci and three genes (Chen et al., 2014). One locus (HYBRID WEAKNESS II) contains two LRR RECEPTOR-LIKE KINASE genes, both required for incompatibility with the HYBRID WEAKNESS I2 locus, which maps to a SUBTILISIN-LIKE PROTEASE gene (Chen et al., 2014). Also in rice, a two-way recessive interaction causing hybrid breakdown involves the CA-SEIN KINASE 1 gene and an NLR cluster (Yamamoto et al., 2010). In lettuce, temperature-dependent hybrid necrosis in an interspecific cross involves two loci, one of them mapping to RPM1 INTERACTING PROTEIN4, encoding an acylated plasma membrane-associated protein that is a negative regulator of basal antimicrobial defense targeted by different \textit{Pseudomonas syringae} effectors (Jeukens et al., 2009; Khan et al., 2016). In tomato, HI was observed in an interspecific cross involving allelic variants at \textit{Rcr3} and \textit{Cf2} loci, the latter conferring resistance to the fungus \textit{Cladosporium fulvum} (Krüger et al., 2002). In the genus \textit{Capsella}, HI has been described between \textit{Capsella grandiflora} and \textit{Capsella rubella} involving a two-way epistatic interaction between NPR1 and RPP5 loci (Sicard et al., 2015). The Dobzhansky-Muller model on genetic incompatibilities is agnostic on whether causal genes diverge into incompatible alleles by drift or selection (Coyne and Orr, 2004). The frequency of immune receptor genes underlying HI is likely a consequence of their rapid evolution in response to pathogen infection pressure (Chae et al., 2014).

The majority of plant disease \textit{R} genes encode NLR proteins. These are classified into two main groups: TNLs (TIR-NLRs) and CNLs (CC-NLRs), based on the presence of a Toll/IL-1 receptor (TIR) or a coiled-coil CC domain at their N terminus (Sukarta et al., 2016). \textit{R} genes often reside in clusters and exhibit high polymorphism and copy number variation, through illegitimate recombination, duplication, and gene conversion events (Bakker et al., 2006; Hurwitz et al., 2010; McHale et al., 2012; Muñoz-Amatriain et al., 2013). Indeed, together with RECEPTOR-LIKE KINASE genes, NLRs exhibit signatures of rapid expansion and diversification (Cao et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2011). The \textit{RPP1-like} locus contains a variable number of TNL genes in different Arabidopsis accessions, from two in Col-0 to four in Ws2 (Botella et al., 1998), five to six in ZdR1 and Est1 (Goritschnig et al., 2016) and eight in \textit{Ler}, Uk-1, and Bla-1 (Alcázar et al., 2009; Chae et al., 2014). \textit{RPP} genes recognize the obligate biotrophic oomycete pathogen, \textit{Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis} (Hpa, formerly \textit{Peronospora parasitica}), which causes downy mildew disease (Botella et al., 1998; Coates and Beynon, 2010). As a naturally coevolving host-pathogen system, different \textit{Hpa} isolates have been identified that elicit accession-specific resistance responses due to the recognition of different avirulence gene products/ effectors (\textit{Arabidopsis thaliana} Recognized [ATR]) or effector variants. The \textit{RPP1} resistance locus in Ws2 and Nd1 contains \textit{RPP1} genes that exhibit partially overlapping recognition of \textit{Hpa} isolates (Botella et al., 1998; Rehmany et al., 2005). Using an F2 mapping population derived from a cross between \textit{Hpa} isolates Emoy2 (avirulent) and Maks9 (virulent), ATR1\textsuperscript{2010} was found to be recognized by \textit{RPP1}-\textit{NdA} (Rehmany et al., 2005). Genetic variation at \textit{ATR1} conditions \textit{Hpa} recognition by different \textit{RPP1} genes, e.g. \textit{RPP1}-WsB, \textit{RPP1}-\textit{NdA}, \textit{RPP1}-\textit{EstA}, and \textit{RPP1}-ZdrA (Rehmany et al., 2005; Sohn et al., 2007; Goritschnig et al., 2016). \textit{RPP1} receptors likely also perceive other \textit{ATR} gene products (Botella et al., 1998; Rehmany et al., 2005). An intriguing question is whether \textit{RPP1} genes involved in immune-related HIs provide disease resistance to locally adapted \textit{Hpa} isolates or their activities in pathogen resistance and incompatibility can be separated.

Here, we determine the contribution of different \textit{RPP1-like} genes to \textit{Ler}/\textit{Kas2} HI and resistance to a local \textit{Hpa} isolate collected in Gorzów Wielkopolski (Poland), where \textit{Landsberg} was collected in 1939. In this population, 30% of genetically differentiated Gorzów (Gw) individuals contain a conserved \textit{RPP1-like} \textit{Ler} haplotype. This derived haplotype increased in frequency and has been maintained locally for many generations (Alcázar et al., 2014). Through ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis, we identify multiple suppressors of \textit{Ler/Kas2 incompatibility (sulki)} mutants, which map to \textit{RPP1-like} \textit{Lr} R3 and R8 genes. Generation of CRISPR/Cas9 \textit{RPP1-like} \textit{Lr} R2, R3, R4, and R8 loss-of-function mutants in a \textit{Ler}/\textit{Kas2} near-isogenic line (NIL) background reveals that additive and epistatic interactions between \textit{RPP1-like} gene members contribute to immune-related HI. Global gene expression and metabolite profiling of \textit{Ler}/\textit{Kas2} incompatible hybrids and \textit{sulki} suppressors identify metabolic and expression hallmarks for immune-related HIs, which are \textit{RPP1-like} R8 dependent or independent. Through QTL mapping, we find that resistance to the local \textit{Hpa} isolate from Gorzów (denoted here \textit{Hpa Gw}) in \textit{Ler} is not mediated by genes at the \textit{RPP1-like} locus but maps to a region containing the previously defined \textit{RPP7} CNL \textit{Resistance} gene (McDowell et al., 2000). Resistance conferred by \textit{RPP7} to \textit{Hpa Gw} is genetically independent of
salicylic acid (SA) and EDS1. Because certain RPP1-like proteins recognize allelic variants of the Hpa ATR1 effector, we tested whether RPP1-like Ler proteins could induce host cell death, reflecting a hypersensitive response (HR) when transiently expressed with Hpa Gw ATR1 in tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum). Coexpression of RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, or R8 protein with Hpa Gw ATR1ΔS1 does not trigger cell death in tobacco. Our results show that the RPP1-like-incompatible haplotype does not provide disease resistance to a local Hpa Gw isolate. We provide evidence for complex genetic interactions underlying the RPP1-like Ler locus HI with Kas2. Our results also help differentiate RPP1-like gene actions in incompatibility and defense.

RESULTS

Identification of RPP1-like Ler Suppressors of Ler/Kas2 Incompatibility

An incompatible Ler/Kas2 NIL that contains a Ler introgression spanning the RPP1-like locus in an otherwise Kas2 genetic background (Alcázar et al., 2009) was used for the isolation of suppressor of Ler/Kas2 incompatibility (sulki) mutants. Mutagenized Ler/Kas2 NIL plants were generated by treating Ler/Kas2 NIL seeds with EMS, and 25,000 M1 individuals were propagated in 200 pools. Approximately 1,000 M2 generation plants from each pool were grown to identify suppressors of HI at 14°C to 16°C. Twenty dominant sulki mutants were isolated, which suppressed dwarfism at 14°C to 16°C, indicative of a loss or amelioration of Ler/Kas2 HI. The different sulki mutants were backcrossed at least five times with the parental Ler/Kas2 NIL. The genomes of sulki BC,F, and Ler/Kas2 NIL were then sequenced by next-generation sequencing, and unique SNPs were identified for each mutant compared with the Ler/Kas2 NIL.

DNA sequence analysis identified eleven sulki mutants carrying single mutations within the RPP1-like Ler locus, which were further confirmed by SANGER sequencing (Fig. 1A). Ten intragenic mutations (sulki-1 to sulki10) were dominant, mapping to different domains of RPP1-like Ler R8, and fully suppressed both dwarfism and cell death at low temperature (14°C–16°C; Figs. 1A and 2; Supplemental Fig. S1; Supplemental Table S1). RPP1-like Ler R8 is a homolog of DANGEROUS MIX 2h (DM2h) in Arabidopsis accessions Uk-1 and Bla-1 (Chae et al., 2014). In Col-0, it is homologous to At3g44670 (Alcázar et al., 2014), although with a high level of polymorphism especially in the LRR domain (Chae et al., 2014). A recessive mutation (sulki2-1) mapped to the TIR domain of RPP1-like Ler R3 (T78I), which partially suppressed dwarfism and cell death (Fig. 2; Supplemental Fig. S1; Supplemental Table S1). In all cases, except for one 8-nucleotide deletion (sulki-7), only G/C to A/T transition mutations were observed, as expected for mutations generated by EMS treatment (Fig. 1A).

Distribution of sulki Mutations within TIR, NB, and LRR Domains

In RPP1-like Ler R8, five and three suppressor mutations were found in the NB and LRR domains, respectively (Fig. 1B), consistent with the importance of these domains in TNL function (Meyers et al., 2003). Amino acid changes were found within the conserved RNBS-C (P428S, sulki1-2 and GLPL (P466L, sulki1-3) motifs. Two additional amino acid substitutions (G500E in sulki1-5 and G509A in sulki1-6) and one stop codon (W484*, sulki1-4) were in a stretch of 40 amino acids that connects GLPL and RNBS-D motifs. The presence of three close mutations leading to the same suppressive phenotype suggests that the GLPL-to-RNBS-D region is crucial for RPP1-like Ler R8 function. Three additional amino acid changes were found in the LRR domain of RPP1-like Ler R8, in the junction between LRR2 and LRR3 (S758F, sulki1-8), within LRR5 (R821H, sulki1-9) and LRR8 (G877E, sulki1-10) motifs. A small 8-nucleotide deletion was identified in the splice donor site of sulki1-7, preceding the LRR exon. In the TIR domain of RPP1-like Ler R8, one G202E nonsynonymous substitution was detected between TIR3 and TIR4 in sulki-1 (Fig. 1B). Most suppressive nonsynonymous substitutions were found in invariant or highly conserved NLR residues, except for Gly-509, which appears to be specific to RPP1-like Ler R8 homologs At3g44670 Col-0 and DM2h Bla-1 (Supplemental Fig. S2).

All together, we identified multiple independent mutations within the NB or LRR domains of RPP1-like Ler R8 and single mutations in the TIR domains of RPP1-like Ler R8 and R3 genes suppressing Ler/Kas2 NIL immune-related HI. These data strongly reinforce previous studies identifying RPP1-like Ler R3 and R8 as genes contributing to Ler/Kas2 HI (Alcázar et al., 2014; Stuttmann et al., 2016). We concluded that single point mutations within the RPP1-like locus are sufficient for full (sulki1, RPP1-like Ler R8) or partial (sulki2, RPP1-like Ler R3) suppression of Ler/Kas2 HIs.

Expression of SA-Responsive and Oxidative Stress Marker Genes in sulki1 and sulki2

Ler/Kas2 HI is associated with constitutive activation of TNL receptor-triggered defense programs, including high expression of PR1, EDS1, GST1, and RPP1-like Ler R3 at 14°C to 16°C (Alcázar et al., 2009, 2014). We analyzed transcripts of these and other RPP1-like Ler genes (R2, R4, and R8) to determine the defense status of sulki1 and sulki2. Expression of PR1, EDS1, and GST1 was much lower in sulki1 and sulki2-1 mutants compared to the Ler/Kas2 NIL but similar or slightly lower than Ler or Kas2 (Fig. 3). These results suggest that constitutive activation of defenses in the Ler/Kas2 NIL at 14°C to 16°C is suppressed in sulki1 and sulki2. The expression of RPP1-like Ler R3 and R8 was also significantly lower in sulki1 and sulki2 than in Ler/Kas2 NIL (Fig. 3). We hypothesized that SA, which accumulates in Ler/Kas2 NIL (Alcázar et al., 2009, 2014).
causes up-regulation of some RPP1-like genes. Indeed, we found that RPP1-like Ler R3 and R8, but not R2 or R4, expression was induced in Ler by SA or benzo(1,2,3) thiadiazole-7-carbothioic acid S-methyl ester application at 8 to 24 h (Supplemental Fig. S3). Therefore, we concluded that there is SA-positive feedback regulation of RPP1-like Ler genes R3 and R8 involved in immune-related HI.

Allelism and Complementation Tests of sulki1 and sulki2 Mutants

To confirm that the causal mutations in sulki1 map to RPP1-like Ler R8, we performed allelism tests with RPP1-like Ler R8 loss-of-function mutants generated by CRISPR/Cas9 in the Ler/Kas2 NIL background (referred to as Cas9-r8; Supplemental Fig. S4). Cas9-r8 mutants that contained early stop codons in the TIR domain of RPP1-like Ler R8 suppressed dwarfism and cell death at 14°C to 16°C in a dominant manner, consistent with the involvement of RPP1-like Ler R8 in the incompatibility with Kas2 (Fig. 4A; Supplemental Fig. S5; Supplemental Table S1). To confirm that sulki1 mutations were allelic to Cas9-r8, homozygous sulki1 and Cas9-r8-1 (after removal of the Cas9 transgene) were crossed, and F2 populations were obtained by selfing. The F2 populations were screened for the occurrence of incompatible phenotypes at 14°C to 16°C (Supplemental Table S1). The absence of segregation for

Figure 1. sulki1 mutations mapping to RPP1-like R8 Ler. A, Schematic representation of nonsynonymous substitutions identified in sulki1 mutants. Exon/intron organization and Toll-IL receptor (TIR), nucleotide binding (NB), and Leu-rich repeat (LRR) domains are shown. B, Detailed representation of RPP1-like R8 Ler amino acid sequence, conserved motifs (Meyers et al., 2003), and position of sulki1 mutations.
incompatibility confirmed that sulki1 mutants are allelic to Cas9-r8. To confirm the causality of the sulki2-1 mutation mapping to RPP1-like Ler R3, we transformed sulki2-1 plants with a genomic construct of RPP1-like Ler R3 (Alcázar et al., 2014). Complemented lines, which also were nonoverexpressors of the RPP1-like R3 Ler transgene, reconstituted the incompatible phenotype at 14°C to 16°C (Supplemental Fig. S6). These results are in agreement with a gene dosage effect underlying the recessive nature of the RPP1-like Ler locus. In summary, we confirmed that mutations underlying sulki1 and sulki2-1 suppressive phenotypes map to RPP1-like Ler R8 and R3 genes, respectively.

Generation of RPP1-Like Ler Loss-of-Function Mutants in Ler/Kas2 NIL by CRISPR/Cas9

We next analyzed the contribution of other RPP1-like Ler genes to Ler/Kas2 immune-related HI by isolating CRISPR/Cas9-induced mutations in the Ler/Kas2 NIL. Based on mRNA-seq data (see below), RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, and R8 genes within the RPP1-like Ler locus are predicted to encode full-length TNL proteins. RPP1-like Ler R1, R5, R6, or R7 genes contain stop codons in their TIR or NB domains. Therefore, we focused on RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, and R8 to introduce frameshift mutations by CRISPR/Cas9 in TIR or NB domains. For each TNL-encoding gene, we designed protospacers next to unique NGG motifs (protospacer adjacent motif [PAM]; Fauser et al., 2014; Supplemental Fig. S4). Indel mutations resulting in early stop codons were identified in transgenic lines expressing specific RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, and R8 RNA-guided endonucleases (Supplemental Fig. S4). The different mutants were then crossed with Ler/Kas2 NIL and Cas9-free homozygous mutants isolated from the F2 progeny. To confirm the absence of mutations in other genes within the RPP1-like cluster, the eight RPP1-like Ler genes were sequenced in the different CRISPR/Cas9 mutants (Alcázar et al., 2014).

Figure 2. Composite image of sulki phenotypes. Five-week-old sulki1, sulki2, and Ler/Kas2 NIL grown at 14°C to 16°C under 12-h-light/12-h-dark cycles and light intensity of 120 µmol m−2 s−1.
Loss-of-function mutations at RPP1-like Ler R2 (Cas9-r2-1 and r2-2), R3 (Cas9-r3-1 and r3-2), and R4 (Cas9-r4-1 and r4-2) in the Ler/Kas2 NIL were recessive and resulted in partial suppression of dwarfism and cell death (Fig. 4A; Supplemental Fig. S5; Supplemental Table S1). Lower expression of PR1, EDS1, GST1, and RPP1-like Ler R3 in 5-week-old Cas9 lines grown at 14°C to 16°C was consistent with suppression of the autoimmune response (Fig. 4B). Notably, cell death (Supplemental Fig. S5C) and PR1, EDS1, GST1, and RPP1-like Ler R3 expression (Supplemental Fig. S7) increased over time in Cas9-r2, -r3 and -r4 lines, although to a lower extent than in the Ler/Kas2 NIL. Mutations in RPP1-like Ler R8 alone fully suppress incompatibility, regardless of other incompatible genes contributing to HI being present (RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, and R4). Therefore, incompatibility is not simply an additive effect of various RPP1-like Ler genes with R8 having stronger effects than the others. These results indicate that RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, and R4 genes contribute additively to Ler/Kas2 HI, whereas RPP1-like Ler R8 is epistatic to other RPP1-like Ler members. Thus, additive and epistatic interactions underlie the complex nature of RPP1-like Ler cluster incompatibility with Kas2. The data are consistent with the involvement of two or more RPP1-like Ler genes in HI between Ler and Kas2 (Alcázar et al., 2014; Stuttmann et al., 2016).

**Bacterial Pathogen Resistance Phenotypes in sulki1, sulki2, and Cas9 RPP1-like Ler Mutants**

We determined the effect of sulki1, sulki2, Cas9-r2, Cas9-r3, Cas9-r4, and Cas9-r8 mutations on basal disease resistance by measuring the growth of virulent P. syringae pv. tomato strain DC3000 (Pst DC3000) and the type III secretion-disabled Pst hrcC mutant, which fails to deliver virulence factors (effectors) and induces only PAMP-triggered immunity (Yuan and He, 1996). At 14°C to 16°C and 20°C to 22°C, the Ler/Kas2 NIL exhibited higher basal resistance to Pst DC3000 than all other tested genotypes (Fig. 5). At both temperatures, sulki1 and Cas9-r8 mutations suppressed Ler/Kas2 basal resistance to similar levels as the parents (Ler or Kas2). By contrast, sulki2-1, Cas9-r2, Cas9-r3, and Cas9-r4 mutations exhibited partial suppression of basal resistance at 14°C to 16°C but full suppression at 20°C to 22°C (similar to Ler and Kas2). These results show that RPP1-like Ler R8 mutations in sulki1
and Cas9-r8 suppress Ler/Kas2 NIL defenses at both temperatures. A suppressive effect was observed in Cas9-r2, Cas9-r3, and Cas9-r4 mutants only at 20°C to 22°C, consistent with their partial suppression of immune-related HI. No differences were detected between lines in response to Pst hrcC at either temperature (Fig. 5). Notably, mutation in RPP1-like Ler R8 did not lead to full susceptibility of the eds1-2 mutant at both temperatures (Fig. 5). From these results, we concluded that suppression of RPP1-like Ler R8 function does not lead to a general dampening of basal defenses against Pst bacteria.

Gene Expression Analyses

To determine the effect of sulki1 mutations suppressing immune-related HI on global expression profiles, we performed RNA-seq analyses in sulki1-8, the Ler/Kas2 NIL, and Kas2 plants grown at 14°C to 16°C. A total of 9,564 genes exhibited significant expression differences (fold change ≥2; P value and false discovery rate ≤ 0.05) in the comparison between Kas2 and Ler/Kas2 NIL (Fig. 6; Supplemental Tables 2-1 and 2-2). Of these, 5,882 genes (61.5%) were common between sulki1-8 and Ler/Kas2 NIL. Gene Ontology analysis of these common genes revealed an enrichment of stress-related terms (Supplemental Table S2-2). These genes represent transcriptional responses associated with incompatibility (Supplemental Table S2-2). These expression changes might be due to differences in the genetic background between Kas2 and the Ler/Kas2 NIL not associated with incompatibility.

Figure 4. Growth phenotypes and expression analyses of Cas9 RPP1-like Ler mutants. A, Composite image of 5-week-old Cas9-r2-1, Cas9-r3-1, Cas9-r4-1, Cas9-r8-1 mutants in the Ler/Kas2 NIL background, Ler/Kas2 NIL, and parental lines (Ler and Kas2) grown at 14°C to 16°C. The position of stop codons in TIR (T) or NB (N) domains of RPP1-like genes is marked with an asterisk. B, Gene expression analyses of PR1, EDS1, GST1, RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, and R8 in Cas9 r2-1, r2-2, r3-1, r3-2, r4-1, r4-2, r8-1, and r8-2 mutant alleles Ler, Kas2, Ler/Kas2 NIL, and cNIL plants grown at 14°C to 16°C during 5 weeks. Analyses were performed as described in Figure 3.
were consistently detected in all genotypes and used 57 metabolites in the analyzed samples, 36 of which
at 14°C to 16°C. The metabolomics analysis identified, and
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Figure 5. Growth of Pst DC3000 and hrcC mutant, 3 d after spray inoculation of sulki1-1 (s1-1), sulki1-7 (s1-7), sulki1-8 (s1-8), sulki1-9 (s1-9), sulki2-1 (s2-1), Cas9- r2-1, r3-1, r4-1, and r8-1 mutants in the Ler/ Kas2 NIL background, Ler, Kas2, Ler/Kas2 NIL, and eds1-2 Ler plants grown at 20°C to 22°C (A) or 14°C to 16°C (B). Different letters indicate significant differences (P < 0.01) in a Student-Newman-Keuls test. Error bars indicate se.

(Supplemental Table S2-1). Gene Ontology analysis in this subset of genes identified an enrichment of nitrogen metabolism-related terms (Supplemental Table S2-1). Finally, RNA-seq analysis identified 622 other genes differentially expressed in sulki1-8 versus Ler/Kas2 NIL that did not show significant expression differences in Kas2 versus Ler/Kas2 NIL. These sulki1-8-specific genes were related to oxidation-reduction based on Gene Ontology (Supplemental Table S2-3).

Global Metabolite Profiling

We determined the effects of sulki1 mutations on primary metabolism through global metabolite profiling by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS) in Ler/Kas2 NIL, sulki1 (sulki1-1, sulki1-7, sulki1-8, and sulki1-9) and the parents (Ler and Kas2) at 14°C to 16°C. The metabonomics analysis identified 57 metabolites in the analyzed samples, 36 of which were consistently detected in all genotypes and used for principal component analysis (PCA; Fig. 7A). The nature of 23 of these 36 metabolites was known and annotated according to the MPIMP-Golm inventory list (Kopka et al., 2005). Among the identified metabolites, we detected amino acids, polyhydroxy acids, sugars, and TCA cycle intermediates (Supplemental Table S3). In the PCA analysis, PC1 explained 50.3% of the total variance and differentiated between the incompatible Ler/Kas2 NIL and other genotypes. PC1 indicated that the sulki1 mutations cause a reversal of a large part of the altered primary metabolome in Ler/Kas2 NIL to Ler or Kas2 parent levels. This metabolic reversal was consistent with suppression of the dwarf phenotype (Fig. 2), the absence of cell death at low temperature (Supplemental Fig. S1B), and deactivation of transcriptional defense responses (Fig. 3) in the sulki mutants. Conversely, PC2 (21.9% of the total variance) revealed that some metabolic differences remained between sulki1 mutants or Ler/Kas2 NIL and the parents (Fig. 7A; Supplemental Table S4).

Hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) with Pearson’s correlation and average linkage of metabolites and genotypes identified metabolic differences between the strongly deviating Ler/Kas2 NIL, the parents, and the sulki1 mutants (Fig. 7B). The heat map representation indicated a large cluster of metabolites that differentially accumulated in Ler/Kas2 NIL (Fig. 7B). Compared with Ler and Kas2, the incompatible Ler/Kas2 NIL accumulated amino acids, such as Gln/pyro-Glu, Asp, Thr, or Ala, lipid-related phosphate, glycerol, ethanolamine, carbohydrate metabolism related glyceric acid, Glc-6P, and Suc (Fig. 7C). The levels of ascorbate, a substrate of the glutathione-ascorbate cycle for hydrogen peroxide detoxification, were much lower in Ler/Kas2 NIL than in the isogenic Kas2, consistent with the occurrence of oxidative stress induced by HI. On the other hand, dehydroascorbate levels were similar in the two genotypes. These metabolic changes appear to be associated with HI, specifically with growth reduction in combination with metabolic recycling caused by the increased frequency of cell death in Ler/Kas2 NIL leaf tissue.

As expected, most metabolic reprogramming associated with HI was reverted in sulki1 mutants to Kas2 levels, e.g. ascorbate, Suc, phosphate, glycerol, Asp, Gln/pyro-Glu, and Thr (Fig. 7C). However, sulki1 mutants exhibited metabolic changes that differed from Ler/Kas2 NIL, Ler, or Kas2 (Fig. 7C). These changes in the sulki1 mutants might be linked to RPP1-like Ler R8-independent transcriptional defense activation (Fig. 6). Levels of Glu, Asp, Thr, Ala, and dehydroascorbate were lower than in the parents. In parallel, Glc and Fru levels were consistently higher in sulki1-1, sulki1-7, sulki1-8, and sulki1-9 compared to the parents Ler, Kas2, and the incompatible Ler/Kas2 NIL. However, such differences were not observed in the levels of Suc or Glc-6P (Fig. 7C). Quantification of starch at the end of the day (light) and before dawn (dark) in the above genotypes indicated the lower capacity of Ler/Kas2 NIL to accumulate starch during the day, although its
levels were not depleted at dawn (Supplemental Fig. S8). Interestingly, the Ler/Kas2 NIL also exhibited higher apoplastic invertase activity than Ler, Kas2, or sulki1, whereas vacuolar invertase was barely affected (Supplemental Fig. S9). These results can be explained by the suggested role of cell wall invertase in plant defense (Tauzin and Giardina, 2014). The absence of Glc or Fru accumulation in the Ler/Kas2 NIL, despite the presence of high apoplastic invertase activity, suggests the use of carbohydrates in the biosynthesis of secondary metabolites involved in defense or cell wall strengthening. These demands might contribute to the metabolic costs of diverting resources away from growth in the Ler/Kas2 NIL.

All together, global metabolite profiling confirmed a physiological reversal of the Ler/Kas2 HI metabolic phenotype in sulki1. It also reinforced RPP1-like Ler R8-independent responses at a metabolic level that were indicated by transcriptome profiling (Fig. 6). We concluded that the Ler/Kas2-incompatible hybrids are growth inhibited, but that this inhibition is likely not due to limited C, N, or P resources.

Characterization of a Pathogenic Hpa Isolate in the Arabidopsis Gorzów Population

Previously, we collected a population of Ler relatives (Gw) in Gorzów Wielkopolski (Poland), in which 30% of individuals carried a conserved RPP1-like Ler haplotype (Alcázar et al., 2014). In 2014, we revisited the population site and isolated Hpa naturally infecting Gw plants, for which a basic population structure was already established (Alcázar et al., 2014). In 2014, we revisited 30% of individuals carried a conserved RPP1-like Ler haplotype (e.g. Col-0, Kas2, Ler/Kas2 NIL, and cNIL (Alcázar et al., 2010) exhibited a HR indicative of resistance to Hpa Gw infection and consistent with host RPP-mediated pathogen recognition (Supplemental Fig. S11). T-DNA insertion mutants of RPP1 and RPP1-like genes in Col-0 At3g44400 (N632237 and N518157), At3g44480 (N599581 and N655327), At3g44630 (N644159 and N658450), and At3g44670 (N529707 and N477722) did not support the growth of Hpa Gw and exhibited HR (Supplemental Fig. S11).Susceptible and resistant Gw genotypes were not differentiated from each other in PCA analyses based on 134 genome-wide distributed SNPs (Alcázar et al., 2014; Supplemental Fig. S12). Notably, however, all genotypes carrying the conserved RPP1-like Ler haplotype were resistant to Hpa Gw infection (Supplemental Fig. S12; Supplemental Table S5). Despite this, resistance is not strictly associated with the presence of an RPP1-like Ler haplotype because it is expressed in accesses that do not carry the haplotype (e.g. Col-0).

Effect of Suppressive Mutations on Hpa Gw Disease Resistance in Ler/Kas2 NIL

Next, we studied the effect of the Ler/Kas2 HI suppressor (sulki) mutations on resistance to the local Hpa Gw isolate in the Ler/Kas2 NIL. For this, we inoculated Cas9-r2, Cas9-r3, Cas9-r4, Cas9-r8, sulki1 (sulki1-3, sulki1-7, sulki1-8, and sulki1-9), sulki2-1, and near death experience1-3 (nde1-3), which carries a deletion between RPP1-like R3-R8 Ler genes (Stuttmann et al., 2016).

Figure 6. Venn diagram of genes differentially expressed in the comparisons between (Kas2 versus Ler/Kas2 NIL) and (sulki1-8 versus Ler/Kas2 NIL). Lists of genes and Gene Ontology analyses are included in Supplemental Tables S2-1 to S2-3.
Figure 7. Principal component analysis (A) and HCA (B) with Pearson’s correlation and average linkage of samples and metabolites from 5-week-old *sulki1-1* (s1-1), *sulki1-7* (s1-7), *sulki1-8* (s1-8), *sulki1-9* (s1-9), Ler, Kas2, and Ler/Kas2 NIL plants grown at 14°C to 16°C. C, Log2-normalized responses for some metabolites determined by GC/MS in the above genotypes, and schematic representation of their metabolic pathways. Different letters indicate significant differences (P < 0.01) in a Student-Newman-Keuls test. Error bars indicate sd. A complete list of analyzed metabolites is provided in Supplemental Table S3.
Resistance to Hpa Gw was observed in all genotypes tested (Supplemental Fig. S11). We concluded that mutations suppressing Ler/Kas2 incompatibility do not compromise disease resistance to a local Hpa isolate.

Analysis of ATR1 Gw Recognition by RPP1-Like Ler Proteins in Tobacco

RPP1-like TNL receptors directly recognizing ATR1 effector variants from different Hpa isolates have been characterized (Rehmany et al., 2005; Sohn et al., 2007; Krasileva et al., 2010). We determined the capacity of TNL RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, and R8 proteins to recognize ATR1 cloned from Gw leading to cell death in tobacco transient expression assays. For this, C-terminal YFP fusions of RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, R8 genomic constructs, and ATR1-δ51 Hpa Gw (lacking the ATR1 secretory signal peptide; Steinbrenner et al., 2015) were generated for Agrobacterium tumefaciens infiltration of tobacco leaves. Accumulation of RPP1-like Ler R3 protein over a threshold triggered cell death in tobacco leaves (Fig. 8A), consistent with Ler/Kas2 NIL phenotypes induced by R3 overexpression in Arabidopsis (Alcázar et al., 2014) and its involvement in Ler/Kas2 immune-related HI (Fig. 4). However, 1:1 coinfiltration of δ51-ATR1 Hpa Gw with RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, or R8, which resulted in lower but detectable RPP1 protein expression in tobacco leaves, did not induce cell death (Fig. 8B). These results suggest that ATR1 Hpa Gw is not recognized by any of the RPP1-like Ler variants tested.

Hpa Gw Disease Resistance Is Independent of EDS1- and ICS1-Generated SA

We tested whether resistance to Hpa Gw was compromised in eds1-2 (Col-0; Bartsch et al., 2006), eds1-2; Ler; Feys et al., 2005), the SA-deficient ISOCHORIS-MATE SYNTHASE1 sid2-1 mutant (Col-0; Wildermuth et al., 2001), or Ler-NahG transgenic plants that metabolize SA into catechol (Bowling et al., 1994). Neither eds1-2 nor SA depletion affected resistance to Hpa Gw (Supplemental Fig. S11). Because TNL immunity relies on EDS1 (Aarts et al., 1998; Feys et al., 2001, 2005) and the RPP1-like Ler locus only contains TNL genes (Alcázar et al., 2009), we reasoned that resistance to Hpa Gw is governed by other RPP loci in the genome.

Mapping of Hpa Gw Disease Resistance

Whereas Ler is resistant to Hpa Gw, we found that the Shakdara (Sha) accession is susceptible, which enabled us to exploit a Ler/Sha recombinant inbred line (RIL) population (Clerkx et al., 2004) in QTL mapping of Hpa Gw resistance loci (Supplemental Table S6). QTL analyses identified one major-effect QTL on chromosome 1 explaining 52% of the phenotypic variation, with Ler alleles contributing most resistance to isolate Hpa Gw. Ler/Sha RILs carrying Sha alleles at this QTL but Ler alleles at the RPP1-like Ler locus were susceptible to Hpa Gw infection (Supplemental Table S6). Therefore, the RPP1-like Ler locus does not confer resistance to Hpa Gw. The QTL spanned 2.83 Mb between markers F6D8-94 and GENE. This region contains at least nine CNL
genes, among them RPP7 (At1g58602; Supplemental Table S7), which was reported to confer resistance to Hpa isolate Hiks1 in an SA- and EDS1-independent manner (McDowell et al., 2000; Fig. 9A). Therefore, we consider RPP7 as a strong candidate gene in Ler resistance to Hpa Gw.

In addition to QTL analyses, we performed GWAS mapping using 288 Arabidopsis accessions distributed worldwide. Of the total phenotyped accessions, 78 (27%) were susceptible to Hpa Gw infection. Disease resistance phenotypes did not follow obvious geographical or population structure patterns and were segregated between and within populations (Supplemental Table S8). GWAS analysis for Hpa Gw disease resistance identified a significant association with multiple SNPs belonging to gene At3g24580, encoding an F-box protein of unknown function (Fig. 9B; Supplemental Table S9). However, no genetic variation at At3g24580 was found between Hpa Gw-resistant (Gw-30, Gw-31, Gw-112, Gw-127, and Gw-144) and -susceptible (Gw-16, Gw-50, Gw-107, Gw-148, and Gw-167) genotypes, which all carried At3g24580 Col-0 alleles (Supplemental Table S5). We concluded that At3g24580 does not condition differences in disease resistance to Hpa Gw in the Gorzów population, although its epistatic interaction with other genes cannot be excluded in other genetic backgrounds. Together, the QTL and GWAS mapping identified candidate RPP genes outside the RPP1-like locus as conferring resistance to Hpa Gw.

**DISCUSSION**

Epistasis, defined as the nonadditive interaction between mutations, is the basis for many postzygotic immune-related HI in plants (Bomblyes, 2010). The environment can affect the consequences of epistasis on fitness (Flynn et al., 2013). Indeed, growth defects in Ler/Kas2 NIL at 14°C to 16°C are suppressed at 20°C to 22°C (Alcâzar et al., 2009), a temperature at which basal disease resistance to Pst DC3000 is retained (Fig. 5). HI is not the result of direct action by natural selection but rather a byproduct of divergence through evolutionary processes acting on other traits (Coyne and Orr, 2004). Selective forces acting on R genes involve arms races between plants and pathogens, in addition to environmental factors (Dodds and Rathjen, 2010; Ariga et al., 2017). Such divergence might thus be shaped by adaptation to different environments (ecological speciation) or through different pathways within the same environment (Sherlock and Petrov, 2017). Adaptive mutations increasing fitness can be retrieved by experimental evolution, an approach facilitated by the study of microbial populations during multiple generations. In yeast, adaptation to divergent and identical environments has been shown to promote the emergence of reproductive isolation (Dettman et al., 2007; Ono et al., 2017). However, the intrinsic lethal nature of incompatible hybrids hinders the identification of potential mutations suppressing negative epistasis. Here, we circumvented this limitation by inducing random and
CRISPR/Cas9-guided mutagenesis in a large population of Ler/Kas2 NIL plants. Through this approach, we identified RPP1 intragenic mutations that suppress Ler/Kas2 immune-related HI and observed different degrees of phenotypic adaptation.

The mutagenesis screen identified a large number of intragenic suppressors of Ler/Kas2 incompatibility (sulki) mapping to RPP1-like Ler R8 (sulki1-1 to sulki1-10) and one mutation mapping to RPP1-like Ler R3 (sulki2-1) that suppressed HI (Fig. 2). Due to the presence of moderate suppressor phenotypes in the EMS population, we reasoned that intragenic mutations leading to intermediate phenotypes might have been overlooked, including mutations in other potential RPP1-like R3 alleles. Therefore, to provide a comprehensive analysis of the RPP1-like Ler locus, we mutated each RPP1-like Ler TNL encoding gene by CRISPR/Cas9 in the Ler/Kas2 NIL background (Cas9-r2, Cas9-r3, Cas9-r4, and Cas9-r8) and studied the effects of the mutations on growth, cell death, gene expression, and disease resistance. EMS and CRISPR/Cas9 mutagenesis revealed epistatic interactions between RPP1-like Ler R8 and other RPP1-like Ler members (R2, R3, and R4), with the latter contributing additively to immune-related HI (Fig. 4). These results are consistent with the involvement of two or more RPP1-like genes in Ler/Kas2 incompatibility and suggest coaction between RPP1-like members for defense activation in Arabidopsis (Alcázar et al., 2014). The dominant nature of RPP1-like Ler R8 loss-of-function mutations suggests that a certain dosage of incompatible RPP1-like protein is required for the autoimmune phenotype, and loss-of-function alleles in RPP1-like Ler R8 lower this dosage below a critical level when heterozygous. This might also explain the recessive nature of the RPP1-like haplotype in Ler/Kas2 immune-related HI (Alcázar et al., 2009, 2014).

Ler/Kas2 HI suppressor mutations mapped to different domains of RPP1-like Ler R8 (Fig. 1). The different mutations behaved like Cas9-r8 loss-of-function alleles, indicating that sulki1 mutations disrupt RPP1-like Ler R8 function in Ler/Kas2 HI (Fig. 4). RNA-seq analyses in sulki1-8 show that many transcriptional changes in incompatible Ler/Kas2 hybrids are suppressed by RPP1-like Ler R8 mutation. However, the expression of other genes related with oxidation reduction was modified in sulki1-8 mutants compared to its isogenic Kas2 genotype (Fig. 6; Supplemental Tables S2-1 to S2-3). The occurrence of these RPP1-like Ler R8-independent expression sectors supports a multigenic basis for the RPP1-like Ler-incompatible haplotype. Importantly, such expression sectors alone are not sufficient to trigger incompatibility, which requires a functional R8 protein.

Most sulki1 suppressor mutations in RPP1-like Ler R8 were found in NB- or LRR-domain-conserved motifs and invariable residues. The NB-ARC domain is involved in nucleotide binding and hydrolysis and acts as a molecular switch for NLR activation (van Ooijen et al., 2008; Takken and Govers, 2012; Steinbrenner et al., 2015). Nonsynonymous substitutions in the LRR domain of DM2h Bla-1 are responsible for incompatibility with DM1 Hh-0. Certain ATR1 alleles from Hpa isolates are recognized by the LRR domain of RPP1 Ws-0 and Nd-1 (Krasileva et al., 2010; Steinbrenner et al., 2015). The identification of DM2h Bla-1 incompatible-trigger mutations in the LQQL motif of LRR4, next to a modeled ATR1 docking site, suggested that incompatible RPP1 variants originate from an arms race between the immune receptor and pathogen ligands (Chae et al., 2014). Notably, the sulki1-9 mutation (R821H) in LRR5 of RPP1-like R8 Ler is adjacent to this LQQL motif (Fig. 1). A frameshift mutation in LRR2 of RPP1-like Ler R8 in the nde1-1 mutant also suppresses incompatibility with Kas2. The nde1-1 mutant was isolated from a suppressor screen for autoimmune phenotypes associated with EDS1 nuclear enrichment and suggested a role for RPP1-like Ler R8 in EDS1/PAD4 defense amplification (Stuttman et al., 2016). Thus, polymorphism at the LRR domain of RPP1-like Ler R8 and its homolog in Bla-1 (DM2h) seems to be relevant for incompatibility (Chae et al., 2014; Stuttman et al., 2016).

Here, we find that mutations in the TIR domains of RPP1-like Ler R3 and R8 also suppress Ler/Kas2 immune-related HI (Fig. 1). The TIR domain is necessary for receptor signaling, and in some TNLs, including RPP1, this domain self-associates and is sufficient for triggering cell death (Swiderski et al., 2009; Bernoux et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2014; Steinbrenner et al., 2015; Schreiber et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). Whether sulki1-1 and sulki2-1 mutations disrupt potential self-association of RPP1-like Ler R3 or R8 proteins needs to be determined.

We investigated whether the RPP1 Ler genes contributing to HI also participate in Hpa Gw recognition (Krasileva et al., 2010; Steinbrenner et al., 2015). Our analysis, using a local Hpa Gw isolate, indicated that the incompatible RPP1 Ler haplotype does not contribute to disease resistance to this local pathogen and that the resistance is SA and EDS1 independent (Supplemental Fig. S11). Furthermore, we found that coexpression of RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, or R8 proteins with ATR1-Δ51 Hpa Gw did not trigger HR in tobacco transient expression assays (Fig. 8B). Moreover, QTL mapping in the Ler/Shal RRL population identified a major QTL on chromosome 1 that contained Ler alleles contributing to resistance (Fig. 9A). The QTL interval spanned several R genes, including RPP7, a known CNL gene governing resistance to the Hpa Hiks1 isolate in a SA- and EDS1-independent manner (McDowell et al., 2000; Supplemental Table S7). From these data, we concluded that the incompatible RPP1-like Ler haplotype does not contribute to disease resistance to a local Hpa isolate. Also, intragenic
mutations suppressing Ler/Kas2 incompatibility do not incur on a fitness cost in terms of Hpa resistance (Supplemental Fig. S11). However, such mutations dampen disease resistance to Pst DC3000 of the Ler/Kas2 NIL at 20°C to 22°C (Fig. 5), which might represent a trade-off between growth and basal defenses against virulent leaf-colonizing P. syringae bacteria.

Hpa populations might have diverged or even been extinguished since the birth of the RPP1-like Ler haplotype, which was already present in the Gorzów population in 1939 (Alcázar et al., 2014). Thus, the contemporary Hpa Gw isolate might not represent a selective force for the RPP1-like Ler-incompatible haplotype. However, fine-tuning RPP1-like Ler R3 expression may benefit disease resistance to other pathogenic strains (Alcázar et al., 2014), thereby favoring selection of the incompatible haplotype. Interestingly, RPP1-like Ler R3 and R4 are homologs of At3g44400 Col-0 (Alcázar et al., 2014) and whole-genome sequencing revealed the absence of At3g44400 Col-0 gene in Ler (Supplemental Fig. S13). This suggests that RPP1-like R3 and R4 in Ler are derived from a gene transposition and duplication event from At3g44400 during the formation of the incompatible RPP1-like haplotype.

Incompatible Ler/Kas2 NIL plants exhibit metabolic hallmarks of HI, which can be explained by a combination of growth arrest and metabolic recycling of material from dead or dying leaf cells. Recycling likely also involves proteolysis and triglyceride degradation accompanied by oxidative stress (Fig. 7C). We further detected a promotion of Suc degradation through cell wall invertase, but not vacuolar invertase activities (Supplemental Fig. S9). Activation of cell wall invertase is triggered by defense responses to various pathogens, including oomycetes and bacteria (Tauzin and Giardina, 2014). Glc and Fru can be used as carbon sources for the biosynthesis of defense-related metabolites, potentially leading to a metabolic cost that reduces growth in the dwarf Ler/Kas2 NIL (Bolton, 2009). Remarkably, these metabolic costs are fully suppressed in sulki1 mutants, which also suppress oxidative stress symptoms. Nevertheless, sulki1 mutants accumulate higher levels of Glc, Fru, and starch than the Ler/Kas2 NIL (Fig. 7C), possibly due to RPP1-like Ler R8-independent transcriptional activation of defense responses.

Our data shed light on the complex genetic nature of the RPP1-like Ler locus triggering incompatibility with Kas2. Through random and guided mutagenesis, mutations can be generated that mitigate fitness costs of Ler/Kas2 HI, while retaining resistance to a local Hpa Gw isolate. However, trade-offs are also inherent to such compensatory mutations.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Material and Growth Conditions

A complete list of Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) accessions used in this study is provided in Supplemental Table S8. Seeds were obtained from the Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Center or collected by authors (Alcázar et al., 2014). The incompatible Ler/Kas2 NIL and cNIL used in this study were described previously (Alcázar et al., 2009, 2010). Plants were grown on soil at indicated temperatures under 12-h-dark/12-h-light cycles and 70% relative humidity and 120 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ of light intensity.

EMS Mutagenesis

Seeds of Ler/Kas2 NIL were soaked overnight in 1 mg/mL KCl at 4°C. After seed imbibition, the solution was discarded and replaced with 0.2% EMS (v/v) and incubated for 16 h. Seeds were then washed 10 times with 50 mL of water and suspended in 0.1% agarose for sowing on soil. Approximately 25,000 M1 plants were allowed to self at 20°C to 22°C. M2 seeds were collected in pools of 100 to 150 M1 plants. M2 plants were grown at 14°C to 16°C to identify suppressors of Ler/Kas2 incompatibility (sulki).

Whole-Genome Sequencing

Genomic DNA from Arabidopsis plants was extracted from leaves of 5-week-old plants grown on soil using the CTAB method (Doyle, 1991). DNA quality was checked on 0.8% agarose gel electrophoresis stained with ethidium bromide. DNA concentration was determined by fluorometric quantitation using the dsDNA HS assay kit and the Qubit device (Thermo Fisher).

Whole-genome sequencing was performed at the Centro Nacional de Análisis Genómico (CNAG, Spain). A standard Illumina protocol was followed to create paired-end libraries, which were run on Illumina sequencers HiSeq 3000/4000 2x150 according to standard procedures. Sample statistics are shown in Supplemental Table S10. Read mapping and variant detection were performed using the CLC Genomics Workbench 10 version 10.1.1 (Qiagen).

RT-qPCR Expression Analyses

Total RNA was extracted using Trizol reagent (Thermo Fisher). Reverse transcription and quantitative real-time PCR was performed as described (Alcázar et al., 2014). A complete list of primers used for expression analyses is reported in Alcázar et al. (2014).

RNA-Seq Expression Analyses

Total RNA was extracted from fully expanded leaves of 5-week-old sulki-8, Kas2, and Ler/Kas2 NIL plants grown at 14°C to 16°C. Three biological replicates, each from pooled leaves of at least three independent plants grown in individual pots were used for the analysis. Total RNA was extracted using Trizol (Thermo Fisher), quantified in a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer, and checked for purity and integrity in a Bioanalyzer-2100 device (Agilent Technologies). RNA samples were further processed by the CNAG (Spain) for library preparation and RNA sequencing. Libraries were prepared using the Illumina TruSeq Sample Preparation Kit according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Each library was paired-end sequenced (2 × 75 bp) on HiSeq 2000 Illumina sequences. Sample statistics are shown in Supplemental Table S10. Read mapping and expression analyses were performed using the CLC Genomics Workbench 10 version 10.1.1 (Qiagen). Only significant expression differences (fold change ≥ 2; P value and false discovery rate ≤ 0.05) were considered.

CRISPR/Cas9 Mutagenesis

To identify specific PAM motifs in RPP1-like Ler genes, their sequenc- es were aligned using multiple sequence comparison by Log-Expectation (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/muscle/) and unique NGG motifs identified in TIR or NB domains of RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, and R8. Generation of CRISPR/Cas9 lines was based on the system reported by Fauser et al. (2014). Spacers were designed next to unique PAM sites and annealed oligonucleo-tides containing BbsI sites were used for the generation of customized RNA chimeras in the pEn-Chimera vector (Supplemental Table S11). The customized RNA chimeras were transferred into pDe-CA59 by Gateway LR reaction (Thermo Fisher). The final clones were sequenced and transformed into Agrobacterium tumefaciens GV3101 pMP90. Ler/Kas2 NIL plants were transformed by floral dipping and transgenic lines isolated by selection with 20 µg/mL BbsI.
glucosinate-ammonium (Sigma-Aldrich). Individual lines were checked for the presence of indel mutations by SANGER sequencing of all RPP1-like Ler genes (Alcázar et al., 2014), crossed to Ler/Kas2 NIL, and Cas9-free homozygous mutants isolated in the F2 by gene sequencing and Cas9 genotyping (Supplemental Table S11).

Histochemical Analyses and Determination of Leaf Area

Plant cell death and Hpa structures were determined by staining leaves with lactophenol trypan blue (Alcázar et al., 2009). Samples were mounted on glycerol 70% and observed under light microscope (Axioskop; Carl Zeiss) coupled to a Leica DFC490 digital camera. Leaf area was quantified using Image Pro Analyzer (Media Cybernetics) as reported by Alcázar et al. (2009).

Isolation of Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis Gw and Pathogen Inoculation Assays

Original spores from H. arabidopsidis Gw were collected from the Gw-16 accession naturally growing in the Gorzów population during spring of 2014. Spores were resuspended in 100 µL of water and inoculated on the susceptible Ws ed1-1 genotype (Falk et al., 1999). Thereafter, the Hpa Gw isolate has been maintained by weekly propagation on the susceptible Gw-16 accession. Hpa inoculation assays were performed as described by Alcázar et al. (2009). Pseudomonas syringae spray inoculation and growth quantitation assays were performed as described by Alcázar et al. (2010).

Cloning of ATR1

The genomic DNA from Hpa Gw mass conidiospores was extracted using TriZol (Thermo Fisher) and used for PCR amplification of ATR1 gene using primer combinations listed in Supplemental Table S11 (Rehmany et al., 2005). The PCR product was treated with ExoSap (Thermo Fisher) and sequenced by SANGER with primers described in Supplemental Table S11.

Global Metabolite Profiling

Metabolite profiling was performed from leaf samples (120 mg) using at least 10 biological replicates. Polar primary metabolite extraction and gas chromatography coupled to electron impact ionization-time of flight-mass spectrometry analysis was performed as described (Zarra et al., 2017). Only metabolites identified in all genotypes and at least 8 of 10 replicates were considered. Normalized values are referred to the internal standard. Principal component analysis was determined using R (www.r-project.org). HCA with R was determined using 250 k SNP data and the accelerated mixed model (Kang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2010) implemented in GWAPP (Seren et al., 2012). To ensure adequate correction for population stratification, we constructed a quantile-quantile plot (Supplemental Fig. S14). A list of most significant associations is found in Supplemental Table S9.

Starch Quantification

The entire shoot of 5-week-old plants was used for the analyses. Samples were harvested 1 h before the end of the light or dark periods. Starch levels were quantified according to Smith and Zeeman (2006) using Image Pro Analyzer (Media Cybernetics) and phenotypes listed in Supplemental Table S8. Manhattan plots were determined using 1,000 permutations. GWAS mapping was performed using accessions grown at 14°C to 16°C. sulki1, sulki2, Ler/Kas2 NIL, CNL (Alcázar et al., 2010), and parental accessions grown at 14°C to 16°C.

Invertase Activities

Cell-wall-bound and soluble acid invertase activities were performed according to Appeldoor et al. (1997) from leaves of 5-week-old Arabidopsis plants using at least five biological replicates per genotype.

Transient Expression Assays

Genomic versions of RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, and R8 were obtained by PCR amplification from Ler gDNA using the primers combinations listed in Supplemental Table S11. The PCR products were purified and cloned into the pSPARKII vector (Canvax). The resulting clones were sequenced using primers already described (Alcázar et al., 2014) and subcloned SulI/NotI into a modified version of pENTR1A providing gentamycin resistance. The resulting construct was used for LR Gateway (Thermo Fisher) reaction with pEarley101 (Earley et al., 2006) to generate C terminus YFP-HA fusions of genomic clones under the control of the Cauliflower mosaic virus 35S promoter. The different constructs were sequenced, transformed into A. tumefaciens GV3101 pMP90, and used for infiltration of tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum; Samsun, SNN) leaves. Transformed agrobacteria were inoculated into 30 mL YEB media and incubated by shaking at 250 rpm and 28°C overnight. Cultures were centrifuged at 4,000g for 5 min and resuspended on 10 mM MgCl2 and 10 mM MES; pH 5.6, to an OD600 of 0.45. For induction of agrobacteria virulence, 150 µM acesulfame was added to the cells for 3 h. Discs from inoculated leaves were collected at indicated time points using a cork borer (1.2 cm diameter) and frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen. Pictures were taken at indicated time points with a Canon EOS 450D digital camera.

QTL and GWAS Mapping

QTL mapping was performed using R/qtl with the genetic data of the Ler/Shu RIL population from Clerck et al. (2004) and phenotype evaluation of Hpa Gw disease resistance in Supplemental Table S8. For phenotypic evaluation, values from 0 to 2 were assigned to each genotype (0, no sporulation; 1, sporulation only observed on cotyledons; 2, sporulation observed in cotyledons and fully expanded leaves). LOD scores were calculated with a single-QTL model implemented in R/qtl. LOD score significance threshold was established using 1,000 permutations. GWAS mapping was performed using accessions and phenotypes listed in Supplemental Table S8. Manhattan plots were determined using 250 k SNP data and the accelerated mixed model (Kang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2010) implemented in GWAPP (Seren et al., 2012). To ensure adequate correction for population stratification, we constructed a quantile-quantile plot (Supplemental Fig. S14). A list of most significant associations is found in Supplemental Table S9.

Accession Numbers

RNA-seq data have been deposited to ArrayExpress (www.ebi.ac.uk/ arrayexpress/) under accession number E-MTAB-6755.

Supplemental Data

The following supplemental materials are available.

Supplemental Figure S1. Leaf area and trypan blue staining in 5-week-old sulki1, sulki2, Ler/Kas2 NIL, CNL (Alcázar et al., 2010), and parental accessions grown at 14°C to 16°C.

Supplemental Figure S2. Alignment of amino acid sequences for RPP1-like genes in Ler, Col-0, Uk-1, Bla-1, and Ws.

Supplemental Figure S3. RT-qPCR expression analyses of PR1, RPP1-like Ler R2, R3, R4, and R8 genes in Ler plants treated with 100 µM benzo (1,2,3) thiadiazole-7-carboxylic acid 5-methyl ester or 100 µM SA.

Supplemental Figure S4. CRISPR/Cas9-induced indel mutations in Cas9-r2, Cas9-r3, Cas9-r4, and Cas9-r8 and their effects on protein translation.
Screen for Suppressors of Ler/Kas2 Incompatibility

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Supplemental Figure S5. Leaf area and trypan blue staining of 5-week-old CRISPR/Cas9 RPP1-like Ler mutants grown at 14°C to 16°C.

Supplemental Figure S6. Complementation of Supplemental Figure S6. RPP1-like with Ler/Kas2 NIL phenotype.

Supplemental Figure S7. PRI, EDS1, and GST1 expression analyses in 5- and 7-week-old (w-o) Cas9 r2-1, r2-2, r3-1, r3-2, r4-1, r4-2, r8-1, and r8-2, Ler, Kas2, Ler/Kas2 NIL, and cNIL plants grown at 14°C to 16°C.

Supplemental Figure S8. Starch levels determined in leaves of 5-week-old incompatible Ler/Kas2 NIL, Kas2, Ler, sulki2-1, sulki1-7, sulki1-8, and sulki1-9 grown at 14°C to 16°C.

Supplemental Figure S9. Apoplastic and vacuolar invertase activities of 5-week-old incompatible Ler/Kas2 NIL, Kas2, Ler, sulki1-1, sulki1-7, sulki1-8, and sulki1-9 grown at 14°C to 16°C.

Supplemental Figure S10. Neighbor-joining phylogenetic analysis of ATR1 amino acid sequences from different Hps isolates.

Supplemental Figure S11. Disease resistance phenotypes to Hps Gw infection in different genotypes.

Supplemental Figure S12. Principal component analysis of the Gw population based on 134 genome-wide SNPs.

Supplemental Figure S13. Coverage of Illumina reads mapping to the A13q44300-A13q44400 interval in Ler.

Supplemental Figure S14. Quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plot for GWAS analysis of Hps Gw disease resistance using the accelerated mixed model method.

Supplemental Table S1. Segregation analyses of sulki and CRISPR/Cas9 mutants.

Supplemental Table S2. List of differentially expressed genes in the comparisons between Kas2 versus Ler/Kas2 NIL and sulki1-8 versus Ler/Kas2 NIL and their Gene Ontology analyses.

Supplemental Table S3. List of metabolites and raw data from GC/MS analyses in Ler/Kas2 NIL, Kas2, Ler, sulki1-1, sulki1-7, sulki1-8, and sulki1-9.

Supplemental Table S4. PCI and PC2 loadings of Ler/Kas2 NIL, Ler, Kas2, and sulki1 metabolite profiles.

Supplemental Table S5. Genotype data and disease resistance phenotypes to Hps Gw infection in the Gurzów population.

Supplemental Table S6. Phenotype data for disease resistance to Hps Gw in the Ler/Sha RIL population.

Supplemental Table S7. List of NLR genes in the QTL interval of chromosome one for Hps Gw disease resistance in the Ler/Sha RIL population.

Supplemental Table S8. List of accessions used in GWAS mapping for disease resistance to Hps Gw infection.

Supplemental Table S9. List of genes with highest associations in GWAS mapping for disease resistance to Hps Gw.

Supplemental Table S10. Summary statistics of whole-genome sequencing and RNA-seq reads.

Supplemental Table S11. List of oligonucleotides used in this work.

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