

1 **FILAMENTOUS PLANT PATHOGEN EFFECTORS: COMMONALITIES AMID**  
2 **DIVERSITY**

3

4 **Running title: Structural determinants of filamentous plant pathogen effectors**

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## 40 **SUMMARY**

41 Fungi and oomycetes are filamentous microorganisms that include a diversity of highly  
42 developed pathogens of plants. These are sophisticated modulators of plant processes that secrete  
43 an arsenal of effector proteins to target multiple host cell compartments and enable parasitic  
44 infection. Genome sequencing revealed complex catalogues of filamentous pathogen effectors  
45 with some species harbouring hundreds of effector genes. Although a large fraction of these  
46 effector genes encode secreted proteins with weak or no sequence similarity to known proteins,  
47 structural studies have revealed unexpected similarities amid the diversity. This article reviews  
48 progress in our understanding of effector structure and function in light of these new insights.  
49 We conclude that there is emerging evidence for multiple pathways of filamentous plant  
50 pathogen effector evolution, but that some families have probably expanded by duplication and  
51 diversification from a common ancestor. Conserved folds, such as the oomycete WY- and the  
52 fungal MAX-domains, are not predictive of the precise function of the effectors but serve as a  
53 chassis to support protein structural integrity, while providing enough plasticity for the effectors  
54 to bind different host proteins and evolve unrelated activities inside host cells. Further effector  
55 evolution and diversification arise via short linear motifs, domain integration and duplications,  
56 and oligomerization.

## 57 INTRODUCTION

58 Filamentous pathogens (fungi and oomycetes) are the causative agents of some of the world's  
59 most notorious plant diseases. Left unchecked they can devastate crop harvests, destroy managed  
60 and wild forests, affect supply of ornamental plants and disturb natural ecosystems (1-3).  
61 Perhaps the most famous plant disease outbreak was caused by the oomycete *Phytophthora*  
62 *infestans*, which spread to Europe and triggered the 19<sup>th</sup> century Irish potato famine (4). This  
63 pathogen remains relevant in agriculture today, infecting potato and tomato crops throughout the  
64 world (5). Diseases caused by fungal pathogens, such as rice and wheat blast, and wheat stem  
65 and stripe rust, are of immediate concern for global food security (1, 6, 7). A major factor in the  
66 ability of these filamentous microbes to cause disease on their hosts are effectors, pathogen-  
67 encoded proteins that are secreted to either the apoplast or specialized biotrophic interfaces (both  
68 are spaces outside of plant cells), or are translocated inside host cells (8-11).

69 Effectors act to modulate host cell physiology to promote susceptibility to pathogens. In turn,  
70 plants have evolved cell surface and intracellular receptors to detect the presence of pathogen  
71 signatures and mount an immune response to restrict the progression of disease. Cell surface  
72 receptors typically recognize microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs), derived from  
73 abundant structural components of microbes' cell walls, or secreted proteins that function as  
74 virulence effectors. Intracellular receptors respond to the presence of translocated effectors  
75 and/or their activity on host cell targets. These intracellular receptors are nucleotide-binding  
76 domain and leucine-rich repeat-containing (NLR) proteins that mediate innate immunity to  
77 pathogens in both plants and animals (recently reviewed in (12)).

78 One of the defining features of effector proteins, be they of bacterial or filamentous pathogen  
79 origin, is the lack of clear sequence similarity to proteins of known function. This is thought to

80 be the consequence of evolutionary pressure that drives rapid diversification of effector activities  
81 in host cells to optimize function and/or avoid recognition by the innate immune system. The  
82 frequent difficulty in recognizing common motifs that indicate function or activity of effectors  
83 may be due to few of them having enzymatic activity, or absence of known domains for direct  
84 interaction with host factors. In addition, many effectors are small proteins of < 15kDa and thus  
85 their rapid diversification would result in loss of sequence similarity. With a few notable  
86 exceptions (the RXLR motif of effectors in some oomycetes being the most prominent), this  
87 sequence diversity has meant it is challenging to confidently produce catalogues of effectors  
88 from filamentous plant pathogen genomes, despite many of these now being available. In some  
89 cases, bioinformatic approaches have been useful in predicting and classifying candidate  
90 effectors from filamentous plant pathogens (13-23). However, it can be challenging to pick the  
91 most relevant proteins to select for further investigation from these lists. These bioinformatic  
92 approaches use some of the commonalities identified among effectors from different organisms,  
93 such as genomic context, presence of a secretion signal, absence of predicted transmembrane  
94 domains, expression patterns, and lack of similarity to known protein domains. Recent advances  
95 in computational prediction of effectors have employed machine learning approaches, which is  
96 proving useful for prioritizing effectors for further study (24). There are also examples of  
97 filamentous plant pathogen effectors that share common sequence motifs with known enzymes,  
98 enzyme inhibitors, sugar-binding proteins, and toxins, with some shown to possess such  
99 activities.

100 It is well established that protein structure is more conserved than amino acid sequence, and in  
101 many cases this is due to the evolutionary relationship between structure and function (25). The  
102 fact that structural conservation can be a powerful method for functional annotation of proteins is

103 a fundamental concept that has driven the development of structure determination as a tool to  
104 understand effector biology of both mammalian and plant pathogens (26, 27). In particular, this  
105 has been important where the lack of sequence similarity to known functional proteins has  
106 prevented prediction of molecular mechanism.

107 In this review, we focus on recent advances that highlight commonalities shared by filamentous  
108 plant pathogen effectors, focusing on functional similarities with known proteins, on effectors  
109 which cluster into large structurally common but sequence divergent families comprising novel  
110 folds, or those that share structural similarity to proteins of known function. It is timely to review  
111 progress in this area in light of new insights. We conclude that there is emerging evidence for  
112 multiple pathways of filamentous plant pathogen effector evolution, including that some families  
113 appear to have evolved from a common ancestor by duplication and diversification in the  
114 pathogen.

115 **FILAMENTOUS PLANT PATHOGEN EFFECTORS THAT ENCODE ENZYMES AND**  
116 **PROTEASE INHIBITORS**

117 Structural studies of a number of bacterial plant pathogenic type III secreted effectors (T3SEs)  
118 have revealed similarity with proteins of known function, which suggested both how these  
119 proteins act, and experiments to test mechanisms (28-31). Remarkably, many of these proteins  
120 appear to be enzymes, encoding the potential to catalyse a wide variety of different reactions,  
121 such as E3 ligation, ADP ribosylation and proteolysis. In several cases, specific enzymatic  
122 activities have been demonstrated for these proteins (32). In contrast, a number of filamentous  
123 plant pathogen effectors have been predicted to have enzymatic activity, but only a few have had  
124 such activities confirmed experimentally. To date, there are no structures of filamentous plant  
125 pathogen effector enzymes, so these predictions typically rely primarily on sequence  
126 comparisons.

127

128 **Proteases and protease inhibitors**

129 Analysis of fungal genomes including *Zymoseptoria tritici* (33), *Collectotricum sp.* (34), and  
130 *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* (23), identified families of secreted proteases whose expression pattern  
131 supports a putative role as effectors, to promote colonization and growth of the pathogen.  
132 *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *lycopersicum* secretes a serine protease, Sep1, and a metalloprotease,  
133 Mep1, that act synergistically to cleave host chitinases, preventing their activity in degrading  
134 fungal cell walls (35). A double mutant of Sep1 and Mep1 showed reduced disease on tomato,  
135 highlighting the importance of these proteins for full virulence.

136



137 The rice blast fungus *Magnaporthe oryzae* produces AVR-Pita, an effector with features typical  
138 of zinc metalloproteases, including conserved residues known to mediate zinc co-ordination and  
139 catalysis in homologues from other organisms (9, 36). However, to date, actual protease activity  
140 for AVR-Pita has not been demonstrated.

141  
142 A remarkable case is the GIP glucanase inhibitors that are proteins secreted by *Phytophthora*  
143 spp. to inhibit the degradation of pathogen  $\beta$ -1,3/1,6 glucans and release of defense-eliciting  
144 oligosaccharides by host  $\beta$ -1,3 endoglucanases (37, 38). GIPs share significant sequence  
145 similarity with trypsin serine proteases but are predicted to be proteolytically nonfunctional  
146 because they carry mutated catalytic residues.

147  
148 Interestingly, filamentous plant pathogens also secrete protease inhibitors, which act on host  
149 pathogenesis-related proteases to prevent their activities. Examples include EPI1 and EPI10 of *P.*  
150 *infestans* which carry multiple domains with similarity to the Kazal family of serine protease  
151 inhibitors (39, 40). In addition, the Avr2 effector of the fungal pathogen *Cladosporium fulvum*  
152 (41), and the *P. infestans* effectors EPIC1 and EPIC2 (42) are unrelated in sequence but have  
153 convergently evolved to target the same host proteases (43, 44). The oomycete EPIC family of  
154 protease inhibitor effectors have similarity to the widespread cystatin domain (42) whereas *C.*  
155 *fulvum* Avr2 is a small cysteine-rich protein without any notable sequence similarity to other  
156 proteins (41).

157

158 **Fungal Cmu1, an enzyme interfering with metabolic flux**

159 The maize smut fungus *Ustilago maydis* translocates a chorismate mutase, Cmu1, into plant  
160 cells. Cmu1 appears to benefit the pathogen by redirecting metabolic flux of chorismate away  
161 from the biosynthesis of salicylic acid, suppressing accumulation of this defence-related  
162 hormone during infection. Intriguingly, there is evidence to suggest that Cmu1 can move out of  
163 infected cells into neighbouring cells, where the enzyme's activity can 'prime' the host tissue for  
164 infection (45).

165

### 166 **Translocated oomycete effectors include enzymes**

167 Oomycete plant pathogens encode putative enzymes in their effector repertoires. *Phytophthora*  
168 species have ~300-550 RXLR-type effectors that rarely have sequence similarity to known  
169 enzyme folds. Yet, *P. infestans* and *P. sojae* contain a sequence signature suggestive of Nudix  
170 hydrolase (phosphorylase) activity. The *P. sojae* effector Avr3b has been shown to possess ADP-  
171 ribose/NADH pyrophosphorylase activity when expressed and epitope-purified from plant tissue  
172 (46). Further, the virulence activity of Avr3b was dependent on the conserved Nudix motif.  
173 Interestingly, the activity of Avr3b as a Nudix hydrolase is dependent on its modification by  
174 plant cyclophilins; when produced in *E. coli*, the protein is not active (47). Recently, a putative  
175 Nudix hydrolase effector (AvrM14) has been identified in the flax rust fungus *Melampsora lini*  
176 (48), but catalytic activity for this protein has yet to be shown.

177

178 In addition to RXLR effectors, *Phytophthora* species also contain hundreds of 'Crinkler'  
179 effectors (CRNs) (13, 16, 49). CRNs are modular proteins, some of which induce cell death on  
180 expression in plant cells (13, 16). One C-terminal CRN domain has significant sequence  
181 similarity to protein Ser/Thr kinases of the RD (Arginine-Aspartate) class. Indeed, *P. infestans*

182 CRN8 was shown to be an active kinase present in an auto-phosphorylated state in plant cells  
183 (50). *In planta* expression of CRN8 enhanced the growth of *P. infestans* and this required the  
184 intact RD motif, suggesting that the enzymatic activity of this kinase is relevant for virulence.

185

## 186 **FILAMENTOUS PLANT PATHOGEN EFFECTORS CAN SHARE FOLDS WITH** 187 **FUNCTIONALLY SIMILAR PROTEINS**

188

### 189 **Chitin-binding LysM effectors**

190 Chitin is a major component of fungal cell walls, and detection of this homopolymer in the  
191 apoplast is used by plants as a strategy for initiating immune responses (51). Plants detect chitin-  
192 derived oligosaccharides via cell surface receptors that contain extracellular lysin motif (LysM)  
193 domains. Plant LysM domains comprise ~50 amino acids and adopt an  $\beta\alpha\alpha\beta$  structural fold (52,  
194 53) (**Figure 1**). To protect themselves from detection by the plant immune system, fungi use  
195 LysM effectors to sequester chitin oligomers in the apoplast, outcompeting binding by host  
196 receptor domains. The crystal structure of the *Cladosporium fulvum* Ecp6 confirmed that this  
197 protein contained 3 modular LysM domains (54) (**Figure 1**). In a strategy to deliver high affinity  
198 ligand interaction, two of the Ecp6 LysM domains (LysM1 and LysM3) dimerise to ‘sandwich’ a  
199 chitin oligomer in a groove via multiple hydrogen bonds and hydrophobic interactions (**Figure**  
200 **1A**). To date, this ligand-induced LysM dimerization to increase binding affinity is unique to  
201 Ecp6, and highlights the propensity of pathogen effectors to adapt protein folds to acquire new  
202 activities (51). Interestingly, the ligand-binding capability of the LysM2 domain of Ecp6 was  
203 also shown to interfere with chitin-triggered immunity *in planta*, but the underlying mechanistic  
204 basis remains unclear (55).

205

206 Multi-domain LysM effectors are also found in other fungal plant pathogens including the wheat  
207 pathogen *Zymoseptoria tritici*, and the rice blast pathogen *Magnaporthe oryzae*, suggesting that  
208 they represent a widespread mechanism for suppression of plant immune system detection.  
209 However, unlike Ecp6, *Z. tritici* LysM effectors protect fungal hyphae against hydrolysis by host  
210 chitinases, although the mechanism by which they achieve this is not understood (55).

211

### 212 **CBM14-like Avr4 effectors**

213 In a second strategy to evade chitin-mediated recognition by the plant immune system, fungi can  
214 secrete effector proteins that bind to chitin in their cell wall and prevent the action of host  
215 chitinases in generating chito-oligosaccharide fragments. The *Cladosporium fulvum* effector  
216 Avr4 was predicted to adopt a carbohydrate binding module family 14 (CBM14)-like structure,  
217 based on its disulphide-bond pattern, and *in vitro* Avr4 protects chitin from hydrolysis by plant  
218 chitinases (56, 57). CBM14 proteins are defined as having chitin-binding activity, with one  
219 characterized as having anti-microbial properties (58). The structure of the CBM14 member  
220 tachycitin, from the horseshoe crab *Tachypleus tridentatus*, revealed a distorted  $\beta$ -sandwich fold  
221 flanked by short loops and turns, stabilized by disulphide bonds (59). Tachycitin was described  
222 as sharing some structural similarity to a domain found in the plant chitin-binding protein hevein  
223 (60).

224

225 Avr4 homologues are found in a number of plant pathogenic fungal species. Recently, the crystal  
226 structure of Avr4 from the tomato pathogen *Pseudocercospora fuligena* confirmed that the Avr4  
227 family of effectors does adopt the CBM14-like fold (**Figure 2**), and this enabled investigation of

228 structure-function relationships in chitin-binding by these proteins (61). As predicted for  
229 tachycitin, the chitin binding site of Avr4 is located between two  $\beta$ -strands, and the connecting  $\beta$ -  
230 hairpin, and is mediated by aromatic amino acids and adjacent polar residues.

231  
232 The evolutionary dynamics of CBM14 family proteins is complex (62). Whilst chitin-binding is  
233 a critical feature of this fold for fungal defence against the plant immune system, it is clear that  
234 other functions can be attributed to the wider family, given that CBM14 proteins occur in non-  
235 pathogenic species and have previously been shown to have anti-microbial properties.

236  
237 **NLPs**

238 NLPs (Necrosis- and ethylene-inducing peptide-1 like proteins) are a large family of secreted  
239 proteins found in plant-associated fungi, oomycetes and bacteria. NLPs were initially  
240 characterized by their ability to induce necrotic cell death in dicotyledonous plants (63), which is  
241 thought to be dependent on toxin-induced host cell damage (64). However, it is now well  
242 established that not all NLPs share this activity (65, 66). Despite this, both cytotoxic and non-  
243 cytotoxic NLPs can trigger cell-surface dependent immune responses in plant cells, and this  
244 activity has been localized to a 24 amino acid peptide (67, 68) recognized by a receptor complex  
245 comprising RLP23/SOBIR-1/BAK1 (69). Clues to the mechanism of NLPs cytolytic activity  
246 came from the crystal structures of NLPs from *Pythium aphanidermatum* and *Moniliophthora*  
247 *perniciosa* (**Figure 3**), which showed this family of proteins share a fold with the actinoporin  
248 pore-forming toxin stichoysin (64, 70). However, there is no experimental evidence for pore-  
249 forming activity by NLPs, and their toxicity may be the result of NLP induced release of  
250 membrane damage factors that are then sensed by the plant (68). Interestingly the 24 amino acid

251 peptide, which acts as a MAMP for the activation of plant immunity, is largely buried within the  
252 core of the intact structure, with only a small number of residues displayed on the surface (67).  
253 This suggests that the protein is probably unfolded and/or digested for recognition by the  
254 receptor.

255

## 256 THE THREE-DIMENSIONAL STRUCTURES OF FILAMENTOUS PLANT 257 PATHOGEN EFFECTORS SHOW CONSERVED FOLDS WITHIN FAMILIES

258

### 259 **Oomycete effectors and the WY-fold**

260 The RXLR class of host-translocated oomycete effector proteins are defined by the presence of a  
261 conserved N-terminal RXLR motif and a diverse C-terminal domain that exerts effector activity  
262 inside the host cell (16, 71, 72). Analysis of the sequences of the RXLR repertoires of  
263 *Phytophthora sojae* and *Phytophthora ramorum* identified conserved motifs which were named  
264 ‘W’ (Trp), ‘Y’ (Tyr), and ‘L’ (Leu), after the single letter amino acid code for a highly conserved  
265 residue in each sequence (73). Protein structural analysis subsequently revealed that the amino  
266 acids at the conserved ‘W’ and ‘Y’ positions were buried in the hydrophobic core of a three  $\alpha$ -  
267 helical bundle, and stacked against one another in an energetically favourable interaction (74)  
268 (**Figure 2**). Intriguingly, except for the *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* effector ATR13 (75),  
269 all of the structures of oomycete RXLR effectors that have been determined to date adopt the  
270 ‘WY-domain’ fold. Nonetheless, these proteins display significant primary sequence differences.  
271 They also show diverse structural adaptations, including N- and C-terminal extensions, loop  
272 regions, and domain duplication, that give rise to very different overall structures (74, 76-78)  
273 (**Figure 2**). HMM-sequence searches, based on the knowledge of the WY-domain structure,

274 predicted that nearly half of the RXLR effector complement of *Phytophthora* species would  
275 adopt this fold (74).

276  
277 The structure of *P. infestans* effector PexRD2 is comprised of five  $\alpha$ -helices, three of which  
278 contribute to the WY-domain three  $\alpha$ -helical bundle (**Figure 4A**). The additional helices (present  
279 between two helices of the core WY-domain) are instrumental in forming an extensive  
280 homodimeric interface in the PexRD2 structure, consistent with the observation that PexRD2  
281 self-associates *in planta*. The structures of *P. capsici* AVR3a4 and AVR3a11 comprise  
282 monomeric four helical bundles (**Figure 4B**), with an N-terminal helical extension to the WY-  
283 domain fold (74). It is possible that the N-terminal helix is important for maintaining the stability  
284 of monomeric, single WY-domain proteins, although this has not been explicitly tested.

285  
286 The HMM-based sequence searches mentioned above revealed that these effectors could also  
287 comprise tandemly repeated WY-domains encoded in a single gene. The first crystal structure of  
288 a tandem WY-domain effector was that of ATR1 from *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* (76)  
289 (**Figure 4C**). In ATR1, two WY-domains (each with an N-terminal helical extension) are  
290 connected through an additional helix, which acts as a linker. Recently, the crystal structure of  
291 PexRD54 reveals how five WY-domains can pack together in a stable structure with diverse  
292 domain-domain interactions (78) (**Figure 4D**). Within each of these tandem WY-domain  
293 structures the individual domains can be overlaid with high confidence, despite the limited  
294 sequence identity (76, 78). Interestingly, PexRD54 employs a short linear motif known as the  
295 ATG8 interacting motif (AIM) to engage with a host protein and to exert its virulence activity  
296 (79). The AIM motif is presented at the C-terminus of PexRD54 and is linked to the last WY-

297 domain via a short helix. The structure of PexRD54 suggests that one function of tandem WY-  
298 domains is to serve as a scaffold to present functional motifs for interaction with host proteins.

299 The WY-domain fold serves as a chassis for evolution of novel functions in oomycete effectors,  
300 while maintaining their structural integrity. The fold presents a flexible platform that supports  
301 effector evolution and diversification via acquisition of short linear motifs, domain duplications  
302 and dimerization. Thus, the WY domain structure is not predictive of the precise function of the  
303 effectors but appears to provide enough plasticity for the effectors to bind different host proteins  
304 and evolve unrelated activities inside host cells.

305

#### 306 **MAX effectors of *Magnaporthe***

307 Recently, a new family of filamentous plant pathogen effectors has been described that also  
308 shares a conserved common structure, but displays diverse protein sequence. The *Magnaporthe*  
309 Avrs and ToxB-like (MAX) family was defined following structural work on effectors from the  
310 fungal pathogen *M. oryzae*, the causal agent of rice blast disease (80). Despite typically sharing  
311 less than 25% sequence identity, each member of this family which has had a structure  
312 determined (80-84), shares a characteristic six-stranded  $\beta$ -sandwich fold (**Figure 5**). This fold is  
313 stabilised by at least one di-sulphide bond, generally with Cys residues present in  $\beta 1$  and in, or  
314 immediately before,  $\beta 5$ . In most cases one of the  $\beta$ -sheets is formed by strands  $\beta 1$ ,  $\beta 2$  and  $\beta 6$  and  
315 the second by strands  $\beta 3$ ,  $\beta 4$  and  $\beta 5$ . The length and orientation of the different structural  
316 elements is variable, in particular for strand  $\beta 5$  and for the various connecting loops, giving rise  
317 to proteins with distinct shapes and surface properties (80). In addition, the *M. oryzae* effector  
318 AVR-PikD contains an N-terminal extension to the six-stranded  $\beta$ -sandwich structure (**Figure**  
319 **5A**), and this region contains polymorphic residues that contribute to evasion of recognition by



320 the plant innate immune system (82, 85). Interestingly, *M. oryzae* effectors AVR-Pik, AVR-Pia  
321 and AVR1-CO39 all bind to heavy metal associated (HMA) domains that have integrated in  
322 intracellular plant immune receptors (NLRs) throughout evolution. This suggests that the  
323 conserved MAX effector family fold is well-suited to interact with such domains and may  
324 suggest a putative virulence target in host cells for these effectors.

325 Intriguingly, the MAX effector family includes ToxB, a proteinaceous toxin from the fungus  
326 *Pyrenophora tritici-repentis* (86). This toxin shares the common three-dimensional structure of  
327 MAX effectors (**Figure 5E,F**), but its mode of action is unclear, and no interacting partner has  
328 been identified. However, the N-terminal region of ToxB has been shown to be essential for  
329 activity, while both the central and C-terminal parts are required for full activity (87), suggesting  
330 that the conserved structure is important for function. A naturally occurring non-toxic version of  
331 ToxB (toxB) shares 78% sequence identity with the active protein. These proteins share  
332 essentially the same structure, although toxB may overall be less stable than ToxB (81).

333 PSI-BLAST followed by a hidden Markov model (HMM)-based profile searches have revealed  
334 that the majority of MAX effectors are found in *Magnaporthe* species (80). However, a small  
335 number of hits were detected in other fungal species such as *Colletotrichum* (80). Thus, the  
336 discovery of the MAX effectors enables a more robust prediction of candidate effectors in these  
337 fungal pathogens.

338

### 339 **RALPH effectors of powdery mildew**

340 Nearly 500 candidate effectors of the barley powdery mildew fungus *Blumeria graminis* f. sp.  
341 *hordei* (*B. graminis*) were predicted using bioinformatic tools from the genome sequence by

342 searching for genes with characteristics of effectors, particularly encoding small secreted  
343 proteins. Many of these candidate effectors have been shown to be expressed during infection  
344 (88-90).

345 To further characterise *B. graminis* candidate effectors, their sequences were subjected to  
346 structural annotation using protein fold recognition methods. A sub-set of these candidate  
347 effectors are predicted to have structural similarities with ribonucleases, and were named  
348 RALPHs (RNase Like Proteins expressed in Haustoria (91)). Although confirmation that  
349 RALPHs do adopt ribonuclease-like folds awaits the determination of an experimentally derived  
350 structure, it is intriguing that many *B. graminis* effectors may share a common structural scaffold  
351 to each other, a feature common in other families of filamentous plant pathogen effectors. In  
352 another parallel with the MAX effectors, RALPHs have been predicted to contain a di-sulphide  
353 bond, with Cys residues largely conserved towards both the N-terminus (contained within a  
354 “YxC” motif) and C-terminus of the proteins.

355 Recently, data has emerged showing that RALPH effectors function as both virulence and  
356 avirulence determinants in the *B. graminis*-barley and wheat interactions. Using host-induced  
357 gene silencing, five RALPHs were shown to be involved in formation of haustoria (92, 93).  
358 AVR<sub>A1</sub> and AVR<sub>A13</sub> were shown to be required for disease resistance in barley mediated by the  
359 powdery mildew resistance loci Mla1 and Mla13, respectively (94), and AvrPm2 has recently  
360 been cloned as the cognate effector of the wheat *Pm2* gene (95). Furthermore, *B. graminis* f. sp.  
361 *tritici* suppressor of avirulence effector SvrPm3<sup>al/fl</sup> (formerly called Bcg1<sup>avr</sup>) has been shown to  
362 suppress avirulence (96, 97). As with other host-translocated effectors, the ability of RALPHs to  
363 activate plant immune responses may help explain the strong diversifying selection seen in these  
364 proteins.

365 **OTHER NOTABLE FILAMENTOUS PLANT PATHOGEN EFFECTOR STRUCTURES**

366

367 **Flax rust effectors show divergent structures**

368

369 *Melampsora lini* causes rust disease on crop plants such as flax and linseed. Genomic analyses of  
370 *M. lini* predicted that this fungus has a large repertoire of putative effector proteins (22). Unlike  
371 oomycete RXLR and CRN effectors, but similar to effectors from other fungal species, no  
372 widely conserved sequence-based motifs have been identified for flax rust effectors thus far. To  
373 date, six *M. lini* effector proteins have been validated experimentally, based on their avirulence  
374 activity (AvrL567, AvrM, AvrP4, AvrP123, AvrL2 and AvrM14) (48, 98-101). These effectors  
375 trigger specific immune responses mediated by NLRs in the host cell. AvrL567, AvrM and their  
376 cognate NLRs exhibit polymorphisms giving rise to allelic variants of the effector and receptor  
377 with specific recognition profiles (98, 102). For example, AvrL567-A is recognized by the NLRs  
378 L5 and L6 whereas AvrL567-D is recognized by L6 but not L5.

379

380 Crystal structures of AvrL567 alleles AvrL567-D and AvrL567-A revealed that the two proteins  
381 share the same architecture, adopting a  $\beta$ -sandwich fold comprising seven antiparallel  $\beta$ -strands  
382 (**Figure 6A**). Interestingly, the structures share some homology with ToxA (103), a host-  
383 selective toxin of *Pyrenophora tritici-repentis*, which induces cell death in sensitive wheat  
384 cultivars. ToxA was described as having a distant relationship to mammalian fibronectin  
385 proteins, and an Arg-Glu-Asp (RGD) motif was found in a loop region of the protein that may  
386 mediate interactions with plant cell integrin-like receptors (103). This motif was subsequently

387 shown to be required for protein internalization (104), although the precise mechanism remains  
388 unclear. AvrL567 lacks the RGD motif, implying that it is internalized by a different mechanism.  
389 Both AvrL567-D and -A display two positively charged patches on the protein surface and have  
390 been shown to bind nucleic acid *in vitro* (105). However, the biological relevance of nucleic acid  
391 binding remains unknown. Structure-led mutagenesis revealed that multiple contacts mediate  
392 interaction between AvrL567 alleles and their cognate receptors (105).

393

394 Crystal structures of C-terminal domains of two allelic variants of AvrM (AvrM-A and avrM)  
395 revealed an L-shaped  $\alpha$ -helical fold comprising of two helical repeats (106) (**Figure 6B**). The  
396 structural repeat, another example of modularity in filamentous plant pathogen effectors, was not  
397 evident from sequence analysis and was only revealed after the structure was determined.

398

#### 399 **AvrLm4-7, a lone effector structure with a novel fold**

400 AvrLm4-7 is a Cys-rich protein which is recognized by oilseed rape cultivars harbouring Rlm4  
401 and Rlm7 resistance (107). The loss of AvrLm4-7 in the pathogen strong impacts pathogen  
402 fitness (108, 109). The crystal structure of AvrLm4-7 does not share significant homology with  
403 other structures in the Protein DataBank, and as such it has proven challenging to infer putative  
404 protein function (110). The crystal structure did identify the positions of the four disulphide  
405 bonds in the protein which, like for other effectors, are probably involved in stabilizing the  
406 structure. In addition, a strongly positive patch was identified on the protein surface that may  
407 represent a functionally relevant surface of the protein, although it has not been possible to show  
408 that this region binds a negatively charged ligand. A single amino acid polymorphism that

409 perturbs the recognition of the effector by the Rlm4 is located on a loop of the protein, exposed  
410 to the surface. It is therefore unlikely that this polymorphism affects the overall structure of the  
411 protein, but maybe important for a specific recognition site.

412 **CONCLUSION**

413 The high complexity of the secretomes of filamentous plant pathogens points to a multitude of  
414 independent evolutionary pathways to generate effector proteins that target a diversity of host  
415 molecules and processes. Yet, despite this extraordinary sequence diversity, it is now evident that  
416 some conserved protein folds, such as the WY- and MAX-domains, define widespread families  
417 of effector proteins that occur across different plant pathogen taxa. There are both practical and  
418 theoretical implications of this finding. Structure-guided sequence similarity searches enable  
419 more precise and sensitive annotation of effector catalogues, notably of fungal effectors, which  
420 have proven more difficult to annotate compared to their oomycete counterparts. This should  
421 enable prioritisation of effectors for further study thus accelerating their functional  
422 characterization. In addition, the conserved structures provide a framework to unravel how rapid  
423 evolution of effector proteins has resulted in new host targeting activities, and tease out the  
424 physical and physiological constraints that these proteins face. In this regard, the next phase of  
425 research should go beyond the analyses of individual filamentous pathogen effector structures,  
426 and consider the structures of effectors in complex with host proteins (78, 82). In the future, we  
427 need to further improve our understanding of the biophysical properties of effector-host protein  
428 complexes to gain a comprehensive knowledge of effector structures and functions.

429

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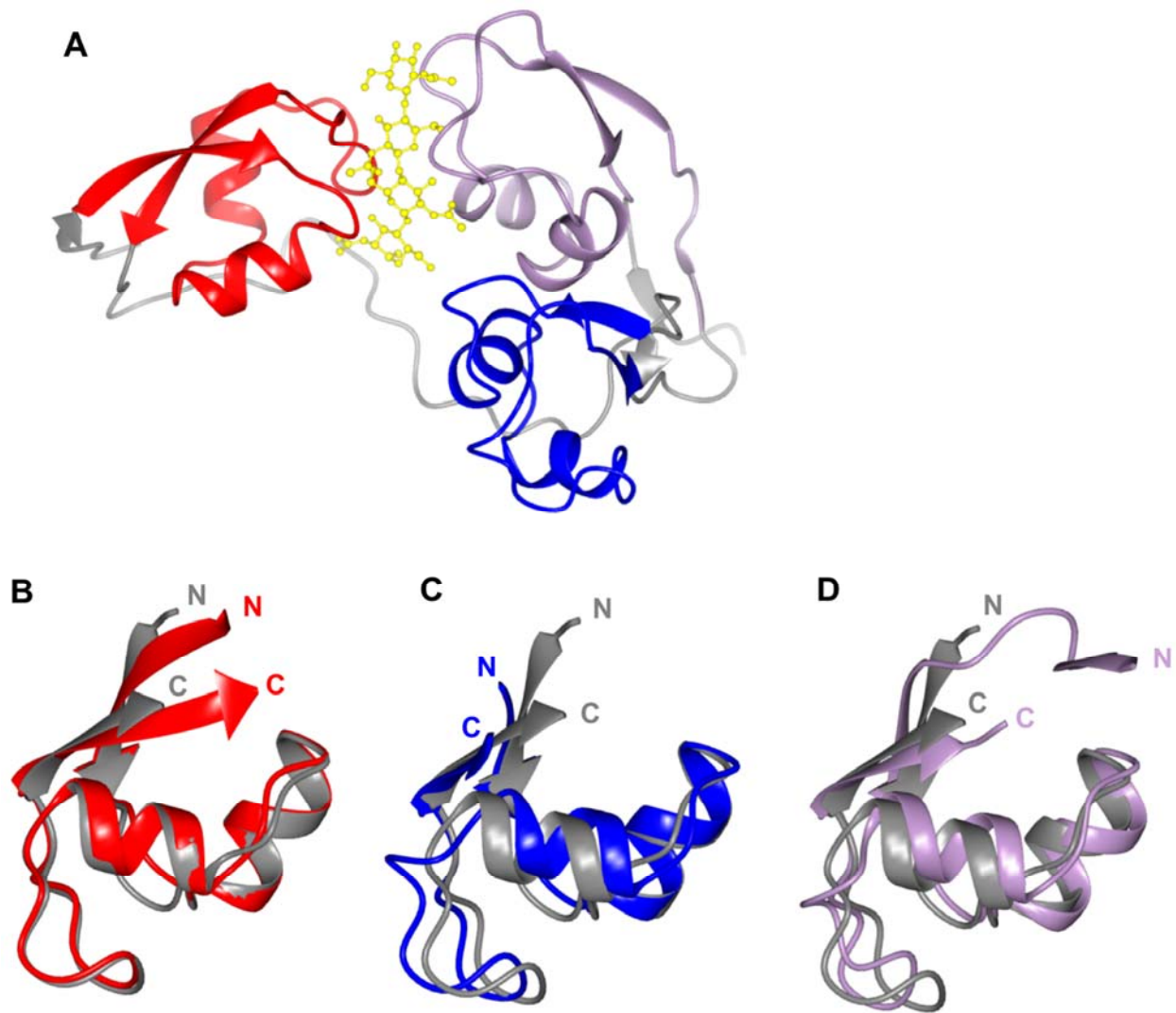
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824



825 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

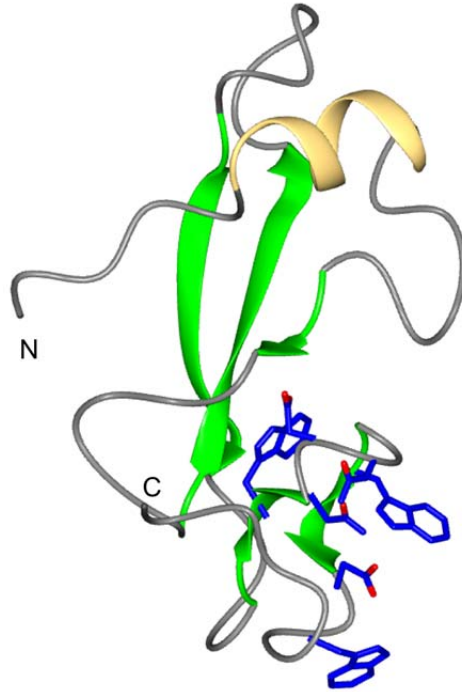
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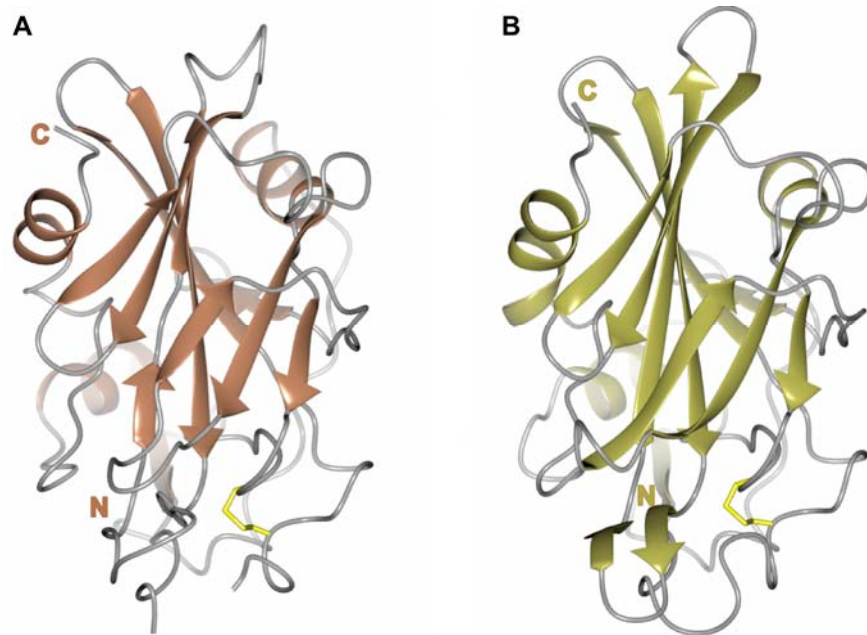
828 **Figure 1.** The crystal structure of the LysM effector Ecp6 shows how modularity can be used by  
829 effectors to generate new functions (the three LysM domains are coloured red, blue and lilac  
830 respectively). The top panel shows how two Ecp6 LysM domains combine to bind to a chitin  
831 oligomer (shown in yellow). The bottom panel shows the superposition of the Ecp6 LysM  
832 domains on the plant (rice) LysM receptor protein MoCVNH3 (in grey, LysM domains coloured  
833 as above). The amino (N) and carboxyl (C) termini of the proteins are labelled.

834



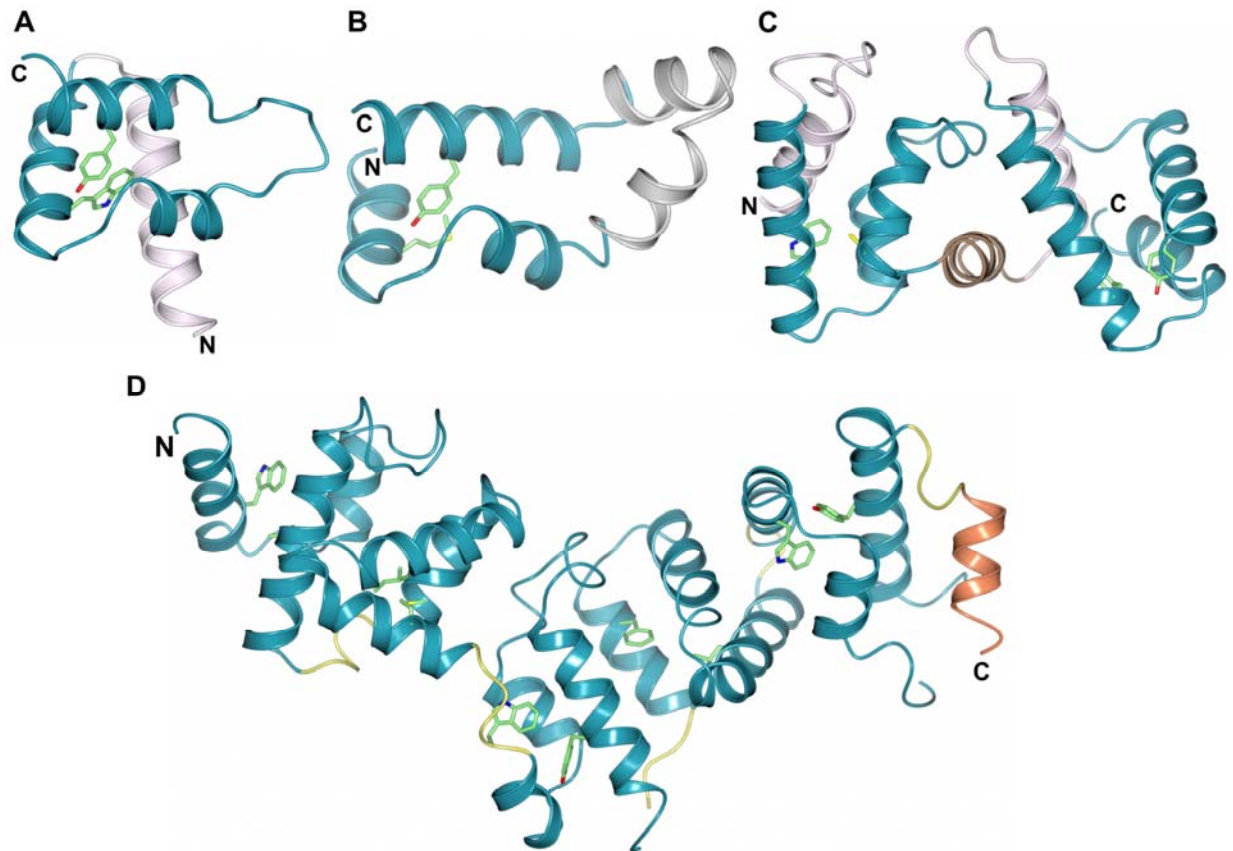
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836 **Figure 2.** The CBM14-family structure of *P. fuligena* Avr4. The structure comprises an alpha  
837 helix (yellow) and five beta strands (green). The residues predicted to be involved in the  
838 interaction with chitin are shown in blue.



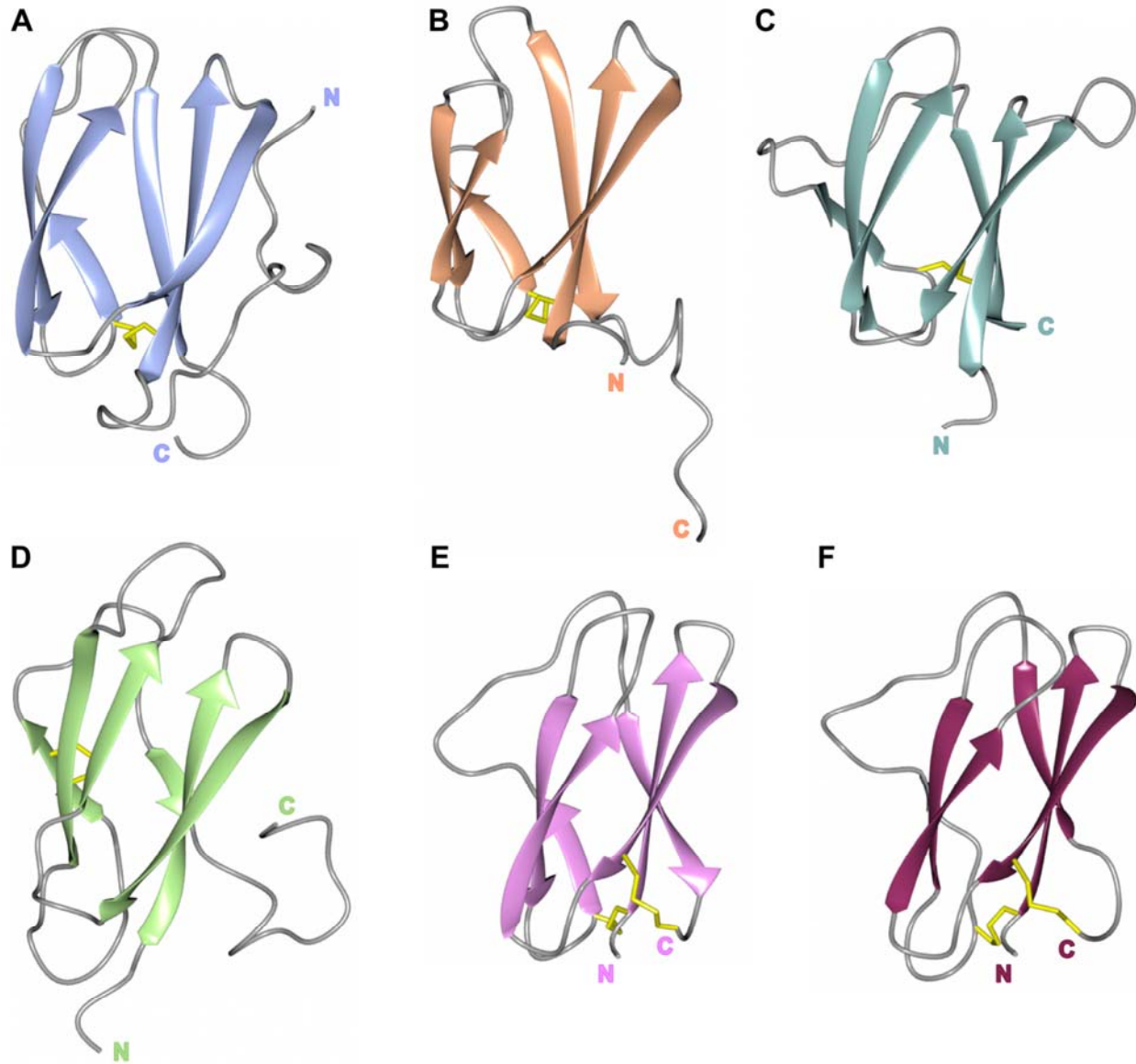
840

841 **Figure 3.** Crystal structures of the NLP family members NLP<sub>Pya</sub> (A) and MpNEP2 (B), showing  
842 the central  $\beta$ -sandwich surrounded by 3 helices. The conserved structural elements are shown in  
843 cartoon representation, with residues contributing to disulphide bridges shown as sticks (in  
844 yellow), and loops in grey.



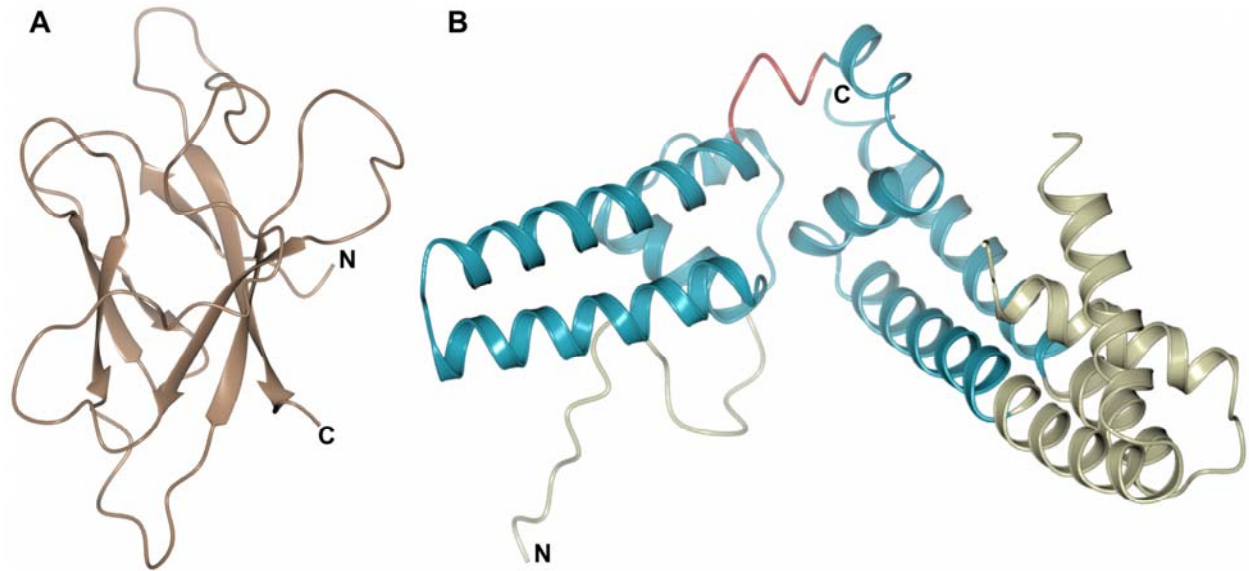
845

846 **Figure 4.** The structures of oomycete WY-domain effectors reveal how modularity and domain  
 847 repeats give rise to different overall structures. For each panel, the region of the protein  
 848 comprising the WY-domain fold is coloured in blue and the residues at the ‘W’ and ‘Y’ positions  
 849 are shown as sticks (green carbon atoms). The panels show **(A)** Avr3a11 (Avr3a4 is essentially  
 850 identical and not shown), **(B)** PexRD2 (monomer), **(C)** ATR1 (the region to the N-terminus that  
 851 does not form a WY domain is not shown), and **(D)** PexRD54, with amino (N) and carboxyl (C)  
 852 termini labelled. Avr3a11/4 and ATR1 carry an additional N-terminal helix (pink). The tandem  
 853 WY-domains of ATR1 and PexRD54 are separated by a helix (brown) in ATR1, and loops  
 854 (yellow) in PexRD54. PexRD54 carries a short helix (coral) at C-terminal end prior to the ATG8  
 855 interacting motif (AIM, not seen as it was disordered in the crystals). All structure figures were  
 856 prepared with ccp4mg (111).



857

858 **Figure 5.** The structures of MAX effectors reveals the shared  $\beta$ -sandwich fold. The conserved  $\beta$ -  
 859 strands are shown in cartoon representation for each protein, with residues contributing to  
 860 disulphide bridges shown as sticks (in yellow), and loops are in grey. The panels show **(A)** AVR-  
 861 PikD, **(B)** AVR1-CO39, **(C)** AVR-Pia, and **(D)** AVR-Pizt, **(E)** ToxB, and **(F)** toxb, with amino  
 862 (N) and carboxyl (C) termini labelled.



863

864 **Figure 6.** Divergent structures obtained for flax rust effectors. **(A)** a cartoon representation of  
865 AvrL567-A (the -D allele is essentially identical and not shown), showing  $\beta$ -sandwich fold. **(B)**  
866 a cartoon diagram of avrM, where the helical repeats, which have some resemblance to the  
867 oomycete WY-domain fold, are coloured in blue and separated by a loop (red). The amino (N)  
868 and carboxyl (C) termini of the proteins are labelled.

## 869 TABLES

870

871 **Table 1. Filamentous plant pathogen effectors that have sequence similarities with enzymes**  
 872 **or enzyme inhibitors.**

Effector Class	Hyphal Pathogen	Example(s)	Citation
Chorismate mutases	<i>Ustilago maydis</i>	<i>cmu1</i>	(45)
lipase effector	<i>Fusarium graminearum</i>	FGL1	(112)
Enzyme inhibitors			
protease inhibitors	<i>Cladosporium fulvum</i>	Avr2	(41)
cystatin-like protease inhibitor domains	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>	EPIC1, EPIC2B	(42)
Chitinase inhibitor	<i>Cladosporium fulvum</i>	Avr4	(56)
Proteases and peptidases			
Proteases	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i> ( <i>Mycosphaerella graminicola</i> )		(33)
	<i>Colletotrichum sp.</i>		(34)
Secreted peptidases	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i> ( <i>Mycosphaerella graminicola</i> )	Astacin (Peptidase family M12A) Serine carboxypeptidase S28	(113)
serine protease	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> f. sp. <i>lycopersici</i>	Sep1	(35)
Alkaline serine protease alp1	<i>sclerotiorum</i>	Peptidase inhibitor I9	(23)
metalloprotease			
Zinc metalloprotease	<i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i>	AVRPita (AVR2-YAMO)	(36, 114)
Deuterolysin metalloprotease	<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	Deuterolysin metalloprotease (M35) family (PF02102) Homolog to <i>M. oryzae</i> AvrPita	(23)
metalloprotease	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> f. sp. <i>lycopersici</i>	Mep1	(35)
Nudix hydrolases			
	<i>Phytophthora sojae</i>	Avr3b	(46)

	<i>Colletotrichum truncatum</i>	CtNUDIX	(115)
	<i>Melampsora lini</i>	AvrM14	(48)
<hr/>			
Crinklers			
kinase activity	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>	CRN8	(50)
<hr/>			

873



874 **Table 2. Details of filamentous plant pathogen effectors that have had their structures determined.**

Protein	Origin	Targeted Process	Immune Receptor	Fold	Comparison to Known Structure		PDB Code	Refs
					RMSD, Å (no. of residues in overlay) <sup>1</sup>	Sequence Identity (%) <sup>2</sup>		
Avr3a11	<i>P. capsici</i>	Unknown	-	WY	N.D.	N.D.	3ZR8	(74)
Avr3a4	<i>P. capsici</i>	Unknown	-	WY	1.26 (42)	79.0	2LC2	(77)
PexRD2	<i>P. infestans</i>	MAPKKK $\epsilon$ mediated immune signalling	-	WY	1.41 (40)	27.8	3ZRG	(74)
PexRD54	<i>P. infestans</i>	Autophagy	-	WY	1.73 (41)	20.0	5L7S	(78)
ATR1	<i>H. arabidopsdis</i>	Unknown	RPP1	WY	2.37 (36)	23.7	3RMR	(76)
AvrL567-D	<i>M. lini</i>	Unknown	L6	ToxA-like	2.74 (82)	22.2	2QVT	(116)
AvrL567-A	<i>M. lini</i>	Unknown	L5 and L6	ToxA-like	2.58 (81)	19.7	2OPC	(116)
avrM	<i>M. lini</i>	Unknown	-	WY-like	N.D.	26.1	4BJM	(106)
AvrM-A	<i>M. lini</i>	Unknown	M	WY-like	N.D.	23.9	4BJN	(106)
Avr-PikD (in complex)	<i>M. oryzae</i>	Unknown	Pik1/Pik2	MAX	N.D.	N.D.	5A6W	(82)
Avr1-CO39	<i>M. oryzae</i>	Unknown	RGA5/RGA4	MAX	1.36 (55)	17.2	2MYV	(80)
Avr-Pia	<i>M. oryzae</i>	Unknown	RGA5/RGA4	MAX	2.24 (52)	16.4	2MYW	(80)
AvrPiz-t	<i>M. oryzae</i>	E3 ligase mediated immunity	Piz-t	MAX	2.33 (58)	15.6	2LW6	(84)
Avr4	<i>P. fuligena</i>	Chitin mediated immunity (PTI) /fungal derived chitin perception	Cf-4	CBM14-like	1.98 (52)	22.2	4Z4A	(61)
Ecp6	<i>C. fulvum</i>	Chitin mediated immunity (PTI) /fungal derived chitin perception	-	LysM 1	0.8 (45)	35.9	4B8V	(54)
Ecp6	<i>C. fulvum</i>			LysM 2	1.17 (43)	37.1	4B8V	(54)

Ecp6	<i>C. fulvum</i>			LysM 3	1.51 (45)	20.8	4B8V	(54)
AvrLm4-7	<i>L. maculans</i>	Production of plant hormones and hydrogen peroxide / Plant hormone mediated immunity	Rlm4 and Rlm7	Unique	N.D.	N.D.	4FPR	(110)
ToxA	<i>P. tritici-repentis</i>	Photosynthesis	Tsn1 <sup>3</sup>	ToxA-like	N.D.	N.D.	1ZLE	(103)
ToxB	<i>P. tritici-repentis</i>	Photosynthesis	-	MAX	2.25 (58)	25.4	2MM0	(81)
toxb	<i>P. tritici-repentis</i>	inactive allele	-	MAX	2.33 (57)	19.7	2MM2	(81)
NLP	<i>P. aphanidermatum</i>	Plasma membrane integrity	-	Actinoporin-like	2.34 (68)	21.9	3GNZ	(64)
NLP	<i>M. perniciososa</i>	Plasma membrane integrity	-	Actinoporin-like	2.24 (68)	19.3	3ST1	(70)

875 <sup>1</sup> Template proteins used for comparison are Avr3a11 (WY, WY-like), Avr-PikD (MAX), Tachycitin (CBM14-like), MoCVNH3  
876 (LysM), ToxA (ToxA-like), Sticholysin II (Actinoporin-like), N.D. (Not Determined, to either avoid comparison with self, or the  
877 comparison is not meaningful).

878 <sup>2</sup> N.D. (Not Determined, to either avoid comparison with self, or structure is unique)

879 <sup>3</sup> Tsn1 is a susceptibility factor

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