

1                    ***Arabidopsis* Topless-related 1 mitigates physiological damage**  
2                    **and growth penalties of induced immunity**

3 Thomas Griebel<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Dmitry Lapin<sup>1,3\*</sup>, Federica Locci<sup>1</sup>, Barbara Kracher<sup>1,a</sup>, Jaqueline  
4 Bautor<sup>1</sup>, Jingde Qiu<sup>1,b</sup>, Lorenzo Concia<sup>4</sup>, Moussa Benhamed<sup>4</sup>, Jane E. Parker<sup>1,5</sup>

5 1 - Department of Plant-Microbe Interactions, Max Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research, Cologne,  
6 Germany

7 2 - Dahlem Centre of Plant Sciences, Plant Physiology, Freie Universität Berlin, Berlin, Germany

8 3 - Plant-Microbe Interactions, Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Utrecht University

9 4 - Institute of Plant Sciences Paris-Saclay (IPS2), CNRS, INRA, University Paris-Sud, University of Evry,  
10 University Paris-Diderot, Sorbonne Paris-Cite, University of Paris- Saclay, Batiment, Orsay, France

11 5 - Cluster of Excellence on Plant Sciences (CEPLAS), Düsseldorf 40225, Germany

12 <sup>a</sup> Present address: Evotec (München) GmbH, Munich, Germany

13 <sup>b</sup> Present address: Department of Botany and Plant Sciences, University of California-Riverside, Riverside, CA  
14 92521, USA

15 \* - co-first authors

16

17 Correspondence to Jane E. Parker ([parker@mpipz.mpg.de](mailto:parker@mpipz.mpg.de))

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20 **Summary**

21 Transcriptional corepressors of the Topless family are important regulators of plant  
22 hormone and immunity signaling. The lack of a genome-wide profile of their chromatin  
23 associations limits understanding of transcriptional regulation in plant immune  
24 responses. Chromatin immunoprecipitation with sequencing (ChIP-seq) was  
25 performed on GFP-tagged Topless-related 1 (TPR1) expressed in *Arabidopsis thaliana*  
26 lines with and without constitutive immunity dependent on *Enhanced Disease*  
27 *Susceptibility 1* (*EDS1*). RNA-seq profiling of pathogen-infected *tpl/tpr* mutants and  
28 assessments of growth and physiological parameters were employed to determine  
29 TPL/TPR roles in transcriptional immunity and defense homeostasis. TPR1 bound to  
30 promoter regions of ~1,400 genes and ~10% of the detected binding required *EDS1*  
31 immunity signaling. A *tpr1 tpl tpr4 (t3)* mutant displayed mildly enhanced defense-  
32 related transcriptional reprogramming upon bacterial infection but not increased  
33 bacterial resistance. Bacteria or pep1 phytoytokine-challenged *t3* plants exhibited,  
34 respectively, photosystem II dysfunction and exacerbated root growth inhibition.  
35 Transgenic expression of *TPR1* restored the *t3* physiological defects. We propose that  
36 TPR1 and TPL-family proteins function in *Arabidopsis* to reduce detrimental effects  
37 associated with activated transcriptional immunity.

38

## 39 Introduction

40 Plant disease resistance to pathogenic microbes is mediated by cell-surface and  
41 intracellular immune receptors (Cui *et al.*, 2015; Jones *et al.*, 2016; Albert *et al.*, 2020).  
42 Extracellular leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domain receptors recognize pathogen-  
43 associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) or host-secreted phyto cytokine peptides to  
44 confer pattern-triggered immunity (PTI) (Albert *et al.*, 2020). Intracellular nucleotide-  
45 binding domain/LRR (NLR) immune receptors intercept pathogen virulence factors  
46 (called effectors) after their delivery to host cells to produce effector-triggered immunity  
47 (ETI). These two receptor systems cooperate to provide robust resistance, often  
48 associated with localized host cell death (Ngou *et al.*, 2021; Yuan *et al.*, 2021).  
49 All tested members of intracellular NLRs with N-terminal Toll and Interleukin-1 receptor  
50 domains (referred to as TIR-NLRs or TNLs) and some cell membrane resident  
51 receptor-like proteins (LRR-RP) signal via the nucleo-cytoplasmic immunity regulator  
52 Enhanced Disease Susceptibility 1 (EDS1, (Fradin *et al.*, 2011; Lapin *et al.*, 2020; Pruitt  
53 *et al.*, 2020; Dongus & Parker, 2021)). EDS1 forms exclusive, functional heterodimers  
54 with its sequence-related partners Phytoalexin Deficient 4 (PAD4) and Senescence-  
55 associated Gene 101 (SAG101, (Wagner *et al.*, 2013)). The EDS1 heterodimers  
56 promote timely transcriptional upregulation of defenses in *Arabidopsis thaliana*  
57 (hereafter *Arabidopsis*) which is necessary for the NLR-mediated bacterial resistance  
58 (Cui *et al.*, 2018; Mine *et al.*, 2018; Bhandari *et al.*, 2019).  
59 In *Arabidopsis*, WRKY family transcription factors (TFs) (Tsuda & Somssich, 2015;  
60 Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2017; Zavaliev *et al.*, 2020), Systemic Acquired Resistance Deficient  
61 1 (SARD1) and its homolog Calmodulin-Binding Protein 60-like g (CBP60g) (Sun *et al.*  
62 *et al.*, 2015; Ding *et al.*, 2020) have prominent roles in the early transcriptional  
63 mobilization of defenses. As part of a network with WRKY TFs, CBP60g and SARD1  
64 help to boost isochlorogenic acid synthase 1 (ICS1) biosynthesis and signaling of the

65 defense hormone salicylic acid (SA) in response to pathogen attack (Zhang *et al.*,  
66 2010; Zhou *et al.*, 2018). These TFs are further transcriptionally induced salicylic acid  
67 (SA) (Hickman *et al.*, 2019). A Myelocytomatosis (MYC) TF, MYC2, controls signaling  
68 by the defense hormone jasmonic acid (JA, (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2004; Zander *et al.*, 2020))  
69 that, together with SA, contributes to PTI and ETI (Tsuda *et al.*, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2016;  
70 Mine *et al.*, 2018). The SA- and JA-triggered signaling branches can antagonize each  
71 other, and bacteria employ effectors and coronatine, a structural mimic of JA, to  
72 manipulate the hormonal crosstalk (Zheng *et al.*, 2012; Yang *et al.*, 2017). Coronatine-  
73 mediated hijacking of JA pathways to dampen SA defense is blocked in *Arabidopsis*  
74 ETI mediated by the TNL pair Resistant to *Ralstonia solanacearum* 1 (RRS1) and  
75 Resistant to *Pseudomonas syringae* 4 (RPS4) (Sohn *et al.*, 2014; Cui *et al.*, 2018;  
76 Bhandari *et al.*, 2019). In TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> ETI, EDS1 enables a timely boost of the SA-  
77 regulated transcription and suppression of the JA/MYC2-dependent gene expression  
78 to counter bacterial growth (Cui *et al.*, 2018; Bhandari *et al.*, 2019).

79 Activated defenses can have detrimental effects on plant physiology and growth if they  
80 are prolonged or constitutive (Todesco *et al.*, 2010; Ariga *et al.*, 2017; Caarls *et al.*,  
81 2017; van Butselaar & Van den Ackerveken, 2020; Bruessow *et al.*, 2021). DNA  
82 methylation and polycomb-dependent H3K27me3 marks, which deplete during plant  
83 defense reactions (Downen *et al.*, 2012; Yu *et al.*, 2013; Dvořák Tomašíková *et al.*,  
84 2021), help to limit *NLR* gene expression and growth penalties in uninfected plants  
85 (Deng *et al.*, 2017; Zervudacki *et al.*, 2018; Huang *et al.*, 2021). However, the  
86 processes of transcriptional restriction of potentially dangerous induced immunity  
87 cascades after pathogen detection are still poorly understood.

88 Transcriptional corepressors form an additional layer of gene expression control in  
89 eukaryotes. Plant Topless (TPL) and Topless-related (TPR) corepressors resemble  
90 Groucho/Tup1 transcriptional corepressors and carry a WD40 repeat C-terminal region

91 and several N-terminal domains (Martin-Arevalillo *et al.*, 2017; Plant *et al.*, 2021). Via  
92 the N-terminal domains, TPL/TPRs interact with ethylene response factor (ERF) -  
93 amphiphilic repression (EAR) motifs present in multiple TFs (Szemenyei *et al.*, 2008;  
94 Causier *et al.*, 2012) and inhibitors of hormone signaling (Pauwels *et al.*, 2010; Ke *et*  
95 *al.*, 2015; Ma *et al.*, 2017; Martin-Arevalillo *et al.*, 2017; Kuhn *et al.*, 2020). Interactions  
96 with EAR motifs enable recruitment of TPL/TPRs into oligomers and complexes with  
97 histones, potentially reducing access of TFs to DNA (Ma *et al.*, 2017; Martin-Arevalillo  
98 *et al.*, 2017). The CRA N-terminal domain in *Arabidopsis* TPL further contributes to an  
99 oligomerization-independent mode of corepression, likely by preventing the  
100 engagement of mediator subunits into active transcription complexes (Leydon *et al.*,  
101 2021). Furthermore, TPL/TPRs interact with histone deacetylases, providing a  
102 mechanism for the repression of gene expression via interfering with a transcription-  
103 permissive chromatin state (Long *et al.*, 2006; Zhu *et al.*, 2010; Leng *et al.*, 2020).  
104 Thus, several molecular mechanisms appear to assist TPL/TPRs corepressor activity.  
105 TPL/TPRs were implicated in the regulation of plant immunity. First, oomycete and  
106 fungal effectors target TPL/TPRs to promote host susceptibility (Harvey *et al.*, 2020;  
107 Darino *et al.*, 2021). Second, mutating *TPL*, *TPR1* and *TPR4* in *Arabidopsis* or  
108 silencing of *TPR1* in *Nicotiana benthamiana* compromised TNL receptor signaling and  
109 an flg22 PAMP-triggered reactive oxygen species (ROS) burst (Zhu *et al.*, 2010; Zhang  
110 *et al.*, 2019; Navarrete *et al.*, 2021). By contrast, *Arabidopsis* *TPR2* and *TPR3* were  
111 identified as negative regulators of TNL Suppressor of Non-expressor of  
112 Pathogenesis-related 1 (NPR1) constitutive 1 (SNC1)-conditioned autoimmunity  
113 (Garner *et al.*, 2021). *Arabidopsis* *TPR1* was found to associate with promoters of  
114 genes that are downregulated in TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> ETI (Bartsch *et al.*, 2006; Zhu *et al.*,  
115 2010) and to repress expression of cyclic nucleotide-gated channel (CNGC) genes  
116 also known as *Defense No Death 1* and *2* (*DND1/CNGC2* and *DND2/CNGC4*) (Zhu *et*

117 *al.*, 2010; Niu *et al.*, 2019). Since these *dnd* mutants show enhanced bacterial  
118 resistance (Clough *et al.*, 2000; Jurkowski *et al.*, 2004), a picture emerged in which  
119 TPR1 promotes TNL ETI by limiting expression of negative regulators of defense.  
120 However, the lack of a genome-wide profile of TPL/TPR chromatin associations leaves  
121 the functions of these corepressors in defense signaling unclear.  
122 Here, using chromatin immunoprecipitation with sequencing (ChIP-seq), we examined  
123 genome-wide *Arabidopsis* TPR1-chromatin associations that are conditional on or  
124 independent of the *EDS1*-controlled immunity in *pTPR1:TPR1-GFP* expressing plant  
125 lines. These data, combined with RNA expression profiles and physiological  
126 phenotypes of wild type and *tpr1 tpl tpr4 (t3)* mutant plants during bacterial infection,  
127 suggest that the TPL family transcriptional corepressors mitigate deleterious effects of  
128 induced immunity on plant health.

129

## 130 **Materials and Methods**

131 Plant materials and growth conditions

132 *Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh. accession Col-0 *tpr1* single mutant, *tpr1 tpl tpr4 (t3)*  
133 triple mutant, *pTPR1:TPR1-GFP* Col-0 (*TPR1* Col), and *pTPR1:TPR1-HA* Col-0 stable  
134 transgenic lines were described previously (Zhu *et al.*, 2010). *pTPR1:TPR1-GFP eds1-*  
135 *2 (TPR1 eds1)* and *pTPR1:TPR1-GFP sid2-1 (TPR1 sid2)* lines were generated by  
136 crossing *TPR1* Col (Zhu *et al.*, 2010) with Col-0 *eds1-2* (Bartsch *et al.*, 2006) and Col-  
137 0 *sid2-1* (Wildermuth *et al.*, 2001), respectively. Complementation *tpr1 tpl tpr4*  
138 *pTPR1:TPR1-GFP* lines were generated by floral dipping of *t3* with *Agrobacteria*  
139 GV3101 pMP90 pSoup carrying *pCAMBIA1305-TPR1-GFP* (Zhu *et al.*, 2010). The  
140 *coi1-41* mutant is described in (Cui *et al.*, 2018). A *myc2 myc3 myc4 sid2* mutant was  
141 obtained by crossing a *myc2 (jin2-1) myc3* (GK445B11) *myc4* (GK491E10) triple  
142 mutant (Fernández-Calvo *et al.*, 2011) with *sid2-1. eds1-2* (Bartsch *et al.*, 2006) was

143 mainly used as *eds1* throughout the study, the *eds1-12* line (Ordon *et al.*, 2017) was  
144 used in root growth inhibition and MAPK assays. Oligonucleotides for genotyping are  
145 shown in Table S1. For bacterial infection assays, plants were grown under a 10 h light  
146 period (~100  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\text{sec}$ ) and 22°C day/20°C night temperature regime with 60%  
147 relative humidity. For transformation and selection of combinatorial mutants, plants  
148 were grown under 22 h light (~100  $\mu\text{mol}/(\text{m}^2\text{sec})$ ) and a 22°C day/20°C night  
149 temperature regime with 60% relative humidity.

150

#### 151 Immunoblot analyses

152 For immunoblotting of TPR1-GFP, total protein extracts were prepared by incubating  
153 liquid nitrogen-ground samples (~50 mg) in 2x Laemmli loading buffer (0.5 w/v) for 10  
154 min at 95°C. Samples were centrifuged 1 min at 10,000 x g to remove cell debris prior  
155 gel loading. Proteins were separated by 10% (v/w) SDS-PAGE (1610156, Bio-Rad)  
156 and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (0600001, GE Healthcare Life Sciences).  
157  $\alpha$ -GFP antibodies (no. 2956, Cell Signaling Technology, or no. 11814460001, Roche)  
158 in combination with HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit or anti-mouse secondary antibodies  
159 (A9044 or A6154, Sigma-Aldrich) were used. In MAPK3/6 phosphorylation assays,  
160 seedlings were treated for 15 and 180 min with 200 nM pep1 or milliQ water (mQ,  
161 mock) as a negative control. Proteins were extracted with a buffer containing 50 mM  
162 Tris pH 7.5, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM NaF, 2 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1  
163 mM sodium molybdate, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 1 mM AEBSF, 0.1% Tween-20, 1 mM  
164 dithiothreitol, 1x protease inhibitor cocktail (11836170001, Roche) and 1x phosphatase  
165 inhibitor cocktail (4906845001, PhosStop). Extracts were resolved on 8% (v/w) SDS-  
166 PAGE (1610156, Bio-Rad) and transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane (0600001,  
167 GE Healthcare Life Sciences). Primary antibody against phospho-p44/42 MAP kinase  
168 (#9101, Cell Signaling Technologies) with HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit as secondary

169 antibody were used (A6154, Sigma-Aldrich). Signal detection was performed using  
170 Clarity and Clarity Max luminescence assays (1705061 and 1705062, Bio-Rad). For  
171 loading control, membranes were stained with Ponceau S (09276-6X1EA-F, Sigma-  
172 Aldrich).

173

#### 174 Salicylic acid quantitation

175 Quantification of free SA was done as described (Straus *et al.*, 2010) with a  
176 chloroform/methanol/water extraction containing SA-d<sub>4</sub> (CS04-482\_248, Campro  
177 Scientific) as internal standard. After phase extraction, drying of polar phase, dissolving  
178 in sodium acetate (pH 5.0), uptake in ethyl acetate/hexane (3:1), and derivatization, 1  
179  $\mu$ l sample was injected into a gas chromatograph coupled to a mass spectrometer (GC-  
180 MS; Agilent) on a HP-5MS column (Agilent). Masses of SA-d<sub>4</sub> ( $m/z$  271) and SA ( $m/z$   
181 267) were detected by selected ion monitoring and quantified using the Chemstation  
182 software (Agilent).

183

#### 184 Chlorophyll a fluorescence and chlorophyll quantification

185 Maximum quantum efficiency of PS-II ( $F_v / F_M$ ) and the effective efficiency ( $\phi$ PSII) in  
186 Col, *tpr1*, *t3*, and *eds1* leaves were determined after syringe-infiltration of *Pst* (OD<sub>600</sub>=  
187 0.005) by chlorophyll a fluorescence analysis using a MINI-PAM fluorimeter (Walz,  
188 Effeltrich, Germany). Measurements of 3-4 leaves from independent plants were  
189 performed at each timepoint in a randomized and rotating order between 1 and 3 pm  
190 on days 0 - 4 after inoculation (10 am-11 am). Mock (10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>)-infiltrated leaves  
191 from different plants were measured as controls. To determine the maximum quantum  
192 yield ( $F_v / F_M = (F_M - F_0) / F_M$ ) (Baker, 2008), plants were first dark-acclimated for 20 min.  
193 The operating PSII efficiency of photosystem II ( $\phi$ PSII =  $(F_M' - F) / F_M'$ ) (Baker, 2008) was  
194 determined with 12 saturating light flashes ( $\sim 1300 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ ) at intervals of

195 20 s and an actinic light intensity of  $\sim 216 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Data from three  
196 independent experiments were combined, statistically analyzed using ANOVA and  
197 Tukey's HSD test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) and plotted using the 'ggline' function in the 'ggpubr' R  
198 package. Total leaf chlorophyll (a+b) content in the indicated genotypes was  
199 determined at 3 d after syringe infiltration with *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato*  
200 DC3000 bacteria ( $\text{OD}_{600} = 0.005$ ) or mock (10 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ ) treatment. The chlorophyll  
201 content in each sample was measured and calculated as a mean of three leaf discs  
202 (diameter 8 mm) and analyzed according to (Porra *et al.*, 1989). Three independent  
203 experiments were performed and pooled for the statistical analysis keeping experiment  
204 as a factor in the ANOVA model (Tukey's HSD  $\alpha = 0.05$ ;  $n = 15$ ).

205

#### 206 Root growth inhibition assay

207 Root growth inhibition assays with pep1 and flg22 were performed as described  
208 (Igarashi *et al.*, 2012) with adjustments. Seeds were surface-sterilized and transferred  
209 into 48-well plates (one seed per well). Each well was supplied with 200  $\mu\text{l}$  of 0.5x MS  
210 (including vitamins and MES, pH 5.4; M0255, Duchefa Biochemie) and 0.5% (w/v)  
211 sucrose. The flg22 and pep1 peptides (GenScript; in mQ water) were administered at  
212 final concentrations of 100 nM and 200 nM, respectively. Sterile mQ was added as a  
213 mock control. Root lengths were measured at 10 days using ImageJ software. Root  
214 growth inhibition (RGI) index was quantified as a ratio of root length of flg22 or pep1  
215 treatment to mean of the mock-treated plants. Data from independent experiments  
216 were combined, statistically analyzed using ANOVA (experiment as a factor) and  
217 Tukey's HSD test.

218



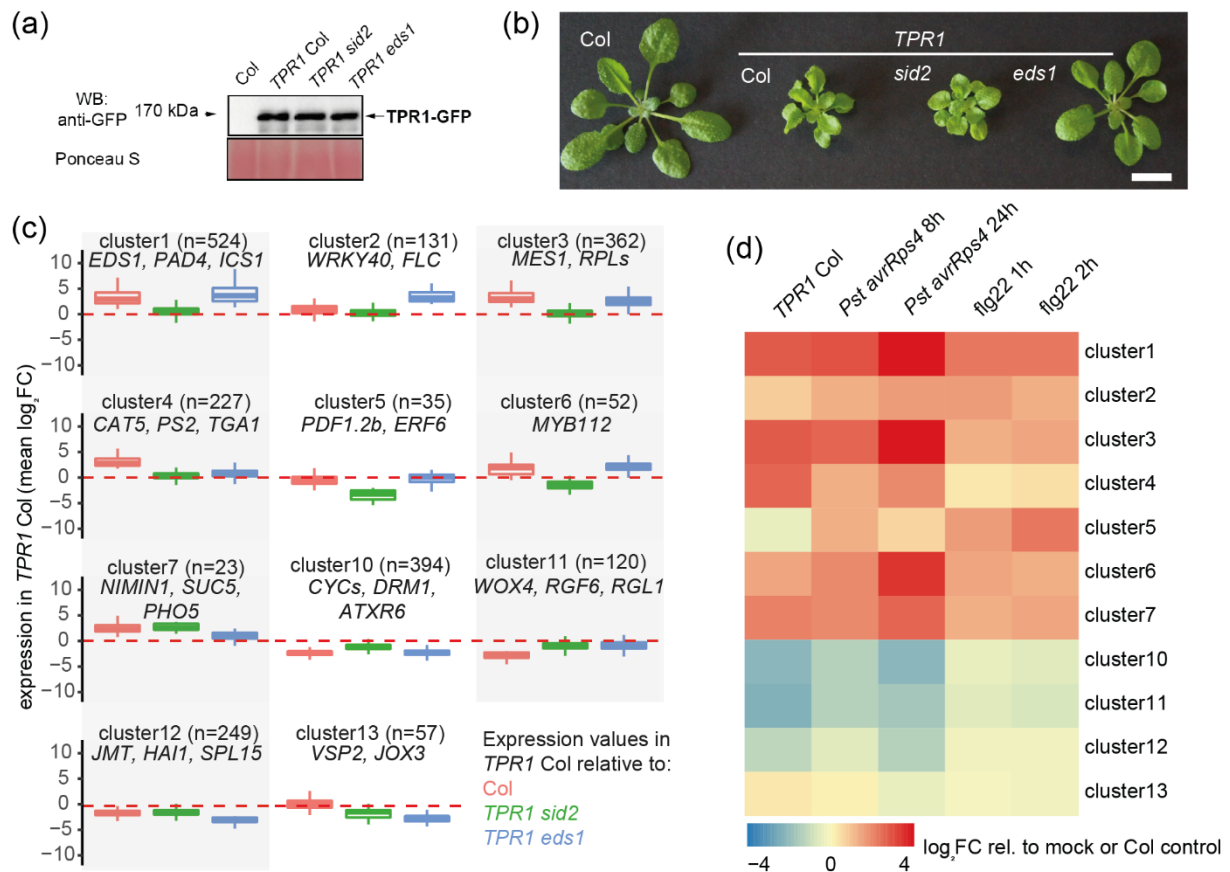
219 Details on the TPR1-GFP ChIP- and RNA-seq procedures and data analysis as well  
220 as bacterial growth and electrolyte leakage assays are in Supporting information  
221 Methods S1.

222

## 223 **Results**

### 224 ***Arabidopsis* TPR1 Col displays constitutive transcriptional immunity**

225 To investigate the role of TPR1 in plant immunity, we used an *Arabidopsis* Col-0 line  
226 expressing TPR1-GFP under control of the 2 kb upstream sequence (*pTPR1:TPR1-*  
227 *GFP*; hereafter *TPR1* Col) and displaying *EDS1*- and TNL *SNC1*-dependent  
228 constitutive immunity and SA accumulation (Zhu *et al.*, 2010). We introduced a null  
229 *eds1* (*eds1-2*) or *ics1* (*sid2-1*) mutation into *TPR1* Col to test TPR1-GFP functions  
230 without *EDS1*- or *ICS1*/SA-dependent defenses (Wildermuth *et al.*, 2001; Bartsch *et*  
231 *al.*, 2006). While TPR1-GFP accumulation was similar in all three lines (Fig. 1a),  
232 stunting of 5-6-week-old *TPR1* Col plants was reduced in *TPR1 eds1* but not in *TPR1*  
233 *sid2* ((Zhu *et al.*, 2010); Fig. 1b, S1a). Also, enhanced resistance of *TPR1* Col to  
234 virulent *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 (*Pst*) bacteria (Zhu *et al.*, 2010)  
235 was abolished in *TPR1 eds1* and partially compromised in *TPR1 sid2* plants ((Zhu *et*  
236 *al.*, 2010), Fig. S1b). Both *TPR1 eds1* and *TPR1 sid2* plants accumulated low SA  
237 compared to *TPR1* Col (Fig. S1c). These results suggest that constitutive defense in  
238 *TPR1* Col is mediated primarily by an SA-independent branch of *EDS1* signaling,  
239 consistent with the *TPR1* Col autoimmunity being dependent on TNL *SNC1* (Zhu *et al.*,  
240 2010) promoting SA-independent signaling (Zhang *et al.*, 2003; Zhu *et al.*, 2010).



241

**Fig. 1 Defense-related *EDS1*-dependent transcriptional reprogramming in *TPR1 Col* line.**

**(a)** TPR1-GFP steady-state accumulation in 5-6-week-old *Arabidopsis Col-0* (Col), *sid2* and *eds1* mutant plants expressing *pTPR1:TPR1-GFP* (*TPR1 Col*, *TPR1 sid2*, *TPR1 eds1*). The transgenic lines show similar levels of TPR1-GFP protein. Col was used as a negative control. Ponceau S staining indicates similar loading. The experiment was repeated three times with similar results. **(b)** Dwarfism in *TPR1 Col* depends on functional *EDS1*. Col is shown on the left for comparison. Scale bar = 1 cm. **(c)** Boxplot representation of log<sub>2</sub>-transformed relative expression values (fold change relative to *TPR1 Col*) for clusters of genes differentially expressed in Col, *TPR1 eds1* and *TPR1 sid2*. Positive values reflect that the gene is stronger expressed in *TPR1 Col* relative to Col (orange), *TPR1 sid2* (green) or *TPR1 eds1* (blue). Size of the cluster is given in parentheses. Names of selected genes from the clusters are in italics. **(d)** Relative mean expression for the gene clusters from (c) in *Arabidopsis Col* plants treated with *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 *avrRps4* or flg22 at the indicated time points. The values are mean log<sub>2</sub>-transformed fold change expression values relative to mock or untreated Col plants (Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2017; Bhandari *et al.*, 2019).

242

243

244 The RNA-seq analysis of 5-6-week-old *TPR1 Col*, *TPR1 sid2*, *TPR1 eds1* and wild  
245 type Col plants showed that *EDS1* controlled 61% genes that are differentially  
246 expressed between *TRP1 Col* and Col (Table S2; 942/1549,  $|\log_2FC| \geq 2$ ,  $FDR \leq 0.05$ ;  
247 Fig. S1d). By contrast, the *sid2* mutation affected expression of only 10% differentially  
248 expressed genes (DEGs) (Table S2; 153/1549,  $|\log_2FC| \geq 2$ ,  $FDR \leq 0.05$ ). The 2,194  
249 DEG between Col, *TPR1 Col*, *TPR1 sid2* and *TPR1 eds1* fell into 13 groups in  
250 hierarchical clustering of  $\log_2$ -transformed gene expression changes (Fig. 1c, Table  
251 S3). Cluster #1 with 524 genes induced in a *TPR1/EDS1*-dependent manner was  
252 strongly enriched for gene ontology (GO) terms linked to *EDS1*- and SA-dependent  
253 immune responses (Fig. 1c, Table S4). By contrast, cluster #10 with 394 genes  
254 suppressed in *TPR1 Col* (Figure 1c) was enriched for genes linked to the microtubule-  
255 based dynamics and cell cycle regulation (Table S4). These data show that *TPR1*-GFP  
256 constitutive immunity involves *EDS1*-dependent transcriptional reprogramming.

257 We tested whether the *TPR1 Col* transcriptome aligns with gene expression changes  
258 in PTI and ETI. For this, we cross-referenced DEGs in *TPR1 Col* vs Col (Table S2)  
259 with RNA-seq datasets for (i) Col inoculated with *Pst avrRps4* triggering an ETI<sup>RPS1-</sup>  
260 <sup>RPS4</sup> (Bhandari *et al.*, 2019), and (ii) Col treated with the bacterial PAMP flg22 peptide  
261 (Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2017) (Fig. 1d, S1e). Genes in clusters 1, 3, 4, 6 and 7 that were  
262 upregulated in *TPR1 Col* vs Col (Fig. 1c) were also induced by *Pst avrRps4* or flg22  
263 treatments (Fig. 1d, S1e). Similarly, repressed clusters in *TPR1 Col* (#10, #11, Fig. 1c)  
264 were downregulated by these treatments (Fig. 1d, S1e). We concluded that the *TPR1*  
265 Col line displays constitutive transcriptional immunity and that *TPR1 Col* and *TPR1*  
266 *eds1* are suitable backgrounds to measure immunity-dependent and independent  
267 *TPR1*-chromatin associations.

268

269

270 **TPR1 binds to promoters of genes upregulated in immunity activated tissues**

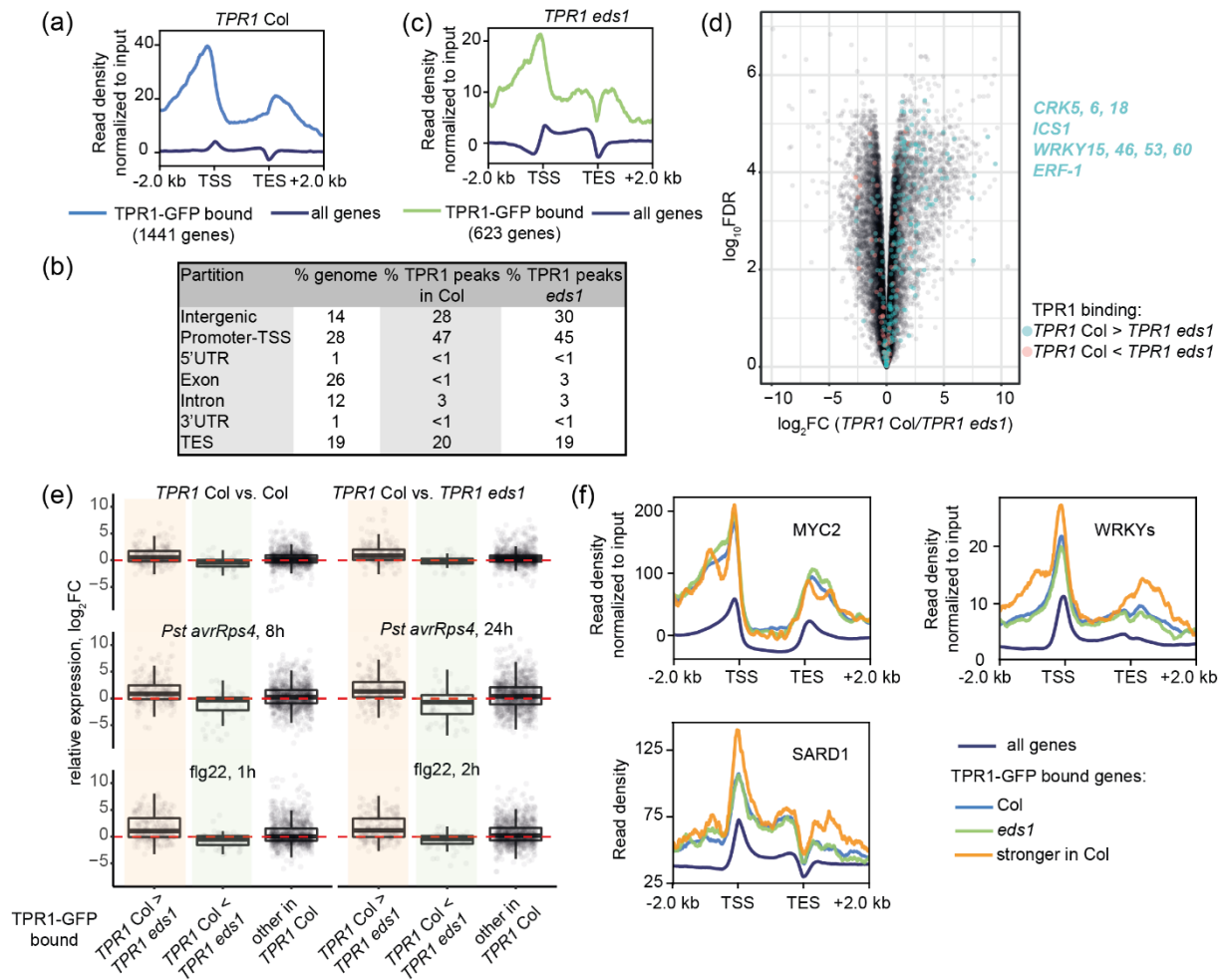
271 We performed a ChIP-seq analysis on leaves of 5-6-week-old *TPR1* Col and *TPR1*  
272 *eds1* plants (Fig. 2; Methods S1) using an input control for peak calling. A line  
273 expressing *pTPR1:TPR1-HA* in Col showing constitutive immunity similarly to *TPR1*  
274 Col (Zhu *et al.*, 2010) was included as an additional control for peak calling. In *TPR1*  
275 Col, 1,531 TPR1-GFP chromatin binding sites corresponded to 1,441 genes (Table  
276 S5). Most peaks (723/1531, 47%) mapped to 1 kb upstream gene sequences as  
277 indicated by a metaplot analysis (Table S5, Fig. 2a,b) and consistent with the role of  
278 TPR1 as a transcriptional corepressor acting at promoter regions (Niu *et al.*, 2019).  
279 TPR1-bound genes showed enrichment of GO terms linked to defense and SA  
280 signaling as well as developmental processes (Table S6,  $FDR \leq 0.05$ ; Fig. S2-4), as  
281 expected from the *TPR1* Col enhanced defense and perturbed growth phenotypes  
282 (Fig. 1b,c).

283 In *TPR1 eds1* which lacks constitutive immunity (Fig. 1b,c, S1), we detected 614 TPR1-  
284 GFP binding sites corresponding to 623 genes (Table S7; Fig. 2c). While the reduced  
285 number of peaks in *TPR1 eds1* did not affect TPR1 distribution across genomic  
286 fractions relative to *TPR1* Col (Fig. 2b,c, Table S7), the proportion of defense-related  
287 GO terms enriched among TPR1-GFP bound genes plummeted in *TPR1 eds1* relative  
288 to *TPR1* Col (Table S8). Hence, the TPR1-chromatin association with defense-related  
289 genes appears to be enhanced in immune-activated shoot tissues. To assess this  
290 further, we compared TPR1-chromatin associations in *TPR1* Col and *TPR1 eds1* using  
291 a peak calling-independent method implemented in diffReps (Shen *et al.*, 2013). This  
292 analysis showed that TPR1-GFP enrichment was stronger in *TPR1* Col relative to  
293 *TPR1 eds1* at sites linked to 247 genes (G-test, 1.5 times difference,  $FDR \leq 0.05$ ; Table  
294 S9), suggestive of stronger TPR1 binding at these loci in immune-activated *TPR1* Col.

295 No ChIP peaks were called for 150 (61%) of these genes in *TPR1 eds1* (Table S5,  
296 S7). Notably, 66 of the 247 differentially TPR1-bound genes (27%, including *ICS1*,  
297 cysteine-rich receptor-like kinases and *WRKY* TFs (Fig. S2)) were more highly  
298 expressed in *TPR1 Col* compared to *TPR1 eds1* (Table S2,  $\log_2FC \geq 1$ ,  $FDR \leq 0.05$ ; Fig.  
299 2d). Only ten genes from the above set of 247 (~4%) were downregulated in *TPR1 Col*  
300 compared to *TPR1 eds1* (Table S2,  $\log_2FC \leq -1$ ,  $FDR \leq 0.05$ ; Figure 2d). The TPR1 ChIP-  
301 seq shows that TPR1 binds to ~1,400 genes mainly at promoter regions, and that  
302 ~11% of the detected TPR1 binding (150/1,441 genes) is conditional on *EDS1*-  
303 dependent immunity.

304 We further tested whether *EDS1*-dependent TPR1-chromatin associations correlate  
305 with transcriptional reprogramming during defense. A set of 247 genes with a stronger  
306 TPR1-GFP signal in *TPR1 Col* vs *TPR1 eds1* (Table S9) was generally upregulated in  
307 RNA-seq after treatments with the bacterial PAMP flg22 and *Pst avrRps4* (Fig. 2e,  
308 boxplots with orange shadowing). Conversely, expression of 74 genes with lower  
309 TPR1-GFP enrichment in *TPR1 Col* vs *TPR1 eds1* (Table S9) was unaltered in these  
310 treatment (Fig. 2e, boxplots with green shadowing). These observations suggest that  
311 there is increased TPR1 binding to a set of genes upregulated during bacterial PTI and  
312 ETI.

313



314

**Fig. 2 Arabidopsis TPR1-chromatin association partially depends on EDS1-controlled immune signaling.** (a-c) Metaplots of ChIP-seq TPR1-GFP enrichment profiles at the chromatin in *TPR1 Col* (a) and *TPR1 eds1* (c) and distribution of TPR1 peaks over genome partitions (b). TPR1-GFP binds 1,441 genes in *TPR1 Col* and 623 genes in *TPR1 eds1*. The ChIP-seq read density for TPR1-GFP was normalized to input via subtraction. The dark blue lines represent TPR1-GFP chromatin binding profiles averaged across all annotated genes in Arabidopsis (TAIR10). TSS = transcription start site, TES = transcription end site. (d) Volcano plot displaying the relationship between *EDS1*-dependent TPR1-chromatin associations and the *EDS1*-dependent gene expression regulation in *TPR1 Col*. Significance of differences in the TPR1-GFP enrichment in *TPR1 Col* and *TPR1 eds1* was assessed with diffReps (difference  $\geq 1.5$  times, G-test,  $FDR \leq 0.05$ ). Genes with stronger enrichment of TPR1-GFP in *TPR1 Col* than in *TPR1 eds1* (blue dots) tend to have higher gene expression in *TPR1 Col*. Selection of these genes is shown in blue text. (e)  $\log_2$ -scaled relative expression of TPR1-GFP-bound genes: *TPR1 Col* vs *Col*, *TPR1 Col* vs *TPR1 eds1*, treatments *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 (*Pst avrRps4* (8 and 24 hpi vs 0 hpi) and *flg22* (1 and 2 hpi vs 0 hpi) (Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2017; Bhandari *et al.*, 2019). Boxplots for genes showing stronger TPR1-GFP enrichment in *TPR1 Col* vs *TPR1 eds1* are shaded in orange, and green shadowing highlights boxplots for genes with weaker TPR1-GFP signal in *TPR1 Col* vs *TPR1 eds1*. Genes with higher TPR1-GFP enrichment in *TPR1 Col* show transcriptional upregulation in PTI and *Pst avrRps4* infection. (f) Distribution of ChIP-seq signal for MYC2 (Wang *et al.*, 2019), WRKY (Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2018) and SARD1 (Sun *et al.*, 2015) transcription factors (TFs) across genes bound by TPR1-GFP in *TPR1 Col* (light blue), *TPR1 eds1* (green) and genes bound stronger by TPR1-GFP in *TPR1 Col* than in *TPR1 eds1* (orange). TF-chromatin binding profiles averaged across all annotated genes in Arabidopsis genome (dark blue) serve as a baseline. MYC2, WRKY TFs and SARD1 are strongly enriched in promoters of genes bound by TPR1-GFP *TPR1 Col* and *TPR1 eds1*. ChIP-seq data for SARD1 (Sun *et al.*, 2015) did not have input samples and therefore were not normalized. ChIP-seq for MYC2 (Wang *et al.*, 2019) and WRKY TFs (Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2018) were normalized to the input via subtraction.

315

316 **Genome-wide assessment of TPR1-chromatin binding reveals TPR1 and TPL**  
317 **targets**

318 In the TPR1 ChIP-seq analysis, we detected TPR1 association to nine of twelve genes  
319 downregulated in TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> ETI that were found as TPR1-bound targets in a  
320 previous ChIP-qPCR study using the *TPR1-HA* Col transgenic line (Zhu *et al.*, 2010).  
321 Genes with TPR1-GFP enrichment include *DND1* and *DND2* (Fig. S3) encoding  
322 CNGC2 and 4, respectively, which are required for calcium-dependent immunity  
323 responses in PTI and ETI (Clough *et al.*, 2000; Jurkowski *et al.*, 2004; Tian *et al.*, 2019).  
324 TPR1-GFP binding was not obviously altered in *TPR1 eds1* (Fig. S3), indicating  
325 immunity status-independent association of TPR1 with promoters of these nine genes.  
326 Since TPL/TPR proteins have redundant functions (Zhu *et al.*, 2010; Harvey *et al.*,  
327 2020; Plant *et al.*, 2021), we expected an overlap in binding targets between TPL and  
328 TPR1. Indeed, TPR1-GFP was enriched at several TPL targets found with ChIP-qPCR  
329 such as *Constans* (Goralogia *et al.*, 2017), *Apetala 3* (Gorham *et al.*, 2018), *Circadian*  
330 *clock associated 1*, *Leafy* and others (Lee *et al.*, 2020) in both *TPR1* Col or *TPR1 eds1*  
331 (Fig. S4). Hence, the TPR1-GFP ChIP-seq profiles in our study provide a genome-  
332 wide landscape to identify TPL/TPR targets of interest.

333

334 **TPR1 shares binding targets with MYC2, SARD1 and WRKY TFs**

335 The genome-wide profiles of TPR1-chromatin associations in immune-activated and  
336 non-activated leaf tissues prompted us to investigate if certain DNA motifs correlate  
337 with TPR1 binding. A *de novo* motif search revealed strong enrichment of the GAGA  
338 motif (C-box) under TPR1 peaks in *TPR1* Col and *TPR1 eds1* (Fig. S5a). The G-box  
339 (CACGTG) bound by MYC2 and other bHLH TFs was also over-represented under  
340 TPR1-GFP peaks in *TPR1 eds1* (Fig. S5a). We validated this signature by reanalyzing  
341 published MYC2 ChIP-seq profiles (Fig. 2f, S5b). A MYC2 ChIP signal (Wang *et al.*,

342 2019) was higher at promoters of genes bound by TPR1-GFP in both *TPR1* Col and  
343 *TPR1 eds1* compared to their genome-wide level (Fig. 2f). TPR1-bound genes showed  
344 statistically significant enrichment of MYC2 targets from two other studies ((Van  
345 Moerkercke *et al.*, 2019; Zander *et al.*, 2020), Fig. S5b). Our *de novo* motif searches  
346 did not find evidence for the enrichment of W-box 'TTGACY' bound by WRKYs  
347 (Ciolkowski *et al.*, 2008) or the 'GAAATTT' element bound by SARD1 (Sun *et al.*,  
348 2015). Considering the importance of these TFs in immune response regulation, we  
349 specifically examined the distribution of WRKY and SARD1 TFs binding at TPR1-GFP  
350 bound genes using available ChIP-seq data ((Sun *et al.*, 2015; Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2018),  
351 (Fig. 2f, S5c,d). Both the metaplots and enrichment analyses for sets of genes  
352 associated with TPR1 and TF peaks revealed that WRKY TFs and SARD1 binding  
353 sites strongly overlap with those for TPR1-GFP relative to genome-wide levels (Fig. 2f,  
354 S5c,d). These results suggest that TPR1 shares some *in vivo* binding targets with  
355 MYC2, SARD1 and WRKY TFs.

356

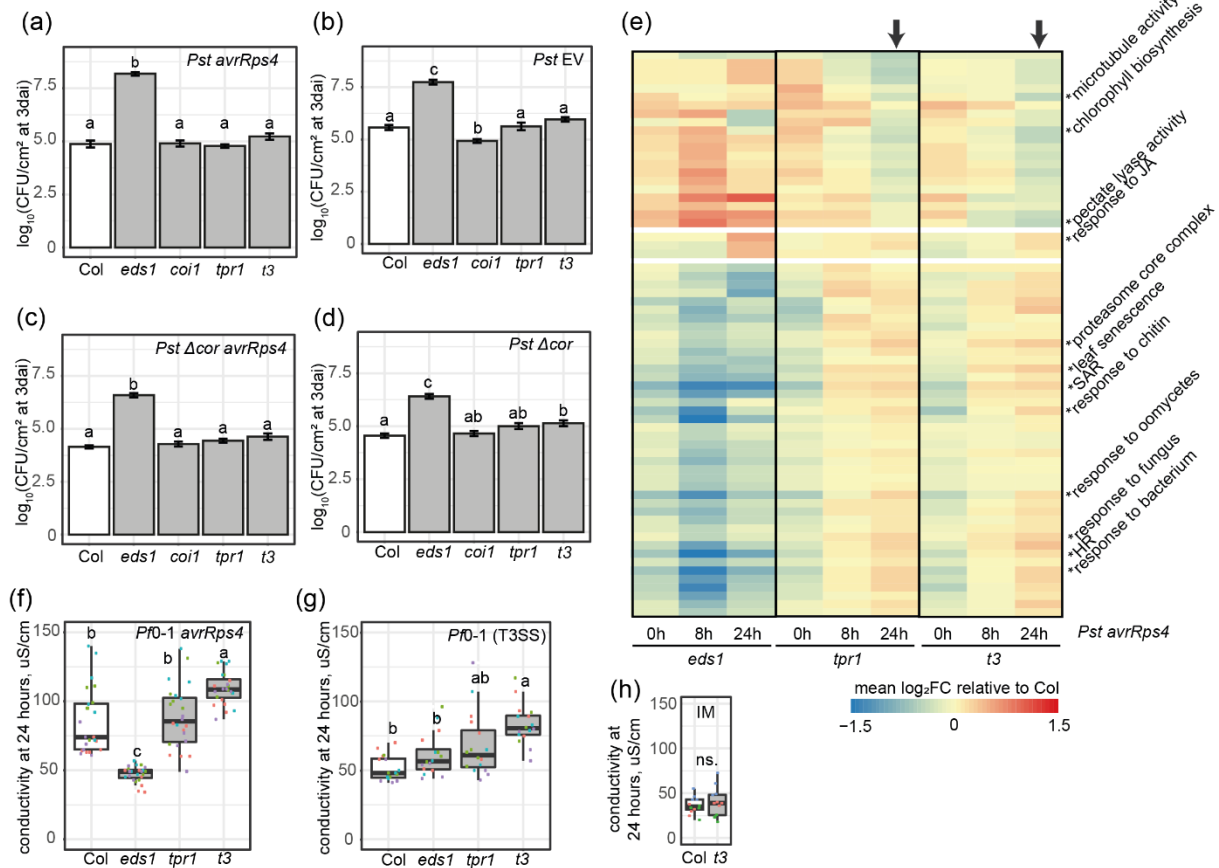
### 357 **TPL/TPRs suppress prolonged expression of TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> ETI-induced genes**

358 To explore functions of TPR1 and other TPL/TPRs in pathogen defense, we infiltrated  
359 *Arabidopsis tpr1* and a *tpr1 tpl tpr4* triple (*t3*) mutant with virulent *Pst* (EV) or avirulent  
360 (TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup>-inducing) *Pst avrRps4* bacteria alongside Col and hyper-susceptible Col  
361 *eds1-2* (*eds1*). Growth of *Pst* and *Pst avrRps4* in the *tpr1* and *t3* mutants was not  
362 different to Col at 3 d (Fig. 3a,b). *Arabidopsis* TPL represses MYC2 activity (Pauwels  
363 *et al.*, 2010) which, when activated via bacterial coronatine, antagonizes *EDS1*- and  
364 *ICS1/SA*-dependent bacterial resistance (Cui *et al.*, 2018; Bhandari *et al.*, 2019). We  
365 therefore tested whether defects of *tpr1* and *t3* mutants in bacterial resistance are  
366 masked by coronatine-promoted susceptibility. For this, we infiltrated *tpr1* and *t3* plants  
367 with coronatine-deficient *Pst Δcor* or *Pst Δcor avrRps4* (Fig. 3c,d). A mutant of the



368 coronatine insensitive 1 (COI1) JA coreceptor was included as a negative control since  
369 virulent *Pseudomonas* bacteria hijack COI1 to suppress SA-dependent defenses  
370 (Zheng *et al.*, 2012). As expected, *Pst* coronatine-promoted virulence was  
371 counteracted by *avrRps4*-activated TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> ETI ((Cui *et al.*, 2018; Bhandari *et al.*,  
372 2019); Fig. 3a,c) and Col displayed bacterial coronatine-dependent susceptibility  
373 compared to *coi1* plants (Fig. 3b,d). However, differences in bacterial growth between  
374 Col and *t3* mutant remained marginal (<1 log<sub>10</sub>; Fig. 3c,d). We concluded that  
375 TPL/TPRs are not essential for restricting bacterial growth in *Arabidopsis* immunity.  
376 Since TPR1-GFP binds genes that are induced during the *EDS1*-dependent immune  
377 signaling (Fig. 2d,e) but bacterial resistance was not compromised in *tpr1* and *t3* (Fig.  
378 3a,b), we hypothesized that TPL/TPRs repress activated defense gene expression in  
379 the immune response. To test this, we performed RNA-seq on leaves of the *tpr1* and  
380 *t3* mutants alongside Col and *eds1* infiltrated with *Pst avrRps4*. In TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> ETI,  
381 the timing of *EDS1*-dependent transcriptional reprogramming for effective immunity  
382 was previously determined as 4-8 hpi (Bhandari *et al.*, 2019; Saile *et al.*, 2020; Sun *et*  
383 *al.*, 2021). Leaves of 5-6-week-old plants were infiltrated with *Pst avrRps4* and samples  
384 collected at 0 (~5 min), 8 and 24 hpi (Table S10). As expected, the number of  
385 transcriptionally induced genes was higher in Col compared to *eds1* at 8 (2,097 genes)  
386 and 24 (1,289 genes) hpi (Table S10, log<sub>2</sub>FC≥1, FDR≤0.05). By contrast, no DEGs  
387 were detected between Col and *tpr1* or *t3* mutants at these time points (Table S10,  
388 log<sub>2</sub>FC≥1, FDR≤0.05). We concluded that TPL/TPRs are likely dispensable for the  
389 transcriptional mobilization of defense in TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> mediated ETI to *Pst* bacteria.  
390 Within the set of 1,289 genes with higher expression in Col vs *eds1* at 24 hpi (Table  
391 S10, log<sub>2</sub>FC≥1, FDR≤0.05), we identified, respectively, 282 and 363 genes with 1.5  
392 times higher expression in *tpr1* and *t3* than in Col (not statistically significant in terms  
393 of adjusted p-value) including *ICS1*, *PAD4* and *Pathogenesis-related 1 (PR1)*. Only 33

394 and 28 genes had 1.5 times lower expression in *tpr1* and *t3* compared to Col at 24 hpi  
395 (not statistically significant, adjusted p-value). We applied a gene set analysis to test  
396 whether functionally coherent gene groups rather than individual genes are hyper-  
397 expressed in *tpr1* and *t3* immune responses. GO-based gene sets differentially  
398 expressed relative to Col in one of the mutant lines (*eds1*, *tpr1*, *t3*) at 0, 8 or 24 h are  
399 shown in heatmaps (Fig. 3e, S6a) and Table S11 ( $|\log_2FC| \geq 0.5$ ,  $FDR \leq 0.01$ ). At 0 hpi  
400 (~5 min after *Pst avrRps4* infiltration), *eds1*, *tpr1* and *t3* had reduced expression of  
401 genes with GO terms “systemic acquired resistance” and “response to bacterium” (Fig.  
402 3c, S6a,b), likely reflecting basal stress of leaf infiltration compared to no treatment  
403 (Fig. S6c, (Bhandari *et al.*, 2019; Van Moerkercke *et al.*, 2019)). At 8 hpi, *tpr1* and *t3*  
404 mutants were indistinguishable from Col (Fig. S6a,b), underscoring the dispensability  
405 of TPL/TPRs for early transcriptional mobilization and pathogen resistance (Fig. 3a,  
406 (Ding *et al.*, 2020)). Strikingly, at 24 hpi gene sets corresponding to GO terms “systemic  
407 acquired resistance” and “response to bacterium” had elevated expression in *tpr1* and  
408 *t3* mutants compared to Col (mean  $\log_2FC = 0.29$ ,  $FDR < 0.05$ ; Fig. 3e, S6a,b).  
409 Furthermore, groups of genes that were co-targeted by TPR1 and SARD1, WRKY,  
410 MYC2 TFs showed increased expression in the *t3* mutant at 24 hpi (mean  
411  $\log_2FC = 0.25$ , 0.20, and 0.27,  $FDR < 0.05$ ; Fig. S7a,b; clusters of genes are given in  
412 Table S12). These results suggest that TPL/TPRs mildly repress defense gene  
413 expression after the initial wave of transcriptional elevation in a  $TNL^{RRS1-RPS4}$  ETI  
414 response.  
415



416

**Fig. 3 Role of *Arabidopsis* TPL/TPRs in restricting of bacteria-triggered host defense-related transcriptional reprogramming and electrolyte leakage.** (a-d) Titers of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 (*Pst*) *avrRps4* (a), *Pst* (b), *Pst avrRps4 Δcor* (c) *Pst Δcor* (d) bacteria in indicated *Arabidopsis* mutants relative to Col plants. *eds1* mutant served as a susceptibility control, and the *coi1* mutant - as a readout for the coronatine promoted susceptibility. The *tpr1* and *tpr1 tpl tpr4 (t3)* mutants showed Col-like levels of the *Pst avrRps4* and *Pst* growth (Tukey's HSD, α=0.001; n=22 from four independent experiments with *Pst avrRps4* and n=46 from eight independent experiments with *Pst*). (e) Heatmap of mean expression values for genes associated with selected GO terms in indicated mutants relative to Col after syringe-infiltration of *Pst avrRps4* (OD<sub>600</sub>=0.001). Shown GO terms were differentially expressed in one of the genotypes relative to Col (|log<sub>2</sub>FC|≥0.58 or 1.5 times, t-test FDR<0.05, asterisk show where the GO terms are on the heatmap). The *tpr1* and *t3* mutants displayed significant increase in the expression of genes from defense-related GO terms at 24 h (black arrow), e.g. "systemic acquired resistance" (SAR) and "response to bacterium". The "0 hour" time point refers to ~5 minutes after the infiltration. (f, g) Electrolyte leakage in *Arabidopsis* plants of indicated genotypes in response to non-virulent *Pseudomonas fluorescens* bacteria *Pf0-1* equipped with type III secretion system (T3SS) and expressing (f) or not (g) the *avrRps4* effector. The *t3* mutant displayed increased electrolyte leakage at 24 hpi with these strains (Tukey's HSD, α=0.001; n=16 from four independent experiments). (h) The differential electrolyte leakage response in *t3* is bacteria-triggered since the infiltration of 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> (infiltration medium, IM) gave similar conductivity levels in Col-0 and *t3* at 24 h (ANOVA, p>0.05).

417

### 418 *tpr1 tpl tpr4* mutants display enhanced PTI-linked electrolyte leakage

419 Next we tested whether TPL/TPRs help to restrict an extended immune response

420 without compromising resistance (see Fig. 3a,b). In TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> ETI, host cell death

421 measured as electrolyte leakage can be uncoupled from bacterial growth restriction

422 (Heidrich *et al.*, 2011; Lapin *et al.*, 2019; Saile *et al.*, 2020). We therefore quantified  
423 electrolyte leakage in the *tpr1* and *t3* mutants after infiltration of the type III secretion  
424 system (T3SS) equipped effector-tester strain of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* (*Pf*) 0-1  
425 strain delivering *avrRps4*. At 24 h after *Pf*0-1 *avrRps4* infiltration, conductivity was  
426 higher in Col than *eds1*, consistent with *EDS1* being essential for TNL triggered cell  
427 death ((Heidrich *et al.*, 2011; Lapin *et al.*, 2019; Saile *et al.*, 2020), Fig. 3f). While *tpr1*  
428 plants behaved similarly to Col, the *t3* mutant had increased conductivity at 24 hpi  
429 compared to Col (Fig. 3f). The same *Arabidopsis* lines were infiltrated with the tester  
430 strain *Pf*0-1 that elicits PTI (Sohn *et al.*, 2014; Saile *et al.*, 2020). T3SS-equipped *Pf*0-  
431 1 also led to increased electrolyte leakage in the *t3* mutant at 24 hpi compared to Col  
432 plants (Fig. 3g). No differences in electrolyte leakage were found between Col and *t3*  
433 under mock conditions (Fig. 3h). These observations show that the *tpr1 tpr2 tpr4* mutant  
434 is defective in limiting bacteria-triggered immunity signaling. We therefore propose that  
435 one potentially important and hitherto unknown role of TPL/TPRs is to prevent an over-  
436 reaction of host tissues to pathogen infection.

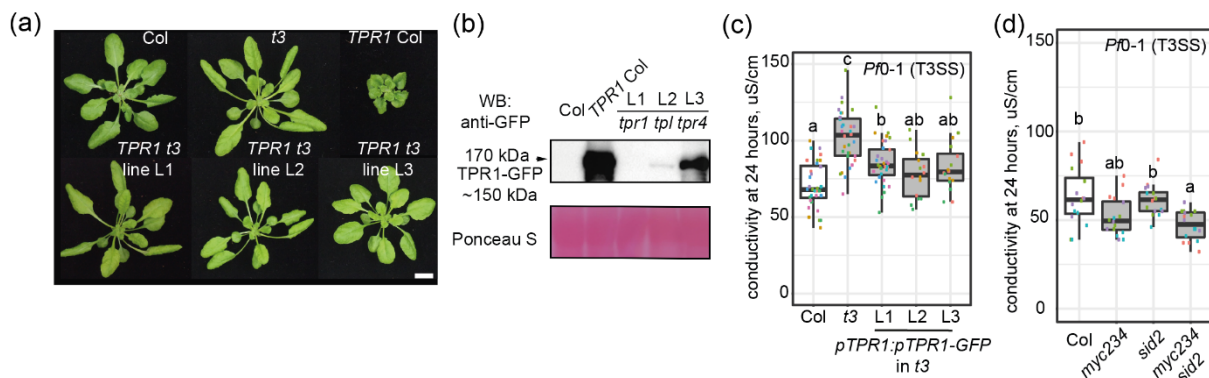
437

#### 438 **TPR1 limits *ICS1* and *MYC* TF-promoted PTI electrolyte leakage**

439 We generated three independent stable homozygous complementation lines  
440 expressing *pTPR1:TPR1-GFP* in the *t3* background. None of these displayed the  
441 *TPR1* Col-like growth retardation or high TPR1-GFP protein accumulation (Fig. 4a,b).  
442 The enhanced electrolyte leakage in *t3* after *Pf*0-1 EV infiltration was reduced to Col  
443 levels in the three transgenic lines expressing different levels of TPR1-GFP protein  
444 (Fig. 4b,c), suggesting a role of TPR1 in limiting PTI<sup>*Pf*0-1 (T3SS)</sup>-related electrolyte  
445 leakage.

446 TPR1-GFP associated with the promoters of *ICS1* (Fig. S2) and MYC2-bound genes  
447 in the *TPR1* Col ChIP-seq analysis (Fig. 2f, S5b). Since SA and JA signaling contribute

448 to PTI (Tsuda *et al.*, 2009; Mine *et al.*, 2017), we assessed whether a *sid2/ics1* mutant,  
 449 a *myc2 myc3 myc4* (*myc234*) triple mutant, or a combined *myc234 sid2* quadruple  
 450 mutant show altered PTI-related electrolyte leakage. We found that the electrolyte  
 451 leakage triggered by the *Pf0-1* tester strain at 24 h was reduced in the *myc234 sid2*  
 452 mutant compared to Col. Taken together, our data show that TPR1 dampens *ICS1*-  
 453 and *MYC2,3,4*-dependent immune responses after their activation by bacteria.



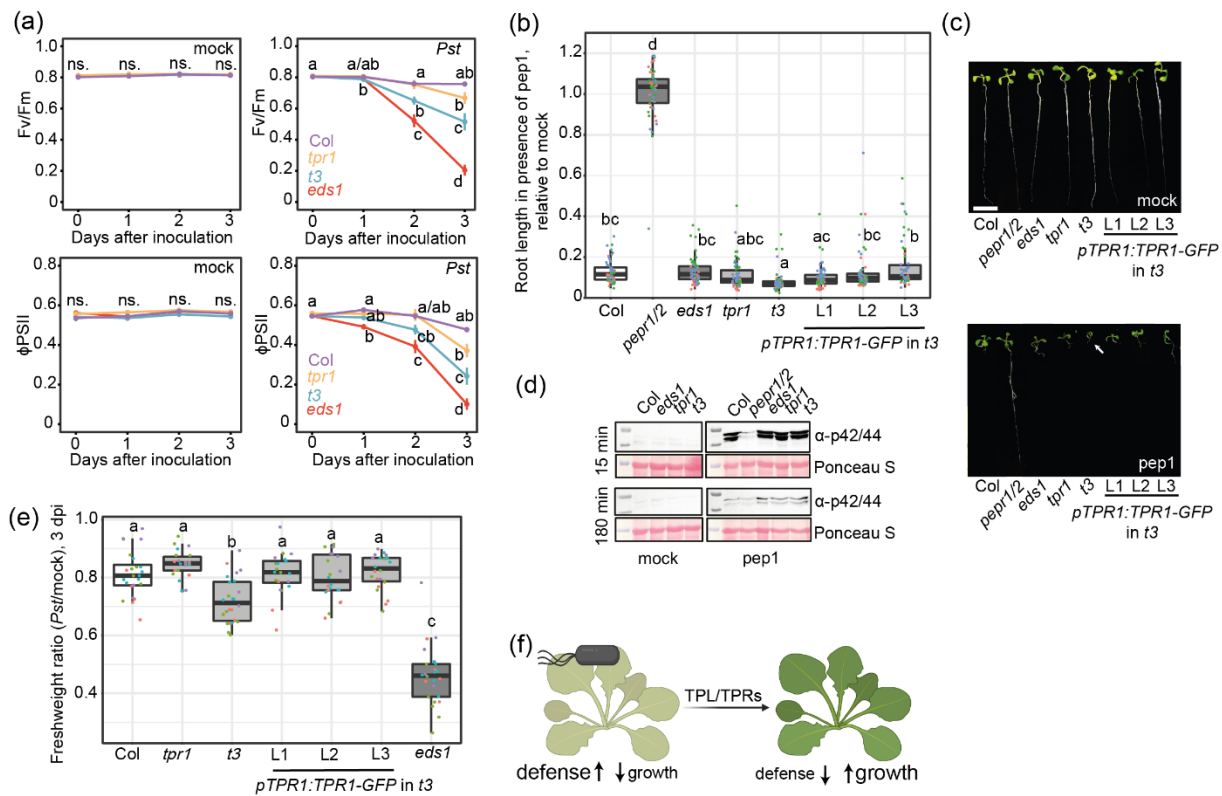
454

**Fig. 4 Arabidopsis TPR1 counteracts electrolyte leakage triggered by the T3SS-equipped *Pf0-1* bacteria and promoted by *ICS1* and *MYC* TFs.** (a) Representative photos of rosettes of 5-6-week-old plants from three independent T3 homozygous complementation lines expressing *pTPR1:TPR1-GFP* in *tpr1 tpl tpr4* (*t3*). *TPR1 Col* is shown for comparison. The complementation lines do not show dwarfism in contrast to *TPR1 Col* with the constitutive defense signaling. (b) Steady-state levels of TPR1-GFP in lines from (a), determined via Western blot analysis. Total protein extracts were probed with  $\alpha$ -GFP antibodies. Ponceau S staining was used to control loading. The experiment was repeated two times with similar results. (c) Electrolyte leakage in the complementation lines from (a) and control lines Col and *t3* at 24 h after the *Pf0-1* T3SS ( $OD_{600}=0.2$ ) infiltration. The complementation lines L1-L3 show a level of the electrolyte leakage comparable to Col (Tukey's HSD  $\alpha=0.001$ ; different colors of data points correspond to independent experiments,  $n=12-24$  from three or six independent experiments). (d) Electrolyte leakage in leaf discs of indicated genotypes after the *Pf0-1* T3SS infiltration (Tukey's HSD  $\alpha=0.001$ ; different colors of data points correspond to independent experiments,  $n=16$  from four independent experiments). The high order mutant *myc2 myc3 myc4 sid2* (*myc234 sid2*) shows lower conductivity than Col.

455

456 **TPL/TPRs reduce physiological damage associated with prolonged immunity**

457 Because *Arabidopsis* TPR1 and TPL/TPRs appear to globally limit the expression of  
458 induced defense-related genes (Fig. 3e, S6a,b, S7a,b) without compromising bacterial  
459 resistance (Fig. 3a,b), we speculated that these transcriptional corepressors reduce  
460 adverse effects of bacteria-activated defenses on plant growth and physiology. We  
461 tested whether TPL/TPRs help to maintain photosynthetic efficiency in infected plants  
462 by quantifying photosystem II (PSII) fluorescence. While alterations of the operating  
463 PSII efficiency ( $\phi$ PSII) are measurable during short-term stress, a drop in the maximum  
464 quantum yield of PSII ( $F_v/F_m$ ) reflects more acute damage to PSII, and is observed  
465 under prolonged stress conditions (Baker, 2008). The *tpr1* and *t3* mutants were  
466 infiltrated alongside Col with a low dose of *Pst* bacteria ( $OD_{600}=0.005$ ). A reduction in  
467  $\phi$ PSII and  $F_v/F_m$  values was minimal in infected Col leaves over the course of 3 d,  
468 indicating that these plants effectively balance bacterial growth restriction and PSII  
469 performance (Figure 5A, purple line). By contrast, *tpr1* and more obviously *t3* mutant  
470 lines, showed a decrease in  $\phi$ PSII and  $F_v/F_m$  over 3 d relative to Col (Fig. 5a; orange  
471 line – *tpr1*, blue line – *t3*), despite having similar total chlorophyll as Col at 3 d after  
472 infection (Fig. S8a). We concluded that a likely role of TPL/TPRs is to reduce collateral  
473 damage of activated host defenses and thus maintain crucial photosynthetic functions.  
474



475

476

477 Our model of TPL/TPRs limiting adverse effects of activated immunity on plant  
478 physiology predicts that the *t3* mutant would be overly sensitive to an exposure to  
479 bacterial PAMP such as flg22 or the phyto cytokine pep1 at the level of root growth.  
480 While primary root growth inhibition (RGI) was similar in Col, *tpr1* and *t3* mutants in the  
481 presence of flg22 (Fig. S8b,c), RGI on the pep1-supplemented medium was more  
482 pronounced in the *t3* mutant (Fig. 5b,c). Hyper-sensitivity of *t3* seedlings to pep1 was  
483 rescued in the *TPR1-GFP* complementation lines (Fig. 5b,c). Perception of pep1 was  
484 not altered in *t3* because pep1-induced mitogen-activated protein kinase 3 and 6  
485 (MPK3 and MPK6) phosphorylation was similar to Col (Fig. 5d). Hence, TPR1 and  
486 other TPL/TPRs reduce negative effects of activated immunity on root growth in  
487 phyto cytokine-stimulated sterile seedlings. Finally, we tested whether *Arabidopsis*  
488 TPL/TPRs limit a host growth penalty in response to bacterial infection. We infiltrated  
489 leaves of 5-6-week-old Col, *tpr1*, *t3* and *TPR1* complementation lines (in the *t3*  
490 background) with 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> (mock) or virulent *Pst* bacteria (OD<sub>600</sub>=0.005) and  
491 measured fresh weight of extracted leaf discs at 3 dpi. Whereas *Pst*-infected Col leaves  
492 lost ~20% fresh weight, *t3* mutant leaves lost ~30%, which was recovered to Col levels  
493 in the *TPR1-GFP* complementation lines (Fig. 5e). Taken together, the data suggest  
494 that *Arabidopsis* TPR1 and other TPL/TPRs limit physiological and growth penalties  
495 associated with induced immunity to bacteria.

496

## 497 **Discussion**

498 Timely activation and control of immune responses is essential for plant resilience to  
499 pathogens. How activated defenses are restricted to prevent damaging over-reaction  
500 of tissues is less clear. Here we present evidence that the TPL family of transcriptional  
501 corepressors contribute to limiting physiological damage and growth inhibition



502 associated with host induced immunity, and therefore might be important components  
503 for maintaining plant vital functions and productivity under pathogen stress.

504 We present ChIP-seq chromatin binding profiles for *Arabidopsis* TPR1 with or without  
505 constitutive *EDS1*-dependent defense. TPR1-GFP associated with immediate  
506 upstream regions of ~1,400 genes and ~10% of these genes showed enhanced TPR1-  
507 GFP binding when *EDS1*-dependent immunity signaling was active (Fig. 2). Our data  
508 suggest that TPR1 and other TPL/TPRs limit the expression of defense-promoted  
509 genes after their initial activation during bacterial infection (Fig. 3). We further discover  
510 a role of TPL/TPRs in reducing the damage to photosystem II and weight loss in  
511 bacteria-infected leaves or seedling growth inhibition elicited by the pep1  
512 phytocytokine (Fig. 5). Hence, we propose that *Arabidopsis* TPR1 and other TPL/TPRs  
513 transcriptional corepressors mitigate adverse effects of activated immunity signaling  
514 on host physiology and growth (Fig. 5f).

515 TPR1-GFP associated primarily with genic regions immediately upstream of the  
516 transcription start site (TSS). This ChIP pattern is consistent with a role of TPL/TPRs  
517 in physical interaction with DNA-binding TFs (Szemenyei *et al.*, 2008; Causier *et al.*,  
518 2012) and with the location of predicted TF binding sites being predominantly close to  
519 the TSS (Yu *et al.*, 2016). The TPR1-bound genes we detected are strongly enriched  
520 for ChIP signals of MYC2 (Van Moerkercke *et al.*, 2019; Wang *et al.*, 2019; Zander *et*  
521 *al.*, 2020), WRKYs (Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2018), and SARD1 (Sun *et al.*, 2015) TFs (Fig.  
522 2f). Whether TPR1 forms complexes with MYC, WRKY and SARD1 TFs *in planta*  
523 during pathogen infection remains unclear.

524 In addition to immunity-related functions, TPR1-GFP bound genes are enriched for GO  
525 terms associated with control of growth and development (Tables S6, S7). More  
526 specifically, the *TPR1 eds1* ChIP-seq profile might be informative for studies of  
527 TPL/TPR-chromatin interactions in growth and development (Fig. S4; (Goralogia *et al.*,

528 2017; Gorham *et al.*, 2018; Lee *et al.*, 2020; Plant *et al.*, 2021)) since autoimmunity  
529 effects are lost in this line (Fig. 1). We provide processed input-normalized TPR1-GFP  
530 enrichment profiles for both *TPR1 Col* and *TPR1 eds1* at nucleotide resolution and  
531 scripts to prepare metaplots for the genes of interest in R environment (see Methods  
532 S1 and Data availability section).

533 TPR1 was proposed to promote defense by repressing negative regulators of  
534 resistance (Zhu *et al.*, 2010). Consistent with this view, TPR1 is enriched at promoters  
535 of genes that are repressed during TNL<sup>RRS1-RPS4</sup> ETI (Bartsch *et al.*, 2006; Zhu *et al.*,  
536 2010) and can repress *DND1/CNGC2* and *DND2/CNGC4* promoter activity (Niu *et al.*,  
537 2019). This idea is further supported by the observations that MYC2, which interacts  
538 with and is repressed by TPL complexes (Pauwels *et al.*, 2010), antagonizes *EDS1*-  
539 dependent bacterial resistance (Cui *et al.*, 2018; Bhandari *et al.*, 2019). Based on our  
540 data, we present here a more refined picture of TPR1 functions. In the extended model,  
541 TPR1 binds genes induced early during a bacterial infection and prevents their  
542 prolonged over-expression (Fig. 5f). In support of this, ~ 10% of TPR1 binding was  
543 contingent on *EDS1*-mediated immunity (Fig. 2). These targets included *ICS1* (Fig. S2)  
544 which is important for resistance to a range of biotrophic and hemi-biotrophic  
545 pathogens (Ding & Ding, 2020). Second, the *t3* mutant showed elevated expression of  
546 gene sets co-targeted by TPR1-GFP and MYC2, SARD1, and WRKY TFs (Fig. 3e) at  
547 24 h after infection with *Pst avrRps4*. Third, *ICS1/MYCs*-dependent PTI-elicited  
548 electrolyte leakage was enhanced in *t3* mutants (Fig. 3g) but recovered in  
549 complementation *TPR1-GFP* lines (Fig. 4). The enhanced defense responses of *t3*  
550 resemble hypersensitivity of *tpl* to MeJA at the level of root growth (Pauwels *et al.*,  
551 2010).

552 Several studies have suggested a positive role of TPR1 in the regulation of TNL and  
553 basal immunity signaling (Zhu *et al.*, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2019; Harvey *et al.*, 2020;

554 Navarrete *et al.*, 2021). Indeed, we observed mildly delayed expression of genes from  
555 immunity-linked GO terms in *tpr1* and *t3* within minutes of *Pst avrRps4* infiltration (Fig.  
556 4A). This might be attributed to the reduced PAMP flg22-triggered ROS burst in *tpr1* and  
557 *t3* mutants (Navarrete *et al.*, 2021). Although immediate early responses contributing  
558 to PTI involve CAMTA TFs (Jacob *et al.*, 2018; Bjornson *et al.*, 2021), no enrichment  
559 of CAMTA-bound DNA motifs was found under TPR1 peaks in our ChIP-seq  
560 experiments (Fig. S5). We also detected marginally increased susceptibility of the *t3*  
561 mutant to *Pst*  $\Delta cor$  bacteria impaired in the ability to manipulate host MYC2/JA  
562 signaling (Fig. 3d). The removal of different sectors of immunity signaling in the *t3*  
563 mutant might facilitate analysis of the TPR1 positive role in NLR and basal resistance.  
564 Timely downregulation of defense signaling is relevant because prolonged pathogen  
565 infection and plant immune activation often lead to reduced photosynthetic activity and  
566 biomass accumulation regardless of the plant's ability to cope with the stress of  
567 infections and disease (Walters, 2015a; Walters, 2015b). Accordingly, pathogen-free  
568 induction of SA and JA signaling is associated with reduced expression of genes  
569 involved in photosynthesis (Hickman *et al.*, 2017; Hickman *et al.*, 2019). Despite  
570 identification of multiple genes impacting the balance between plant growth and  
571 defense (Huot *et al.*, 2014; Bruessow *et al.*, 2021), knowledge of how infected plants  
572 turn off transcriptional defenses and regain physiological homeostasis is fragmentary.  
573 Cytoplasmic condensates of the SA receptor NPR1 were reported to be responsible  
574 for the ubiquitination of ETI cell death-promoting WRKY TFs to limit their activities  
575 (Zavaliev *et al.*, 2020). Also, an SA receptor, NPR4, suppresses *Arabidopsis* WRKY70  
576 promoter activity (Ding *et al.*, 2018). We find that the *tpr1* and *t3* mutants are defective  
577 in maintaining optimal photosystem II function, even though resistance to *Pst* bacteria  
578 was largely intact in these mutants (Fig. 3b, 5a). Similarly, loss of fresh weight in *Pst*-

579 infected *t3* was more extreme than in Col or the *TPR1* complementation lines (Fig. 5e),  
580 and *t3* seedlings treated with the phytoytokine pep1-triggered RGI was stronger in *t3*  
581 than Col plants (Fig. 5b,c). Hence, our study identifies the *Arabidopsis* transcriptional  
582 corepressor TPR1 as a factor that prevents overshooting of an immune response and  
583 therefore potentially as a contributor to plant stress-fitness balance.

584

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594

## 595 **Author Contribution**

596 TG, DL, FL, JEP designed the experiments; TG, DL, FL performed the experiments;  
597 TG, DL, JEP analyzed all data; BK, LC, MB analyzed ChIP-seq and RNA-seq; JB, DL  
598 generated and characterized complementation lines; JQ generated *myc234sid2* line;  
599 DL prepared the Github repository and materials to access processed ChIP-seq data;  
600 TG, DL and JEP wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

601

## 602 **Data availability**

603 RNA-seq and ChIP-seq data from this article are deposited in the National Center for  
604 Biotechnology Information Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database with  
605 accession numbers GSE149316, GSE154652, GSE154774. Bigwig, BAM and BAI  
606 files of TPR1 ChIP-seq for visualization in IGV browser are also available through the  
607 Max Planck Digital Library collection (MPDL;  
608 <https://edmond.mpdl.mpg.de/imeji/collection/U6N5zIOIWgjjMZCu>). Scripts for  
609 preparing metaplots in R environment on a personal computer (~8G RAM) are on  
610 GitHub ([https://github.com/rittersporn/TPR1\\_metaplots](https://github.com/rittersporn/TPR1_metaplots) Griebel Lapin et al 2021).

611

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