Moonlighting function of Phytochelatin synthase 1 in extracellular defense against fungal pathogens

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One-Sentence Summary:
PCS1 is a moonlighting protein, which in addition to its function in abiotic stress response is indispensable for proper extracellular immune responses and pathogen-triggered glucosinolate metabolism.

Author Contributions
KH, ML, VL, AM, EG, PSL and SS designed the research, KH, ML, CC, PB, MPB, CSR, MS, RF, CK performed research and analyzed data. KH and SS wrote the manuscript with contributions from PB, VL and PSL.

ABSTRACT
Phytochelatin synthase (PCS) is a key component of heavy metal detoxification in plants. PCS catalyzes both the synthesis of the peptide phytochelatin from glutathione as well as the degradation of glutathione conjugates via peptidase activity. Here, we describe a role for PCS in disease resistance against plant pathogenic fungi. The pen4 mutant, which is allelic to cadmium insensitive 1 (cad1/pcs1) mutants, was recovered from a screen for Arabidopsis mutants with reduced resistance to the non-adapted barley fungal pathogen, Blumeria graminis f. sp. hordei. PCS1, which is found in the cytoplasm of cells of healthy plants, translocates upon pathogen attack and colocalizes with the PEN2 myrosinase on the surface of immobilized mitochondria. pcs1 and pen2 mutant plants exhibit similar metabolic defects in the accumulation of pathogen-inducible indole glucosinolate-derived compounds, suggesting that PEN2 and PCS1 act in the same metabolic pathway. The function of PCS1 in this pathway is independent of phytochelatin synthesis and deglycination of glutathione conjugates, as catalytic-site mutants of PCS1 are still functional in indole glucosinolate metabolism. In uncovering a peptidase-independent function for PCS1, we reveal this enzyme to be a moonlighting protein important for plant responses to both biotic and abiotic stresses.
INTRODUCTION

As sessile organisms, plants have developed sophisticated mechanisms that allow them to adapt to and survive the biotic and abiotic stresses that they encounter in their environments. Different stress signaling pathways are connected to maximize plant fitness (Berens et al., 2019). For instance, one evolutionary conserved mechanism involves phytohormone signaling mediated by abscisic acid, which promotes abiotic stress tolerance and suppresses signaling of the biotic stress-related phytohormone salicylic acid (Berens et al., 2017). On the other hand, an overlapping enzymatic machinery is engaged to cope with xenobiotics and pathogen stress.

The metabolism of xenobiotics, including plant metal tolerance, as well as the biosynthesis of sulfur-containing immunomodulatory and antimicrobial secondary metabolites such as glucosinolates and indole-type phytoalexins involves in Brassicaceae species the formation and processing of glutathione conjugates (Grill et al., 1989; Cobbett and Goldsbrough, 2002; Bednarek et al., 2009; Pastorczyk and Bednarek, 2016; Czerniawski and Bednarek, 2018).

Invasive growth is an essential part of the pathogenesis of many fungal and oomycete plant pathogens, and extracellular defense mechanisms play a critical role in blocking their entry into plant cells (Underwood and Somerville, 2008; Hematy et al., 2009). For example, Arabidopsis thaliana is an inappropriate or non-host plant for the non-adapted barley powdery mildew pathogen, Blumeria graminis sp. hordei (Bgh) (Lipka et al., 2008). The ability of Arabidopsis cells to resist Bgh entry is partly dependent on the PENETRATION (PEN) proteins. For instance, mutants of the syntaxin PEN1 (=SYP121) (Collins et al., 2003), the myrosinase PEN2 (Lipka et al., 2005) and the ABC transporter PEN3 (=PDR8) (Stein et al., 2006) are more susceptible to Bgh entry and exhibit increased formation of the fungal feeding structure, the haustoria, in leaf epidermal cells. It has been shown that PEN2 hydrolyzes indole glucosinolates (IGs), a class of sulfur-containing secondary metabolites, to form products that could act as broad-spectrum toxins and confer antifungal defense in the extracellular space at pathogen contact sites (Bednarek et al., 2009). It has also been suggested that IG-derived compounds are signaling molecules for callose deposition following treatment with the microbe-associated molecular pattern (MAMP) flagellin (flg22), a peptide epitope derived from the bacterial motor protein (Clay et al., 2009). Recently, Arabidopsis Glutathione-S-Transferase class-tau member 13 (GSTU13) was identified as an indispensable component of the PEN2 immune pathway for IG metabolism (Piślewska-Bednarek et al., 2018), suggesting that this pathway involves conjugation of the tripeptide
glutathione (ECG) with unstable isothiocyanates (ITCs) that are products of IG metabolism and further processing of the resulting adducts to biologically active molecules. Arabidopsis PAD2/CAD2, which encodes γ-glutamylcysteine synthetase (γ-ECS) and catalyzes the first committed step of glutathione biosynthesis, is essential for biotic stress-induced accumulation of IGs and the PEN2 immune pathway (Bednarek et al., 2009). The same enzyme is also needed for heavy metal ion tolerance, as glutathione is the precursor of heavy-metal chelating polypeptides, called phytochelatins, which in Arabidopsis are predominantly produced by phytochelatin synthase 1 (PCS1) (Grill et al., 1985; Grill et al., 1989; Howden et al., 1995; Rea, 2006). Notably, pcs1 mutants display elevated cell death responses in leaves upon inoculation with the oomycete pathogen *Phytophthora infestans*, enhanced susceptibility to the bacterial phytopathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* DC3000 and reduced callose deposition upon treatment with the peptide-epitope flg22 derived from the motor protein of *P. syringae*, indicating that apart from a function in tolerance towards heavy metal ions, PCS1 has also a role in Arabidopsis immunity (Clay et al., 2009; Kühnlenz et al., 2015; De Benedictis et al., 2018). Moreover, given that a PCS from *Caenorhabditis elegans* was able to restore phytochelatin production, but not to revert the cell death phenotype in the pcs1 mutant background, it was suggested that PCS1 function in plant immunity is not dependent on phytochelatin accumulation (Kühnlenz et al., 2015). Finally, pen2 and pcs1 mutants were shown to share an aberrant pathogen-triggered accumulation and secretion of IGs and their metabolism products. This includes a hyperaccumulation of 4-methoxyindol-3-ylmethyl glucosinolate, reduced levels of indol-3-ylmethyl amine and raphanusic acid, as well as reduced secretion of 4-methoxyindol-3-yl methanol and S-(4-methoxyindol-3-ylmethyl) cysteine (Matern et al., 2019).

We present here the isolation and characterization of Arabidopsis mutants with defects in a PENETRATION resistance gene (*PEN*) designated *PEN4*. These mutants are allelic with pcs1 and are sensitive to invasive powdery mildew pathogens. We show that PCS1 is translocated underneath pathogen contact sites, where it co-localizes with PEN2, which is known to accumulate on the surface of immobilized mitochondria (Fuchs et al., 2016). Mutagenesis of PCS1 residues abolishing phytochelatin synthesis affects tolerance to heavy metals but does not alter PCS1 function in IG metabolism or extracellular defense. Together our results show that PCS1 acts in the PEN2 pathway and is a multi-functional protein with two independent activities. As well as its long-known function in the synthesis of the peptide phytochelatin for
heavy metal tolerance, PCS1 also has an independent role in IG metabolism and immune responses.
RESULTS

Mutations in PHYTOCHELATIN SYNTHASE 1 result in enhanced invasive growth of several fungal pathogens

The pen4 mutant was isolated in a screen for Arabidopsis lines that allowed increased penetration of the non-adapted barley powdery mildew Bgh into leaf cells (Stein et al., 2006). Typically, 5–10% of germinated Bgh conidiospores successfully breach the plant cell wall and differentiate into fungal haustoria for nutrient uptake in Arabidopsis Col-0 (wild-type) leaf epidermal cells (Fig. 1A, arrowhead), while the remaining attempts at fungal entry culminate in de novo-synthesized callose-rich deposits called papillae (Fig. 1A, star). The frequency of haustorium formation by Bgh increases to 20–25% on the leaves of pen4 plants (Fig 1C).

Map-based cloning of PEN4 revealed that it encodes phytochelatin synthase (PCS1). PCS proteins are known for their glutathione γ-glutamylcysteinyltransferase activity (EC 2.3.2.15). The mutation in pen4 results in a premature stop codon that truncates the protein at amino acid residue 236 (Fig. 1E) in the middle of a DUF1984 domain (PF09328), which is always associated with the phytochelatin domain (PF05023) (Rea, 2006). To confirm that the mutation in PCS1 is responsible for enhanced Bgh entry into pen4 leaves, we tested another pcs1 allele previously isolated in screens for plants with reduced tolerance to heavy metal cadmium ions (cad1-3) (Howden et al., 1995) and a null line carrying a T-DNA insertion in the second exon of PCS1 (Blum et al., 2007). All pcs1 lines were more susceptible to Bgh haustorium formation than the wild type Col-0 (Fig. 1C). Like the parental lines, the F1 progeny of a cross between the cad1-3 and pen4 plants led to an increase of Bgh entry rates up to 20%, indicating that pen4 is allelic to cad1-3 (Fig. S1).

Consistent with an impaired function of PCS1, the pen4 mutant also showed decreased tolerance to cadmium (Fig. 1B, D). PCS2, the second isoform of the phytochelatin synthase in Arabidopsis, shares 83% amino acid identity with PCS1. Although PCS2 can synthesize phytochelatins in response to heavy metals, the gene appears to be dispensable for heavy metal tolerance (Fig. 1D, (Blum et al., 2007). We asked whether PCS2, like PCS1, has a role in penetration resistance to fungal pathogens. A mutant line harboring a T-DNA insertion that abolishes PCS2 expression (pcs2) (Blum et al., 2007) showed a frequency of cell entry by Bgh that was comparable to wild-type Col-0 plants (Fig. 1C). Furthermore, a line harboring T-
DNA insertions in both PCS1 and PCS2 (pcs1 pcs2) (Blum et al., 2007) did not consistently exhibit a higher incidence of cell entry by Bgh than the pcs1 single mutant (Fig. 1C). As with heavy metal tolerance, PCS2 has no detectable role in extracellular defense to the non-adapted pathogen. Furthermore, impaired disease resistance of the pen4 or pcs1 pcs2 double mutant line could be complemented by transforming these mutants with PCS1 expressed under the control of its native promoter or a 35S promoter and tagged with GFP at its N-terminus (used later on in this study). Together, these data indicate that PCS1 plays a role in limiting plant cell entry by Bgh.

To determine whether PCS1 is important for resistance responses to other fungal pathogens, we inoculated pen4 plants with the necrotrophic fungi Botrytis cinerea (Fig. S2A) and...
*Plectosphaerella cucumerina* (Fig. S2B) (Sanchez-Rodriguez et al., 2009). Infection with both fungi was more severe in these mutant plants. Furthermore, *pen4* mutants, like *pen2* mutants, were hypersusceptible to *Golovinomyces cichoracearum*, a powdery mildew adapted for growth on Arabidopsis (Fig. S2C). Together, these results show that PCS1 is important both in preventing the entry of non-adapted pathogens and in basal defense responses against multiple fungal pathogens.

**Translocation of cytosolic PCS1 to immobile mitochondria underneath pathogen contact sites.**

Powdery mildew attack induces dramatic changes in cellular organization at the site of attempted fungal penetration (Underwood and Somerville, 2008). Several proteins that function in preventing host cell entry by *Bgh* show focal accumulation beneath fungal appressoria within epidermal cells at the site of attack, suggesting that these proteins act locally in extracellular defense responses (Koh et al., 2005; Underwood and Somerville, 2008). For instance, entry attempts of the fungus trigger local arrest of a subpopulation of mitochondria underneath *Bgh* appressoria, which is accompanied by transient aggregate formation of tail-anchored PEN2-GFP on the surface of these organelles (Fuchs et al., 2016). The plasma membrane-resident PEN3-GFP focally accumulates as disks, sometimes with bullseye-like “rings” around these contact sites (Koh et al., 2005; Stein et al., 2006).

Given PCS1’s involvement in limiting host cell entry, we tested whether PCS1 localized to the site of fungal attack. To this end, we generated GFP fusions at either the amino- or carboxy-terminus of PCS1 under control of the 35S promoter in the *pen4* background (Fig. 2A-B). In addition, we generated a transgenic *pcs1 pcs2* double mutant line expressing RFP-PCS1 driven by the 35S promoter. In non-inoculated leaf epidermal cells, the RFP-PCS1 fluorescence signal suggested a cytosolic localization similar to that of free GFP expressed under the control of the 35S promoter (EGAD line; (Cutler et al., 2000); Fig. 2C). This is consistent with the absence of canonical organelle targeting sequences or predicted transmembrane domains in PCS1. In pathogen-challenged leaf epidermal cells, in addition to their cytosolic localization, GFP-PCS1 and PCS1-GFP localized to bright round aggregates underneath *Bgh* contact sites (Fig. 2A,B); GFP alone did not exhibit this localization (Fig. 2D), excluding the possibility that the fluorescent tag is itself driving PCS1 aggregation...
underneath pathogen contact sites. Similarly, RFP-PCS1 also accumulated focally at incipient
*Bgh* entry sites (Figure 2D, E). During the early stages of fungal entry, PCS1 tightly localized
just beneath the tip region of the appressorium (Fig. 2B,E), while at later stages the aggregates
appeared more dispersed and excluded from the center of the penetration site (Fig. 2A,D,F).
Furthermore, the signal recruiting PCS1 to attempted entry sites was able to cross cell
frontiers (Fig. 2F, GFP-PCS1 from two adjacent cells organized as a ring around the fungal
penetration site).

As the PCS1 aggregation pattern at pathogen contact sites was reminiscent of PEN2
localization upon *Bgh* inoculation, we examined the localization of RFP-PCS1 in PEN2-GFP-
expressing transgenic plants (Lipka et al., 2005). In pathogen-free plants, RFP-PCS1 showed
a strong cytoplasmic fluorescence signal, similar to the GFP-tagged version described above,
whereas PEN2-GFP was detectable in the cytoplasm and in the periphery of mobile
membrane compartments (Fig. S3C-E) recently shown to represent peroxisomes and mitochondria (Fuchs et al., 2016). Pathogen challenge induced co-localization of RFP-PCS1 and PEN2-GFP in aggregate structures with enhanced fluorescence intensity (Fig. 2E). RFP-PCS1 did not translocate to all PEN2-GFP-tagged organelles surrounding attempted fungal entry sites, but was confined to a subset with increased PEN2-GFP fluorescence and aggregation (Fig. S3E). These organelles were recently identified as a subpopulation of epidermal mitochondria, which become immobile at plant-pathogen contact sites (Fuchs et al., 2016).

To investigate a possible docking role of PEN2 for PCS1, we examined PCS1 relocalization after inoculation in a pen2-1 null mutant background (Lipka et al., 2005). Both GFP-PCS1 and RFP-PCS1 are able to aggregate underneath Bgh contact sites even in the absence of PEN2 (Fig. 2F, S3F), suggesting that mitochondria-associated PEN2 is not necessary for the recruitment of PCS1 to these organelles.

PCS1 catalytic residues are not required for extracellular defense

When preparing our fusion constructs to investigate the subcellular localization of PCS1 (GFP-PCS1 and PCS1-GFP), we found a striking difference that suggested the two functions of PCS1 in heavy metal tolerance and disease resistance could be uncoupled. Consistent with a previous study (Blum et al., 2010), both GFP-PCS1 and RFP-PCS1 are soluble and were found to localize to the cytosol. To verify the functionality of the recombinant proteins, we tested their ability to complement the characteristic penetration resistance and cadmium tolerance defects of the pen4 mutants. The cadmium hypersensitivity of pen4 could be complemented by either GFP-PCS1 or PCS1-GFP fusions (Fig. 3B), which resulted in both cases in the accumulation of high levels of phytochelatin upon cadmium treatment (Fig. 3C), suggesting that both fusions are functional. However, the penetration resistance defect of pen4 could only be complemented by the GFP-PCS1 fusion (Fig. 3A). Similar to GFP-PCS1, RFP-PCS1 was fully functional in both penetration resistance and heavy metal tolerance (Fig. S3A-B). Both GFP/RFP-PCS1 and PCS1-GFP relocalize as aggregates at focal sites of attempted fungal penetration (Fig. 2A, B), indicating that the lack of complementation of entry resistance in pen4 by PCS1-GFP is not due to mislocalization of the PCS1-GFP fusion protein. The difference in complementation of the pen4 disease resistance phenotype by PCS1-GFP versus GFP-PCS1 is in accordance with an earlier study of Kühnlenz et al. (2015) who showed that
the two functions of PCS1 in heavy metal tolerance and immunity can be uncoupled. This suggests that disease resistance conferred by PCS1 is independent of the ability of the enzyme to synthesize phytochelatin.
To test this hypothesis, we generated catalytically inactive PCS1 mutants to investigate the importance of phytochelatin production for fungal resistance. The phytochelatin synthase activity of PCS1 is dependent on a highly conserved catalytic triad located in the N-terminal half of the protein, consisting of Cys56, His162 and Asp180 (Romanyuk et al., 2006). Notably, the cysteine at position 56 has been shown to be involved in the formation of an acyl-enzyme intermediate (Vatamaniuk et al., 2004). Thus, PCS1 proteins carrying C56A, C56S or H162A substitutions lack PC synthesis activity in vitro (Vatamaniuk et al., 2004; Romanyuk et al., 2006). To test directly whether the function of PCS1 in fungal resistance is dependent on phytochelatin biosynthesis, we generated transgenic pcs1pcs2 Arabidopsis plants expressing, under its native promoter, the genomic coding sequence of wild-type PCS1 (PCS1WT) or constructs carrying either a C56S (PCS1C56S) or H162A (PCS1H162A) amino acid substitution in PCS1. As predicted by the inability of the mutated proteins to synthesize phytochelatin (PC) in vitro (Vatamaniuk et al., 2004; Romanyuk et al., 2006), transgenic lines expressing PCS1C56S or PCS1H162A were deficient in PC in vivo (Figure 3F) and showed the same degree of root growth inhibition as pcs1pcs2 when grown on 50 µM cadmium chloride (Figure 3E). In contrast, in PCS1C56S or PCS1H162A lines, Bgh entry frequencies were similar to those seen in wild-type Col-0 plants or pcs1pcs2 complemented by PCS1WT (Fig. 3D). These results confirm that the function of PCS1 in fungal resistance depends on a PCS1 activity or function that is distinct from phytochelatin synthesis.

**PCS1, but not phytochelatin synthase activity, is involved in indole glucosinolate metabolism to restrict powdery mildew entry in Arabidopsis cells**

As indicated by the aberrant accumulation of 4-methoxyindol-3-ylmethyl glucosinolate (4MI3G) and IG-metabolism products in pcs1 plants upon flg22 or Cd²⁺ treatment, or inoculation with *P. infestans* (Clay et al., 2009; De Benedictis et al., 2018; Matern et al., 2019), PCS1, like PEN2, is required for the pathogen-inducible metabolism of IGs. Similarly, upon inoculation with Bgh, pen2 and pen4 hyperaccumulate 4MI3G (Fig. 4B) and are not able to produce indol-3-ylmethylamine (I3A, Fig. 4C) and raphanusamic acid (RA, Fig. 4D). Levels of IGs and their metabolic products are restored to wild-type levels when the pen4 or pcs1pcs2 mutants are complemented by either GFP-PCS1 or the mutated PCS1C56S or PCS1H162A, consistent with their wild-type-like disease resistance phenotype (Fig. 4B-D). The ABC transporter PEN3/PDR8/ABCG36, although not deficient in I3A or RA (Bednarek et al., 2009), is thought to be involved in this IG metabolic pathway as an exporter of pro-toxins or...
Toxic end products (Stein et al., 2006). This putative role would explain the proper accumulation of I3A/RA and hyper-accumulation of 4-Oβ-D-glucosyl-indol-3-yl formamide (4OGlcI3F), a product presumably formed upon PEN2-mediated hydrolysis of 4MI3G, in pen3 leaves inoculated with Bgh (Lu et al., 2015). Our analysis of pcs1 mutants revealed that in addition to I3A and RA, PCS1 is also indispensable for 4OGlcI3F accumulation during the Arabidopsis response to pathogen inoculation (Fig. S4A).

To directly test whether PEN2 and PEN4 operate in the same pathway, the two mutants were crossed. The pen2 pen4 double mutant supported a similar increase in entry frequency by Bgh

Figure 4. PCS1 is involved in indole glucosinolate metabolism. (A-D) Box plots showing accumulation of selected secondary metabolites, indicated as nmol/g of fresh tissue weight (FW), in Arabidopsis genotypes 16 hours after inoculation with Bgh conidiospores (gray bars). (A) Indol-3-ylmethylglucosinolate (I3G), (B) 4-methoxy-indol-3-ylmethylglucosinolate (4MI3G), (C) Indol-3-ylmethylamine (I3A), (D) Raphanusamic acid (RA). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following two-way ANOVA. We observed significant main effects for Bgh inoculation and genotype (p<0.0001), and a significant interaction effect (p<0.0001) for 4MI3G, I3A and RA. In the case of I3G only significant main effects for Bgh inoculation and genotype (p<0.0001), but no interaction effect, were observed. (E) EC-bi-mann content in seedlings infiltrated with ECG bi-mann measured by HPLC (n=3). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following one-way ANOVA. There was a significant genotype effect (p<0.0001).
as did the pen2 or pen4 single mutants (Fig. S4B). Together with the colocalization with PEN2, these results suggest that PEN2 and PEN4 act together in one pathway that confers extracellular resistance to fungal attack. The correlation between the lack of pathogen-triggered accumulation of I3A and RA and defective entry resistance in pcs1 lines emphasizes the importance of PCS1 in IG metabolism.

Upon pathogen challenge, the pen4 mutant hyper-accumulates the physiological substrate of PEN2 myrosinase, 4MI3G, but not its unsubstituted precursor I3G (Figure 4A, B). In contrast, the pathogen-induced accumulation of both IG- and 4MI3G-derived hydrolysis products is essentially abolished (Fig. 4C, D, Fig. S4A). This phenocopies the metabolite profile seen in pen2 plants (Bednarek et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2015), suggesting that like PEN2, PCS1 may act downstream of 4MI3G biosynthesis to produce I3A, RA and 4OGlcI3F, but upstream of the ABC transporter PEN3/PDR8.

Is PCS1 peptidase activity required for IG metabolism?

Phytochelatin synthases are known for their γ-glutamylcysteine dipeptidyl transpeptidase activity (EC 2.3.2.15), which catalyzes the transfer of the dipeptide glutamyl-cysteine (EC) from ECG onto another EC unit to generate the polypeptide phytochelatins (EC)n-G. In addition, PCS has also been shown to be involved in the turnover of glutathione conjugates of xenobiotics by cleaving the glycine residue of their ECG moiety (Beck et al., 2003; Grzam et al., 2006; Blum et al., 2007).

It has been proposed that the IG-derived ITCs could be glutathionylated by GSTU13 and further processed by peptidases including PCS1 (Piślew ska-Bednarek et al., 2018). To investigate whether the PC-deficient [pen4]-complementing mutants PCS1C56S and PCS1H162A still possessed peptidase activity, we assayed their deglycination activity on glutathionylated bimane (ECG-bimane, Blum et al. 2007). None of the PC-deficient lines could produce EC-bimane from ECG-bimane (Fig. 4E). This suggests that, unlike PCS1 metabolism of IG-derived compounds, both PC synthesis and the deglycination of glutathione conjugates depends on the residues C56 and H162 of the catalytic triad.
Phytochelatin synthase is primarily known for its role in tolerance of heavy metals, notably of cadmium (Grill et al., 1989; Clemens et al., 1999). Here, we identified PEN4/AtPCS1 as a player in pre-invasive immune responses against fungal pathogens. The second PCS parologue, the weakly expressed protein AtPCS2, appears to be dispensable for both heavy metal tolerance and disease resistance. pcs1 mutants are hypersusceptible to adapted and non-adapted fungi, unveiling the importance of PCS1 for defense against fungal invasion. This impaired pre-invasive immunity might also explain the previously reported strong cell death phenotype in Arabidopsis pcs1 plants in response to inoculation with the non-adapted oomycete pathogen *P. infestans*, because invasive growth of this oomycete in pen2 plants is also linked to a localized plant cell death response (Lipka et al., 2005; Kühnlenz et al., 2015). Like the other PEN proteins, PCS1 concentrates underneath the penetration site of fungal appressoria. Interestingly, in uninfected cells PCS1 is cytosolic, and in response to infection it relocates to an endomembrane compartment(s) at incipient entry sites of attack. We did not observe this aggregation phenomenon after cadmium treatment, further underlining the dual functions of PCS1. Colocalization of RFP-PCS1 and PEN2-GFP in plant cells under attack suggests that these compartments are mitochondria as previously reported (Fuchs et al., 2016). Recent proteome studies localized PCS1 to the cytosol (Ito et al., 2011) and to the Arabidopsis mitochondrial complexome (Senkler et al., 2017), supporting its dual localization capacity.

Unlike the pen1 pen2 double mutant (Lipka et al., 2005), the susceptibility of the pen2 pen4 mutant to fungal infection is not more pronounced than either of the single mutants (Fig.S4). This suggests that PEN2 and PEN4/PCS1 act in the same pathway. PEN2 has been shown to be an essential component of an IG metabolism pathway involved in broad-spectrum resistance against filamentous eukaryotic pathogens (Bednarek et al., 2009; Pastorczyk and Bednarek, 2016). PCS1 appears to be equally involved in this pathway as the pcs1 mutants exhibit exactly the same I3A, RA and 4OGlcI3F deficiencies as pen2 plants (Fig. 4A,B and S4A) (Matern et al., 2019). The co-localization of both enzymes in response to pathogen attack could facilitate stimulus-induced metabolite channeling of these metabolites, which in turn could account for the lack of detection of the intermediates between I3G and I3A/RA or 4MI3G and 4OGlcI3F. However, this does not allow us to unambiguously determine whether PEN4 acts upstream, or downstream, or in parallel to PEN2.
The shared phenotype of the pen2 and pen4 mutants and the colocalization of PEN2 and PEN4 in the same compartment at the site of fungal ingress suggested a possible protein-protein interaction. However, we did not obtain any positive interactions between PEN2 and PEN4 in split-ubiquitin yeast two-hybrid experiments (Fig S5A), nor could we co-immunoprecipitate these two proteins from infected leaves (Fig. S5B). The lack of physical interaction is confirmed by the fact that PCS1 is still able to relocalize in a null pen2 mutant background (Fig. 2F and S3F). Focal accumulation of the PEN3 ABC transporter as disks in the plasma membrane and co-localization of PEN2 and PEN4 aggregates on mitochondria underneath pathogen contact sites rather points to pathogen-inducible macromolecular crowding as a potential alternative mechanism. Such an arrangement of PEN2 and PEN4 would facilitate metabolite channelling for targeted release of antimicrobials (Ellis, 2001; Stein et al., 2006; Fuchs et al., 2016; Guigas and Weiss, 2016). However, it remains to be tested whether enforced PEN4 mislocalization impairs its activity in extracellular defense.

Using mutated versions of PCS1, we showed that the function of PCS1 in IG metabolism does not require phytochelatin synthase activity sensu stricto as we could generate PC-deficient mutants functional for IG metabolism. Indeed, the ability to metabolize IGs is retained in mutant versions of PCS1 (Fig. 4A-D) that cannot produce any phytochelatins (fig.3F) nor cleave the ECG bimane conjugate (Fig. 4E). Our findings confirm and extend a previous study in which heterologous expression of Caenorhabditis elegans PCS in the Arabidopsis psc1 background complemented cadmium hypersensitivity, but not a leaf cell death phenotype in response to P. infestans inoculation (Kühnlenz et al., 2015). Residue Cys56 of the catalytic triad (Cys56, H162, Asp180) has been implicated in the formation of an acyl-enzyme intermediate with γ-EC. There appears to be an as yet unidentified second acylation site in the C-terminal part of PCS1, which shows a low level of sequence conservation across plant species (Vatamaniuk et al., 2004; Rea, 2012). This second site, which is absent in prokaryotic PCS, could potentially participate in IG metabolism. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that the PCS from C. elegans that was not able to complement the cell death phenotype in psc1 plants has a significantly shorter C-terminal part compared to AtPCS1 (Rea et al., 2004; Kühnlenz et al., 2015). This assumed significance of the PCS1 C-terminus could also explain why GFP-PCS1, but not the PCS1-GFP fusion, is non-functional in IG metabolism and extracellular defense despite its proper subcellular localization. Alternatively,
rather than acting catalytically PCS1 may instead stabilize a chemically labile intermediate in
the IG metabolism pathway or stabilize a protein complex required for IG catabolism.

The chemical structures of RA and I3A, combined with the fact that their formation is
dependent on ECG supply via γ-glutamylcysteine synthetase, suggested indol-3-ylmethyl-
ITC-ECG conjugates as intermediates in pathogen-triggered IG metabolism in Brassicaceae
(Bednarek et al., 2009). The existence of such conjugates in planta is supported by the
identification of indolyl-dithiocarbamate glucoside during engineering of brassinin (an IG-
derived phytoalexin from Brassica spp.) biosynthesis in Nicotiana benthamiana (Klein and
Sattely, 2017). GSTU13 was recently found to be essential for pathogen-inducible formation
of RA, I3A, and 4OGlcI3F, suggesting that it catalyzes the conjugation of unstable
glucosinolate hydrolysis products, the indol-3-ylmethyl-ITCs, with ECG to form a
dithiocarbamate adduct in planta (Piślewska-Bednarek et al., 2018). Although the exact
mechanism of PCS1 in this pathway remains to be defined, our analysis combined with earlier
work (Matern et al. 2019) suggests PCS1 as a plausible candidate for further processing of
this adduct to I3A and RA, and the corresponding 4-methoxy adduct to 4OGlcI3F. However,
as mentioned above, we cannot exclude that PCS1 acts upstream of GSTU13, or even in
parallel to PEN2, or that it controls expression of the corresponding genes (Fig. 5). In
conclusion, AtPCS1 is a multi-functional protein: it detoxifies xenobiotics via chelation of
heavy metals by phytochelatin or via degradation of glutathione conjugates, and it participates
in the production of antimicrobials formed from IGs in the PEN2 pathway.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant and fungal lines and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana plants were grown for 15 to 20 days in growth chambers at 22°C with a
12-h photoperiod. All Arabidopsis mutants and transgenic lines were in the Columbia
background (Table S2). Host powdery mildew (Golovinomyces cichoracearum UCSC1) was
cultured on squash for 10 to 12 days and then applied to Arabidopsis using settling towers.
Non-host barley powdery mildew (Blumeria graminis f. sp hordei CR3) was grown on barley
(Hordeum vulgare) line Algerian-S (CI-16138) and inoculated onto Arabidopsis using the
methods described by Zimmerli et al. (2004).
Transgenic Arabidopsis lines were generated according to the floral dip method (Clough and...
Bent, 1998), T1 lines carrying single T-DNA insertion events were identified by screening their progeny for segregation of antibiotic resistance in the appropriate ratio. Resistant T2 seedlings were transferred to soil and used in pathogen assays, in which several representative independent lines were selected. T2 individuals homozygous for T-DNA insertions (based on 100% antibiotic resistance or 100% GFP fluorescence among their T3 progeny) were further used for pathogen resistance or heavy metal tolerance assays and metabolic analysis.

For assaying tolerance to cadmium, Arabidopsis seeds were surface-sterilized and sown onto agar plates containing half-strength Murashige and Skoog medium and 50 µM cadmium chloride (CdCl₂). Plates were grown under continuous light at 22 °C. After seven days, plates were scanned and root lengths measured from scanned images using the software ImageJ. All experiments were repeated at least three times with similar results.

**Map-based cloning of PEN4**

The pen4 mutation was mapped to the bottom arm of chromosome 5 using an F2 mapping population generated from a cross between pen4 and Landsberg-erecta (Ler), according to Lukowitz et al. (2000). We narrowed down the region containing PEN4 to a genomic interval of approximately 20 kbp at the end of BAC clone MRH10. Analysis of lists of genes that co-express with either PEN1, PEN2 or PEN3 across publicly available microarray datasets (Obayashi et al., 2008) identified a gene highly correlated in expression with all three PEN genes (Fig.S2) and that also resided in the 20 kbp mapping interval. Sequencing of this gene, At5g44070, from the pen4 mutant showed that it harbored a G to A transition at nucleotide position 1,713 from the A of the translational start site of the genomic sequence. This mutation results in a predicted truncation of the AtPCS1 protein at residue 236.

**Plasmids and DNA constructs**

PCS1 fusions to GFP or RFP were constructed using Gateway technology (Invitrogen). The Arabidopsis PCS1 (AtPCS1) genomic coding sequence was amplified by PCR using BAC clone MRH10 as template DNA and recombined into donor vector pDONR/Zeo (Invitrogen, Table S1). The resulting entry vector was then recombined by a gateway LR reaction with the destination vectors pMDC43 and pMDC83 (Curtis and Grossniklaus, 2003) to produce expression clones GFP-PCS1 and PCS1-GFP, respectively. pDONR/Zeo AtPCS1 was recombined with a modified pEG106 (Gutierrez et al., 2009) containing an HA-tagged mCherry to generate RFP-PCS1. GFP fusions were transformed into a pen4 mutant
background (and selected on hygromycin 50 mg/L) and RFP-PCS1 into a pcs1pcs2 double mutant (Blum et al., 2007; selected on soil after BASTA spray). For complementation analyses, the entire PCS1 genomic coding sequence in addition to 3 kbp of promoter sequence upstream of the translational start site and 1 kbp downstream of the translational stop codon was amplified by PCR using BAC clone MRH10 as template DNA and recombined into donor vector pDONR/Zeo. The QuikChange mutagenesis kit (Stratagene) was used to introduce mutations in pDONR/Zeo PCS1WT, resulting in a change of cysteine 56 to serine (PCS1C56S) or of histidine 162 to alanine (PCS1H162A). The resulting entry vectors were then recombined with destination vector pGWB1 (conferring resistance to hygromycin) (Nakagawa et al., 2007) to generate expression clone PCS1-WT. These mutated PCS1 genomic clones were further recombinated in the binary vector pGWB1. All expression clones were introduced into Agrobacterium tumefaciens (strain GV3101), and the resulting strains were used for stable transformation of Arabidopsis according to the floral dip method.

**Generation of double mutants**

Double mutants were generated by crossing the pen4 mutant to pen2-1, pen2-3 or pen3-1 mutants (Stein et al., 2006). F2 individuals homozygous at the mutated loci were identified using the cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence (CAPS) markers described. For the CAPS marker used to identify the pen4 mutation, the pen4 sequence was PCR-amplified with forward primer 5’taagacaaaaaccttggttgg3’ and reverse primer 5’caccctctgtgatgg3’ and the resulting DNA product was cleaved using the MboI restriction enzyme.

**Microscopic observations**

*Bgh* penetration assays were carried out as described by Zimmerli et al. (2004), and stained with aniline blue according to Vogel and Somerville (2000). Successful penetrations (resulting in haustoria with extensive callose encasement) and failed penetrations (resulting in callosic papillae) were counted to determine the penetration rate (successful penetration/number of attempts). For imaging of fluorescent proteins in Arabidopsis epidermal cells, leaves from 2 to 3-week-old plants were mounted in a 0.01 mg/mL propidium iodide solution in water (to stain fungal structures). Leaves were examined between 12 and 18 hours following fungal inoculation on a spinning disc confocal microscope consisting of a Leica DMI 6000 B inverted microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) fitted with a Yokogawa CSU-10 spinning disc confocal attachment (Yokogawa Electric Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) and a Photometrics QuantEM 512SC EM-CCD camera (Photometrics, Tucson, AZ) by Zimmerli et al., 2004, and stained with aniline blue according to Vogel and Somerville (2000). Successful penetrations (resulting in haustoria with extensive callose encasement) and failed penetrations (resulting in callosic papillae) were counted to determine the penetration rate (successful penetration/number of attempts). For imaging of fluorescent proteins in Arabidopsis epidermal cells, leaves from 2 to 3-week-old plants were mounted in a 0.01 mg/mL propidium iodide solution in water (to stain fungal structures). Leaves were examined between 12 and 18 hours following fungal inoculation on a spinning disc confocal microscope consisting of a Leica DMI 6000 B inverted microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) fitted with a Yokogawa CSU-10 spinning disc confocal attachment (Yokogawa Electric Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) and a Photometrics QuantEM 512SC EM-CCD camera (Photometrics, Tucson, AZ).
AR). Samples were mounted in water and observed with a 63x water immersion objective. EGFP was excited at 488 nm, and fluorescence was collected through a 525/50 nm band-pass filter and fungal structures stained with propidium idodide at 620/60 band-pass filter (Chroma Technologies, Brattleboro, VT). RFP (mCherry) was excited at 561 nm, and fluorescence was collected through a 620/60 nm band-pass filter (Chroma Technologies, Brattleboro, VT).

Microscope control and acquisition of images and z-series were accomplished using Metamorph software (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA), and image processing was performed by using ImageJ (W. Rasband, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD) software.

**Metabolic profiling**

Analysis of phytochelatin biosynthesis and the bimane-conjugate hydrolysis assay were performed according to Blum et al. (2007). Extraction and analysis of indole glucosinolates and their derivatives were performed according to Bednarek et al. (2011) and Lu et al. (2015).

**Statistical analysis**

Statistical analysis was conducted with Graphpad Prism 8. Normality of samples was tested using D’Agostino & Pearson test (p>0.05). Normality was assumed for small size samples (n<6). ANOVA was performed coupled to a Tukey test in order to proceed to pairwise comparison between samples (confidence index, 95%). Statistical analyses between two samples were performed using the Student t-test (p-value=0.05). In the box plots the boxes indicate first and third quartile, the lines represent the median values, the whiskers indicate minimal and maximal values (excluding any outliers) and the points represent individual measurements.

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SHORT LEGENDS FOR SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Table S1. List of primers used in this study
Table S2. Mutant alleles used in this study
Fig. S1. *pen4* is allelic to *cad1*
Fig. S2. *pen4* is more susceptible to various fungal pathogens
Fig. S3: Upon pathogen attack, the functional fusion protein RFP-PCS1 translocates from the cytosol to the surface of immobilized mitochondria tagged with PEN2-GFP.
Fig. S4. PEN2 and PCS1 act in the same biochemical and immune pathways
Fig. S5. PCS1-PEN2 physical interaction assays.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. PEN4/PCS1 is important for both non-host penetration resistance and heavy metal tolerance.

(A) Aniline blue-stained leaves of 3-week-old Arabidopsis plants 24 h after inoculation with *Bgh*. Aniline blue stains callose papillae symptomatic of failed penetration attempts, and callose-containing encasements of haustorial necks formed after a successful penetration by the fungal appressorium (red circles). (B) 7-day-old Arabidopsis seedlings of the indicated genotype grown in the presence or absence of cadmium (50 μM CdCl₂, between 25-30 individual seedlings for each genotype/treatment grown on the same plate have been used for the measurement). (C) Box plots showing penetration rate of *Bgh* spores on leaves of 3-week-old Arabidopsis plants.
old Arabidopsis plants. Measurements were done 24 h post-infection on the first true leaves of 5–6 individual plants (600–800 total penetration attempts counted per genotype). Whiskers represent Min-Max values. Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following one-way ANOVA. There was a significant genotype effect (p<0.0001).

(D) Root length of 7-day-old seedlings grown in the presence or absence of cadmium (50 µM CdCl₂, between 25-30 individual seedlings for each genotype/treatment grown on the same plate have been used for the measurement). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following two-way ANOVA. There were significant main effects for Cd treatment and genotype (p<0.001) and a significant interaction effect (p<0.001).

(E) Domain organization of PCS1 showing the position of several mutant alleles (above) and residues important for phytochelatin synthesis (below in red).

Figure 2. Pathogen attack triggers translocation of cytoplasmic PCS1 and mitochondrial colocalization with PEN2 at fungal penetration sites.

3-week-old Arabidopsis seedlings were inoculated with the non-adapted powdery mildew Blumeria graminis sp. hordei (Bgh). The epidermis of the first true leaves was visualized by confocal laser scanning microscopy 12–16 h after Bgh inoculation. The fungal structures are stained with propidium iodide except in GFP/RFP localization experiments. All pictures represent averaged Z-projection of stacks of 30–50 sections, except in (C) where a single median section is shown. Localization at the attempted penetration site of GFP-PCS1 (A) or PCS1-GFP (B) in a pen4 mutant leaf epidermal cell. (C) Cytosolic localization of soluble GFP with RFP-PCS1 in non-infected epidermal cells. (D) Translocation of RFP-PCS1 but not of soluble GFP into aggregates at the penetration site. (E) Colocalization of RFP-PCS1 with mitochondria-associated PEN2-GFP at the penetration site. (F) Localization of GFP-PCS1 in a pen2 mutant background after Bgh infection. Scale bar is either 10 µm (A-C) or 5 µm (D-F).

Figure 3: Phytochelatin synthesis is required for heavy metal tolerance but not for non-host resistance.

(A, D) Box plots showing penetration rate of Bgh spores on leaves of 3-week-old Arabidopsis plants. Measurements were done 24 h post-infection on the first true leaves of 5–9 individual plants (600–800 total penetration attempt counted per genotype). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following one-way ANOVA. There
was a significant genotype effect in both Fig3A and Fig3D (p<0.0001). (B, E) Root length of 7-day-old seedlings grown in the presence or absence of cadmium (50 µM CdCl$_2$, between 25-30 individual seedlings for each genotype/treatment grown on the same plate have been used for the measurement). Different letters show statistical differences within treatment groups according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following two-way ANOVA. For both Fig3B and Fig3E there were significant main effects for Cd treatment and genotype (p<0.001), and a significant interaction effect (p<0.001). (C-F) Phytochelatin accumulation in 4-day-old seedlings transferred for two days on 50 µM CdCl$_2$. Different letters show statistical differences within PC length groups according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following two-way ANOVA. For both Fig3C and Fig3F, there were significant main effects for the genotype and the PC length factor (p<0.001), and a significant interaction effect (p<0.001).

**Figure 4. PCS1 is involved in indole glucosinolate metabolism.** (A-D) Box plots showing accumulation of selected secondary metabolites, indicated as nmol/g of fresh tissue weight (FW), in Arabidopsis genotypes 16 hours after inoculation with *Bgh* conidiospores (gray bars). (n=6). (A) Indol-3-ylmethylglucosinolate (I3G), (B) 4-methoxyindol-3-ylmethylglucosinolate (4MI3G), (C) Indol-3-ylmethylamine (I3A) (D) Raphanusamic acid (RA). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following two-way ANOVA. We observed significant main effects for *Bgh* inoculation and genotype (p<0.0001), and a significant interaction effect (p<0.0001) for 4MI3G, I3A and RA. In the case of I3G only significant main effects for *Bgh* inoculation and genotype (p<0.0001), but no interaction effect, were observed. (E) EC-bimane content in seedlings infiltrated with ECG-bimane measured by HPLC (n=3). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following one-way ANOVA. There was a significant genotype effect (p<0.0001).

**Figure 5. Function of PCS1 in pathogen-triggered indole glucosinolate metabolism.** As indicated by a deficiency in indole glucosinolate hydrolysis products and hyper-accumulation of 4-methoxy-indol-3-ylmethyl glucosinolate in *pcs1* mutant plants, PCS1 acts downstream of intact glucosinolates. PCS1 might contribute to the processing of the isothiocyanate-glutathione adduct, modulate the activity of other enzymes of the pathway or control expression of the corresponding genes.
**Figure S1. pen4 is allelic to cad1/pcs1.**
Box plots showing penetration rate of Bgh sporelings on leaves of 3-week-old Arabidopsis plants. Measurements were carried out 24 h post Bgh spore inoculation on the first true leaves of 8 individual plants (>800 total penetrations attempt counted per genotype). *** p<0.001; * p<0.05 according to Student’s t-test.

**Figure S2. pen4 is more susceptible to various fungal pathogens**
Quantification of infection by Plectosphaerella cucumerina (A) or Botrytis cinerea (B, 7dpi) and the biotrophic mildew pathogen Golovinomyces cichoracearum (C, 7dpi). (A) Percentage of susceptible plants of the indicated genotypes at different days after inoculation (dpi) with $4 \times 10^6$ P. cucumerina spores/ml. Data represent the average (±SE, n>10) from one of three independent experiments that gave similar results. (B) Percentage of plant fresh weight (FW) reduction of the indicated genotypes at seven days after inoculation with $5 \times 10^4$ B. cinerea spores/ml. Data represent the average (±SE, n>10) of three independent experiments. (C) Pictures of first true leaves of 3 week-old Arabidopsis rosette inoculated with Golovinomyces cichoracearum.

**Figure. S3: Upon pathogen attack, the functional fusion protein RFP-PCS1 translocates from the cytosol to the surface of immobilized mitochondria tagged with PEN2-GFP.**
(A-B) RFP-PCS1 fusion complements pcs1pcs2 mutant phenotypes. (A) Penetration rate of Blumeria graminis on Arabidopsis thaliana leaf epidermal cells. Box plots showing penetration rate of Bgh spores on leaves of 3-week-old Arabidopsis plants. Measurements were done 24 h post-infection on the first true leaves of 5 individual plants (600–800 total penetration attempts counted per genotype). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following one-way ANOVA. There was a significant genotype effect (p<0.0001). (B) 7-day-old Arabidopsis seedlings of the indicated genotype grown in the presence or absence of cadmium (50 µM CdCl₂, between 25-30 individual seedlings for each genotype/treatment grown on the same plate have been used for the measurement). Different letters show statistical differences within treatment groups according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following two-way ANOVA. There was a significant main effect for Cd treatment and for the genotype factor (p<0.001), and a significant interaction effect (p<0.001). (C-E) Confocal images show unchallenged (C) and challenged (D, E) leaf epidermal cells of stable double transgenic plants transformed with P_pen2::PEN2-GFP and...
\textbf{Figure S4. PEN2 and PCS1 act in the same biochemical and immune pathways}

(A) Accumulation of 4-O-\(\beta\)-D-glucosyl-indol-3-yl formamide, indicated as nmol/g of fresh tissue weight (FW), in different Arabidopsis genotypes 16 hours after inoculation with \textit{Bgh} conidiospores. (n=9). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following two-way ANOVA. We observed significant main effects for \textit{Bgh} inoculation and genotype (p<0.0001), and a significant interaction effect (p<0.0001). (B) penetration rate of \textit{Blumeria graminis} on \textit{Arabidopsis thaliana} leaf epidermal cells. Box plots showing penetration rate of \textit{Bgh} spores on leaves of 3 week-old Arabidopsis plants. Measurements were done 24 h post-infection on the first true leaves of 6 individual plants (600–800 total penetration attempts counted per genotype). Different letters show statistical differences according to Tukey’s post-hoc test following one-way ANOVA. There was a significant genotype effect (p<0.0001).

\textbf{Figure. S5. PCS1-PEN2 physical interaction assays.}

(A) Split-ubiquitin Y2H assays suggest no direct interaction of PEN2 and PCS1. Only yeast cells containing the positive control KAT1 grow on selective medium (-Ade, -His). (B) Co-immunoprecipitation experiments suggest that PEN2 and PCS1 do not interact with each other. 3-week-old plants expressing PEN2-GFP and 3xHA-RFP-PCS1 were infected (Inf) or not (UI). Total leaf protein extracts were subjected to a PEN2-immunoprecipitation (anti-GFP agarose beads) and purified fractions (B: bound, UB: unbound) were tested by western blotting against PEN2 (anti-GFP) and PCS1 (anti-HA).
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