

Silencing the conserved small nuclear ribonucleoprotein SmD1 target gene alters susceptibility to root-knot nematodes in plants

Joffrey Mejias, Yongpan Chen, Jérémie Bazin, Nhat-My Truong, Karine Mulet, Yara Noureddine, Stéphanie Jaubert-Possamai, Sarah Ranty-Roby, Salomé Soulé, Pierre Abad, et al.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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1 2 SHORT TITLE: SmD1, a susceptibility gene to nematodes 3 4 Authors for Contact: Bruno Favery and Michaël Quentin (Tel +33492386495; 5 bruno.favery@inrae.fr and michael.quentin@inrae.fr). 6 7 TITLE: Silencing the conserved SmD1 target gene alters susceptibility to root-knot 8 nematodes in plants 9 10 Joffrey Mejias¹, Yongpan Chen¹, Jérémie Bazin², Nhat-My Truong¹, Karine Mulet¹, Yara 11 Noureddine¹, Stéphanie Jaubert-Possamai¹, Sarah Ranty-Roby¹, Salomé Soulé¹, Pierre Abad¹, 12 Martin D. Crespi², Bruno Favery^{1,*} and Michaël Quentin^{1,*} 13 14 ¹ INRAE, Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, ISA, F-06903 Sophia Antipolis, France 15 ² Institute of Plant Sciences Paris-Saclay (IPS2), CNRS, INRA, Universités Paris Saclay, Evry, 16 17 Université de Paris, 91192 Gif sur Yvette, France 18 ONE SENTENCE SUMMARY: The conserved spliceosomal SmD1 protein targeted by EFF18s 19 effectors is involved in plant susceptibility to root-knot nematodes 20 21 List of author contributions: J.M. designed and performed experiments, and interpreted data; 22

J.M., Y.C. and N.M.T. generated constructs and performed yeast two-hybrid analysis; Y.C. and

S.R.R. performed *in situ* hybridisations. Y.C. performed *in planta* subcellular localisation experiments; K.M. performed VIGS and nematode infection tests in tomato; S.S. analyzed RT-qPCR data. J.B., YN, S.J.P. and M.D.C. performed the tomato transcriptome analysis and analyzed AS data; J.M., JB., S.J.P., P.A., M.D.C., B.F. and M.Q. wrote the manuscript; B.F. and M.Q. obtained funding, designed the work and supervised the experiments and data analyses; all the authors read and edited the manuscript.

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Abstract

Root-knot nematodes (RKNs) are among the most damaging pests of agricultural crops. Indeed, *Meloidogyne* is an extremely polyphagous genus of nematodes that can infect thousands of plant species. A few genes for resistance (R-genes) to RKN suitable for use in crop breeding have been identified, and new virulent strains and species of RKN have emerged rendering these R-genes ineffective. Secretion of RKN effectors targeting plant functions, mediate the reprogramming of root cells into specialised feeding cells, the giant cells, essential for RKN development and reproduction. Conserved targets among plant species define the more relevant strategies for controlling nematode infection. The EFFECTOR 18 protein (EFF18) from *M. incognita* interacts with the spliceosomal protein SmD1 in Arabidopsis, disrupting its function in alternative splicing regulation and modulating the giant cell transcriptome. We show here that EFF18 is a conserved RKN-specific effector that targets this conserved spliceosomal SmD1 protein in Solanaceae. This interaction modulates alternative splicing events produced by *Solanum lycopersicum* in response to *M. incognita* infection. The alteration of *SmD1* expression by virus-induced gene silencing

- 70 (VIGS) in Solanaceae affects giant cell formation and nematode development. Thus, our work
- defines a new promising conserved *SmD1* target gene to develop broad resistance for the control of
- 72 *Meloidogyne* spp. in plants.

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Introduction

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Plant parasitic nematodes are major crop pests causing crop losses of several billion dollars annually, through damage to almost all cultivated plants (Singh et al., 2013). Root-knot nematodes (RKNs) of the genus *Meloidogyne* are considered to be the most detrimental of these plant parasites, due to the magnitude of the economic losses they cause (Jones et al., 2013). RKNs are widespread worldwide and can infect more than 5,500 different plant species, including many species of major agricultural interest. About 100 RKN species have been described, and those reproducing asexually by mitotic parthenogenesis (M. incognita, M. javanica, M. arenaria and M. enterolobii) are the most polyphagous and damaging pests. By contrast, those reproducing sexually or by meiotic parthenogenesis (M. hapla) have a smaller host range (Blok et al., 2008; Castagnone-Sereno, 2006). All RKNs are sedentary endoparasites that induce the formation of specialised feeding structures and typical root deformations, known as galls or root knots, that deprive the plant of nutrients (Escobar et al., 2015; Favery et al., 2016). After hatching from eggs, the stage 2 juveniles (J2) of M. incognita penetrate the root apex and migrate between plant cells to reach the plant vascular system (Holbein et al., 2019). Once there, the filiform J2 switch to a sedentary lifestyle, by selecting five to seven cells of the vascular parenchyma and inducing their reprogramming into specialised feeding cells, known as giant cells (Escobar et al., 2015; Favery et al., 2016; Olmo et al., 2020). These giant cells act as metabolic sinks close to the xylem and phloem vessels that withdraw water and nutrients from the sap (Rodiuc et al., 2014). The nematode uses these specific giant cells for feeding for the rest of its life. After successive moults, the sedentary swollen juveniles develop into an adult female that lays her egg masses on the root surface, thus completing the cycle. The giant cells are hypertrophied and multinucleate, harbouring hundreds of nuclei. They are produced by successive nuclear divisions uncoupled from cytokinesis, followed by nuclear endoreduplication (de Almeida Engler and Gheysen, 2013). RKN induce giant cells and gall formation by recruiting the developmental pathways of post-embryonic organogenesis and regeneration to promote transient pluripotency (Olmo *et al.*, 2020).

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RKNs parasitise plants and induce the redifferentiation of vascular cells into giant cells by secreting effectors, molecules that recruit/hijack plant functions (Mejias et al., 2019; Toruño et al., 2016). RKN effectors, particularly those produced by the three oesophageal gland cells and secreted into the host through a stylet, are involved in the four main functions underlying parasitism: (i) the degradation and modification of plant cell walls during J2 migration within the root; (ii) the suppression of host defences; (iii) the reprogramming of plant vascular cells as giant cells and (vi) the maintenance of these feeding sites (Mitchum et al., 2013; Truong et al., 2015). The profound morphological and metabolic changes associated with giant cell induction by RKNs and the transcriptional reprogramming occurring during the formation of these cells require the secretion of effectors targeting key nuclear functions (Hewezi and Baum, 2013; Quentin et al., 2013). With the exception of plant cell wall-degrading enzymes (Danchin et al., 2010), very few effectors have been shown to be conserved and functional in multiple RKN species. For example, 16D10 encodes a conserved secretory peptide conserved in five RKN species (M. incognita, M. arenaria, M. hapla, M. javanica, M. chitwoodi) that stimulates root growth and functions as a ligand for a putative plant transcription factor (Huang et al., 2006; Dinh et al., 2015). The silencing of 16D10 by RNA interference methods confers broad resistance to RKNs (Huang et al., 2006; Dinh et al., 2015). The chorismate mutates, MiCM3 (Wang et al., 2018) and MjCM1 (Doyle and Lambert, 2003), and the transthyretin-like proteins, MiTTL5 (Lin et al., 2016) and MhTTL2 (Gleason et al., 2017), also appear to be effectors conserved among RKNs. Interestingly, MhTTL2

is expressed in the amphids (Gleason *et al.*, 2017), whereas MjTTL5 is expressed specifically in the subventral glands, suggesting different roles for these two molecules in parasitism, encoded by the same gene family (Lin *et al.*, 2016).

The majority of plant protein-coding genes contain introns which are removed from precursor messenger RNAs (pre-mRNA) to produce mRNAs during splicing. Alternative splicing (AS) occurs when this process is regulated, producing more than one mRNA from the pre-mRNA and giving rise to functionally different proteins (Reddy et al., 2013; Staiger and Brown, 2013). AS plays a crucial role in plant responses to biotic stress (Rigo et al., 2019). Recent findings indicate that pathogen effectors can modulate AS to corrupt host plant physiology and allow disease development (Verma et al., 2018; Huang et al, 2020). In a previous study, we showed that MiEFF18, a nuclear effector from M. incognita, is secreted in planta, targets the giant cell nuclei and interacts with the SmD1 protein, a core component of the spliceosome (Mejias et al., 2021). We show here that MiEFF18 is a specific and conserved nuclear RKN effector and that orthologous genes are specifically expressed in the salivary glands of RKNs. We also show that MiEFF18 and its orthologue in M. enterolobii, MeEFF18, interact with SmD1 proteins from different plant species to reprogram AS in the feeding site induced by M. incognita in tomato roots. Interestingly, virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) approaches to silence the SmD1 genes of Nicotiana benthamiana and S. lycopersicum greatly impaired RKN infection. These results are consistent with the targeting, by RKNs, of conserved spliceosomal functions, to drive the development of giant cells, facilitating parasitism on a large spectrum of host plants. This allowed us to propose that the conserved interaction of EFF18 effectors and SmD1 can be the basis for a new general strategy to control nematode infection in plants.

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EFF18 is a conserved RKN-specific effector targeting the plant nucleus

MiEFF18 was first described in the *M. incognita* genome (Mejias et al., 2021; Nguyen et al., 2018; Rutter et al., 2014). Database queries showed that MiEFF18 displayed no sequence homology or known domains, and that it was absent from nematodes of other genera, such as cyst nematodes and free-living nematodes. By contrast, EFF18 orthologues were identified in seven of the eight RKNs for which genome sequences were available: M. incognita, M. javanica, M. arenaria (Blanc-Mathieu et al., 2017), M. hapla (Opperman et al., 2008), M. enterolobii (syn. M. mayaguensis) (Koutsovoulos et al., 2020), M. floridensis (Lunt et al., 2014) and M. luci (Susič et al., 2020) (Figure 1, Supplemental Table S1, Supplemental Figure S1 and S2). No EFF18 orthologue was identified in M. graminicola (Somvanshi et al., 2018). Three paralogous copies were identified, in the M. incognita, M. javanica and in M. luci genomes. Four copies were detected in M. arenaria and a single copy was detected in M. hapla, M. floridensis and M. enterolobii. A sequence alignment and analysis of the RKN EFF18 protein sequences showed that they were more than 60% identical, between 279 and 316 amino acids (aa) long and that they had an N-terminal secretion signal peptide (SP), a low-complexity acidic D/E-rich region and a C-terminal lysine (K)-rich region of unknown function carrying direct repeats (Figure 1A, Supplemental Figure S2). Only the C-terminal K-rich part displayed marked differences between copies. A phylogenetic tree based on an alignment of the 17 RKN EFF18 protein sequences showed divergences between copies among the same species (Figure 1A). EFF18 proteins more closely related to MiEFF18a/Minc18636 harboured one monopartite NLS and one bipartite NLS, whereas other copies are more divergent (e.g. MiEFF18b/Minc15401 and MiEFF18c) and contained only

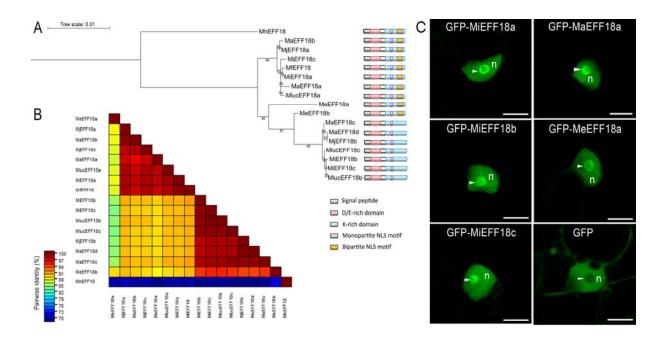


Figure 1 Effector 18 (EFF18) is a conserved effector in root-knot nematodes. A, Phylogenetic tree and schematic diagram of root-knot nematode EFF18 protein sequences. The tree scale corresponds to the number of substitutions per site based on the amino-acid matrix (JTT). In the schematic diagram of EFF18 proteins, the predicted secretion signal peptide (SP; grey boxes), the aspartic acid and glutamic acid (D-E)-rich region (red boxes), the lysine (K)-rich C-terminal region (blue boxes) and the nuclear mono- (purple boxes) or bi- (orange boxes) partite localisation signals (NLS) are shown. EFF18 proteins from the closest group to MiEFF18a carry one mono- and one bipartite NLS, whereas the most divergent copies have only a single monopartite NLS. B, Pairwise sequence identity matrix for RKN EFF18 protein sequences. C, EFF18 localised to the nucleus and nucleolus of plant cells. The MiEFF18s, MaEFF18a and MeEFF18a sequences were fused to that encoding GFP in a C-terminal position and expressed in N. benthamiana leaves by agroinfiltration. GFP was used as a control and gave fluorescence in the cytoplasm and the nucleus (n), but not the nucleolus (arrowhead). Bars = 10 μm.

one monopartite NLS (Figure 1A). The EFF18s with bipartite NLS were 98% to 100% identical to the MiEFF18a protein, whereas those with only monopartite NLS were only 79 to 89% identical to this protein (Figure 1B). *M. hapla* had the most divergent genome of the *Meloidogyne* species tested. It was found to have a single copy of the gene, 63-65% identical to the closest copies and the most divergent copies, which suggests that the ancestor of RKN species had an *EFF18* gene. *MiEFF18a*, *MiEFF18b*, *MiEFF18c*, *MaEFF18a* and *MeEFF18a* fused at their N-terminus to GFP were transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaf epidermis. For all EFF18 constructs, including

MiEFF18b and MiEFF18c carrying a single monopartite NLS, GFP fluorescence was only detected in the nucleus, with a strong GFP signal accumulating in the nucleolus (Figure 1C). In contrast, GFP alone was detected in the cytoplasm and the nucleus, but not in the nucleolus (Figure 1C). Altogether, these results provide support for the role of EFF18 as a conserved nuclear effector.

RKN EFF18s are specifically expressed in the subventral glands

MiEFF18 have been shown to be more strongly expressed at parasitic stages and to be expressed specifically in the subventral glands of *M. incognita* J2s (Rutter *et al.*, 2014; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018; Mejias *et al.*, 2020). We studied the pattern of expression of genes encoding orthologous sequences of MiEFF18 in two other RKN species, by performing *in situ* hybridisation (ISH) for the *M. enterolobii MeEFF18a* and the *M. arenaria MaEFF18a* sequences. A specific signal was detected in the subventral oesophageal gland cells of pre-J2s after hybridisation with digoxigenin-labelled *MeEFF18a* and *MaEFF18a* antisense probes (Figure 2). No signal was detected in pre-J2s with sense negative controls. This finding suggests that MaEFF18a and MeEFF18a, may, like MiEFF18a, be secreted and play an important role in nematode parasitism.

MiEFF18a and MeEFF18a interact with the SmD1 proteins of A. thaliana, N. benthamiana

and S. lycopersicum

We have demonstrated an interaction between MiEFF18a and the nuclear ribonucleoproteins SmD1s from *S. lycopersicum* and *A. thaliana*, modulating the pattern of AS in *A. thaliana* and promoting the formation of giant cells (Mejias *et al.*, 2021). Two genes, *AtSmD1a* (*AT3G07590*) and *AtSmD1b* (*AT4G02840*), encode SmD1 proteins in *A. thaliana* (Koncz *et al.*, 2012). Most of

M. arenaria antisense SvG

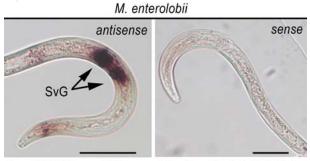


Figure 2 RKN EFF18s are specifically expressed in the subventral glands. In stru hybridisation, showing EFF18 transcripts in the subventral glands of J2s of M. arenaria and M. enterolobit. Sense probes for the MaEFF18 and MeEFF18 transcripts were used as a negative control. SvG, subventral glands. Bars = 40 μm.

the *Arabidopsis* SmD1 protein production is allowed by the expression of *AtSmD1b*, and the analysis of *smd1a* and *smd1b* knockout lines indicated that mostly *AtSmD1b* contributes to Arabidopsis development and susceptibility to nematodes (Elvira-Matelot *et al.*, 2016; Mejias *et al.*, 2021). According to RNAseq data, no difference in *AtSmD1a* and *AtSmD1b* expression was observed in galls 5 or 7 days following inoculation with *M. incognita*, when compared to uninfected roots (Mejias *et al.*, 2021). Two genes, sharing 98.0% nucleotide sequence identity, encode 100% identical proteins (SISmD1) in *S. lycopersicum: SISmD1a* (*Solyc06g084310*) and *SISmD1b* (*Solyc09g064660*). In *N. benthamiana*, we identified three genes, sharing 89.0 to 97.1% nucleotide sequence identity, encoding SmD1s: *NbSmD1a* (*Niben101Scf01782g05006*), *NbSmD1b* (*Niben101Scf05290g01011*), and *NbSmD1c* (*Niben101Scf04283g03011*). *NbSmD1a*

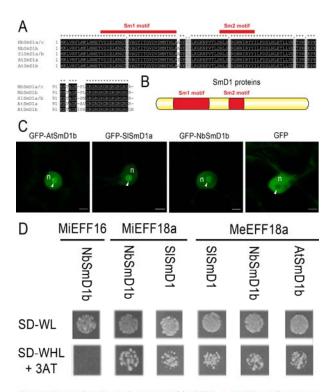


Figure 3 Conserved SmD1 proteins are targeted by EFF18. A, MAFFT protein sequence alignment of the S. Iycopærsicum (Sl), N. benthamtona (Nb) and A. thaltana (At) SmD1 proteins. B, Schematic representation of Sm1 and Sm2 motif in SmD1 proteins. C, GFFP- AtSmD1b, GFP-SISmD1a and GFP-NbSmD1b accumulate in the nucleus and particularly in the nucleolus when transiently expressed in N. benthamtona epidermal leaf cells. GFP was used as a nucleocytoplasmic control. ne nucleoplasm; White arrowheads show nucleolus. Bars = 5 µm. D, Pairwise yeast two-hybrid assays showed that the MiEFF18a and MeEFF18 proteins were able to interact with the SmD1 proteins of A. thaltana, S. Iycopærsicum and N. benthamtona. We used MiEFF18a and MiEFF16 as a positive and negative control, respectively. Diploid yeasts containing the bait and prey plasmisd carrying controls, effectors or SmD1 were serially diluted and spotted on plates. The 10-2 dilution is shown. SD-WL corresponds to the non-selective medium without tryptophan (W) and leucine (L). Only yeasts carrying a protein-protein interaction can survive on the SD-WLH (H, histidine) + 0.5 mM 3-aminotriazole (3-AT) selective medium.

and *NbSmD1c* encode 100% identical protein, and NbSmD1b shares 99.1% with NbSmD1a/c. A multiple sequence alignment showed that SmD1 was highly conserved in these species, with 93% amino acid sequence identity between SlSmD1 and the sequence from which it diverged most strongly, AtSmD1b (Figure 3A). Like all Sm proteins, SmD1s carry two conserved Sm motifs mediating protein-protein interactions during small nuclear ribonucleoprotein (snRNP) biogenesis (Figure 3B). We investigated the subcellular localisation of SmD1 in plant cells, by transiently expressing constructs encoding *GFP-SmD1* fusion proteins in *N. benthamiana*. We confirmed a strong accumulation of NbSmD1b, SlSmD1a and AtSmD1b in the nucleolus and in Cajal bodies, and a weaker accumulation in the nucleoplasm (Figure 3C).

We then investigated whether MeEFF18a was also able to interact with SmD1 proteins from S.

lycopersicum and *A. thaliana*, like MiEFF18a (Mejias *et al.*, 2021). Using a pairwise yeast-two hybrid approach, we showed that MiEFF18a and MeEFF18a interact with SmD1 proteins from plants of different clades, such as *A. thaliana*, *S. lycopersicum* and *N. benthamiana* (Figure 3D). As a control, we tested SmD1 interactions with another *M. incognita* effector, MiEFF16, encoded by the *Minc16401* gene and expressed in the subventral glands, with the same nuclear location *in planta* as MiEFF18 (Mejias *et al.*, 2020). No interaction was observed between MiEFF16 and SmD1 proteins in yeast (Figure 3D). These results demonstrate that EFF18 proteins are conserved among RKNs and that they interact with SmD1 proteins, which are conserved among plant species.

M. incognita triggers alternative splicing in tomato

To get a deeper insight into the role played by AS in tomato response to *M. incognita*, we analysed paired-end Illumina RNA-seq data of dissected tomato galls 7 and 14 dpi with *M. incognita* and corresponding uninfected roots. The four main categories of AS events, *i.e.* intron retention (IR), exon skipping (ES), alternative 5' splice site (A5) and alternative 3' splice site (A3), were detected, and IR were the most prevalent AS events (Figure 4A; Supplemental Table S3). We identified 583 and 949 differential splicing events in 480 and 717 differentially spliced genes (DSG) in tomato galls at 7 and 14 dpi, respectively (Figure 4A and 4B). To further examine the function of genes undergoing AS, we performed a Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis. The GO term analysis showed enrichment in genes encoding for proteins associated to nuclear biological processes, with an overrepresentation of genes involved in regulation of histone modification and chromatin organisation, in transcription, and in mRNA transport (Supplemental Table S4). In total, 846 and 2176 differentially expressed genes (DEG) were counted at 7 and 14

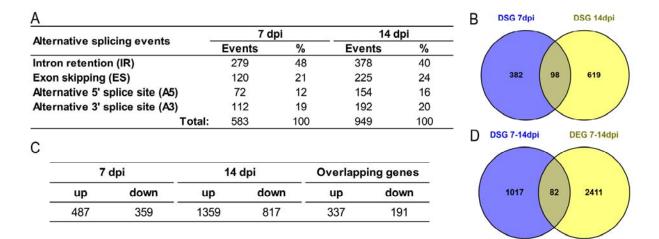


Figure 4. Alternative splicing is triggered in tomato roots upon M incognita infection. A, Tomato genes with alternative splicing events (intron retention, exon skipping, alternative 3' splice site and alternative 5' splice site) in galls 7 and 14 days after inoculation (dpi) with M incognita, relative to uninfected roots. B, Venn diagram showing the overlap between differentially spliced genes (DSG) in M incognita-induced galls at seven and 14 dpi. C, Tomato genes differentially expressed (up or down-regulated) in galls 7 and 14 dpi with M incognita, relative to uninfected roots. D, Venn diagram showing the overlap between differentially spliced genes (DSG) and differentially expressed genes (DEG) in M incognita-induced galls at either 7 or 14 dpi.

dpi, respectively (Figure 4C; Supplemental Table S5 and S6). To determine whether DEG were involved in the same biological processes as DSG, we performed a GO term enrichment analysis. Genes involved in response to the phytohormones auxin and cytokinin, and cell cycle, were overrepresented among the DEG, while genes associated with RNA processing were underrepresented (Supplemental Table S7), demonstrating a distinct function for AS in tomato galls. From the 2493 DEG at either 7 or 14 dpi, 82 genes were also differentially spliced (Figure 4D). Thus, only a small portion of DEGs has splicing defects. These results indicate that AS plays a key role in tomato response to RKN infection, independently of mRNA abundance regulation. To compare AS patterns induced by *M. incognita* in tomato and *Arabidopsis*, we searched for tomato orthologs of *Arabidopsis* genes alternatively spliced in galls at 5- and/or 7-days post infection with *M. incognita* (Mejias *et al.*, 2021). AS was detected in galls of both species for 40 ortholog pairs (Supplemental Figure S3, Supplemental Table S8), suggesting *M. incognita* could modulate through AS conserved functions in different host species. We also asked whether two

distinct pathogens, *M. incognita* and the oomycete *Phytophthora infestans*, would be responsible for similar AS modulation in tomato. *P. infestans* triggers AS in 2088 genes in tomato (Huang *et al.*, 2020), among which 275 are also differentially spliced upon *M. incognita* infection (Supplemental Table S8). This result indicates that similar responses to different parasites are allowed in tomato by differential splicing on identical targeted genes.

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SmD1 acts as a susceptibility gene for infection in plants of different clades

We investigated whether SmD1 is a conserved susceptibility gene required to ensure infection, and essential for RKN parasitism in Solanaceae species, by using a virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) approach to alter the expression of SmD1 genes in S. lycopersicum and N. benthamiana. We first performed a VIGS assay to silence SmD1 genes in S. lycopersicum (Figure 5A). According to transcriptomic data gathered on TomExpress, both SlSmD1a and SlSmD1b are similarly expressed in tomato tissues (Supplemental Figure S4). In addition, according to our RNAseq data, the expression of SlSmD1a and SlSmD1b did not vary at 7 or 14 dpi with M. incognita (Supplemental Table S5 and S6). We evaluated silencing efficiency by RT-qPCR on emerging leaves collected randomly on six independent plants for each treatment. Treated tomatoes had much lower levels of SmD1 transcripts (Figure 5B). Tomatoes in which SmD1 genes were silenced displayed developmental defects on emerging leaves and had a shorter root system (Supplemental Figure S5 and S6). In tomato plants infected with M. incognita, in which SmD1 genes were silenced, the number of females producing egg masses was much smaller than in control plants treated with the TRV-GFP virus (Figure 5C). The observed decreased susceptibility to nematodes cannot only be explained by the shorter root size, as the calculated number of females producing egg mass per gram of roots is also significantly lower following SISmD1 silencing than in the control (Supplemental Figure S6).

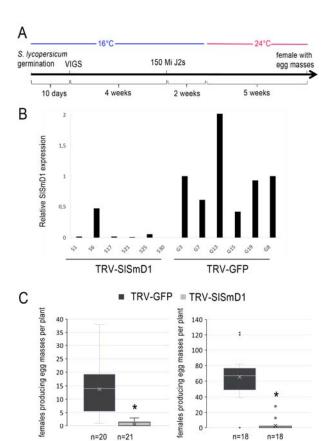


Figure 5 The silencing of SmD1 genes by VIGS affects susceptibility to M. Incognita in S. lycopersicum. A, Timeline used for the VIGS experiments in S. lycopersicum. B, RT-qPCR demonstrating the effective silencing of SISmD1 in TRV-SmD1 line when compared to the control TRV-GFP. SIRPN7 was used for data normalisation. C, Infection test on tomato plants in which SISmD1 genes were silenced (TRV-SmD1) and control tomato plants (TRV-GFP). Females producing egg masses were counted seven weeks after inoculation with 150 M incognita 12s per plant. Boxes indicate interquartile range (25th to the 75th percentile). The central lines within the boxes represent mean values. Whiskers indicate minimum and maximum scores. The crosses represent average values. The circle outside the box represents outlier. Results of two independent replicates are shown. Statistical significance was determined by Kruskal-Wallis tests, and significant differences were observed between TRV-GFP control and TRV-SmD1 plants (*p = 0.01).

experiment 2

experiment 1

Because of the adverse effect of *SmD1* silencing on development in tomato, we then silenced the *SmD1* genes in *N. benthamiana*, which allows performing a VIGS assay at a later developmental stage when roots have already developed substantially (Figure 6A and 6B). An evaluation of silencing efficiency by RT-qPCR showed that *N. benthamiana* roots subjected to VIGS had much lower levels of *NbSmD1b* transcripts than control plants (Figure 6C). We observed no significant expression of *NbSmD1a* and *NbSmD1c* (Figure 6C and Supplemental Figure S7) in non-infected *N. benthamiana* roots. *N. benthamiana* plants in which *NbSmD1b* was

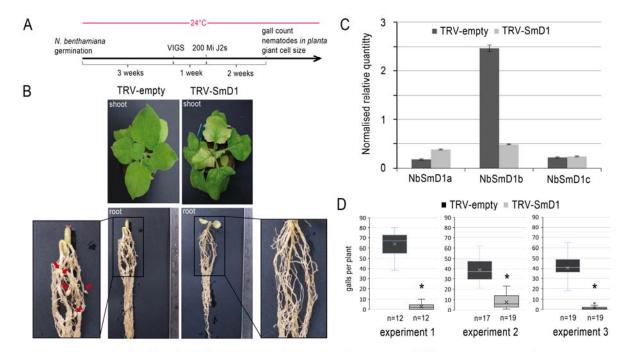


Figure 6 The silencing of SmD1 genes by VIGS affects susceptibility to M. incognita in N. benthamiana. A. Timeline used for VIGS experiment in N. benthamiana. B. N. benthamiana plants with silenced SmD1 genes (TRV-SmD1, right panel) and TRV2-empty control plants (TRV-empty, left panel), showing some developmental defects of the leaves (upper panel) and a shorter root system (lower panel). Red arrow point-out galls on these pictures. C, RT-qPCR showing that the NbSmD1b gene, the most strongly expressed and closest orthologue to the SISmD1 genes, was effectively silenced. The data shown are the normalized relative transcripts quantities calculated from three independent biological replicates using Qbase. NbEF1a and NbACT1 genes were used for data normalisation. Error bars represent standard deviation. D. Infection test on N. benthamiana control plants (TRV-empty) and plants in which NbSmD1b was silenced (TRV-SmD1). Galls were counted two weeks after inoculation with 200 M. incognita J2s per plant. Boxes indicate interquartile range (25th to the 75th percentile). The central lines within the boxes represent mean values. Whiskers indicate minimum and maximum scores. The crosses represent average values. The circle outside the box represents outlier. Results of three independent replicates are shown. Statistical significance was determined by Kruskal-Wallis tests, and significant differences were observed between TRVempty control and TRV-SmD1 plants (*p = 0.05; **p = 0.01).

silenced produced a much smaller number of galls (up to 80% fewer) following infection with *M. incognita* (Figure 6D and Supplemental Figure S8). Together these results indicate that *NbSmD1b* gene has a major contribution to the total amount of the SmD1 protein present in *N. benthamiana* roots and to the *N. benthamiana* susceptibility to nematodes.

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We studied the effect on nematode and giant cell development in detail, by investigating J2s *in* planta by acid fuchsin staining method, to determine the proportions of migrating filiform and sedentary swollen parasitic juveniles and their ratio. The percentage of migrating filiform J2s was

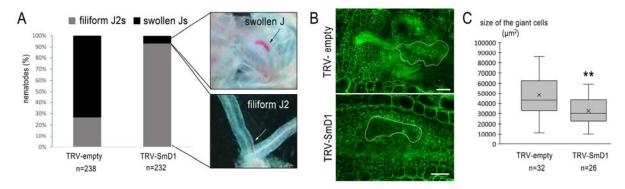


Figure 7 SmD1 plays an important role in the formation of giant cells. A, The filiform J2s/swollen juveniles (Js) ratio obtained by acid fuchsin staining in the N. benthaniana root system with (TRV-SmD1) and without (TRV-empty) silencing with the TRV-SlSmD1 construct, following infection with M. incognita. B, Galls of negative control plants and plants with SmD1 silencing collected two weeks post infection for measurement of the area of giant cells (dotted line) by the BABB clearing method (Cabrera et al., 2018). The biggest giant cell measured is shown by a surrounding dashed white line. Bars = 100 μm. C, Box-and-whisker plot of giant cell size (μm2) measurements (n = 32 and 26 galls).

higher (90%) in plants in which *SmD1* was silenced, which had a lower percentage of swollen juveniles, indicating a defect in the RKN development (Figure 7A). We also investigated whether the giant cells formed on plants in which *SmD1* was silenced displayed developmental defects. We observed these cells directly, under a confocal microscope, after clearing in benzyl alcohol/benzyl benzoate (BABB; Cabrera *et al.*, 2018). A comparison of the mean surface areas of the largest giant cells in each gall showed that giant cells from plants in which *SmD1* was silenced were 36% smaller than those from control plants (Figure 7B and 7C). These results confirm the important role of SmD1 in giant cell formation in Solanaceae species and the requirement of this protein for successful nematode development.

Discussion

The ability of plant pathogens to infect their hosts is generally dependent on the secretion of effectors. Most pathogens secrete effectors to overcome host physical defences, such as the plant cell wall, and to suppress plant immune responses (Toruño *et al.*, 2016). Other effectors are more specific to the parasitic strategy of the pathogen and may regulate host gene expression or trigger changes in host cell morphology and physiology to allow pathogen feeding and development. Most obligatory biotrophs induce specific feeding structures whose formation is allowed by the secretion of specific effectors (Chaudhari *et al.*, 2014; O'Connell and Panstruga, 2006). RKNs are root endoparasites that manipulate host cells to form specialised giant cells for feeding. These giant cells constitute the sole source of nutrients for the nematode, and are, therefore, essential for nematode survival. RKNs induce giant cells by manipulating root cell developmental programmes. Indeed, massive transcriptomic reprogramming occurs during giant cell formation (Favery *et al.*, 2020; Mitchum *et al.*, 2013). Genes associated with root meristem function, lateral root formation and the establishment of the vasculature, in particular, are tightly regulated upon giant cell induction (Cabrera *et al.*, 2014; Olmo *et al.*, 2020; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2017).

Perturbation of AS is a conserved mechanism involved in RKN disease

In eukaryotes, one gene can produce various mRNA transcripts, causing production of variant proteins, through AS regulation. In plants, AS is a key process in plant development and responses to changing environmental conditions (Reddy *et al.*, 2013; Staiger and Brown, 2013). AS contributes to the regulation of plant-microbe interactions (Rigo *et al.*, 2019), and recent findings indicated a role for AS in *Solanaceae* responses to virus (Zheng *et al.*, 2017a; Zheng *et al.*, 2017b; Zhu *et al.*, 2018), fungi (Tan *et al.*, 2015) and oomycetes (Huang *et al.*, 2020). *Phytophthora*

infestans was shown to trigger differential splicing events in 5125 genes in tomato at either 1, 2 or 3 dpi (Huang et al., 2020). Previously, we reported on the occurrence of AS in Arabidopsis following infection with *M. incognita* contributing to transcriptome and proteome diversity (Mejias et al., 2021). Here, we report differential AS events in 1,099 tomato genes following inoculation with *M. incognita*. Among these genes, 824 were not differentially spliced upon *P. infestans* infection, and most interestingly, only 82 were differentially expressed in galls at either 7 or 14 dpi with *M. incognita*. Thus, AS appears as a specific process, independent from regulation of transcripts abundancy, generally targeted to allow transcriptome reprogramming during plant-RKN interactions.

EFF18 is a nuclear conserved RKN-specific effector

AS regulation by pathogens may be achieved through effectors. *P. infestans* secretes so called splicing regulatory effectors (SREs) able to modulate AS by interfering with splicing factors function (Huang *et al.*, 2020). Similarly, the cyst nematode *Heterodera schachtii* 30D08 effector has been shown to modulate AS when expressed in transgenic Arabidopsis plants, by interacting with the auxiliary spliceosomal protein SMU2 (Verma *et al.*, 2018). MiEFF18 is a RKN effector that has been shown to be secreted within host cells and localises to the nucleus. MiEFF18 has been shown to interact with the SmD1 protein, a core component of the spliceosome conserved in all eukaryotes, thereby modulating alternative splicing and gene expression (Mejias *et al.*, 2021). MiEFF18 may corrupt the function of *Arabidopsis SmD1* function to modulate the expression of various genes encoding proteins involved in giant cell formation through processes such as DNA replication or cytokinesis (Mejias *et al.*, 2021). Here, our RNAseq data indicate hundreds of tomato genes are also differentially spliced in response to RKN, including genes involved in

transcriptional regulation. Thus, modulation of SmD1 function through nematode EFF18 may provide transcriptional control over several genes required for plant development, explaining phenotypes of plants in which *SmD1* genes are silenced, and also for the re-differentiation of root cells into giant feeding cells, in different plant species, including *Nicotiana benthamiana* and the tomato *Solanum lycopersicum*.

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Genes encoding the EFF18 effector were found in all available *Meloidogyne* spp. genomes other than the draft genome for the rice RKN M. graminicola (Somvanshi et al., 2018). EFF18 is exclusive to RKN, being absent from all other parasitic nematodes and other plant pathogens with parasitic strategies not involving the induction of giant feeding cells. At least one orthologous copy of a MiEFF18a sequence was detected in each of the available Meloidogyne genomes, demonstrating that EFF18 is a conserved effector. The multiple copies identified in M. incognita, M. javanica and M. arenaria are consistent with the polyploidy of these mitotic parthenogenetic species (Koutsovoulos et al., 2020). The absence of EFF18 effector in M. graminicola may be explained by its particular host range. M. graminicola may have lost the EFF18 when it specialized on monocotyledon hosts. Indeed, M. graminicola differs from other Meloidogyne species in its life cycle. As an example of adaptation to root submergence, M. graminicola females lay eggs inside the root cortex and not on the root surface as other RKNs, to promote J2 survival (Mantelin et al., 2016). One particularity of M. graminicola regarding giant cell induction is that the invading larvae will select root cells in the stele at the root tip, close to the root meristem, while other RKNs induce giant cells in an upper part of the vascular cylinder, farther from the root apex (Mantelin et al., 2016). This adaptation may explain a different requirement in modulating genes expression for giant cell ontogenesis, depending on other effector(s) than EFF18. Alternatively, it is possible that the M. graminicola genome is still incomplete, such that an EFF18 orthologue has not yet been

identified.

The distribution of EFF18 orthologues in two major groups, with copies (e.g. MiEFF18a) carrying two NLS, and those of the most divergent group (e.g. MiEFF18b) carrying only one NLS, suggested a possible duplication of the ancestral *MiEFF18* gene in the ancestor of RKN species, with one of the duplicated genes either gaining or losing a bipartite NLS. The proteins from the closest group to the *MiEFF18a* gene would be expected to function similarly to MiEFF18a, through the modulation of SmD1 functions, due to the very high level of sequence identity between these proteins (98% identity). *M. enterolobii* is an extremely polyphagous species that reproduces through mitotic parthenogenesis, like *M. incognita*. Therefore, we investigated the functionality of proteins MeEFF18 orthologue. We found that, like MiEFF18a, MeEFF18a was able to interact with SmD1 proteins from *A. thaliana*, *N. benthamiana* and *S. lycopersicum*, suggesting that orthologous copies of MiEFF18a are functional and target the same functions in different host plants. Members of the EFF18 family are the first examples of conserved RKN effectors able to target the same conserved process in different plant species.

Targeting conserved effectors to engineer plant resistance

The identification of conserved effectors could lead to new strategies for developing broad resistance (Huang *et al.*, 2006; Landry *et al.*, 2020; Peeters *et al.*, 2013; Roux *et al.*, 2015). Only a few RKN effectors have been described to be conserved. The MAP (*Meloidogyne* avirulence protein) effector family, which includes *M. incognita* Mi-MAP1.2, was shown to be conserved in 13 of the 21 RKN species tested, and absent from other genera of plant-parasitic nematodes (PPNs) (Tomalova *et al.*, 2012). The genes of the MAP effector family harbour one or multiple CLE-like motifs, which may be involved in feeding site formation, as demonstrated for cyst

nematode CLE-like peptides, which promote syncytium formation (Rutter *et al.*, 2014; Mitchum *et al.*, 2012). MjNULG1a, from *M. javanica*, is a nuclear effector with a demonstrated role in parasitism. Southern blot experiments have revealed the presence of MjNULG1a orthologues in *M. incognita* and *M. enterolobii*, but not in other PPNs (Lin *et al.*, 2013). Similarly, the 16D10 effector is exclusive to RKNs (Huang *et al.*, 2006; Dinh *et al.*, 2014). The use of host-induced gene silencing (HIGS) approaches to engineer plant resistance to RKNs has excited considerable interest (Ali *et al.*, 2017; Banerjee *et al.*, 2017). The targeting of genes involved in nematode development or encoding effectors has been considered. Silencing conserved effectors may allow specific resistance to RKNs with no impact on non-targeted species. Studies of Mi16D10 have demonstrated the feasibility of conferring RKN resistance in *Arabidopsis*, potato or grape through the targeting of this effector (Huang *et al.*, 2006; Yang *et al.*, 2013; Dinh *et al.*, 2014). However, this strategy is constrained both by limited HIGS effectiveness, by the redundancy of the effector's function and the difficulty in targeting the point in time when the effector plays a key role in the interaction.

Targeting essential conserved effector plant targets to induce a loss of susceptibility

The use of resistant cultivars or rootstocks is an efficient and non-polluting method for controlling RKNs. Very few natural resistance genes (R-genes) have been identified to date, in a limited number of plant species. Furthermore, some RKN species or populations are not controlled by these genes, e.g. *M. enterolobii* (Elling, 2013; Kiewnick *et al.*, 2009) or can overcome these resistances, e.g. populations of *M. incognita* virulent against tomato *Mi1.2* (Castagnone-Sereno, 2006). One alternative would be to target conserved plant genes encoding proteins involved in host processes that are hijacked by the biotrophic pathogens for settlement and feeding, and that are

essential for disease development. These susceptibility genes (S-genes) represent an alternative to R-genes for the deployment of pathogen resistance, and they may be more durable in the field (Dong and Ronald, 2019; Engelhardt *et al.*, 2018; van Schie and Takken, 2014). Well-characterised examples of S-genes include the genes encoding eukaryotic translation initiation factors, the sugar transporter SWEET14 or PMR6, which are required for viral, bacterial and oomycete infections, respectively (Langner *et al.*, 2018; van Schie and Takken, 2014; Schmitt-Keichinger, 2019).

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In recent decades, transcriptomic approaches have been widely used to identify genes regulated upon RKN infection, and, thus, host functions manipulated by RKNs. However, as thousands of genes are differentially regulated during a compatible interaction, the identification of S-genes from these data is a very time-consuming process, probably explaining why only a few genes to date have been shown to be important for the establishment of giant cells (Favery et al., 2016). Interactomics approaches have recently been used to identify the direct plant targets manipulated by PPN effectors. Only a few targets of RKN effectors have been identified, but most have been shown to be instrumental in promoting nematode parasitism (Mejias et al., 2019). SmD1 is a host target of an effector required for host susceptibility to RKNs in several plant clades. It exerts a conserved plant function targeted by a core effector in Arabidopsis and Solanaceae, common to diverse Meloidogyne species that have adopted the same successful parasitic strategy based on the induction of giant feeding cells in the root in several host species. SmD1 is thus a good candidate S-gene for targeting in the engineering of crop resistance to RKN. As SmD1 function is required for plant development knockout mutations of this gene have adverse effects, it will be necessary to identify mutant alleles that can evade recognition by MiEFF18 whilst remaining competent to perform the functions of SmD1 in the regulation of plant development in a continually changing environment. This strategy has proven to be effective for potyvirus susceptibility *eIF4E* genes (Bastet *et al.*, 2019). Hence, our work opens wide perspectives for the use of a conserved target involved in AS regulation to develop new strategies for the control of nematode infection.

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Experimental procedures

Nematode and plant materials

M. incognita (Morelos strain), M. arenaria (Guadeloupe strain) and M. enterolobii (Godet strain) 447 were multiplied on tomato (S. lycopersicum cv. "Saint Pierre") growing in a growth chamber 448 (25°C, 16 h photoperiod). Freshly hatched J2s were collected as previously described (Caillaud 449 and Favery, 2016). 450 451 For VIGS experiments, N. benthamiana and S. lycopersicum (cv M82) seeds were sown on soil and incubated at 4°C for two days. After germination, N. benthamiana and tomato plantlets were 452 transplanted into pots containing soil and sand (1:1), and were grown at 24°C and 16°C, 453 respectively (photoperiod, 16 h: 8 h, light: dark). 454 For RNAseq analysis, Seeds of Solanum lycopersicum cv St Pierre were surface-sterilized with 455 chlorine solution (44% active chlorine) and washed three times with 1ml of milli-Q water. 10 to 15 456 sterile seeds were sown on a Gamborg B5 (Duchefa Biochemie) agar plates (1x Gamborg B5; pH 457 = 6.4; 1% Sucrose; 0,7% Agar), placed at 24°C for 48 hours for germination, and finally 458 459 transferred in a growth chamber (8h light; 16h dark, 20°C). M. incognita strain Morelos" J2s were sterilized with HgCl2 (0.01%) and streptomycin (0.7%) as described before (Caillaud and Favery, 460 2016). One to two weeks after germination, roots were inoculated with 1,000 sterile J2s 461 462 resuspended in phytagel (5%) per petri dishes.

EFF18 sequence analysis, alignment and phylogenetic tree

The sequences of EFF18 paralogues and orthologues were obtained from *Meloidogyne* genomic resources http://www6.inra.fr/meloidogyne_incognita and Wormbase parasite. Protein sequences were aligned with the MAFFT tool on the EBI server (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/mafft/). The alignment was then used as input for the IQTree Web server http://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at/ (Trifinopoulos *et al.*, 2016) to generate the maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree. The model chosen by the inbuilt model test was HIVb+F+G4. Support for the nodes was calculated with 100 bootstrap replicates. *M. hapla* was used as the outgroup in the phylogenetic tree for MiEFF18 orthologues. The tree was visualised in iTOL https://itol.embl.de/. The sequence alignment were coloured with Boxshade (https://embnet.vital-it.ch/software/BOX_form.html). The pairwise sequence identity matrix of RKN EFF18 protein sequences was generated with Sequence Demarcation Tool version 1.2 software (Muhire *et al.*, 2014) (http://web.cbio.uct.ac.za/~brejnev/).

Cloning of EFF18 effectors

The *MeEFF18a* coding sequence (CDS) lacking the signal peptide was cloned in pDON207 entry vector as described previously for *MiEFF18a* (Mejias *et al.*, 2021) using the MeEFF18_GW3 and MeEFF18_GW5 primers (Supplemental Table S2). *MaEFF18a*, *MiEFF18b* and *MeEFF18c* CDSs were synthesised in pUC57-BsaI-Free entry vector (Gene Universal INC., USA).

In situ hybridisation (ISH)

ISH was performed on freshly hatched *M. arenaria* and *M. enterolobii* pre-J2s, as previously described (Jaouannet *et al.*, 2018). For probes production, the *MaEFF18a*, and *MeEFF18a* specific sequences were amplified from entry vectors with the same primers (EFF18_F and

MeEFF18_GW5; Supplemental Table S2). Sense probes for MaEFF18 and MeEFF18 were used as negative controls. Images were obtained with a microscope (Zeiss Axioplan2, Germany).

Pairwise yeast two-hybrid assays

For pairwise yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) assays, the coding sequences (CDS) of the MiEFF16 MiEFF18a and MeEFF18a were amplified (Supplemental Table S2) and inserted into pB27 as C-terminal fusions with LexA. Full-length SmD1 CDS sequences (SlSmD1, NbSmD1b and AtSmD1b) were amplified (Supplemental Table S2) and inserted into pP6 as C-terminal fusions with Gal4-AD. The pB27 and pP6 constructs were verified by sequencing and used to transform the L40 Δ Gal4 (MATa) and Y187 (MATa) yeast strains, respectively. Y187 and L40 Δ Gal4 were crossed and diploids were selected on medium lacking tryptophan and leucine. Interactions were investigated on medium lacking tryptophan, leucine and histidine and supplemented with 0.5 mM 3-aminotriazole (3-AT).

N. benthamiana agroinfiltration

EFF18s, without the sequences corresponding to their signal peptide for secretion, were cloned into the pK7FWG2 binary vector (Karimi et al. 2002). Transient expression was achieved by infiltrating N. benthamiana leaves with Agrobacterium tumefaciens GV3101 strains harbouring GFP-fusions, as previously described (Caillaud et al., 2008). Leaves were imaged 48 hours after agroinfiltration, with an inverted confocal microscope equipped with an argon ion and HeNe laser as the excitation source. For simultaneous GFP imaging, samples were excited at 488 nm and GFP emission was detected selectively with a 505-530 nm band-pass emission filter.

Virus-induced gene silencing in Solanaceae

VIGS assays were performed on N. benthamiana and S. lycopersicum. We used the Sol Genomics Network VIGS-Tool (https://vigs.solgenomics.net/) to design the best sequence for silencing SmD1 transcripts in both Solanaceae. Because nucleotide sequences for SlSmD1a, SlSmD1b and NbSmD1b are so similar (Supplemental Figure S9), we selected the full-length SlSmD1a (without the **ATG** and **STOP** codons) for amplification by **PCR** with the TRV2-SISmD1-F/TRV2-SISmD1-R primer pairs (Supplemental Table S2). The PCR products were digested with EcoRI and XhoI and ligated to the tobacco rattle virus RNA 2 vector (TRV2) for the transformation of A. tumefaciens strain GV3101. VIGS assays were performed, as previously described, by the co-infiltration of leaves of three-week-old N. benthamiana plants (Lange et al., 2013; Velasquez et al., 2009) or 10-days-old tomato plants (Cox et al., 2019) with agrobacterial strains containing the RNA 1 vector (TRV1) and TRV2. Tomato plants were incubated at 16°C for four weeks. Three independent biological replicates were established for each set of conditions (n = 15 to 21 per replicate). Leaves from six S. lycopersicum leaves per condition were randomly collected upon RKN infection and frozen in liquid nitrogen for subsequent RNA extraction and the assessment of silencing efficiency by RT-qPCR. To validate silencing efficiency in N. benthamiana by RT-qPCR, two root systems per set of conditions and per replicate were collected upon RKN infection and frozen in liquid nitrogen for subsequent RNA extraction.

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Reverse transcription-quantitative PCR

We assessed silencing efficiency in *Solanaceae* species, by extracting total RNA with TriZol (Invitrogen) and subjecting 1 µg of total RNA to reverse transcription with the Superscript IV

reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen). For performing RT-qPCR on tomato, primers were designed to amplify both *SlSmD1* transcripts (Supplemental Table S2). *SlRNP7* was used for normalization and qPCR analyses were performed with Qbase (Hellemans et al., 2007). The expression level in one of the control plants infiltrated with agrobacteria carrying the TRV2-GFP construct was set to 1. RT-qPCR analyses on *N. benthamiana* samples were performed with the primers described in Supplemental Table S2. To discriminate between the three copies of *SmD1* present in *N. benthamiana* specifically and to prevent the amplification of TRV2-SlSmD1 construct, primers were designed according to their UTRs. *NbEF1a* and *NbACT1* were used for the normalization of RT-qPCR data (Liu et al., 2012). Three technical replicates for three independent biological experiments were performed, and data are presented as Normalized Relative Quantity with Standard Deviation generated using qBase software (Hellemans et al., 2007).

RKN infection assay, juveniles in the plant and giant cell area measurements

N. benthamiana plants subjected to VIGS were inoculated with 200 M. incognita J2s per plant, 10 days post inoculation (dpi) with TRV, and incubated at 24°C. S. lycopersicum plants subjected to VIGS were inoculated with 150 M. incognita J2s per plant, 30 dpi with TRV, and incubated at 16°C for two weeks before transfer to 24°C. N. benthamiana infected roots were collected two weeks after infection whereas S. lycopersicum infected roots were collected six weeks after infection. Galls or egg masses stained with 4.5% eosin were counted under a binocular microscope, and root system was weighted (n=12 to 19 and n=18 to 21 plants per replicates for N. benthamiana and S. lycopersicum, respectively). Three and two independent biological replicates were established for each set of conditions in N. benthamiana and S. lycopersicum, respectively. The impact of the plant lines on the number of galls per mg of root in N. benthamiana and the

number of egg masses per plant in S. lycopersicum were analyzed using Kruskal Wallis test since the dependent variable did not follow a Normal distribution using a Shapiro-Wilk Test. The different replicates of the numbers of galls per mg of roots in N. benthamiana were pooled for the analyzes because there was no difference between the replications ($X^2_2 = 2.8$, P = 0.248). By contrast, the different replicates of the number of egg masses per plant in S. lycopersicum varied depending on the replication ($X^2_1 = 5.3$, P = 0.022), and they were analyzed separately. Thus, both the number of galls per mg of root in N. benthamiana and the number of egg masses per plant in S. *lycopersicum* varied significantly between the two plant lines tested ($X_1^2 = 57.2, P < 0.001; X_1^2 > 0.001$ 25.6, P < 0.001, respectively). For determination of the ratio of filiform-to-swollen nematodes, infected roots were collected 14 dpi, parasitic nematodes were stained with acid fuchsin, as previously described (Karssen and Moens, 1983), and nematodes were examined under a binocular microscope (model LSM 880; Zeiss) (n=3 plants per replicate for TRV-empty lines and n = 5 plants per replicate for TRV-SmD1 lines, with a mean of 75 nematodes observed per condition and per replicate). Three independent biological replicates were established for each set of conditions. Statistical analyses were carried out with R software (R Development Core Team, version 3.1.3). For giant cell area measurements, galls were cleared in BABB, as previously described (Cabrera et al., 2018), and examined under an inverted confocal microscope (model LSM 880; Zeiss). The mean areas of the biggest giant cell in each gall from N. benthamiana, for each genotype, were measured with Zeiss ZEN software (n = 32 and 26 galls for control and SmD1-VIGSed plants, respectively). One biological experiment was performed for giant cells measurement. The data were analysed with a t-test since the data followed a normal distribution (t = 3.5, P < 0.001).

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RNA extraction and sequencing

Total RNAs, including small RNAs (< 200 nt), were isolated from *in vitro* galls or uninfected roots at 7 and 14 dpi. Approximately 40 galls or uninfected roots devoid meristems were independently frozen into powder by using a tissue lyser (Retsch; MM301) at 30 Hertz frequency for 30 seconds with 4 mm tungsten balls (Retsch; MM301). Total RNAs were extracted from these samples with the miRNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen), according to the manufacturer's instructions, with three additional washes in RPE buffer. PolyA-RNA libraries were generated from 500 ng of total RNA using Truseq Stranded mRNA kit (Illumina). Libraries were then quantified with Qubit dsDNA High Sensitivity Assay Kit (Invitrogen) and pooled. 4nM of this pool were loaded on a Nextseq 500 High output Flowcell and sequenced on a NextSeq 500 platform (Illumina) with 2×75bp paired-end chemistry. These sequencing data have been referenced in the SRA database under the accession PRJNA799360.

Gene expression and alternative splicing analysis

RNA-seq preprocessing included trimming library adapters and quality controls with Trimmomatic using the following arguments; TrimmomaticPE - LEADING:25 TRAILING:25 CROP:120 MINLEN:120. Illumina adapters were removed and read pairs were trimmed to the same length. Processed reads were aligned using STAR with the following arguments: --outSAMtype BAM SortedByCoordinate --outReadsUnmapped Fastx --readFilesCommand zcat, --quantMode GeneCounts, --outFilterMultimapNmax 1. Reads overlappings exons per genes were counted using the FeatureCounts function of the Rsubreads package using the previously published GTF annotation files. Significance of differential gene expression was estimated using DEseq2, and the FDR correction of the p-value was used during pairwise comparison between genotypes. A gene was declared differentially expressed if its adjusted p-value (FDR) was ≤ 0.01. De novo transcript prediction was

made using Stringtie with the following setting --rf -c 2.5 -j 10 one each separated sample. Transcript annotations were merge using Stringtie --merge with the following options -F 0 -T 0 -c 0. New transcript isoforms were added the tomato ITAGv3.2 genome annotation. Differential splicing was determined using our extended transcript annotation using rMATS v4.02 (http://rnaseq-mats.sourceforge.net/) with the following arguments -nthread 4 --readLength 120 -t paired --libType fr-firststrand. Events with FDR <0.01 and |IncLevelDifference|>0.2 were defined as differentially alternatively spliced. GO term enrichments were analyzed using PANTHER16.0 (http://geneontology.org/). Comparison of DSG between tomato and Arabidopsis was done using an Orthology analysis. Arabidopsis orthologous genes of tomato DAS genes were retrieved from the Ensembl BioMart repository (https://www.ensembl.org/info/genome/compara/homology_types.html). The list of DSG from tomato challenged with *Phytophthora infestans* was extracted from the analysis of Huang et al. (2020). DSG in tomato leaves at 1, 2 or 3 days post inoculation with *P. infestans* were retained in our analysis.

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Graphs and statistical analysis

Graphs and plots were created with Microsoft® Office Excel® 2016. Venn diagrams were produced with Venny 2.1.0 (https://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny/). Statistical calculations were performed in R.

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Accession numbers

The sequence data from this article can be found in the *Arabidopsis* Information Resource (https://www.arabidopsis.org/), Solgenomics (https://solgenomics.net/) and/or GenBank/EMBL databases. All RKN EFF18 protein sequences are presented in the Figure S1 The accession

numbers are summarised in Table S1 including MiEFF18a (KX907770), MeEFF18a (MW272456), NbSmD1a (MT683762), NbSmD1b (MT683763) and NbSmD1c (MT683764). RNAseq data have been referenced in the SRA database under the accession PRJNA799360.

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Figure legends

Figure 1 Effector 18 (EFF18) is a conserved effector in root-knot nematodes. A, Phylogenetic tree and schematic diagram of root-knot nematode EFF18 protein sequences. The tree scale corresponds to the number of substitutions per site based on the amino-acid matrix (JTT). In the schematic diagram of EFF18 proteins, the predicted secretion signal peptide (SP; grey boxes), the aspartic acid and glutamic acid (D-E)-rich region (red boxes), the lysine (K)-rich C-terminal region (blue boxes) and the nuclear mono- (purple boxes) or bi- (orange boxes) partite localisation signals (NLS) are shown. EFF18 proteins from the closest group to MiEFF18a carry one mono- and one bipartite NLS, whereas the most divergent copies have only a single monopartite NLS. B, Pairwise sequence identity matrix for RKN EFF18 protein sequences. C, EFF18 localised to the nucleus and nucleolus of plant cells. The MiEFF18s, MaEFF18a and MeEFF18a sequences were fused to that encoding GFP in a C-terminal position and expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves by agroinfiltration. GFP was used as a control and gave fluorescence in the cytoplasm and the nucleus (n), but not the nucleolus (arrowhead). Bars = 10 μm.

Figure 2 RKN EFF18s are specifically expressed in the subventral glands. *In situ* hybridisation, showing EFF18 transcripts in the subventral glands of J2s of *M. arenaria* and *M. enterolobii*. Sense probes for the MaEFF18 and MeEFF18 transcripts were used as a negative control. SvG, subventral glands. Bars = 40 μ m.

Figure 3 Conserved SmD1 proteins are targeted by EFF18. A, MAFFT protein sequence

alignment of the *S. lycopersicum* (SI), *N. benthamiana* (Nb) and *A. thaliana* (At) SmD1 proteins. B, Schematic representation of Sm1 and Sm2 motif in SmD1 proteins. C, GFP-AtSmD1b, GFP-SISmD1a and GFP-NbSmD1b accumulate in the nucleus and particularly in the nucleolus when transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* epidermal leaf cells. GFP was used as a nucleocytoplasmic control. n= nucleoplasm; White arrowheads show nucleolus. Bars = 5 μm. D, Pairwise yeast two-hybrid assays showed that the MiEFF18a and MeEFF18 proteins were able to interact with the SmD1 proteins of *A. thaliana*, *S. lycopersicum* and *N. benthamiana*. We used MiEFF18a and MiEFF16 as a positive and negative control, respectively. Diploid yeasts containing the bait and prey plasmids carrying controls, effectors or SmD1 were serially diluted and spotted on plates. The 10-2 dilution is shown. SD-WL corresponds to the non-selective medium without tryptophan (W) and leucine (L). Only yeasts carrying a protein-protein interaction can survive on the SD-WLH (H, histidine) + 0.5 mM 3-aminotriazole (3-AT) selective medium.

Figure 4. Alternative splicing is triggered in tomato roots upon *M. incognita* infection. A, Tomato genes with alternative splicing events (intron retention, exon skipping, alternative 3' splice site and alternative 5' splice site) in galls 7 and 14 days after inoculation (dpi) with *M. incognita*, relative to uninfected roots. B, Venn diagram showing the overlap between differentially spliced genes (DSG) in *M. incognita*-induced galls at seven and 14 dpi. C, Tomato genes differentially expressed (up or down-regulated) in galls 7 and 14 dpi with *M. incognita*, relative to uninfected roots. D, Venn diagram showing the overlap between differentially spliced genes (DSG) and differentially expressed genes (DEG) in *M. incognita*-induced galls at either 7 or 14 dpi.

Figure 5 The silencing of SmD1 genes by VIGS affects susceptibility to M. incognita in S. lycopersicum. A, Timeline used for the VIGS experiments in S. lycopersicum. B, RT-qPCR demonstrating the effective silencing of SlSmD1 in TRV-SmD1 line when compared to the control TRV-GFP. SlRPN7 was used for data normalisation. C, Infection test on tomato plants in which SlSmD1 genes were silenced (TRV-SmD1) and control tomato plants (TRV-GFP). Females producing egg masses were counted seven weeks after inoculation with $150 \ M$. incognita J2s per plant. Boxes indicate interquartile range (25th to the 75th percentile). The central lines within the boxes represent mean values. Whiskers indicate minimum and maximum scores. The crosses represent average values. The circle outside the box represents outlier. Results of two independent replicates are shown. Statistical significance was determined by Kruskal-Wallis tests, and significant differences were observed between TRV-GFP control and TRV-SmD1 plants (* $p \le 0.01$).

Figure 6 The silencing of SmD1 genes by VIGS affects susceptibility to M. incognita in N. benthamiana. A, Timeline used for VIGS experiment in N. benthamiana. B, N. benthamiana plants with silenced SmD1 genes (TRV-SmD1, right panel) and TRV2-empty control plants (TRV-empty, left panel), showing some developmental defects of the leaves (upper panel) and a shorter root system (lower panel). Red arrow point-out galls on these pictures. C, RT-qPCR showing that the NbSmD1b gene, the most strongly expressed and closest orthologue to the SlSmD1 genes, was effectively silenced. The data shown are the normalized relative transcripts quantities calculated from three independent biological replicates using Qbase. NbEF1a and NbACT1 genes were used for data normalisation. Error bars represent standard deviation. D, Infection test on N. benthamiana control plants (TRV-empty) and plants in which NbSmD1b was

silenced (TRV-SmD1). Galls were counted two weeks after inoculation with 200 M. incognita J2s per plant. Boxes indicate interquartile range (25th to the 75th percentile). The central lines within the boxes represent mean values. Whiskers indicate minimum and maximum scores. The crosses represent average values. The circle outside the box represents outlier. Results of three independent replicates are shown. Statistical significance was determined by Kruskal-Wallis tests, and significant differences were observed between TRV-empty control and TRV-SmD1 plants (*p ≤ 0.05 ; **p ≤ 0.01).

Figure 7 *SmD1* plays an important role in the formation of giant cells. A, The filiform J2s/swollen juveniles (Js) ratio obtained by acid fuchsin staining in the *N. benthamiana* root system with (TRV-SmD1) and without (TRV-empty) silencing with the TRV-SlSmD1 construct, following infection with *M. incognita*. B, Galls of negative control plants and plants with SmD1 silencing collected two weeks post infection for measurement of the area of giant cells (dotted line) by the BABB clearing method (Cabrera et al., 2018). The biggest giant cell measured is shown by a surrounding dashed white line. Bar = 100 μm. C, Box-and-whisker plot of giant cell size (μm2) measurements (n = 32 and 26 galls).

Supplementary informations

- 738 Figure S1 Identified EFF18 sequences in RKN species.
- **Figure S2** EFF18 is a conserved RKN effector.
- 740 Figure S3 M. incognita triggers alternative splicing in orthologous genes in Arabidopsis and
- 741 tomato.
- 742 Figure S4 SlSmD1a and SlSmD1b are similarly expressed in tomato tissues.
- Figure S5 Tomato phenotypes associated with VIGS of SlSmD1 genes.

- 744 Figure S6 Silencing SmD1 genes in tomato affects both root development and M. incognita
- 745 parasitism.
- 746 Figure S7 Semi-quantitative RT-PCR expression analysis of NbSmD1 transcripts in N.
- 747 benthamiana VIGS experiments.
- 748 **Figure S8** Silencing *SmD1* genes in *Nicotiana benthamiana* affects both root development and *M*.
- 749 incognita parasitism.
- Figure S9 Nucleotide sequences of SlSmD1a, SlSmD1b and NbSmD1b are highly identical.
- 751 **Table S1** Sequences used in this study and accession numbers.
- 752 **Table S2** Primers used in this study.
- 753 Table S3 Altered splicing events identified in Solanum lycopersicum at 7 and 14 dpi with
- 754 Meloidogyne incognita.
- 755 Table S4 GO term enrichment in DSG
- 756 Table S5 Differentially expressed genes identified in Solanum lycopersicum at 7 dpi with
- 757 *Meloidogyne incognita.*
- 758 **Table S6** Differentially expressed genes identified in *Solanum lycopersicum* at 14dpi with
- 759 *Meloidogyne incognita.*
- 760 Table S7 GO term enrichment in DEG.
- **Table S8** Comparison of differentially expressed genes identidied in tomato and *Arabidopsis* galls
- and tomato leaves inoculated with *Phytophthora infestans*.

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