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Reduction in PLANT DEFENSIN 1 expression in Arabidopsis thaliana results in increased resistance to pathogens and zinc toxicity

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Nga N T Nguyen, Olivier Lamotte, Mohanad Alsulaiman, Sandrine Ruffel, Gabriel Krouk, et al.. Reduction in PLANT DEFENSIN 1 expression in Arabidopsis thaliana results in increased resistance to pathogens and zinc toxicity. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 2023, 74 (17), pp.5374-5393. 10.1093/jxb/erad228 . hal-04133593v2

HAL Id: hal-04133593

<https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-04133593v2>

Submitted on 20 Jun 2023

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1 Reduction in *PLANT DEFENSIN 1* expression in *Arabidopsis*
2 *thaliana* results in increased resistance to pathogens and zinc
3 toxicity

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5 **Running Title**

6 *PLANT DEFENSIN 1* silencing in *Arabidopsis*

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Abstract

Ectopic expression of defensins in plants correlates with their increased capacity to withstand abiotic and biotic stresses. This applies to *Arabidopsis thaliana*, where some of the seven members of the *PLANT DEFENSIN 1* family (*AtPDF1*) are recognised to improve plant responses to necrotrophic pathogens and increase seedling tolerance to excess zinc (Zn). However, few studies have explored the effects of decreased endogenous defensin expression on these stress responses.

Here, we carried out an extensive physiological and biochemical comparative characterisation of i) novel amiRNA lines silenced for the five most similar *AtPDF1s*, and ii) a double null mutant for the two most distant *AtPDF1s*.

Silencing of five *AtPDF1* genes was specifically associated with increased aboveground dry mass production in mature plants under Zn excess conditions, and with increased plant tolerance to different pathogens – one fungus, one oomycete and one bacterium, while the double mutant behaved similarly to the WT.

These unexpected results challenge the current paradigm describing the role of PDFs in the plant response to stresses. Additional roles of plant endogenous defensins are discussed, which open new perspectives for their functions.

Key-words

Anthocyanin, *AtPDF1*, *Arabidopsis thaliana*, amiRNA gene silencing, biotic stress, fungal, oomycetes and bacterial pathogen tolerance, growth and defence balance, stress signalling, zinc

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Highlight

Decreased endogenous AtPDF1 levels are associated with increased tolerance to pathogens and zinc toxicity, while better tolerance to stresses had so far been associated with ectopic *PDF* over-expression.

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Introduction

Plants are continuously exposed to simultaneous environmental changes whose intensity and duration interfere with their optimal growth and reproduction. Plant responses to biotic and abiotic stresses rely on different signalling pathways leading to changes at the physiological, molecular and cellular levels (Yamaguchi-Shinozaki & Shinozaki, 2006; Ahuja *et al.*, 2010; Skirycz & Inze, 2010; Osakabe *et al.*, 2014). This results in better adaptation including cross-talk between signalling pathways (Fujita *et al.*, 2006; Rejeb *et al.*, 2014; Pandey *et al.*, 2015; Foyer *et al.*, 2016; Nejat & Mantri, 2017). This fine tuning climaxes when it comes to balancing the trade-off between growth maintenance and the energetic cost of adaptation to abiotic stress and/or biotic defence processes (Denance *et al.*, 2013; Bechtold & Field, 2018; Berens *et al.*, 2019; Chen *et al.*, 2021). Defensin is a generic term encompassing PLANT DEFENSINS (PDFs) and PLANT DEFENSIN-LIKE (DEFLs) peptides which both are integral parts of the plant immune system (Lay & Anderson, 2005; Stotz *et al.*, 2013; Lacerda *et al.*, 2014). Defensins are involved in a wide range of biological activities and physiological processes (Carvalho & Gomes, 2009; Carvalho & Gomes, 2011; Parisi *et al.*, 2019); as such, they are downstream elements of these biotic and abiotic stress-signalling cascades. PDFs and DEFLs are members of the large ANTIMICROBIAL PEPTIDES (AMPs) family (Van der Weerden & Anderson, 2013; Shafee *et al.*, 2016a; Shafee *et al.*, 2017). These molecules have a characteristic three-dimensional folding (three anti-parallel β -strands and one α -helix) stabilised by disulphide bonds (Lehrer, 2004; Yount & Yeaman, 2004; Yount & Yeaman, 2006; Padovan *et al.*, 2010; Gachomo *et al.*, 2012; Shafee *et al.*, 2016b).

The antifungal activity of defensins was first – widely – studied (Lay & Anderson, 2005; De Coninck *et al.*, 2013; Lacerda *et al.*, 2014; Parisi *et al.*, 2019; Sher Khan *et al.*, 2019). Defensins have been described to bind preferentially to lipid II (Wilmes *et al.*, 2011), to the fungal acidic sphingolipids mannosyldiinositol phosphorylceramide [M(IP)2C; (Thevissen *et al.*, 2004)], and the neutral sphingolipids glucosylceramide (GlcCer; Thevissen *et al.*, 2004), to phosphatidic acid (PA; (Sagaram *et al.*, 2013; Kvensakul *et al.*, 2016; Payne *et al.*, 2016) and to phosphatidylinositol 4,5 bis-phosphate [PI(4,5)P₂; (Poon *et al.*, 2014; Baxter *et al.*, 2015)]. In addition, the novel *Medicago truncatula* Def5 (MtDef5) bi-domain plant defensin binds to several membrane-resident phospholipids with preference for phosphatidylinositol monophosphates (Islam *et al.*, 2017). Defensin activity also involves production of reactive oxygen species (Aerts *et al.*, 2007; Oyinloye *et al.*, 2015) and induction of fungal cell wall stress (Thevissen *et al.*, 2012). Defensins are also involved in defence against insects by reducing the activity of insect digestive enzymes (Melo *et al.*, 2002; Liu *et al.*, 2006; Pelegri *et al.*, 2008). Regarding metal abiotic stress, the expression of antifungal *PLANT DEFENSIN 1* (*PDF1*) was first identified as a gain of function in zinc (Zn) tolerance in yeast and in *Arabidopsis thaliana* seedlings (Mirouze *et al.*, 2006; Shahzad *et al.*, 2013; Mith *et al.*, 2015). The constitutive high transcript of *PDF1s* in the metal extremophile *A. halleri* is presently the main feature distinguishing this family from the one present in its close relative and model species *A. thaliana* (Becher *et al.*, 2004; Weber *et al.*, 2004; Talke *et al.*, 2006; van de Mortel & Aarts, 2006; Shahzad *et al.*, 2013). Recent genetic studies have identified a *DEFL – CADMIUM ACCUMULATION IN LEAVES 1* (*CAL1*) – as a driver of cadmium (Cd) efflux and allocation in rice through chelation and transport activities (Luo *et al.*, 2018; Luo *et al.*, 2020), together with the close relative dual-function DEFENSIN 8 which mediates phloem cadmium unloading and accumulation in rice grains (Gu *et al.*, 2022). In *A. thaliana*, *AtPDF2.5* and *AtPDF2.6* are suggested to be involved in Cd tolerance (Luo, J-S *et al.*, 2019; Luo, JS *et al.*, 2019). *AtPDF2.1* is proposed to modulate the ammonium metabolism by

regulating glutamine synthase activity (Yao *et al.*, 2019) whereas the antifungal AtPDF2.3 blocks potassium channels (Vriens *et al.*, 2016). In addition, AtPDF1.5 is probably involved in plant adaptation to low nitrogen levels and Cd stress (Wu *et al.*, 2021).

All these properties highlight that PDF and DEFL peptides are endowed with the remarkable protein promiscuity activity, in which multiple functions are associated with a single peptide structure (Aharoni *et al.*, 2005; Nobeli *et al.*, 2009; Franco, 2011), but the process still remains to be deciphered at the molecular level. On the one hand, studies in various species have highlighted that ectopic expression of defensins correlates with an increased capacity to withstand stresses (Terras *et al.*, 1995; Gao *et al.*, 2000; Dos Santos *et al.*, 2010; Kaur, J *et al.*, 2011; Sagaram *et al.*, 2012; de Souza Candido *et al.*, 2014; Gaspar *et al.*, 2014; Wei *et al.*, 2020). On the other hand, inactivation of single endogenous defensin genes has rarely been tested and has not always resulted in altered plant phenotypes in response to pathogens (Stotz *et al.*, 2009; De Coninck *et al.*, 2010). The existence of functional redundancy among defensins was hypothesized following the discovery of more than 300 DEFL peptides, first in *A. thaliana* and then in other plant genomes (Silverstein *et al.*, 2005; Silverstein *et al.*, 2007; Tesfaye *et al.*, 2013; Van der Weerden & Anderson, 2013). Superimposed on this framework, hardly any study have investigated whether decreased endogenous defensin expression would affect different functions in the same way, reflecting the existence of some specificity and/or cross-talk of the defensin signalling response to biotic and abiotic stresses.

Faced with this bottleneck, in response to biotic and abiotic stresses, we studied the effect of simultaneous silencing expression of the five most similar *PDF1* members (*i.e.* AtPDF1.1, 1.2a, 1.2b, 1.2c, and 1.3) out of the seven composing this multigenic family in *A. thaliana*. The AtPDF1s members have all been described to provide better Zn tolerance when expressed in yeast (Mirouze *et al.*, 2006; Shahzad *et al.*, 2013; Mith *et al.*, 2015). In seedlings, AtPDF1 transcripts are not responsive to Zn (Nguyen *et al.*, 2014), but their syntenic orthologues are all highly accumulated in the hyper-accumulating and metal-tolerant species *A. halleri* (Weber *et al.*, 2004; Talke *et al.*, 2006; Shahzad *et al.*, 2013) and *Noccaea caerulescens* [formerly *Thlaspi caerulescens*; (Hammond *et al.*, 2006; van de Mortel & Aarts, 2006; van de Mortel *et al.*, 2006)]. Five of them (AtPDF1.1, 1.2a, 1.2b, 1.2c and 1.3) have been positively tested in the plant response to pathogens, either *in vitro* (Terras *et al.*, 1993; Sels *et al.*, 2007), or in transgenic plants (Zimmerli *et al.*, 2004; De Coninck *et al.*, 2010; Hiruma & Takano, 2011; Hsiao *et al.*, 2017). The variation of AtPDF1.1 expression has no or little effect upon plant infection with necrotrophic *B. cinerea* or with the non-host pathogen *Cercospora beticola*, respectively (De Coninck *et al.*, 2010), whereas this gene has been proposed to mediate defence *via* an iron-withholding defence system in response to the necrotrophic bacterium *Pectobacterium carotovorum* (Hsiao *et al.*, 2017). AtPDF1.2a is a marker of the jasmonic acid response (Yan *et al.*, 2009; Pieterse *et al.*, 2012), and AtPDF1.2a, 1.2c, and 1.3 transcripts have been described for their similar positive response to non-host pathogens (Hiruma & Takano, 2011). The mature peptides encoded by AtPDF1.2a, 1.2b and 1.2c are identical, and they differ from AtPDF1.3 by only one amino acid (Sels *et al.*, 2008; De Coninck *et al.*, 2013) This, together with the similar tissue localisation of the expression of several of these genes (Sels *et al.*, 2008), suggest the existence of a potential functional redundancy between these genes, as already mentioned (De Coninck *et al.*, 2013).

To study the effects of decrease expression of the AtPDF1 endogenous genes, we associated genetic approaches using T-DNA null mutants and amiRNA plants, and carried out an extensive

characterisation of these lines as compared to the wild type (WT) in response to different pathogens and metal excess. Given the abundant literature describing that defensin over-expression improves the plant response to biotic and/or abiotic stresses (Gao *et al.*, 2000; Carvalho & Gomes, 2011; Kaur, J *et al.*, 2011; Gaspar *et al.*, 2014), the null hypothesis was that decreased endogenous *AtPDF1* transcript would result in a plant phenotype more sensitive to stresses. The results presented here do not support this assumption. Instead, the transgenic lines whose *AtPDF1* expression was decreased were more tolerant to different pathogens and displayed specific increased dry mass in response to Zn excess. These unexpected and puzzling results modify the defensin-plant stress response paradigm in the same way, i.e., an increased tolerance to both biotic and abiotic stresses. Several alternative hypotheses on additional roles of endogenous plant defensins are discussed, and will call for further testing.

Materials and Methods

Plant material and growth conditions

All *A.thaliana* lines were in the Columbia-0 (Col-0) accession background. Seeds of wild type plants (WT, N60000) and T-DNA insertion lines *Atpdf1.4* (GK-311B04) and *Atpdf1.5* (SALK_151733) were purchased from the Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre (<http://arabidopsis.info/>). The transgenic lines, which express *AhPDF1.1b* under the 35S promoter, are described in Mirouze *et al* (2006). The homozygous single *Atpdf1.4* and *Atpdf1.5* mutants were checked by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (Supplementary Table S1; Supplementary Fig. S1) and characterised by real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) for the absence of corresponding *AtPDF1* transcripts using specific oligonucleotides (Nguyen *et al.*, 2014) to ensure that these mutant lines were null mutants (Supplementary Table S2). The double null *Atpdf1.4-Atpdf1.5* mutant was identified by PCR (Supplementary Table S1) in the F2 generation produced from a genetic cross between single *Atpdf1.4* and *Atpdf1.5* mutants. The *lacs2-3* mutant affected in *LONG-CHAIN ACYL-COA SYNTHETASE 2* is described in (Bessire *et al.*, 2007). In order to make crosses, propagate seeds or collect plant materials, *A. thaliana* plants were cultivated at 22°C in a glasshouse in individual small pots containing compost (Neuhaus N2). When the intensity of natural light was less than 130 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, artificial light (220 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was supplied up to 16 h *per day*.

In vitro cultivation experiments were conducted under axenic conditions in a growth chamber at 21.5°C under a 16-h daily light cycle and 130 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light intensity. Surface-sterilised seeds were germinated on standard medium containing Murashige and Skoog inorganic salts (Murashige & Skoog, 1962) at half concentration, with 1% (w/v) sucrose, 0.8% (w/v) agar and 2.5 mM (2-[N-morpholino] ethanesulphonic acid) - KOH at pH 5.7. Kanamycin (Km) was added at a final concentration of 50 mg l^{-1} to screen transgenic *A. thaliana* lines. Phenotypic analyses of soil-grown plants were performed on plants grown in individual pots containing compost (Neuhaus N2) and placed in standard growth chambers with an 8-h-light photoperiod, 165 to 170 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ photosynthetic photon flux density, 21-23°C/17-23°C day/night temperatures, respectively, and 70% air relative humidity. Seeds were sown at the soil surface, and plants were irrigated manually to reach 0.35 g of water g^{-1} dry soil or watered by sub-irrigation every four to five days. For phenotypic analysis of hydroponically grown plants, plants were cultivated in controlled growth chambers under an 8-h daily light cycle under 165 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light intensity, and 20/23°C night/day temperature. Seeds were first germinated in tubes containing sterilised solid medium composed of Murashige and Skoog inorganic salts at half concentration (Murashige & Skoog, 1962), with 0.8% (w/v) agar and 2.5

mM (2-[N-morpholino] ethanesulphonic acid) - KOH at pH 5.7. At the five-to-six-leaf stage, the plantlets were transferred to hydroponic basins containing nutrient solution composed of 3 mM KNO₃, 2 mM Ca(NO₃)₂·4H₂O, 1 mM NH₄H₂PO₄, 0.5 mM MgSO₄·7H₂O, 1 μM KCl, 25 μM H₃BO₃, 2 μM ZnSO₄, 2 μM MnSO₄, 0.1 μM CuSO₄·5H₂O, 0.1 μM (NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄, 20 μM Fe(Na)EDTA and 2.5 mM (2-[N-morpholino] ethanesulphonic acid) - KOH at pH 5.7, and renewed every four days. For phenotypic analysis of cuticle permeability and susceptibility to pathogens, plants were grown on soil pellets (Jiffy-7) under cool daylight fluorescent tubes (OSRAM) with a 10-h daily light cycle under 120 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity, and 18/20°C night/day temperature.

Generation of amiRNA lines targeting a decrease of *AtPDF1* transcript accumulation

Plasmid pBSK-RS300 (Schwab *et al.*, 2006) harbouring the miR319a precursor was used to engineer amiRNAs targeting transcript decreases of all five *AtPDF1.1*, *1.2a*, *1.2b*, *1.2c*, and *1.3* simultaneously. Three amiRNA sequences named amiRNA-C1, amiRNA-C2 and amiRNA-C3 (Supplementary Table S3) were automatically designed *via* the Micro RNA Designer website: <http://wmd3.weigelworld.org/cgi-bin/webapp.cgi> (Schwab *et al.*, 2005; Schwab *et al.*, 2006) and validated and/or improved manually following a set of crucial requirements (Ossowski *et al.*, 2008). No off-target mutation was identified *in silico* when the three 21-bp oligonucleotides were probed with the Araport11genes 201606 cDNA database in the Micro RNA Designer website (<http://wmd3.weigelworld.org/cgi-bin/webapp.cgi?page=TargetSearch;project=stdwmd>), or when they were blasted against the NCBI database with the *A. thaliana* Reference RNA sequences (refseq_rna). In both tests, only the five targeted *AtPDF1* sequences were highlighted with the highest e-value (between 0.007 and 0.11). The amiRNA construct and plasmid cloning were performed according to (Schwab *et al.*, 2006). A functional stem-loop structure was regenerated by combining the PCR products obtained using the specific *AtPDF1* primer pairs in a single overlapping PCR with primers A and B bordering the miR319a stem-loop structure in plasmid pBSK-RS300 (Supplementary Table S3). The amiRNA constructs were cloned between the 35S promoter and Terminator Nos using the *Xho*I and *Xba*I restriction sites present in pKYLX71, a designed pBluescriptII-based plasmid [Stratagene®, Schardl *et al.*, 1987]. The expression cassette containing the amiRNA loop was further cloned in the pGreen 0029 binary vector (Hellens *et al.*, 2000) in-between the *Xma*I and *Kpn*I restriction sites to form the final recombinant vector pGrenn029-35S-amiRNA-C1 or -C2 or -C3. These final vectors were then transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3103 (pMP90; Koncz & Schell, 1986). Positive bacterial transformant for each of the final recombinant vector were used to transform *A. thaliana* plants by floral dipping (Clough & Bent, 1998). Seeds resistant to Km (Km^R) obtained from primary transformed plants were selected, and their progeny was screened for a one-locus mendelian segregation of the Km^R character. A total of 25 independent homozygous transgenic amiRNA lines were obtained (eight to nine *per* construct, listed in Supplementary Dataset S1). From now on, these homogeneous transgenic amiRNA lines named amiRNA-C1, amiRNA-C2 and amiRNA-C3 thereafter, will be generally referred to "amiRNA lines" or "amiRNA plants".

Quantitative Real Time PCR (qRT-PCR)

Total RNA was extracted from the shoots of seedlings grown *in vitro* using the RNeasy kit (Qiagen, 74904). For plants grown in soil and submitted to pathogenesis tests, RNAs were extracted according to (Mallory *et al.*, 2001). Transcript was quantified by qRT-PCR. cDNA synthesis and qRT-PCR were essentially performed as previously described (Shahzad *et al.*, 2013; Nguyen *et al.*, 2014). For *AtPDF1s*, the primer list, location in the cDNA sequences, amplification efficiency and specificity were already described (Nguyen *et al.*, 2014). PCRs were performed on cDNA samples in triplicate, and given the high variability range of *AtPDF1* transcript (Supplementary Fig. S2B; Supplementary Table S4), threshold cycles (Ct) were considered up to 40 cycles. Above this value, transcripts were considered as non-detected (ND), as indicated by the qPCR system. Transcript was expressed with respect to three reference genes chosen as internal controls for their strong expression stability under different developmental stages, abiotic and biotic treatments (Czechowski *et al.*, 2005; Remans *et al.*, 2008; Rymaszewski *et al.*, 2017; Veillet *et al.*, 2017; Li *et al.*, 2020). For the transcript studied in seedlings of different genotypes in Fig. 1B and Supplementary Fig. S5) we used: *ACTIN* [*ACT2*, AT3G18780 and *ACT8*, AT1G49240] already described by (Shahzad *et al.*, 2010; Shahzad *et al.*, 2013; Nguyen *et al.*, 2014), *YELLOW-LEAF-SPECIFIC GENE 8* (*YSL8*, AT5G08290, 5'-TTACTGTTTCGGTTGTTCTCCATTT -3' and 5'-CACTGAATCATGTTCTGAAGCAAGT -3'), and *ELONGATION FACTOR 1 ALPHA* (*EF1alpha*, AT5G60390, 5'-TGAGCACGCTCTTCTTGCTTTCA -3' and 5'-GGTGGTGGCATCCATCTTGTTACA -3') as reference genes. For the transcript studied in plants following *B. cinerea* treatments (Fig. 2C and Supplementary Fig. S9) we used: *ACTIN* (*ACT2* and *ACT8*), *YSL8* and *expressed gene* in AT4G26410 (5'-GAGCTGAAGTGGCTTCCATGAC-3' and 5'-GGTCCGACATACCCATGATCC-3') as reference genes. The *AtPDF1* transcript accumulations calculated independently with respect to each of the three reference genes were significantly and highly correlated ($P < 0.001$; Supplementary Fig. S3 and Supplementary Fig. S4) demonstrating the high consistency of these values among these reference genes.

Zinc (Zn) and other metal treatment of mature plants

For plants grown in soil, Zn treatment was applied by daily manual watering with solutions containing different ZnSO₄ concentrations to maintain the soil water content at 0.35 g water g⁻¹ dry soil, or by sub-irrigation every four to five days with solutions containing different ZnSO₄ concentrations. For hydroponic grown plants, the treatment was applied by adding and renewing solutions containing different ZnSO₄, CoCl₂ or NiCl₂ concentrations every four days.

Biochemical measurements

Zn, iron and manganese content measurement: whole rosettes of plants grown hydroponically or in soil were harvested and rinsed thoroughly three times with Milli-Q® water at room temperature for a few minutes. All materials were desiccated at 80°C for 72 hours and ground to powder. Fifteen- to 20-mg subsamples were homogenised with 750 µl of 65% (w/w) HNO₃ and 250 µl of 30% (w/w) H₂O₂ and mineralised in a microwave oven using a temperature step gradient (100, 180, 145 and 75°C) for 50 min and holding for 30 min. After five-fold dilution with Milli-Q® water, 1 ml from each sample was diluted again five-fold in 10% (w/w) HNO₃ and analysed for its Zn, iron and manganese content

by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (MP-AES, Agilent®) and compared with reference standard elements.

Shoot anthocyanins content: anthocyanins were extracted and analysed according to (Nakata & Ohme-Takagi, 2014). The shoot fresh weight (FW) was measured directly after harvesting, and the shoots were frozen in liquid nitrogen for grinding. Extraction buffer (45% methanol, 5% acetic acid) was added at a ratio of 15 ml *per g* FW. Samples were centrifuged twice at 12,000 x g at room temperature for five minutes, and absorbance (A) was read at 530 and 657 nm on the supernatant. The anthocyanin content was calculated as $(A_{530} \text{ g FW}^{-1}) : [A_{530} - (0.25 \times A_{657})]$ according to (Nakata & Ohme-Takagi, 2014).

Liquid Chromatography Coupled with Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) Analysis

Proteins, from pools of 3 rosettes from 6-weeks-old plants, pools of *ca.* 10 of 21-days-old seedlings aerial parts and *ca.* 10 mg of dry seeds, were extracted with 6M urea, 50mM Tris-HCl, EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail. In the case of seed protein extraction 1% PolyVinylPyrrolidone (PVP) was added. Protein concentration was measured (Bradford, 1976) using Pierce™ Detergent Compatible Bradford Assay Kit (ThermoScientific). For each sample 20µg of extracted proteins were loaded on a 15% acrylamide SDS-PAGE gel and subjected to a 1h migration at 120V. A band corresponding to a protein migration of around 10kDa was cut for each loaded lane and treated for trypsin digestion as described in (Berger *et al.*, 2020) before injection in an Orbitrap Exploris™ 240 mass spectrometer for mass spectrometry analysis.

Mass spectrometric raw data were analyzed in the MaxQuant environment [(Cox & Mann, 2008); v.2.0.3.0] and Andromeda software was employed for database searching (Cox *et al.*, 2011). The MS/MS data were matched against the Araport11_genes_20210122 database. For protein identification and quantification, cysteine carbamidomethylation was set up as fixed modification and oxidation of methionine as a variable modification. At least one peptide is necessary for protein identification and quantification with a score at least equal to 20 for unmodified peptides and a score of 40 for modified peptides. Up to two missed cleavages was allowed for protease digestion. For other characteristics, MaxQuant default parameters were used. The normalization was performed as described in (Berger *et al.*, 2022). Following the quantification and normalization step, proteins were considered as quantifiable only if they were present in at least two biological replicates. The normal distribution of the log-transformed data was assessed before statistical treatment (one-way ANOVA followed by post hoc Tukey test, $P < 0.05$).

Plant trait measurements

Aboveground dry mass was determined after drying plant material at 80°C for three days. Specific leaf area (SLA; $\text{mm}^2 \text{ mg}^{-1}$) was calculated using one fully expanded leaf *per* plant, whose area was determined by image analysis (Schneider *et al.*, 2012). The dry weight of each leaf was determined after drying at 80°C for 72 h. Flowering time was monitored on plants grown from seeds in soil under short days. Plants were checked visually every day for flowering bud appearance. The date of flowering bud appearance was monitored together with the concomitant total number of leaves.

Pathogenicity test

Botrytis cinerea strain BMM (Zimmerli *et al.*, 2001) was cultured on V8-agar medium (50% of V8® Vegetable Juice, Campbells (v/v), 37 mM KH₂PO₄, agar 15 g l⁻¹, pH 6) at 22 °C in the dark for seven to 10 days. Spores were harvested using sterile water and filtered through sterile gauze to remove hyphae. Concentrated spore solutions (>1 10⁸ spores ml⁻¹) can be kept at 4°C for 10 days. A spore solution (5 10⁴ spores ml⁻¹) was prepared in potato dextrose broth (PDB, Difco) at 6 g l⁻¹ for inoculation. Six-µl droplets of spore solution were deposited on four leaves of four-week-old plants, and lesion diameters were measured using a caliper after five days. Seven to eight plants *per* genotype were used in each biological replicate. During infection, plants were placed in high humidity in covered trays. For qRT-PCR analysis, four-week-old plants were sprayed with a spore solution (2 10⁵ spores ml⁻¹) prepared in PDB 6 g l⁻¹ or with PDB alone as a mock control and kept in high humidity in covered trays. Samples were harvested at the indicated time point and frozen in liquid nitrogen.

Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis isolate NOCO (Slusarenko & Schlaich, 2003) was maintained every week by spraying a solution of spores (5 10⁴ spores ml⁻¹ sterile distilled water) on 10-day-old *A. thaliana* Col-0 seedlings. For the pathogenicity test, seven three-week-old plants were inoculated by spraying a solution of spores (5 10⁴ spores ml⁻¹ sterile distilled water) and placed in high humidity in a tray closed with a transparent lid. The next day, the tray was partially opened. Six days *post* inoculation, the lid was sprayed with water and the tray was closed to induce sporulation, which was analysed one day later by collecting and pooling four leaves *per* plant in a laboratory glass pillbox and weighing them. Ten ml of sterile dH₂O were added, and the leaves were gently shaken using a vortex for four min to harvest *H. arabidopsidis* spores. After filtration using a small stainless-steel metal sieve, spores were counted using a Malassez cell.

Pseudomonas syringae pv *maculicola* ES4326 (Katagiri *et al.*, 2002) growth was conducted at 28°C in media containing 50 µg ml⁻¹ rifampicin. A bacterial glycerol stock was plated onto King's B agar plate (20 g l⁻¹ peptone special (Millipore), 1% glycerol (v/v), 11 mM KH₂PO₄, 6 mM MgSO₄·7H₂O, 15 g l⁻¹ agar, pH 7.2). After 2 days of growth, a single bacterial colony was grown overnight in King's B liquid medium under shaking. Fifty µl of this culture medium were added to 50 ml of liquid KB medium and incubated overnight under shaking to reach an OD_{600nm} of 0.2. After centrifugation (3,500 rpm, 15 min), each bacterial pellet was resuspended in 10 mM MgCl₂. Serial dilutions in 10 mM MgCl₂ were made to reach an OD_{600nm} of 0.002 (10⁶ bacteria ml⁻¹). For each genotype, three leaves of four-five-week-old plants were infiltrated with this bacterial solution using a 1-ml needleless syringe. The plants were placed in a tray closed with a transparent lid in a high-humidity atmosphere. After 24h, the lid was removed. After 48 h, 7-mm diameter leaf disks were harvested in each infiltrated leaf for each genotype, ground with a mortar and pestle and resuspended in 10 ml of 10 mM MgCl₂ to extract the bacteria. One hundred and fifty µl of 10-fold dilutions (10⁻² to 10⁻⁵) were plated onto King's B agar plates and incubated at 28°C. Colony-forming units were counted after two days.

Cuticle permeability assay

Cuticle permeability was evaluated using the toluidine blue test as described by (Bessire *et al.*, 2007) and (L'Haridon *et al.*, 2011), with slight modifications. Six-µl droplets of 0.1% toluidine blue dissolved in water (m v⁻¹) were placed on the leaf surface. The plants were kept in high humidity in covered

trays overnight. The leaves were washed gently with distilled water to remove excess toluidine blue solution, and data were acquired with photographs of the leaves.

Statistical analyses

All results from physiological and biochemical analyses were performed in R programming environment (RCoreTeam, 2020). For each treatment and genotype, the transcript of the five *AtPDF1s* were compared based on mean and bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (CIs) computed using the Hmisc package. Correlations between relative expression were calculated for each reference gene independently and were tested as highly significant using Pearson's correlation coefficients ($P < 0.001$, Supplementary Fig. S3 and S4). Hence, the relative expression levels of the transcripts were calculated using the geometric mean of three reference genes (Vandesompele *et al.*, 2002; Andersen *et al.*, 2004). Fold changes of transcript were calculated as the ratio of transcript relative to the three reference genes or ACTIN only in transgenic lines and in WT (i.e. $REL_{\text{transgenic line}} / REL_{\text{WT}}$). In each experiment, differences in lesion diameter between genotypes were compared following Dunnett's multiple comparison test using the WT as a baseline. Differences in the changes in dry weight (% of the control) in response to Zn treatment between genotypes were tested using simultaneous 95% CI for ratios of linear combinations in a one-way ANOVA model using the *sci.ratio* function in the *mratios* package. Differences in leaf Zn content between genotypes were tested by a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test. Relationships between harvest time and anthocyanin content were tested using linear regression analysis. All experimental settings, data acquisitions and biological replicates are described in Supplementary Dataset S1, and all raw data are available in Supplementary Dataset S2 and online (<https://doi.org/10.15454/AXY7FV>). Proteomic data are available via ProteomeXchange with identifier PXD037695.

Results

AtPDF1s transcript and protein accumulation is decreased in amiRNA lines

The *AtPDF1s* family is composed of seven members grouped in three different clades and one of which is gathering five most similar members [(Shahzad *et al.*, 2013) and Supplementary Fig. S2A]. The different *AtPDF1s* accumulate at different levels [(Shahzad *et al.*, 2013; Nguyen *et al.*, 2014), Supplementary Fig. S2B, Supplementary Table S4], and have different plant tissue localisations (Supplementary Fig. S2C). These disparities also occurs at the protein level where, specific peptides detection by mass spectrometry for the five most similar *AtPDF1* proteins targeted by our amiRNA approach can vary according to tissue [(Wang *et al.*, 2015; Mergner *et al.*, 2020); summarized in Supplementary Table S5 and S6]. In addition, protein similarity impairs reliable individual specific identification (Fig. 1C). Given the existence of two tandem duplicates separated by only a few kb – [i.e. *AtPDF1.2a*, *1.2c* and *AtPDF1.2b*, *1.3*, (Shahzad *et al.*, 2013), Supplementary Fig. S2D)], this makes it difficult to knock-down the whole *AtPDF1s* family by combining multiple crosses of single mutants. Therefore, we designed three independent amiRNA sequences (Supplementary Table S3) targeting different positions in the five most similar *PDF1s* – *AtPDF1.1*, *1.2a*, *1.2c*, *1.2b* and *1.3* – to decrease their respective *AtPDF1* transcript in plants (Fig. 1A). Twenty-five independent homozygous

amiRNA lines expressing one of these different constructs were obtained (listed in Supplementary Dataset S1).

Quantification of *AtPDF1* transcript in seedlings of each independent amiRNA homozygous line (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Fig. S5) showed that in amiRNA lines, *AtPDF1.3* and *AtPDF1.2a* transcripts significantly decreased by fold changes of 0.0966 and 0.0244 relative to the WT, respectively ($P < 0.001$) while *AtPDF1.1* transcript was detected in the WT but was not detected in the amiRNA seedlings. Moreover, *AtPDF1.2b* and *AtPDF1.2c* were not detected in any WT or amiRNA seedling. As for non-targeted transcripts (*i.e.* *AtPDF1.4* and *AtPDF1.5*), no significant decrease, or only a marginal one (0.906 for *AtPDF1.4* and 0.404 for *AtPDF1.5*) was detected in the amiRNA lines relatively to the WT. Overall, for each detected *AtPDF1* transcript, no significant difference was observed among amiRNA lines expressing one construct or the other, and transcript decrease in amiRNA lines as compared to the WT was validated statistically.

When performed in over-expressing transgenic plants, detection of higher defensin protein levels relied on specific antibodies [western-blotting or ELISA assay; only to cite a few: (Gao *et al.*, 2000; Kaur *et al.*, 2012; Gaspar *et al.*, 2014)] or antibodies against tagged-defensin fusion. Still comparative analysis of endogenous expressed defensins proteins is rare (Kaur, P *et al.*, 2011). Since no commercial antibodies are available in *A. thaliana*, endogenous AtPDF1s protein quantification relied on proteomic approaches which seems biased by AtPDF1 high similarity and/or low abundance (Fig.1C; Supplementary Table S5 and S6). We performed mass spectrometry analysis on a 10 kDa fraction of each of the different samples from WT, amiRNA-C2 and amiRNA-C3 genotypes. No peptide was detected for AtPDF1.4 and AtPDF1.5 (ProteomeXchange with identifier PXD037695). Among the remaining five AtPDF1, although no peptide was detected in the rosette leaves of WT and amiRNA lines, analysis of aerial tissues from seedling reveals a statistical higher peptide detection in WT as compared to both amiRNA-C2 and amiRNA-C3 genotypes for AtPDF1.2a and/or 1.2b and/or 1.2c and/or 1.3 which were even stronger in samples from dry seeds (Fig. 1D, Supplementary Fig. S6 and Supplementary Table S5). Apart from PDF1, additional specific peptides detected some others PDFs or DEFLs as listed in (Silverstein *et al.*, 2005), either in seeds and / or seedlings, but none of them were significantly accumulated differentially in the amiRNA lines compared to WT (Supplementary Table S7).

Overall, the *AtPDF1*-amiRNA approach used in this study is associated with a decrease at the mRNA and protein level of the targeted *AtPDF1* genes. From then on, we performed further phenotypic and molecular analyses on representative amiRNA lines for at least two amiRNA constructs (Supplementary Dataset S1).

The amiRNA plant lines show pleiotropic phenotypes

Upon aging, we first observed that all amiRNA plants flowered earlier and produced fewer leaves than the WT (Supplementary Fig. S7A-B). The leaves of amiRNA plants were also a lighter green than those of the WT (Supplementary Fig. S7C), and appeared larger and thinner. The results of specific leaf area (SLA) quantification (ratio of leaf area to leaf dry mass) were in accordance with these observations: the SLA of amiRNA lines tended to be higher than the SLA of the WT (Supplementary Fig. S7D).

Overall, the amiRNA lines produced using the three different amiRNA constructs exhibited significant differences in development, growth and leaf morphological trait values as compared to the WT, and only marginal differences were observed among the amiRNA lines harbouring the different amiRNA constructs.

Tolerance to different pathogens is increased in amiRNA lines

We investigated the responses of WT plants and amiRNA lines to infection by different micro-organisms: the fungus *B. cinerea* strain BMM which induces necrotic lesions on *A. thaliana* ecotype Col-0 (Zimmerli *et al.*, 2001), the oomycete *H. arabidopsidis* NOCO2 which is virulent on Col-0 plants (Slusarenko & Schlaich, 2003), and the bacterial pathogen *P. syringae* pv *maculicola* ES4326 (Katagiri *et al.*, 2002). Following inoculation with *B. cinerea*, all amiRNA lines exhibited visually less lesion than the WT (Fig. 2A), and similar observation was also made following *H. arabidopsis* and *P. syringae* pv *maculicola* inoculation (Fig. 3A and Fig. 3C, respectively). Lesion sizes measured after *B. cinerea* infection were significantly smaller on amiRNA plants than in WT (Fig. 2B), and *H. arabidopsidis* sporulation was significantly lower on amiRNA plants than in WT plants (Fig. 3B). Regarding *P. syringae* pv *maculicola*, bacterial counts were significantly lower in amiRNA lines in comparison to WT plants (Fig. 3D). This general decrease in pathogen sensitivity was specific to the amiRNA lines. It was not observed in the double *Atpdf1.4-Atpdf1.5* mutant (Supplementary Fig. S8), which behaved like the WT plants whatever the pathogen tested.

Following *B. cinerea* infection, all *AtPDF1.1*, *2a*, *1.2b*, *1.2c* and *1.3* transcripts were detected in mock and treated WT plants whereas *AtPDF1.5* transcripts were not (Fig. 2C, Supplementary Fig. S9). Upon botrytis-infection of WT plants, transcript of *AtPDF1.1*, *2a*, *1.2b*, *1.2c* and *1.3* increased (Fig. 2C, Supplementary Fig. S9). The fold change of *AtPDF1s* detected in the amiRNA lines as compared to the control WT plants ranged from 18.6 to 0.06. Changes in transcript observed in the infected amiRNA lines as compared to the mock treatment for *AtPDF1.1*, *1.2a*, *1.2b*, *1.3*, and *1.4* (fold changes of 1.13, 3.95, 2.49, 0.03, 0.89 and 0.80, respectively) were not significant. Moreover, their respective transcript levels never reached that of the infected WT plants: it was around two orders of magnitude lower [fold changes of 0.028, 0.13, 0.0023, 0.11, for *AtPDF1.2a*, *1.2b*, *1.2c* and *AtPDF1.3*, respectively, and of 0.55 and 1.59 but not significant ($P = 0.56$ and 0.74) for *AtPDF1.1* and *1.4*, respectively (Fig. 2C, Supplementary Fig. S9). Finally, whatever the mock treatment or infection conditions, *AtPDF1.2c* was barely detected in the amiRNA lines ($n = 5$ out of 30 samples), and *AtPDF1.5* was not detected as observed for WT (Fig. 2C, Supplementary Fig. S9). Overall, these results show that amiRNA plants are more tolerant than WT plants to infection by different pathogens, even in the presence of decreased *AtPDF1*.

The amiRNA plants increase their aboveground dry mass in response to Zn excess without modifying their total leaf Zn content

Zn tolerance gain of function conferred by defensins has been evidenced in transgenic *A. thaliana* expressing *A. halleri* *PDF1.1b* under the 35S promoter (OE *AhPDF1.1b*). The dry mass of these transgenic seedlings germinated on Zn excess increases as compared to the WT (Mirouze *et al.*, 2006). When applied to all independent amiRNA seedling lines, this germination test under Zn exposure highlighted a significant and specific decrease in shoot dry mass as compared to the WT

and the double *Atpdf1.4-Atpdf1.5* mutant (Mirouze *et al.*, 2006), which behaved similarly (Supplementary Fig. S10A-B). Yet, when mature amiRNA plants were submitted to Zn excess (whether in soil or hydroponics), their aerial dry mass increased as compared to the WT (Fig. 4A-B). This dry mass increase was not significantly detected in *AhPDF1*-over-expressing lines (Supplementary Fig. S10C), or in the double null *Atpdf1.4-Atpdf1.5* mutant (Supplementary Fig. S10D), nor was it detected when amiRNA lines were exposed to other metals such as cobalt (Co), nickel (Ni) or cadmium (Cd) (Supplementary Fig. S11). Contrasted Zn accumulation in the tissues of plants from different genotypes might explain this surprising observation. In all growth conditions, the total Zn content of plant aerial parts specifically increased following Zn addition in the medium (Fig. 4C) as compared to the (Fe) and manganese (Mn) contents (Supplementary Fig. S12), but no significant difference in Zn, Fe or Mn contents was observed between the WT and amiRNA lines (Fig. 4C and Supplementary Fig. S12). Overall, the aboveground dry mass of mature amiRNA plants specifically increased under Zn excess exposure, but no link was established with the Zn content.

In the amiRNA plants, tolerance to Zn excess highlights a disturbance of anthocyanin accumulation, and tolerance to *B. cinerea* reveals cuticle permeability

Visual inspection of mature plants showed that WT plants accumulated anthocyanins upon Zn treatment whereas rosette leaves of amiRNA plants did not seem to do so, whatever the growth condition (Fig. 5A). Parallel kinetic quantification of shoot anthocyanins showed that anthocyanins were similarly detected in WT and amiRNA plants grown under the control condition (Fig. 5B). However, two to three days after the start of Zn exposure, anthocyanins started to accumulate in WT plants but no change was observed in amiRNA plants (Fig. 5B). On the other hand, the unexpected tolerance of amiRNA lines to *B. cinerea* was reminiscent of observations on cuticle permeable mutants, e.g., *lacs2.3* and *bdg* (Bessire *et al.*, 2007; Tang *et al.*, 2007), *pec1* (Bessire *et al.*, 2011), *eca2* and *aba* (Blanc *et al.*, 2018). Consequently, we investigated cuticle permeability of the amiRNA lines. Toluidine blue tests indicated that the cuticle of the amiRNA lines was more permeable than the cuticle of the WT plants, and behaved like the *A. thaliana lacs2-3* cuticle mutant used as a control (Fig. 6A). Conversely, anthocyanins accumulated in the *Atlacs2-3* mutant under Zn excess conditions (Supplementary Fig. S13), but aboveground dry mass decreased in the same range as in the WT, and significantly differed from the increase dry mass characteristic of amiRNA plants (Fig. 6B).

Discussion

Plant defensins have been mostly studied for their antifungal activities, but they also perform additional roles *in vivo*, hence they display promiscuous features (Aharoni *et al.*, 2005; Nobeli *et al.*, 2009; Franco, 2011). However, studies exploring if decreased endogenous defensin expression can affect different activities are rare. We therefore, addressed here the effect of a decrease of endogenous *AtPDF1* transcripts (and corresponding proteins) engineered by amiRNA technology and tested its effect on the response of *A. thaliana* to different pathogens and different metal excess. Unexpectedly, the amiRNA plants exhibiting decreased expression of five *AtPDF1* transcripts were

unexpectedly found more tolerant to different pathogens (Fig. 2, Fig. 3) and their dry mass specifically increased in response to Zn excess exposure (Fig. 4A-B, Supplementary Fig. S10).

Variation of gene expression within the *AtPDF1* family

Within *AtPDF1* members, variation in expression has been documented according to the tissue, the developmental stage and/or cultivation conditions or in response to stress [(De Coninck *et al.*, 2010; Nguyen *et al.*, 2014); Supplementary Fig. S2B-C, Supplementary Table S4-S5 and S6)]. The present work also reports discrepancies in transcript and protein detection for some *AtPDF1*s: **i)** in both WT and amiRNA seedlings grown *in vitro*, *AtPDF1.2b* and *1.2c* transcripts were not detected (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Fig. S5), **ii)** *AtPDF1.5* transcripts was detected in seedlings grown *in vitro* (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Fig. S4) but not in mature plants grown in soil (Fig. 2C, Supplementary Fig. S9) and **iii)** no *AtPDF1.4* and *1.5* specific peptide could be detected by MS/MS on any of the samples analyzed (seeds, seedlings and mature plants) and peptide identifying *AtPDF1.2a* and/or *1.2b* and/or *1.2c* and/or *1.3* detection could not be detected in mature plants (in coherence with information in public databases, see Supplementary Table S5 and S6). The origin of these discrepancies would need further investigations. Yet, they did not bias the fact that, in amiRNA lines, transcripts and proteins levels are decreased for the five most similar *AtPDF1* members *AtPDF1.1*, *1.2a*, *1.2b*, *1.2c* and *1.3* as compared to WT (Fig.1A-D) so that the phenotypic differences between the WT and the homozygous amiRNA lines generated for this study could be validated statistically and associated with endogenous *AtPDF1* expression decrease.

Functional specificity questioned among members of the *AtPDF1* family

The extensive phenotypic analysis of amiRNA plants presented here is novel. It highlights that decreased expression of the five most similar *AtPDF1*s is specifically associated with increased tolerance to different pathogens (Fig. 2, Fig. 3 and Supplementary Fig. S8 and S9) and with increased plant dry mass upon Zn exposure (Fig. 4A-B and Supplementary Fig. S10 and S11). Still, it is difficult at present to predict if one or more amiRNA-targeted *PDF1* genes are more particularly involved in the response to one and/or the other stress, nor we can ascertain that expression of other *PDFs* and/or *DEFLs* is modified. A genome-wide transcript analysis of the 317 *PDF* and *DEFLs* inventoried genes (Silverstein *et al.*, 2005) would start to provide some indications. This should be completed by MS/MS analysis spanning the entire range of protein molecular weight (since we presented here the analysis of a 10 kDa fraction). In addition, this study shows that the seven *AtPDF1*s are not all equally involved in the plant response to pathogens and to Zn excess. Expression of *AtPDF1.4* and *1.5* indeed increases Zn tolerance in yeast (Shahzad *et al.*, 2013), but no phenotype of the plant response to Zn excess or to pathogens was observed in the double null *Atpdf1.4-Atpdf1.5* mutant (Supplementary Fig. S10B and -D and Supplementary Fig. S8, respectively). The transcript levels of *AtPDF1.4* and *AtPDF1.5* were amongst the highest within the *AtPDF1* family members (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Fig. S5; Fig. 2C, Supplementary Fig. S9), but they did not compensate for the dominant amiRNA plant growth phenotypes in Zn excess conditions (Fig. 4A-B) and the increased tolerance to pathogens (Fig. 2A-B and Fig. 3). At present, we cannot totally rule out that these *AtPDF1.4* and *1.5* genes could have undergone a neo-functional evolutionary fate, so that they can be endowed with a new function

other than the response to pathogens and/or Zn excess. This hypothesis is supported by the suggested role of *AtPDF1.5* in nitrogen nutrition and Cd stress (Wu *et al.*, 2021).

Decrease in endogenous *AtPDF1* expression: a by-pass to confer tolerance to pathogens?

We show here that amiRNA plants are affected in cuticle permeability (Fig. 6A). Changes in cuticle permeability such as those observed in the *lacs2*, *bdg* and *eca2* mutants (Kurdyukov *et al.*, 2006) have been associated with resistance to *B. cinerea* and other major pathogens including *P. syringae* pv *maculicola* (Bessire *et al.*, 2007; Chassot *et al.*, 2007; Blanc *et al.*, 2018). This has been linked to higher ROS production in cuticle mutants (L'Haridon *et al.*, 2011), but also to distinct phyllosphere microbiome populations in WT plants and cuticle mutants (Ritpitakphong *et al.*, 2016). In this regards, knowing whether amiRNA transgenics accumulate more ROS and/or if their phyllosphere microbiome populations differs from WT would be of interest (Bi *et al.*, 2023). Increased tolerance of amiRNA plants to *H. arabidopsdis* seems unlikely related to cuticle permeability because the *lacs2.3* mutant was as susceptible as the WT plants to this pathogen (Supplementary Fig. S8). Still, this hypothesis cannot be totally ruled out since different cuticle mutants can behave differently in response to a single pathogen (Ziv *et al.*, 2018; Aragon *et al.*, 2021). Increased plant tolerance to pathogens has been described in various situations affecting hormonal signalling (Sanchez-Vallet *et al.*, 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2016), metabolic reprogramming or structural modifications (Eschen-Lippold *et al.*, 2012; Taurino *et al.*, 2014; AbuQamar *et al.*, 2017; Sham *et al.*, 2017). However, it has been suggested that resistance of cuticle mutants can also be attributed to the induction of additional defence pathways, beyond the canonical ones (Aragon *et al.*, 2021). Concomitant tolerance to different pathogens is thus complex and multi-layered. Therefore, it would be highly interesting to conduct a comparative investigation between the wild-type (WT) and amiRNA genotypes using a multi-OMIC approach including transcript and metabolomic analysis. This could shed light on the putative links between *PDF1* decrease cuticle permeability and tolerance to different pathogens.

A role of *AtPDF1s* in the interplay between plant growth and response to Zn excess?

When plants are exposed to high Zn levels in their environment, they face the need to maintain Zn homeostasis. This is achieved through a regulated crosstalk between processes of transmembrane transport, cellular uptake, export and subcellular compartmentalisation, and chelation of free ions by small organic molecules, peptides and proteins (Clemens, 2001; Verbruggen *et al.*, 2009; Lin & Aarts, 2012; Sinclair & Kramer, 2012). In response to Zn excess, ectopic expression of *PDF1* in *A. thaliana* seedlings, cultivated *in vitro* axenic conditions, resulted in better tolerance, but this process cannot be related to the above-mentioned homeostasis mechanisms (Mirouze *et al.*, 2006; Mith *et al.*, 2015). When cultivated in similar *in vitro* axenic conditions, amiRNA seedlings were more sensitive than the WT and double null *Atpdf1.4-Atpdf1.5* mutant to Zn excess (Supplementary Fig. S10A-B). Therefore, a correlation exists between *PDF1* expression and Zn tolerance in seedlings germinated in the presence of Zn in axenic conditions. This brings some mechanistic coherence to a process that still remains to be causally elucidated. Interestingly, during plant growth, ectopic expression of *PDF1* did not provide zinc tolerance to transgenic over-expressing plants (OE *AhPDF1.1b*), which behaved like the WT and the double null *Atpdf1.4-Atpdf1.5* mutant (Supplementary Fig. S10C-D). A similar behaviour has been reported for the *SNAKIN* AMP (*SN1*),

where *SN1* over-expressing lines were phenotypically indistinguishable from the WT control (Nahirnak *et al.*, 2012), whereas silenced lines were affected in their growth and development (Almasia *et al.*, 2020). In this context, we report here a new property of *PDF1* with respect to Zn tolerance where decreased expression of endogenous *AtPDF1* transcripts interferes directly or indirectly with the plant balance between growth and the Zn excess response, resulting in continuous shoot growth during stress.

As a general process, the trade-off between growth and stress resistance involves specialised molecular mechanisms that target reduced resource consumption resulting in increased fitness (Campos *et al.*, 2016; Major *et al.*, 2017; Bechtold & Field, 2018; Chen *et al.*, 2021; Ogawa-Ohnishi *et al.*, 2022). There are indications that this process results from the suppression of growth by stress signalling pathways as an adaptive strategy to maximize survival (Zhang *et al.*, 2020). Under Zn excess conditions, we noted a time point when mature WT plant growth was reduced, whereas amiRNA plant growth was not affected. Most surprisingly, amiRNA plants maintained growth and leaf production under Zn excess (Fig. 4A-B). This unbalanced response between growth and the response to Zn excess was specific to the five *AtPDF1*-amiRNA silencing (Supplementary Fig. S10D) and was specific to Zn excess as compared to the other metals tested (Supplementary Fig. S11). Moreover, no difference in Zn content was noted between the WT and amiRNA plants (Fig. 4C). Based on studies mostly performed on metal-hyperaccumulating species, we know that Zn is not evenly distributed among tissues, nor it is found as a single molecular species (Küpper *et al.*, 1999; Sarret *et al.*, 2009; Haydon, 2014; Kozhevnikova *et al.*, 2017). Since we cannot rule out that these modifications could impact Zn toxicity, it would thus be interesting to further investigate and compare these Zn characteristics in WT and amiRNA plants.

Disturbance in stress signalling and development in amiRNA plants

Several characteristics observed in amiRNA plants suggest that stress signalling and development might be disrupted at several levels. First, anthocyanins are known to accumulate in plants exposed to abiotic stress (Dixon & Paiva, 1995; Kovicich *et al.*, 2015). Among their numerous roles (Gould, 2004), they act on cellular protection from oxidative damage (Chalker-Scott, 1999; Agati *et al.*, 2012) and protect the photosynthetic apparatus (Xu *et al.*, 2017; Xu & Rothstein, 2018). This occurs in particular upon metal exposure, as evidenced in the extremophiles *A. halleri* and *A. arenosa*, in which exposure to high Cd or Zn decreases the chlorophyll content and increases the anthocyanin content in leaves compared to the control (Szopinski *et al.*, 2019). This has also been nicely shown in Cd excluder *A. halleri* populations, where flavonoid accumulation appears important to cope with Cd toxicity as compared to Cd hyperaccumulator populations (Corso *et al.*, 2018). WT *A. thaliana* plants accumulated anthocyanins shortly after Zn exposure, but amiRNA plants did not (Fig. 5). In this respect, the pale green colour of the amiRNA lines upon aging (Supplementary Fig. S7C) might be indicative of damage to the photosynthetic apparatus due to poor anthocyanin accumulation. Second, specific leaf area [(i.e., the light-capturing surface area *per* unit of dry mass that is a proxy of fundamental plant functions such as net photosynthetic capacity, growth rate and development rate (Vasseur *et al.*, 2012; Sartori *et al.*, 2019))] was significantly higher in amiRNA plants (Supplementary Fig. S7D), indicating faster development and/or an earlier flowering phenotype than the WT (Sartori *et al.*, 2019). In this regard, early flowering can also be considered as a stress-induced response, a third category of flowering response in addition to photoperiodic flowering and vernalisation (Riboni

et al., 2014; Kazan & Lyons, 2016; Park *et al.*, 2016). And indeed, amiRNA plants flower before WT plants (Supplementary Fig. S7A-B). Third, amiRNA plants had a more permeable cuticle than WT plants, suggesting that decrease of various defensin expression – could ultimately alter cell wall and/or plasma membranes constituents with consequences on development and stress sensing (Rui & Dinneny, 2020). Fourth, amiRNA plants were more tolerant to pathogens with different life styles, i.e., a necrotrophic fungus, a hemibiotrophic bacterium and an obligate biotrophic oomycete (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3), although resistance to these pathogens is thought to be mediated by different signalling pathways (Zhang *et al.*, 2018; Li *et al.*, 2019). A more general mechanism probably occurs in these plants, possibly related to a global disruption of stress signalling.

Overall, the convergence of these observations, could point to some basic intrinsic stress signalling disruption in amiRNA plants leading to increased tolerance to biotic and abiotic stresses. Finally, if Zn excess is not perceived correctly by amiRNA plants, this could alter the fine tuning of the stress response and growth of plants, and tip the scales towards growth. Interestingly, studies on *SNAKIN SN1* have shown that it potentially integrates development and defence signals directly and/or indirectly by modulating protein activity, modifying the hormonal balance and/or participating in redox regulation (Nahirnak *et al.*, 2012; Almasia *et al.*, 2020). Thus, it still remains to be clarified whether and how *PDF1*-expression-dependent defence mechanisms are finely tuned to overcome a given stress. More specifically, regarding the behaviour of amiRNA plants presented in this work, the way the observed stress perception disruptions are translated at the molecular level will remain to be investigated, and the unexpected phenotypes will have to be re-evaluated with CRISPR-edited plants where expression of the five most similar *AtPDF1s* will be totally inactivated.

Functional promiscuity of a single protein: one or several pathway(s)?

Plant defensins and DEFLs by extension are recognised as promiscuous proteins, but studies explaining how one protein can display such functional diversity are still rare. Recent analyses have shown that *Medicago truncatula* defensin MtDef4 inhibits the growth of two ascomycete fungi – *Neurospora crassa* and *Fusarium graminearum* – via different mechanisms (El-Mounadi *et al.*, 2016). In addition, differences have been highlighted in the fungal and tumour cell killing mechanisms of a *Nicotiana glauca* defensin (Bleackley *et al.*, 2016). This exemplifies that the promiscuous nature of defensins can be evidenced through different mechanisms for one or several activities. Cuticle permeability was affected in amiRNA lines (Fig. 6A); this could at least explain their tolerance to *B. cinerea*. Conversely, the relative dry masses of the WT and the cuticle permeability *lacs2-3* mutant were similarly affected upon Zn excess (Fig. 6B), and differed from the continuous growth of amiRNA lines. Overall, in amiRNA plant, tolerance to *B. cinerea* may well be disconnected from the disrupted balance between growth and the plant response to Zn excess. The *lacs2-3* mutant also accumulated anthocyanins (Supplementary Fig. S13), a characteristic of WT plants under Zn excess not found in amiRNA lines. In this regard, it might be interesting to observe the Zn excess behaviour of *A. thaliana* anthocyanin biosynthetic and/or signalling mutants (Xu *et al.*, 2015) to investigate if there is any causal relationship between these two processes.

Conclusion-Perspectives

Molecular and phenotypic characterisation of amiRNA lines highlight that a specific decrease in five out of seven *AtPDF1* increases tolerance to abiotic (Zn) and biotic (pathogen) stresses. These findings are unexpected and further studies are necessary to clarify their underlying mechanisms. CRISPR-edited plant analysis, as well as genome-wide investigations using multi-OMIC approaches (including transcriptomic, proteomic, and metabolomic analyses) would be of great interest in understanding why a lack of *AtPDF1* expression potentially affects stress perception and signalling integration under conditions of Zn excess and pathogen attack. It would also be most interesting to investigate whether *PDF1* silencing in Zn-hyperaccumulating plants results in better foliar growth since the production of aboveground biomass by these species has always been a limiting factor for the application of these traits, e.g., in soil phytoremediation.

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Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Dr S. Kamoun and Pr D. Kliebenstein and Dr M. L. Campos for their constructive comments on this work and for fruitful and stimulating discussions. We are thankful for the support of IPSiM administrative staff together with plant culture facilities (<https://www1.montpellier.inra.fr/wp-inra/bpmp/en/platform/plant-culture/>), Multi-Elemental Analyses Service (<https://www1.montpellier.inra.fr/wp-inra/bpmp/en/platform/multi-elemental-analyses-service/>). Mass spectrometry experiments were carried out using the facilities of the Montpellier Proteomics Platform (PPM, BioCampus Montpellier). The designed pKYLX71 plasmid and the *lacs2-3* mutant were kindly provided by Dr Luu (IPSiM, Montpellier, France) and Pr. Métraux (University of Fribourg, Switzerland), respectively.

Author's contributions

T.N.N.Nguyen designed the amiRNA constructs targeting the specific decrease of the accumulation of 5 *AtPDF1* transcripts, engineered *A. thaliana* amiRNA lines and characterised them at the molecular level; isolated and characterised the single *Atpdf1.4* and *Atpdf1.5* mutants and constructed the double *Atpdf1.4- Atpdf1.5* mutant, performed the comparative qRT-PCR analysis of *AtPDF1* transcripts on seedlings of wild-type, amiRNA and double *Atpdf1.4- Atpdf1.5* mutant plants. **O.Lamotte** designed and analysed the plant pathogenesis assays, performed *B. cinerea* pathogenesis and cuticle permeability tests and wrote the manuscript. **M.Alsulaiman** performed automated and manual phenotypic analysis of *AtPDF1* amiRNA plants in response to zinc and other metals in hydroponic and soil cultivation systems, and performed the analysis of plant traits (Zn, Fe and Mn content, anthocyanin dosage and SLA measurements). **S.Ruffel** and **G.Krouk** provided their expertise in gene expression regulation. **N.Berger** performed the Mass Spectrometry comparative proteomic experiments and analysis. **V.Demolombe-Liozu** analyse proteomic data and performed statistical analysis. **C.Nespoulous** provide expertise on defensin protein detection. **T.M.N.Dang** performed the comparative qRT-PCR analysis of *AtPDF1* transcripts on wild-type and amiRNA plants in response to *B. cinerea* infection. **S.Aimé** performed *H. peronospora* and *P. syringae* pv *maculicola* pathogenesis tests. **P.Berthomieu** provided expertise on defensins and zinc tolerance. **C. Dubos** provided expertise on the plant metal response. **D.Wendehenne** provided expertise on the plant response to pathogens. **D.Vile** designed, supervised and analysed the *AtPDF1* amiRNA line phenotyping experiment, performed the statistical analysis of the results, drew the related figures and wrote the manuscript. **F.Gosti** designed, supervised and analysed the *AtPDF1* amiRNA lines construction and phenotyping experiment, performed the comparative flowering phenotyping study, consolidated qRT-PCR analysis and phenotyping experiment on OE *PDF1* transgenics, wrote the manuscript and consolidated each contributor's writing. **D.Vile** and **F.Gosti** agree to serve as co-last authors. **F.Gosti** agrees to serve as contact author and ensure communication.

Conflict of Interest

No conflict of interest declared.

Funding statement

Thi Ngoc Nga Nguyen and Mohanad Alsulaiman have been supported by a PhD scholarship from the University of Science and Technology of Hanoi (Vietnam), and from Basrah University (Iraq), respectively.

Data Availability Statement

All experimental settings, data acquisitions and biological replicates are described in Supplementary Dataset S1 and all raw data are present in the Supplementary Dataset S2 file and are openly available online (<https://doi.org/10.15454/AXY7FV>) and proteomic data are available via ProteomeXchange with identifier PXD037695.

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Accepted Manuscript

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Localisation of the different amiRNA sequences targeting *AtPDF1.1*, *1.2a*, *1.2b*, *1.2c*, and *1.3* transcripts simultaneously and resulting in a specific decrease of transcript and protein accumulation.

(A) Alignment of seven *AtPDF1* cDNA sequences retrieved from The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR; <http://arabidopsis.org/index.jsp>) according to the ID given in parentheses: *AtPDF1.1* (NM_106233), *AtPDF1.2a* (NM_123809), *AtPDF1.2b* (NM_128161), *AtPDF1.2c* (NM_123810), *AtPDF1.3* (NM_128160), *AtPDF1.4* (NM_101817) and *AtPDF1.5* (NM_104375). Sequences were aligned with MUSCLE 3.8.31 software (Edgar, 2004) and visualised with BOXSHADE 3.21 software (http://www.ch.embnet.org/software/BOX_form.html). The alignment of the three designed artificial microRNAs (light purple, C1; light yellow, C2; light blue, C3) are positioned on the multiple alignments. The mismatch points according to (Ossowski *et al.*, 2008) are highlighted in pink. The start and stop codons are highlighted in green (with red letters). **(B)** *AtPDF1* transcript in seedlings of the WT accession Col-0 ($n = 12$ pools of *ca.* 20 seedlings) and amiRNA lines ($n = 24$ pools of *ca.* 25 seedlings from 24 independent homozygous lines) grown under controlled *in vitro* conditions. Symbols correspond to the geometric means of relative expression obtained with three different reference genes (*ACT2* and *ACT8*, *YSL8* and *EF1alpha*). Values were obtained from four independent experiments with $n = 4$ (WT) to $n = 9$ (amiRNA) replicates each (see also Supplementary Fig. S5). Error bars, lower and upper Gaussian 95% CIs. Please note that the *AtPDF1.2b* and *AtPDF1.2c* transcripts were not detected in any genotype. **(C)** Alignment of seven *AtPDF1* mature peptide sequences retrieved from The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR; <http://arabidopsis.org/index.jsp>) according to the UniProtKB ID given in parentheses: *AtPDF1.1* (P30224), *AtPDF1.2a* (P30224), *AtPDF1.2b* (O80994), *AtPDF1.2c* (Q9F122), *AtPDF1.3* (O80995), *AtPDF1.4* (P82787) and *AtPDF1.5* (Q9FZ31). Sequences were aligned with MUSCLE 3.8.31 software (Edgar, 2004) and visualised with Sequence Manipulation Suite (https://www.bioinformatics.org/sms2/color_align_prop.html). Amino acid backgrounds are coloured for their identity or similarity according to their properties: non polar aliphatic (grey), aromatic (orange), unique C (yellow) and P (pink), polar uncharged (green), positively charged (red), negatively charged (blue). Peptides generated following trypsin digestion that were observed in this study are indicated within boxes differentially coloured according to their detection specificity. **(D)** Normalized intensities of detected proteins in fractionated proteome of WT, amiRNA-C2 and amiRNA-C3 lines. **(a)** NQCINLEGAK representative peptide of the *AtPDF1.2a*, *1.2b*, *1.2c* and *1.3* proteins as detected in 21 days-old seedlings **(b)** protein intensity based on NQCINLEK, LCERPSGTWSGVCGNSNACK and HGSCNYVFAHK specific *AtPDF1.1* peptides detected in dry seeds. For each experiment, three independent samples for each of the WT, amiRNA-C2 and amiRNA-C3 lines were analysed: $n = 3$ pools of *ca.* 10 seedlings **(a)** and $n = 3$ pools of *ca.* 20 mg of dry seeds **(b)**. Error bars show \pm SD. Means within each genotype with the same letter are not significantly different according to one-way ANOVA followed by post hoc Tukey test, $P < 0.05$. n.d.: not detected.

Figure 2. Phenotypic and molecular characterisation of amiRNA plant tolerance to *B. cinerea* infection.

(A) Representative pictures of leaf symptoms five days after *B. cinerea* inoculation of *A. thaliana* leaves of WT plants and of representative homozygous lines (L) of the three amiRNA constructs (amiRNA-C1, amiRNA-C2 and amiRNA-C3) (Supplementary Dataset S1). **(B)** Lesion diameters (mean \pm sem) obtained from five independent experiments (Supplementary Dataset S1) performed on WT

(white bars; $n = 48-58$) and on amiRNA-C1 (dark grey bar; $n = 48-58$), amiRNA-C2 (grey bar; $n = 24-112$) and amiRNA-C3 (light grey bar; $n = 48-58$) lines. Different letters represent significant differences between genotypes at $P < 0.05$ (Student t -test). **(C)** Quantification of *AtPDF1* transcript in the leaves ($n = 5$ per genotype and per treatment) of WT and amiRNA plants harvested 18 h after *B. cinerea* inoculation or mock treatment. Transcript quantification was expressed as the geometric means of relative expression obtained with three different reference genes (*ACT2* and *ACT8*, *YSL8* and *expressed gene* in AT4G26410). Small symbols, means of individual samples for each *AtPDF1*. Large symbols, mean relative expression levels. Error bars, 95% CIs of five biological replicates and two triplicate qRT-PCR experiments for each genotype (see also Supplementary Fig. S9). Please note that *AtPDF1.5* transcripts were not detected in any genotype, nor in any treatment, and that in any treatment, *AtPDF1.2c* transcripts were barely detected in the amiRNA lines ($n = 5$ out of 30 samples).

Figure 3. Phenotypic characteristics of amiRNA plant tolerance to *H. arabidopsidis* NOCO2 and to *P. syringae* pv *maculicola* infection.

Representative photographs of leaf symptoms. **(A)** *H. arabidopsidis* sporulation was observed seven days after inoculation, and **(C)** leaf wilting (red spots) was observed two days after *P. syringae* pv *maculicola* ES4326 infiltration. **(B)** Number of spores per mg fresh weight (mean \pm sem) measured seven days after *H. arabidopsidis* infection ($n = 4$ independent experiments; Supplementary Dataset S1) of Col-0 WT (white bar) and amiRNA-C1, C2 and C3 lines (grey bars). **(D)** Mean (\pm sem) cfu count per cm² of leaf tissue of Col-0 WT (white bars) and amiRNA lines (grey bars) following infection with *P. syringae* pv *maculicola* at $t = 0$ and $t = 2$ dpi (hatched and plain bars, respectively; $n = 5$ independent experiments). Different letters in **(B)** and **(D)** represent significant differences between genotypes at $P < 0.05$ (Student t -test).

Figure 4. Increase of the dry mass of amiRNA lines in response to zinc exposure without modification of zinc accumulation

(A) Dry mass response to Zn treatment of plants cultivated in soil in two independent experiments (Supplementary Dataset S1). Whole-rosette dry mass of WT (white bars) and amiRNA lines (grey bars) measured on plants aged 54-61 days and irrigated with water (WT, $n = 18$; amiRNA-C2, $n = 9$; amiRNA-C3, $n = 24$), or with a solution of ZnSO₄ (WT, $n = 12$; amiRNA-C2, $n = 9$; amiRNA-C3, $n = 24$). Bars, average percent change in dry mass in response to Zn relative to the control; error bars, 95% CIs. Different letters represent significant differences between genotypes at $P < 0.05$. **(B)** Dry mass of plants grown in hydroponic conditions following 80 μ M zinc treatment ($n = 5$ independent experiments; Supplementary Dataset S1). Dry mass was measured on whole rosettes of WT plants (circles) and amiRNA-C2 and amiRNA-C3 lines (triangles) aged 38 to 42 days and harvested 10 to 17 days after the beginning of Zn exposure (WT, $n = 3-12$; amiRNA, $n = 3-10$). Large symbols, average percent change in dry mass in response to Zn relative to the control; error bars, 95% CIs. Small symbols, individual samplings. **(C)** Zinc content of rosette leaves in the control and zinc-treated plants grown in soil ($n = 3$) or in hydroponics ($n = 3$; Supplementary Dataset S1). Bars, average values from six independent experiments ($n = 3-13$ individual plants per treatment and per experiment (small symbols)). Error bars, 95% CIs.

Figure 5. Disturbance of the anthocyanin content in amiRNA plants submitted to Zn excess.

(A) Representative zenital pictures of the abaxial rosette surface of WT and *AtPDF1*-amiRNA lines. The plants were grown in hydroponics for 39 days after sowing and treated with a solution containing 80 μM ZnSO_4 (Zn) or not (Control) for 14 days. Bars = 5 cm. **(B)** Anthocyanin contents of the aboveground parts of WT (circles) and amiRNA-C3 plants (triangles) cultivated in hydroponic conditions in four independent experiments. Large symbols, means of individual measurements (small symbols) performed on plant rosettes aged 32 or 26 days after germination and treated with 80 μM ZnSO_4 (grey symbols) or untreated (black symbols) at the time of harvest (0 to 15 days after the start of zinc exposure). The scale is indicated in Log_{10} and regression lines are indicated ($r = -0.68$, $P = 0.011$; $r = -0.08$, $P = 0.81$; $r = -0.66$, $P = 0.014$; $r = -0.60$, $P = 0.04$ for the control and Zn-treated WT and for the control and Zn-treated amiRNA line, respectively; $n = 2$ -4 individual plants *per* treatment, *per* experiment and time point).

Figure 6. Cuticle permeability is affected in amiRNA plants, and zinc excess causes a similar dry mass decrease in the WT and the cuticle mutant plants.

(A) Cuticle permeability assay with toluidine blue. Representative photographs of three independent experiments conducted on different genotypes (see Supplementary Dataset S1). **(B)** Response to Zn excess of the shoot dry mass of different *A. thaliana* genotypes cultivated in hydroponics. Dry mass was measured 33 days after sowing in two independent experiments (Exp. 1, Exp. 2) on *A. thaliana* plants treated with a control solution or a solution containing 80 μM ZnSO_4 for 11 days. WT plants ($n = 15$, 15 and $n = 36$, 43); amiRNA-C2 ($n = 35$, 9 and $n = 0$ in Exp. 2), amiRNA-C3 ($n = 6$, 7 and $n = 17$, 21) and *lacs2-3* ($n = 9$, 18 and $n = 14$, 19) mutant. Within each experiment, bars represent the average percent change in dry mass in response to zinc relative to the control, and error bars represent 95% CIs. Different letters indicate significant differences of computed CIs within each experiment. ND, not determined.

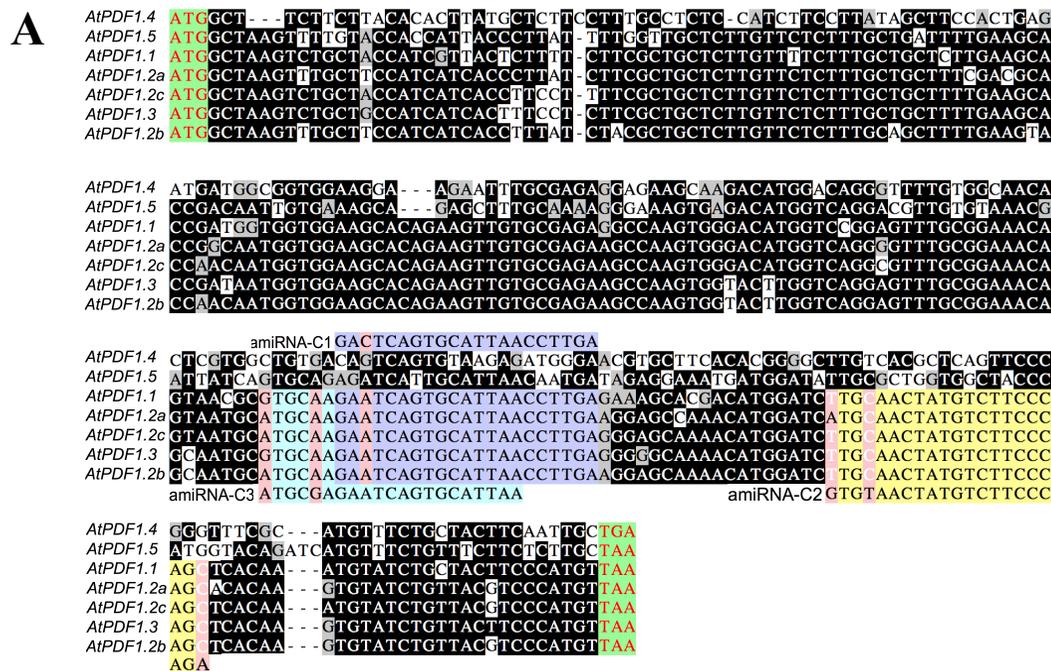
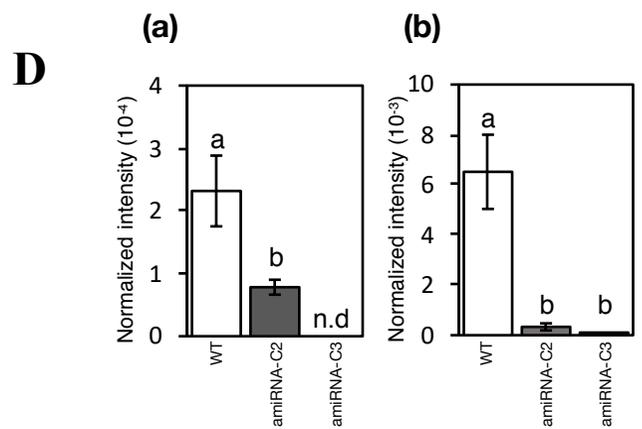
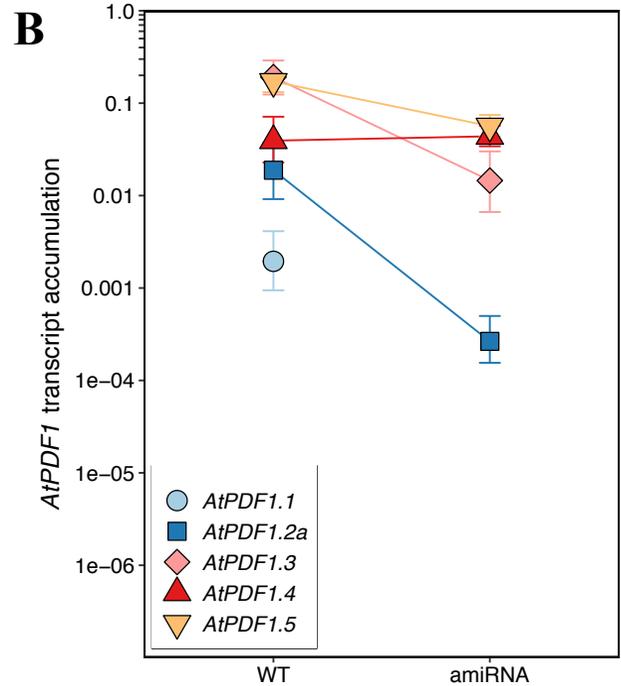
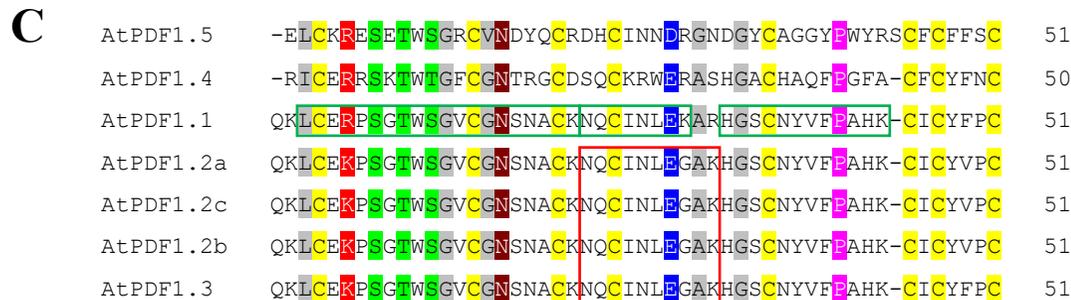


Figure 1



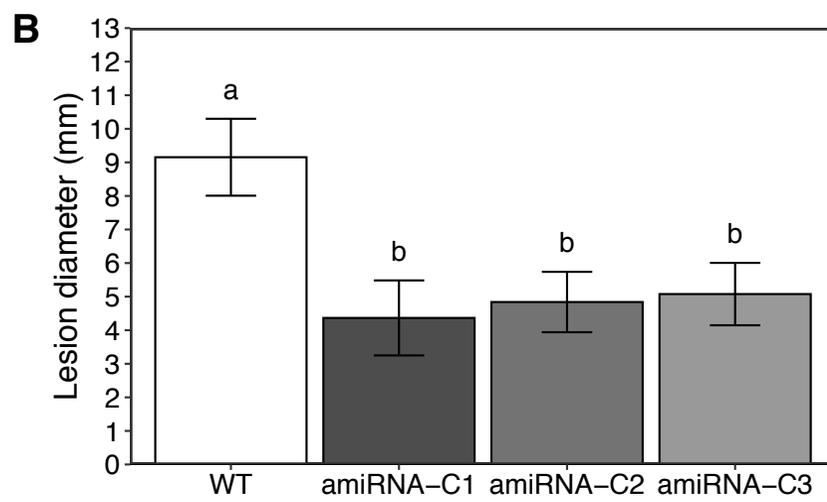


Figure 2

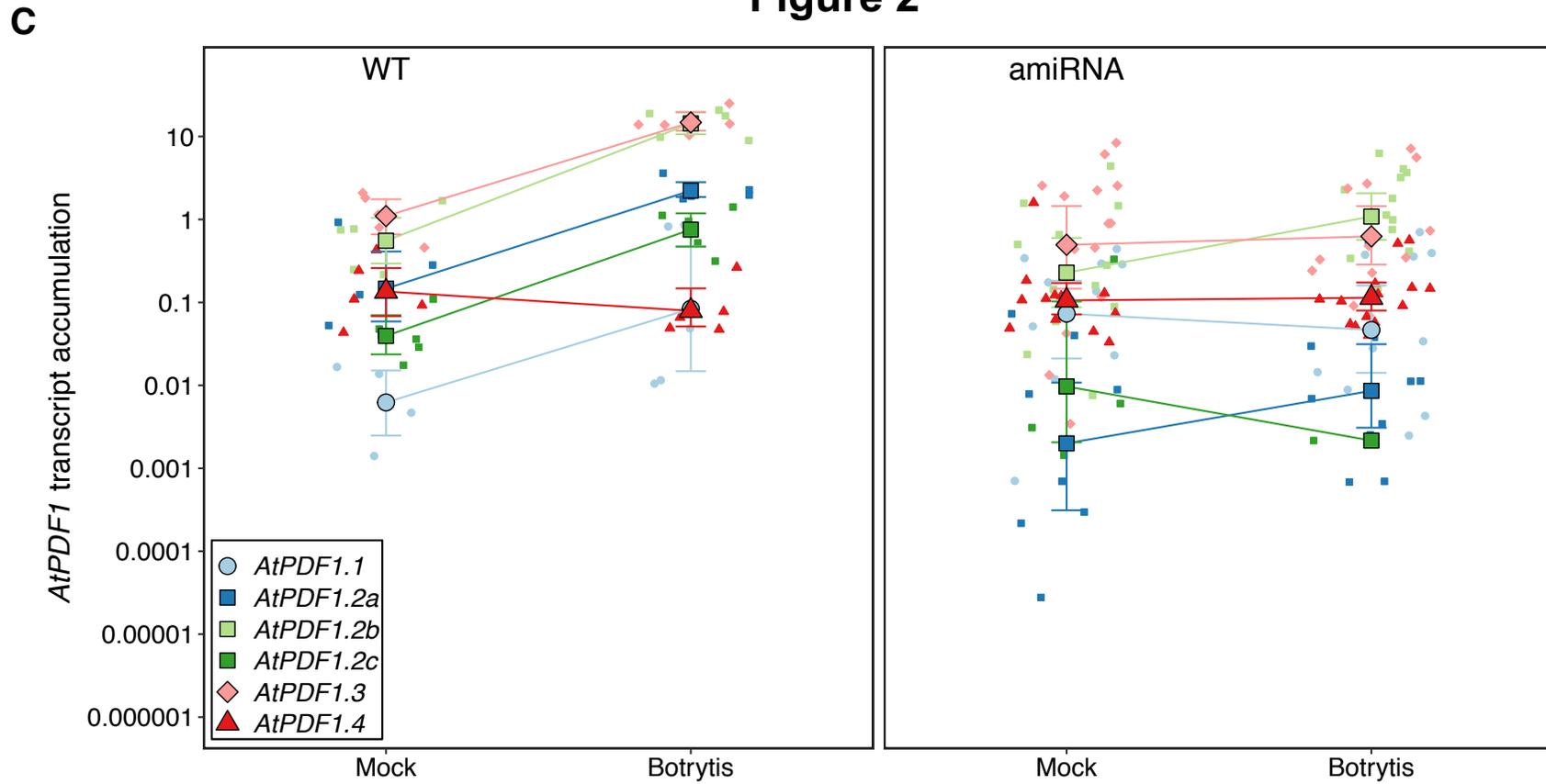


FIGURE 3

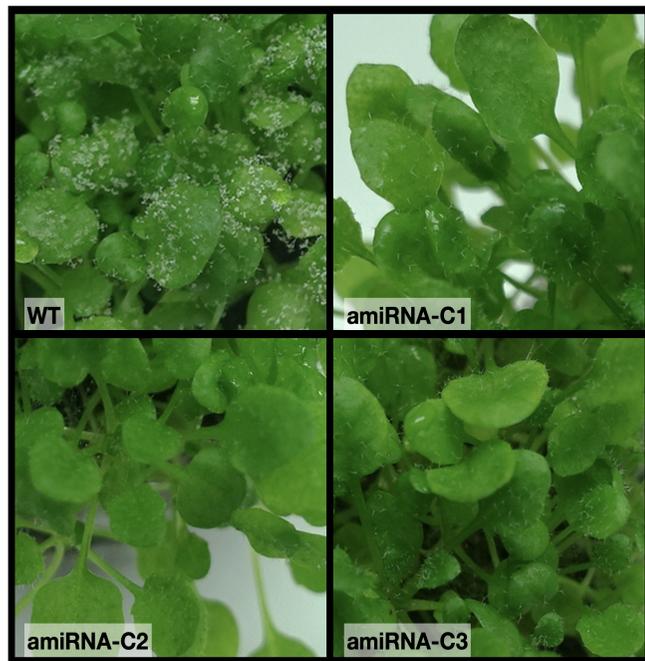
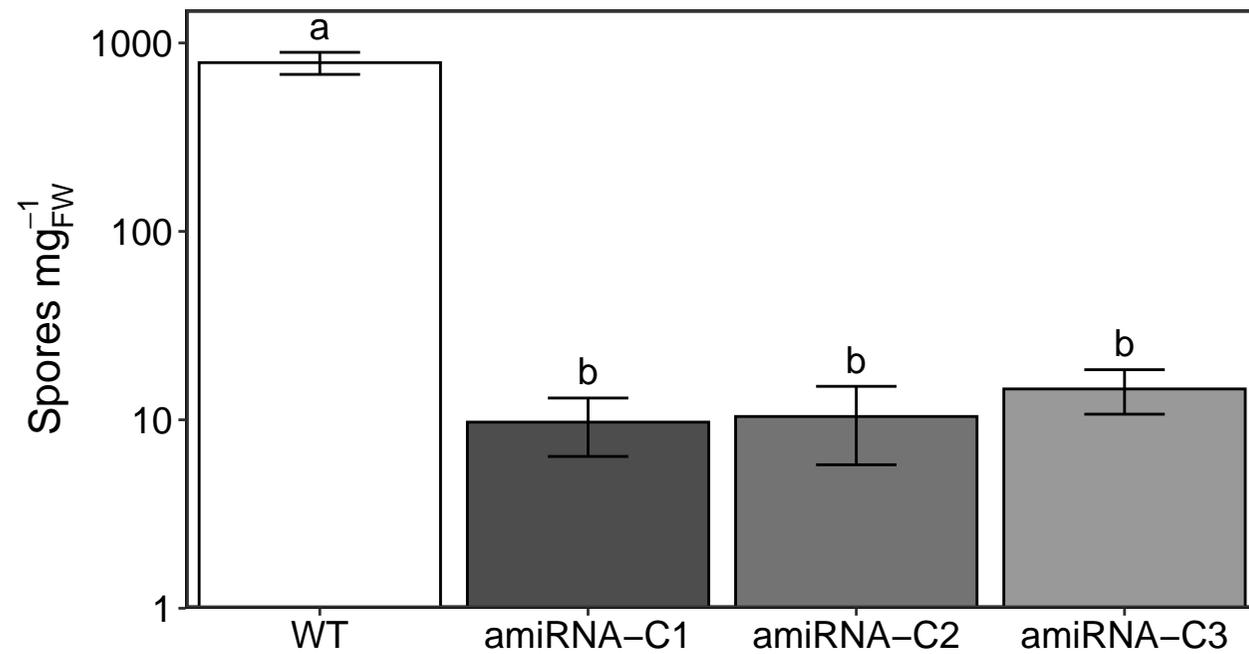
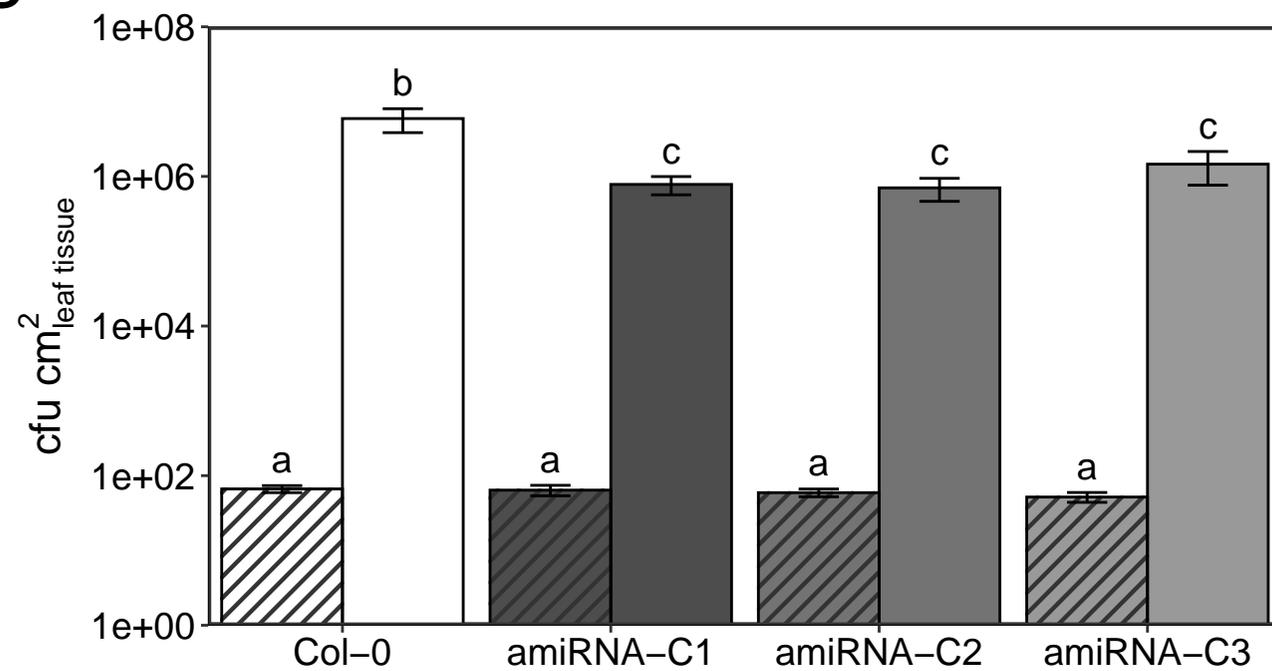
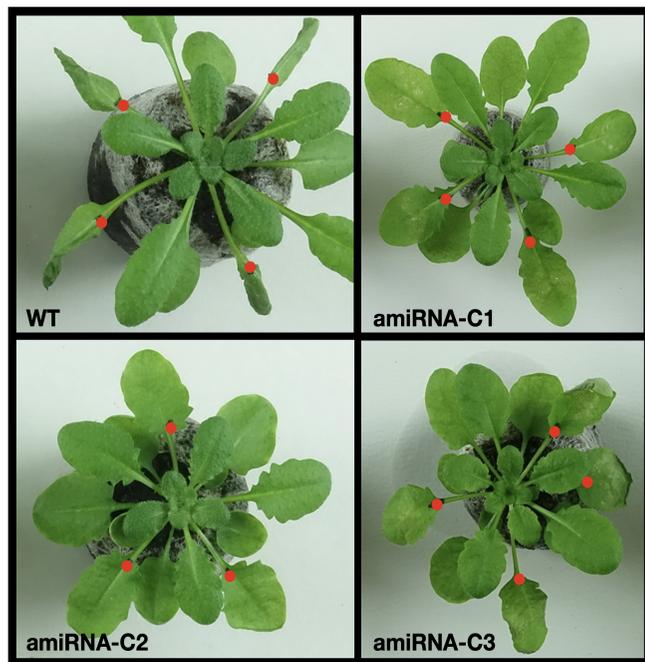
**B****D****C**

FIGURE 4

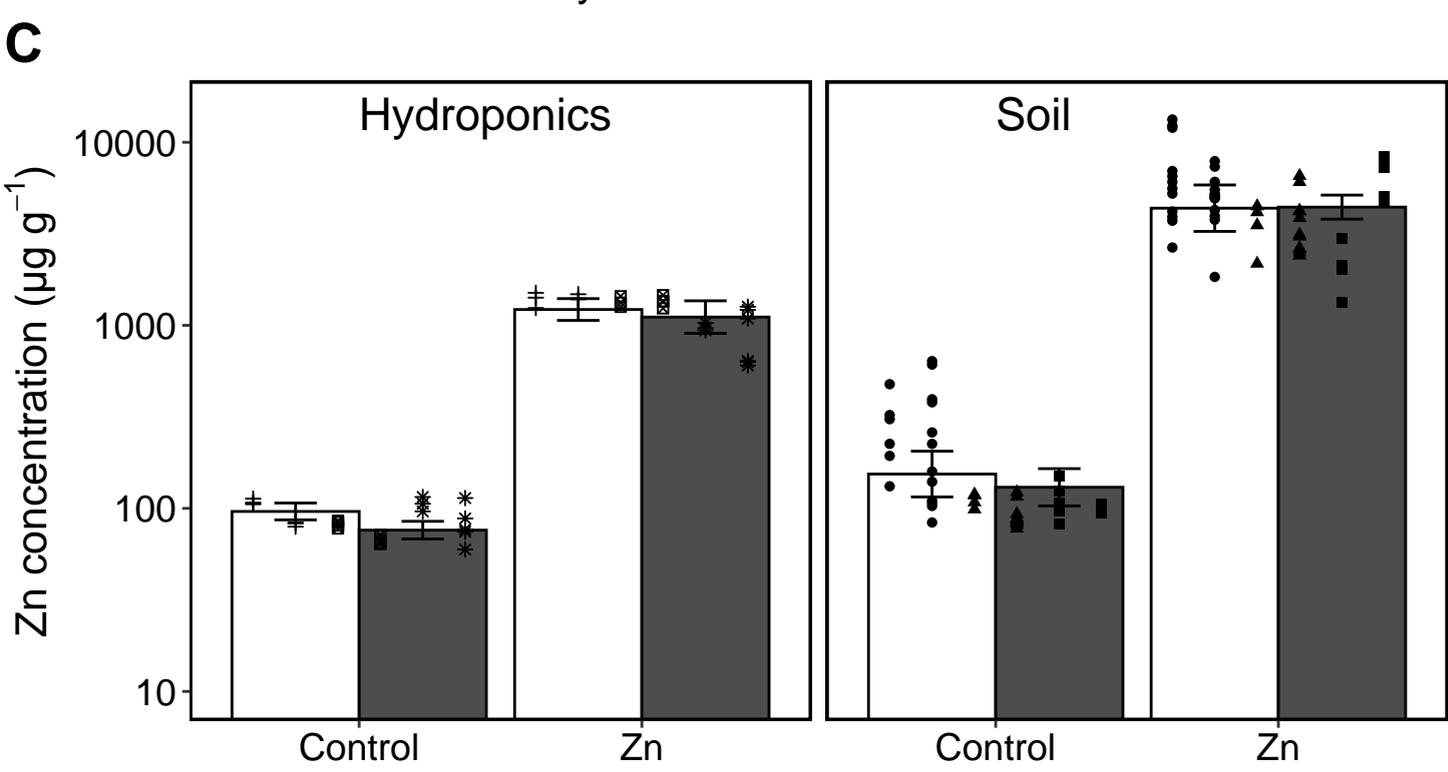
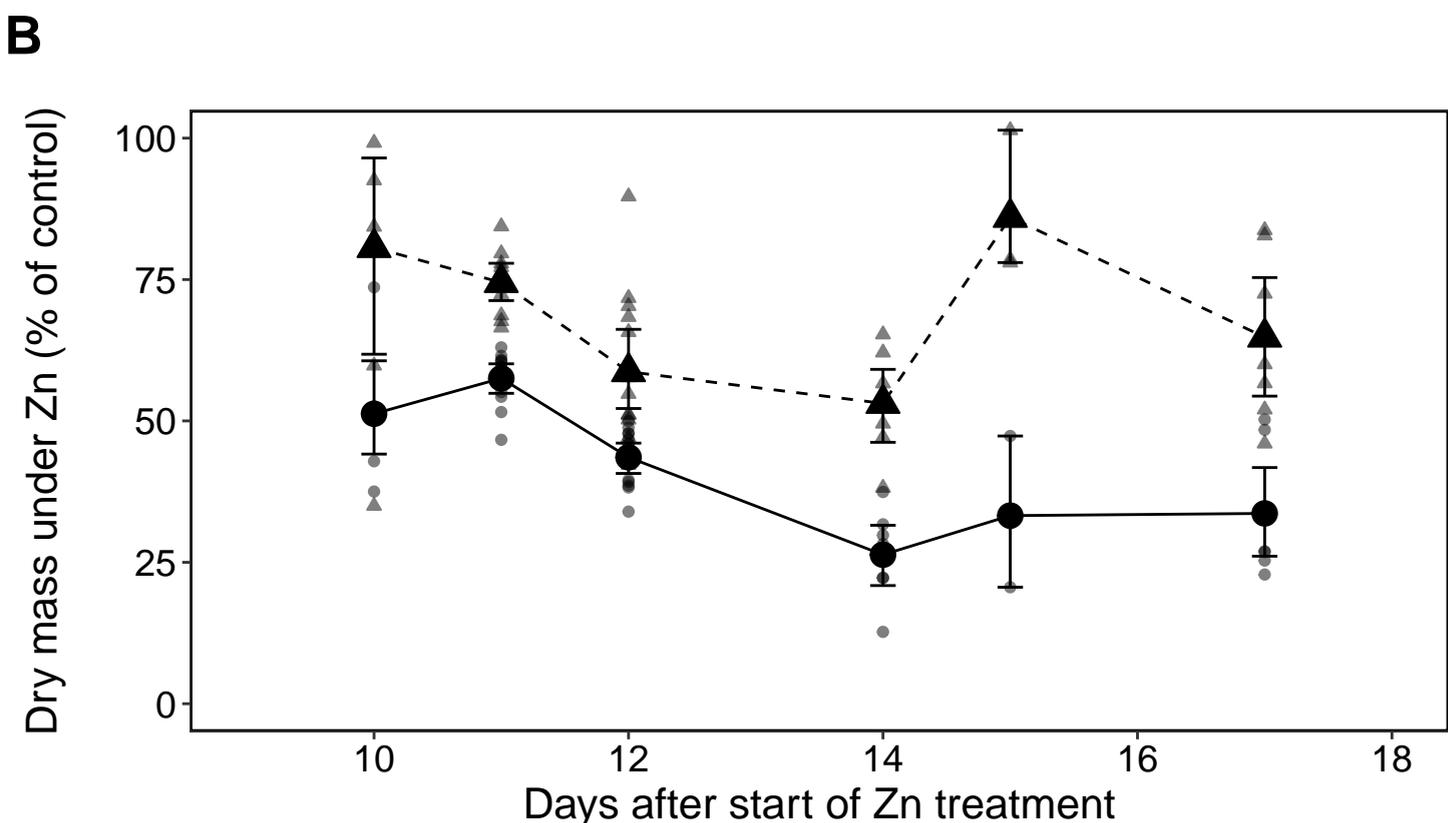
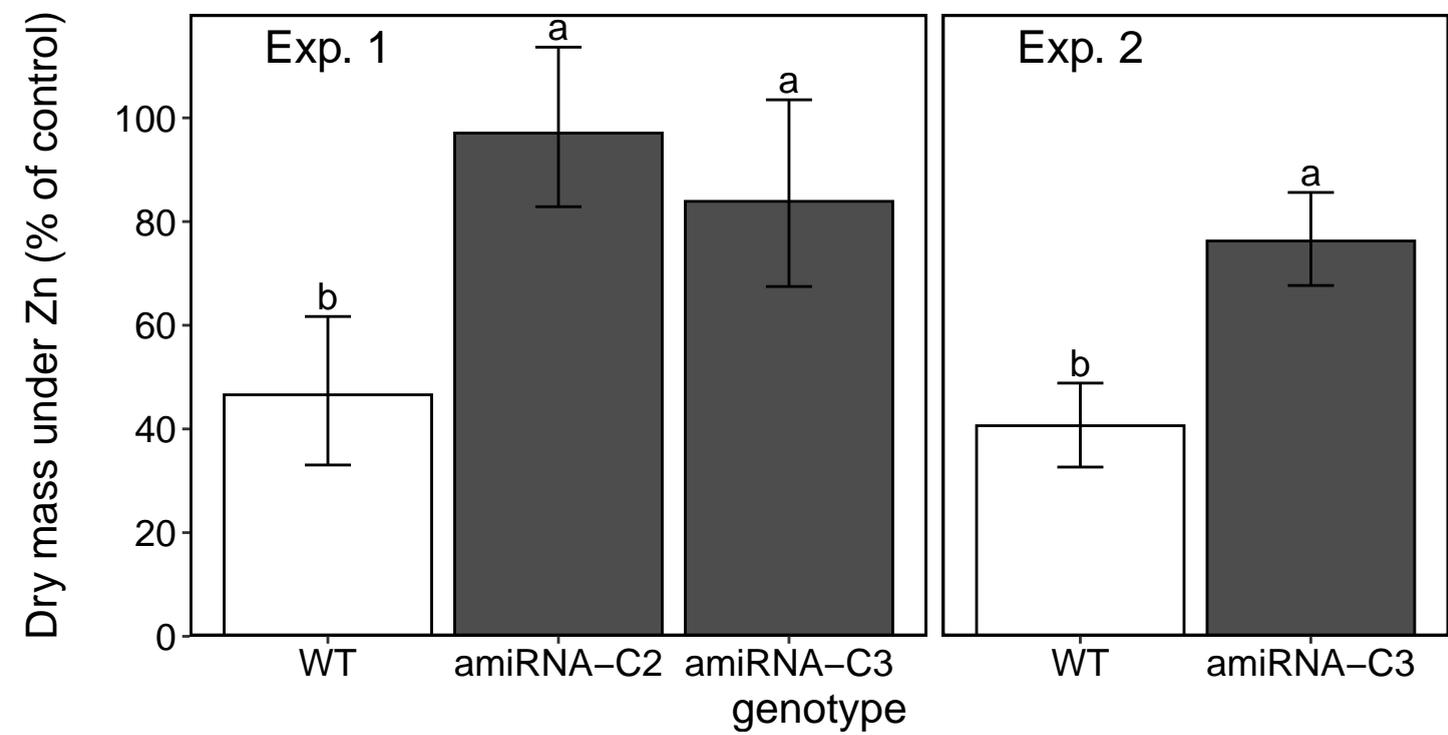


FIGURE 5

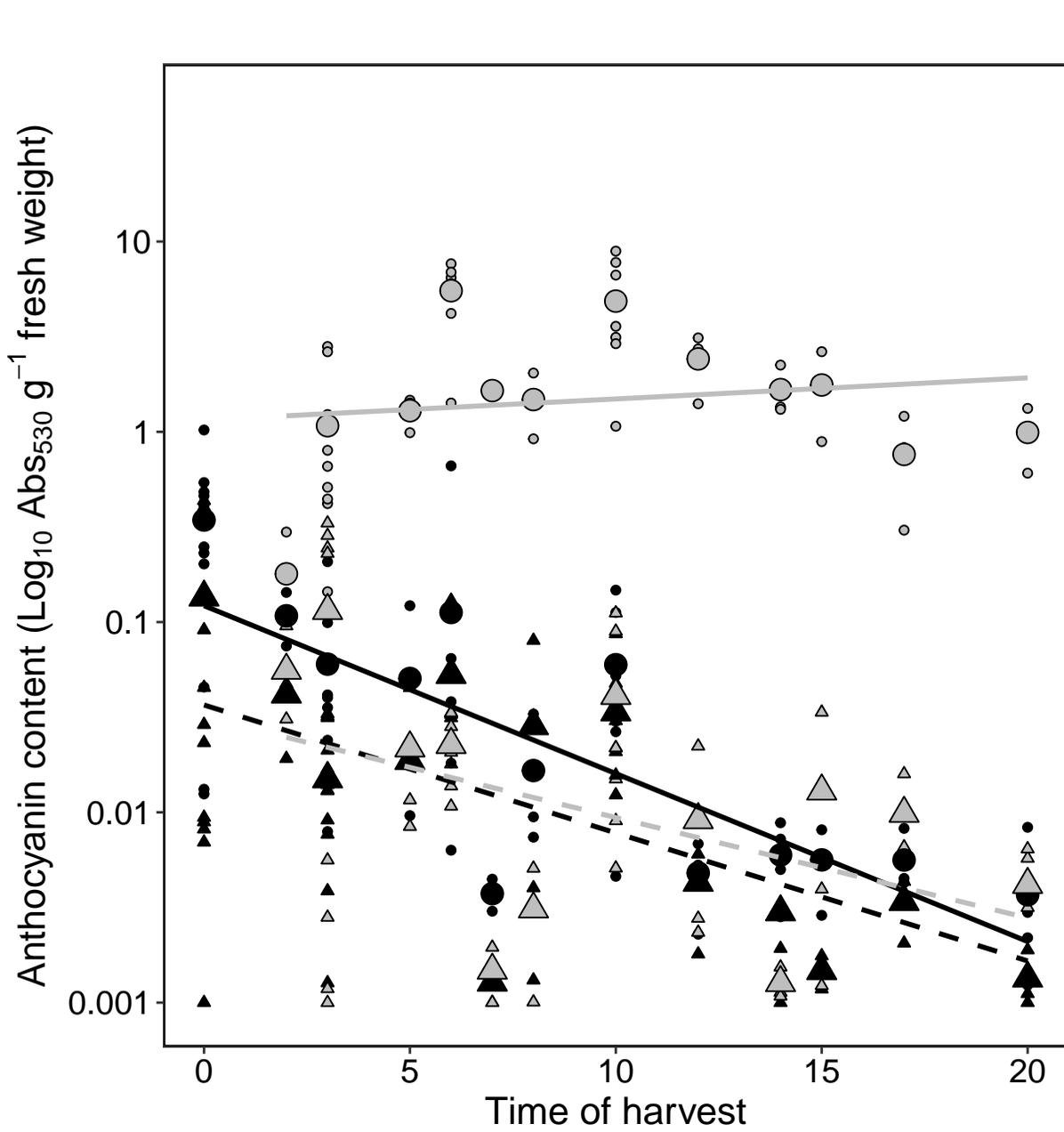
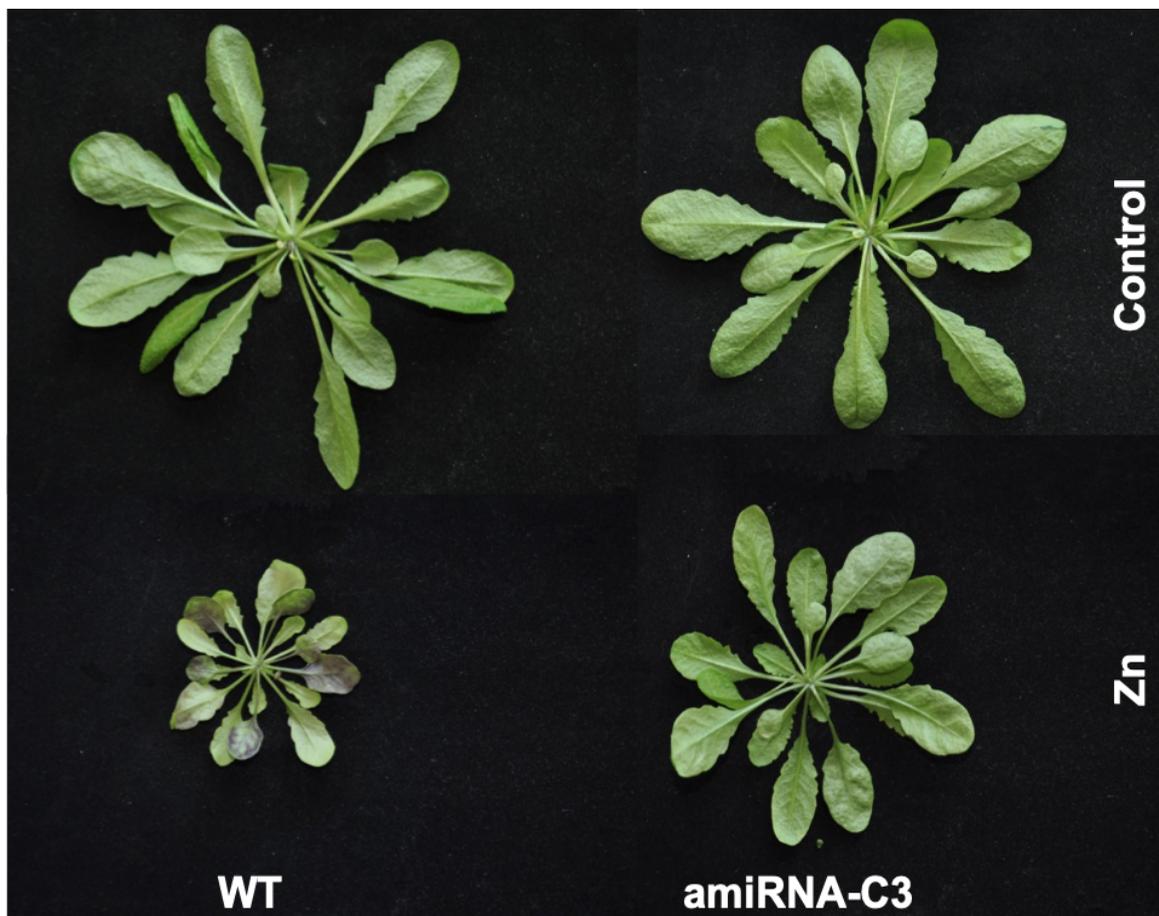
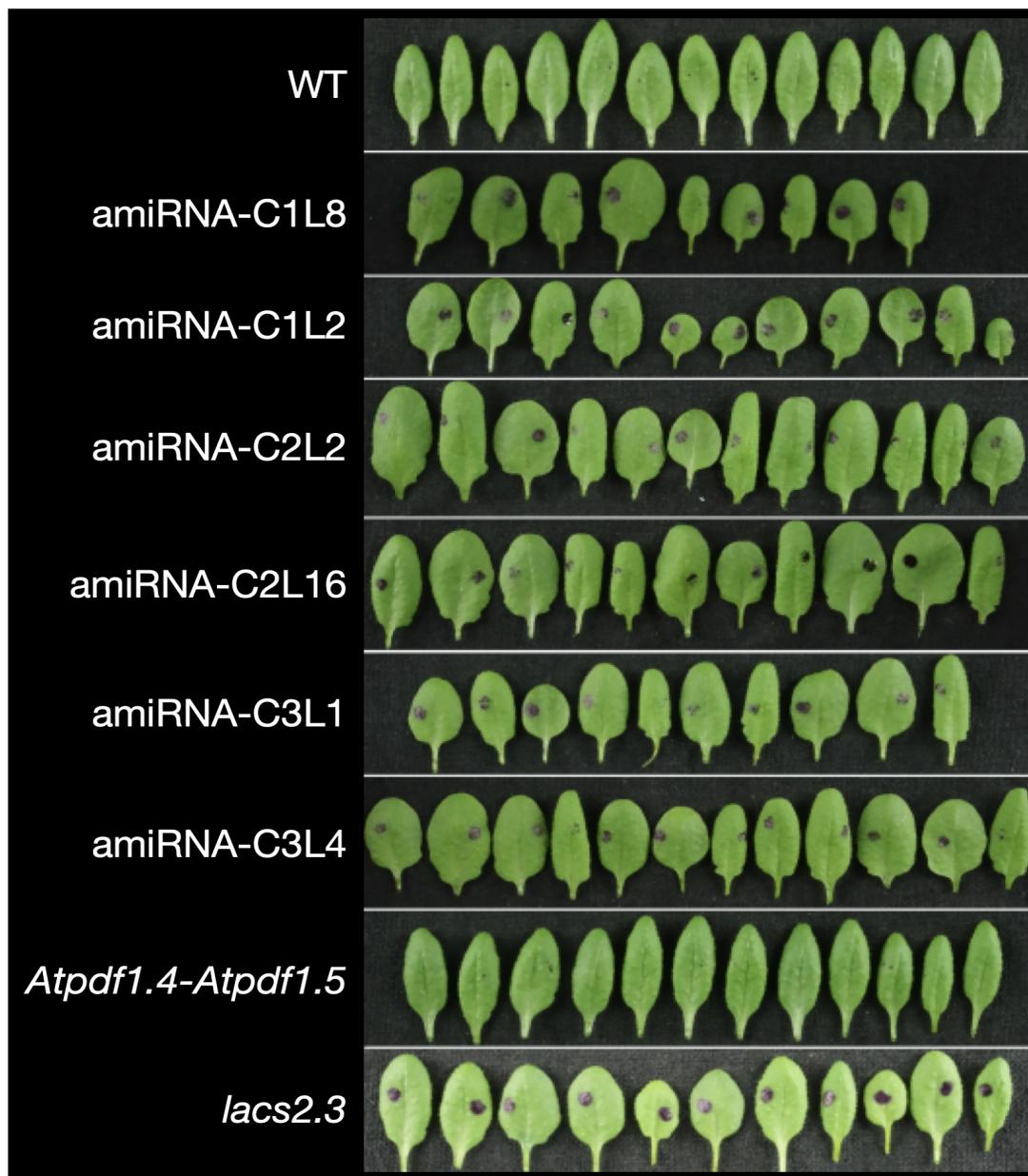


FIGURE 6

A



B

