CEP signaling coordinates plant immunity with nitrogen status

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Abstract

Plant endogenous signaling peptides shape growth, development and adaptations to biotic and abiotic stress. Here, we identified C-TERMINALLY ENCODED PEPTIDES (CEPs) as novel immune-modulatory peptides (phytocytokines) in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Our data reveals that CEPs induce immune outputs and are required to mount resistance against the leaf-infecting bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato*. We show that effective immunity requires CEP perception by tissue-specific CEP RECEPTOR 1 (CEPR1) and CEPR2. Moreover, we identified the related RECEPTOR-LIKE KINASE 7 (RLK7) as a novel CEP4-specific CEP receptor contributing to CEP-mediated immunity, suggesting a complex interplay of multiple CEP ligands and receptors in different tissues during biotic stress. CEPs have a known role in the regulation of root growth and systemic nitrogen (N)-demand signaling. We now provide evidence that CEPs and their receptors promote immunity in an N status-dependent manner, suggesting a previously unknown molecular crosstalk between plant nutrition and cell surface immunity. We propose that CEPs and their receptors are central regulators for the adaptation of biotic stress responses to plant-available resources.

Main Text

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Receptor kinases (RKs) sense external and internal cues to control multiple aspects of plant physiology, ranging from growth and development to plant immunity and abiotic stress tolerance. RKs can serve as pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) to detect microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs) and activate pattern-triggered immunity (PTI). An example is the Arabidopsis thaliana (hereafter Arabidopsis) leucine-rich repeat RK (LRR-RK) FLAGELLIN SENSITIVE 2 (FLS2), which forms a receptor complex with BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE 1-ASSOCIATED RK 1 (BAK1) upon perception of a 22 amino acid epitope derived from bacterial flagellin (flg22) to activate PTI (1-4). Plants also perceive endogenous peptides to regulate multiple aspects of plant physiology (5). Importantly, plants utilize specific endogenous peptides for controlling immunity. These peptides are referred to as phytocytokines and their expression or secretion can be modulated upon PTI activation. They also often additionally regulate aspects of plant growth and development (6, 7). Examples are GOLVEN2 (GLV2) peptides which are perceived by ROOT MERISTEM GROWTH FACTOR INSENSITIVE 3 (RGI3) to modulate PRR stability and RAPID ALKALINIZATION FACTORs (RALFs) that are sensed by the malectin RK (MLRK) FERONIA (FER) to control PRR nanoscale dynamics at the plasma membrane and MAMP-induced PRR-BAK1 complexes for PTI initiation (8-11). GLV2 also controls hypocotyl gravicurvature (12) and RALF perception by FER and other MLRKs affects several aspects of plant growth, development and reproduction, suggesting that endogenous peptides coordinate these processes with stress responses (13-18). Immune-modulatory peptides are often transcriptionally upregulated in response to MAMP perception, including SERINE-RICH ENDOGENOUS PEPTIDES (SCOOPs) and SMALL PHYTOCYTOKINES REGULATING DEFENSE AND WATER LOSS (SCREWs)/CTNIPs (19-21). Yet, GLV2 transcription is not induced by biotic stress (8) and promotes immunity, suggesting that immunity-dependent transcriptional regulation is not a prerequisite for phytocytokine function. Phytocytokines and other endogenous peptides further regulate a multitude of abiotic stress responses, including adaptation to high salinity, drought and nutrient deprivation, indicating that they can integrate multiple external and internal cues to safeguard plant health (22-24). Yet, how different peptide-mediated pathways are coordinated remains largely unknown.

Here, we identified C-TERMINALLY ENCODED PEPTIDES (CEPs) as novel phytocytokines in Arabidopsis. CEPs are important for sucrose-dependent lateral root growth, root system architecture, systemic nitrogen (N)-demand signaling and promotion of root nodulation, but a function in plant immunity remained unknown (22, 25–31). We show that the unusual class I CEP peptide CEP4 induces immune responses. We found that *CEP4* and other *CEPs* are expressed in shoots and perceived by canonical CEP receptors CEPR1 and CEPR2 to mount effective cell surface immunity. *CEPR1* and *CEPR2* show tissue-specific expression patterns, suggesting CEP sensing in distinct tissues spatially cooperates to control plant immunity. Yet, CEP4-induced responses also require the CEPR-related RECEPTOR-LIKE KINASE 7 (RLK7), which we identified as a novel CEP4-specific CEP receptor with wide-spread expression in leaves. Importantly, we now show that a short-term reduction in seedling N levels promotes flg22-induced PTI responses in a CEP and CEP receptor-dependent manner, suggesting that CEPs coordinate a previously unknown cross-talk between cell surface immunity and plant nutrition.

Results

CEPs are novel phytocytokines

We sought to identify novel phytocytokines regulating growth and immunity in Arabidopsis and screened publicly available transcription data of known growth-regulatory plant peptide families for members with differential expression after elicitor treatment. With this approach, we recently identified GLV2 as a novel phytocytokine modulating PRR stability through RGIs (8). We noticed that a specific member of the CEP family, *CEP4*, showed differential expression upon flg22 treatment with a moderate downregulation in an *asr3* mutant background, a transcriptional repressor of flg22-induced genes (Supplementary Fig. 1A) (32). Using RT-qPCR, we also observed a mild flg22-induced *CEP4* downregulation in Col-0 seedlings compared to the mock control. At 4 hours of mock treatment, *CEP4* expression was lower compared to 0-hour mock samples, suggesting some degree of circadian rhythm-related regulation (Supplementary Fig. 1B). The majority of *CEPs* show predominant expression in root tissue (33). We compared root and shoot *CEP4* transcripts in seedlings upon flg22 treatment. We detected much stronger *CEP4* expression in roots with a similar pattern of flg22-dependent modulation. Interestingly, *CEP4* expression in shoots was mildly upregulated upon 1 h of flg22 treatment (Supplementary Fig. 1C). Arabidopsis encodes for 12 class I CEPs and 3 class II CEPs, which can be

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distinguished by sequence differences in their peptide domain. CEPs are produced from larger peptide precursors that carry one to five predicted mature CEP domain in their sequence and an N-terminal signal peptide for secretion (33). CEP4 is classified as a class I CEP but has an unusual structure compared to other class I CEPs (Supplementary Fig. 1D). CEP4 only carries two proline residues in its peptide domain, unlike several characterized typical class I CEPs such as CEP1 and CEP3 (33). To test whether CEP4 may be involved in immunity, we generated constitutive overexpression lines using a full-length CEP4 precursor sequence (35S::CEP4, Supplementary Fig. 2A) and noticed that these lines showed increased resistance to infection by Pseudomonas syringae pv. tomato (Pto) lacking the effector molecule coronatine (Pto^{COR-}), which is routinely used to assess PTI-associated disease resistance phenotypes (Fig. 1A) (34, 35). The same lines were also more susceptible to infection by the wild-type Pto DC3000 strain (Supplementary Fig. 2B). The majority of mature CEPs previously identified are 15mer peptides with an N-terminal aspartate (D), a C-terminal Histidine (H) and hydroxylated prolines (22, 33). We synthesized a 16mer peptide with both proline residues hydroxylated and the N- and C-terminal D and H residue, respectively, DAFRHypTHQGHypSQGIGH, to test whether it triggered or modulated immune responses. CEP4 application activated dose-dependent PTI outputs, including the cellular influx of calcium ions in a Col-0 line expressing the calcium reporter Aequorin (Col-0^{AEQ}) (36), the activation of MITOGEN-ACTIVATED PROTEIN KINASEs (MAPKs), ethylene production and expression of the PTI marker gene FLAGELLIN-INDUCED RECEPTOR KINASE 1 (FRK1) in Col-0 seedlings (Fig. 1B-E, Supplementary Fig. 3A). CEP4-induced calcium influx was detectable in the low nanomolar range of CEP4 concentration (Supplementary Fig. 3A) and MAPK phosphorylation was detected at concentrations of 100 nM, yet the magnitude of response was weaker compared to flg22 (Supplementary Fig. 3B). FRK1 transcript accumulation and calcium influx activated by flg22 treatment was much stronger compared to CEP4 in whole seedlings (Supplementary Fig. 3C, D). However, CEP4 induced FRK1 expression in a similar range as previously described elicitors, suggesting biological relevance (37). Moreover, CEP4 triggered nuclear YFP fluorescence in the vasculature of pFRK1::NLS-3xmVenus seedlings, suggesting some degree of tissue specificity of CEP4-induced immune outputs (38) (Fig. 1F). Finally, CEP4 treatment resulted in seedling growth inhibition (SGI) and systemic resistance to Pto DC3000 infection (Fig. 1G, H). We also tested a 15mer peptide lacking the N-terminal D residue (AFRHypTHQGHypSQGIGH), which triggered a dose-dependent calcium influx with no

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significant differences to the response elicited by the 16mer peptide (Supplementary Fig. 3A). We next tested whether other class I CEPs can activate PTI responses. Indeed, CEP1 and one peptide derived from CEP9 (CEP9.5), which carries five CEP domains in its precursor sequence (39), were able to trigger calcium influx in seedlings but only at higher concentrations of 10 µM (Supplementary Fig. 3E). However, CEP1 induced nuclear YFP fluorescence in the vasculature of pFRK1::NLS-3xmVenus lines at similar concentrations as CEP4 (Supplementary Fig. 3F), suggesting that likely several CEPs can trigger immune responses with CEP4 being a very potent family member. To confirm the role of CEPs in plant immunity and because we anticipated genetic redundancy of immune-regulatory CEPs, we generated a cep6x mutant by CRISPR-Cas9 in which CEP4, as well as the five additional class I CEPs CEP1-CEP3, CEP6 and CEP9 were mutated to predictable loss of function (CRISPR alleles cep1.1, cep2.1, cep3.1, cep4.1, cep6.1 and cep9.1, Supplementary Fig. 2C). The resulting cep6x mutant had no obvious morphological defects (Supplementary Fig. 2D) but showed compromised resistance to PtoCOR- infection, confirming that CEPs are important for antibacterial resistance (Fig. 1I). To overcome the impact of different tissue-specific CEPs that cooperate to mount disease resistance, we complemented the PtoCOR- hypersusceptibility phenotype of cep6x using a fulllength CEP4 driven by the constitutive 35S promoter (Fig. 1J, Supplementary Fig. 2E). The cep6x mutant was also more susceptible to infection with the fully virulent wild-type Pto DC3000 strain, and 35S::CEP4 expression partially complemented this phenotype (Supplementary Fig. 4A). We also tested a cep5x mutant (CRISPR alleles cep1.2, cep2.2, cep3.2, cep6.2 and cep9.2, CEP4 wild-type) which showed an intermediate phenotype upon PtoCOR- infection (Fig. 4B, Supplementary Fig. 2C, D). This indicates the contribution of multiple CEPs to mount robust resistance.

CEPR1 and CEPR2 are CEP4 receptors and central regulators of plant immunity

CEPs bind to CEPR1 and CEPR2, two LRR-RLKs from LRR subfamily XI (22, 40). Genetically, CEPR1 is predominantly required for class I CEP perception during root growth-related responses (25–28, 41, 42). We tested whether CEPR1 and CEPR2 are also involved in bacterial immunity. We did not observe a Pto^{COR-} infection phenotype in cepr1-3 and cepr2-4 single mutants (Supplementary Fig. 5A, Fig. 2A). We generated a cepr1-3 cepr2-4 (cepr1-3/2-4) mutant by genetic crossing and this double mutant was more susceptible to Pto^{COR-} (Fig. 2A). We also generated a new cepr1 cepr2 double mutant by CRISPR-Cas9 in a Col-0^{AEQ} background (CRISPR alleles cepr1.1^{AEQ}, cepr2.1^{AEQ}, hereafter cepr1/2^{AEQ})

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(Supplementary Fig. 5B). Similar to cepr1-3/2-4, cepr1/2^{AEQ} was more susceptible to Pto^{COR-} infection (Fig. 2A), further confirming a role of CEPR1 and CEPR2 in antibacterial resistance. These data suggest that CEPR1 and CEPR2 may control immunity redundantly. We then tested whether CEP4 perception depends on CEPR1 and/or CEPR2. Using SGI as a readout, we noticed that cepr1-3 was insensitive and two cepr2 alleles (cepr2-3 and cepr2-4) were insensitive and less sensitive to CEP4 treatment, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 5C). The cepr1-3/2-4 mutant and the previously reported No-0 cepr1-1 cepr2-1 double mutant also did not respond to CEP4 in SGI experiments (Fig. 2B, Supplementary Fig. 5D). Similarly, the cepr1-3/2-4 double mutant was largely insensitive to CEP4-induced systemic resistance (Fig. 2C). Of note, mock-treated cepr1-3/2-4 mutants do not show enhanced bacterial growth compared to Col-0, suggesting that CEPR1/CEPR2 primarily regulate immunity to tissue invasion, an effect that is bypassed by syringe infiltration in this experimental setup. Collectively, these data suggest that both CEPR1 and CEPR2 are involved in CEP4 perception. We then tested whether CEP4 can directly bind to the ectodomain (ECD) of CEPR1 and/or CEPR2. We expressed CEPR1^{ECD} and CEPR2^{ECD} in *Trichoplusia ni* Tnao38 cells and purified them for quantitative binding experiments. We analyzed protein quality by Coomassie stain and size exclusion chromatography (SEC, Supplementary Fig. 6A, B). Unfortunately, CEPR1^{ECD} aggregated, as indicated by the early elution of the bulk sample during SEC analysis (~10min, Supplementary Fig. 6A). Nevertheless, we obtained good quality protein for CEPR2^{ECD} with a single SEC elution peak at ~13min, which we subsequently tested for quantitative binding to CEP4 using isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC). CEP4, but not a scrambled control (CEP4scr), directly bound to CEPR2^{ECD} with a K_D of 15.7 μM (± 4.5 μM) (Fig. 2D-E, G, Supplementary Fig. 6C). CEP1, which was previously shown to bind to CEPR1 and CEPR2 (22) also bound to CEPR2^{ECD} with a K_D of 9.3 μM (± 0.6 μM) (Fig. 2F-G, Supplementary Fig. 6C). These data are in range with previously reported peptide-LRR-RK binding affinities obtained by ITC and suggest that CEPR2 is a bona fide CEP4 receptor (43–45). We were then interested to characterize a possible role of CEPR1 and CEPR2 for FLS2-mediated signaling. We did not observe strong differences in flg22-induced ethylene accumulation in cepr1-3/2-4 (Supplementary Fig. 7A). Of note, flg22-induced ethylene production was higher in cepr1-3/2-4, but basal ethylene production was enhanced in this mutant background, making the result difficult to interpret. This is interesting in light of a previous report showing that the Medicago truncatula CEP1-CRA2 (CEPR1 orthologue) pathway negatively regulates ethylene signaling during root nodule

symbiosis (*46*). Interestingly though, flg22-induced *FRK1* and *PR1* expression were reduced in adult *cepr1-3* or *cepr2-4* plants, which was pronounced in *cepr1-3/2-4* (Fig. 2H). Moreover, *cepr1-3/2-4* showed compromised flg22-induced resistance to *Pto* DC3000 infection (Fig. 2I). The flg22-induced seedling growth inhibition was unaffected in *cepr1-3/2-4* (Supplementary Fig. 7B), suggesting that CEPR1 and CEPR2 are selectively required for specific flg22-induced outputs associated with antibacterial defense. We next tested whether CEP-CEPR1/2 signaling may be important for systemic acquired resistance (SAR). To induce SAR, we used a *Pto* strain producing the effector avrRPM1 (*Pto* avrRPM1), which is recognized by Col-0 RESISTANCE TO PSEUDOMONAS SYRINGAE 1, to activate effector-triggered immunity and consequently SAR (*47*, *48*). Local inoculation of *Pto* avrRPM1 and subsequent infection of systemic tissue with virulent *Pto* revealed that *cepr1-3/2-4*, as well as *cep6x*, were strongly compromised in *Pto* avrRPM1-triggered SAR (Fig. 2J). Collectively, these data show that CEP-CEPR signaling is a central regulator of PTI and SAR in Arabidopsis.

RLK7 is a novel CEP4-specific CEP receptor

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To further characterize the role of CEPR1 and CEPR2 in CEP4-induced signaling, we tested early CEP4-triggered responses in cepr1-3/2-4 and cepr1/2AEQ. To our surprise, we found that cepr1/2AEQ did not show compromised calcium influx upon CEP4 treatment (Fig. 3A). CEP4-induced MAPK activation was also unaffected in cepr1-3/2-4 (Fig. 3B). Moreover, cepr1-3 and cepr2-4 were largely unaffected in CEP4-induced FRK1 expression and the response was also not abolished in cepr1-3/2-4 (Supplementary Fig. 8A). These results suggested that other receptor(s) may be involved in CEP4 perception. CEPR1 and CEPR2 are phylogenetically close to IKU2, which is involved in seed size regulation, and RLK7, which plays a role in controlling germination speed, lateral root formation and salt stress adaptation (24, 40, 49-51). RLK7 also senses endogenous PAMP-INDUCED PEPTIDES (PIPs) to regulate PTI and resistance to the fungal wilt pathogen Fusarium oxysporum and Pto (52, 53). We tested whether iku2-4, rlk7-1 and rlk7-3 are compromised for CEP4 perception. The iku2-4 mutant showed unaltered CEP4-induced ethylene accumulation, but this response was compromised in rlk7-1 and rlk7-3 (Supplementary Fig. 8B). Similarly, rlk7-1 and rlk7-3 showed strongly reduced CEP4induced MAPK activation (Fig. 3C). We also generated an rlk7/iku2AEQ mutant by CRISPR-Cas9 in a Col-0^{AEQ} background (CRISPR alleles rlk7.1^{AEQ} and iku2.1^{AEQ}, Supplementary Fig. 8C). The rlk7/iku2AEQ line showed compromised CEP4-induced calcium influx (Supplementary Fig. 8D). Two additional rlk7AEQ single mutants generated by CRISPR-Cas9 (CRISPR alleles rlk7.2AEQ, rlk7.3AEQ

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Supplementary Fig. 8C) were also compromised in CEP4-triggered calcium influx (Fig. 3D). Yet, residual CEP4 activity remained in rlk7 mutants, both for CEP4-induced MAPK activation and calcium influx (Fig. 3C, D). To resolve this, we generated a CRISPR cepr1 cepr2 rlk7AEQ (hereafter cepr1/2/rlk7^{AEQ}) triple mutant using the cepr1/2^{AEQ} background (CRISPR allele rlk7.4^{AEQ} in cepr1/2^{AEQ}, Supplementary Fig. 5B, 8C), which showed abolishment of CEP4-induced calcium influx and MAPK activation (Fig. 3E, F). This suggests that RLK7, CEPR1 and CEPR2 each participate in mounting a full CEP4 response, with RLK7 playing a predominant genetic role. The cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ mutant also showed abolished CEP4-induced resistance to Pto DC3000 infection (Fig. 3G). Both rlk7AEQ and cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ were also insensitive to PIP1 in MAPK activation (Supplementary Fig. 8E), consistent with RLK7's function as a PIP receptor (52). Interestingly, rlk7-1 and rlk7-3 were only moderately affected in CEP4-induced SGI (Supplementary Fig. 8F), suggesting that certain CEP4 responses require selective specificity for one of the three CEP receptors. Moreover, CEP1 and CEP9.5-induced calcium influx was abolished in cepr1/2^{AEQ} and unaltered in rlk7/iku2^{AEQ} or rlk7.2^{AEQ}, respectively, indicating that CEPR1/2 are required for the early responses triggered by these canonical class I CEPs, which again show differential receptor requirements (Fig. 3H, Supplementary Fig. 8G). We next used ITC to test whether CEP4 can bind to the ectodomain of RLK7 (RLK7^{ECD}). Similar to CEPR2^{ECD}, we obtained good quality proteins for RLK7^{ECD} eluting with a main single peak at ~13min during SEC analysis (Supplementary Fig. 6A, B). CEP4 bound to RLK7^{ECD} with a K_D of 9 μM (± 4.9 μΜ) (Fig. 3I, L, Supplementary Fig. 6C), similar to CEPR2^{ECD} (Fig. 2D, G). We also tested binding of PIP1 to RLK7^{ECD}, a described RLK7 ligand (24, 52). RLK7^{ECD} bound PIP1 with a higher affinity (K_D 500 nM ± 60 nM) (Fig. 3J, L, Supplementary Fig. 6C). Importantly, consistent with unaltered CEP1-induced responses in rlk7/iku2AEQ (Fig. 3H), CEP1 did not bind to RLK7 (Fig. 3K, Supplementary Fig. 6C). These data suggest that RLK7 can function as a CEP4-specific CEP receptor. The cepr1/2AEQ mutants show compromised resistance to PtoCOR- (Fig. 2A), similar to previously published rlk7 single mutants (53). Further mutation of rlk7 in cepr1/2AEQ background did not significantly enhance this phenotype (Supplementary Fig. 8H). When using the fully virulent Pto DC3000 strain, cepr1/2^{AEQ} was moderately more susceptible (Fig. 3M), whereas rlk7 was not (53). Interestingly, the cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ triple mutant showed significantly increased susceptibility to Pto DC3000 compared to cepr1/2AEQ (Fig. 3M), indicating that all three CEP receptors mount full antibacterial resistance.

CEP-CEP receptor signaling promotes local immunity against Pto

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Class I CEPs show predominant expression in root tissue (33) (Supplementary Fig. 1C) and function as systemic root-to-shoot transmitters of N starvation (22). We hypothesized that root-expressed CEPs may regulate leaf immunity upon infection with Pto. Therefore, we performed reciprocal grafts between Col-0 and cep6x and tested whether root or shoot expression of CEPs is required for immune regulation. Surprisingly, we found that CEP mutation in the shoot conferred increased PtoCORsusceptibility in cep6x (Fig. 4A). We used the hypovirulent PtoCOR- strain in this experiment, as the cep6x phenotype is stronger with this bacterial strain (Fig. 11, Supplementary Fig. 4A). Consistently, we detected weak CEP1-CEP4, CEP6 and CEP9 expression in leaf tissue with CEP4 being slightly upregulated upon Pto DC3000 infection (Fig. 4B), similar to the mild CEP4 upregulation upon flg22 treatment in seedling shoots (Supplementary Fig. 1C). We similarly performed reciprocal grafting with Col-0^{AEQ} and cepr1/2/rlk7^{AEQ} mutants, which demonstrated that shoot expressed CEP receptors are required to confer enhanced Pto DC3000 resistance (Fig. 4C). Pto DC3000 was used because the phenotype of cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ was more pronounced with this bacterial strain (Fig. 3M). These data suggest that CEP function in the shoot is necessary for their immune-modulatory function, unlike the root-to-shoot CEP mobility required for N-demand signaling (22). Next we wanted to investigate spatial expression patterns of CEP4 by generating a pCEP4::NLS-3xmVenus line. Consistent with previous reports, CEP4 did not show expression in the main root, but in emerging lateral roots (Fig. 4D) (33). Despite weak shoot signals for CEP4 expression obtained by qPCR (Supplementary Fig. 1C), we found widespread expression of CEP4 in seedling leaf tissue, but not in the vasculature or stomatal guard cells (Fig. 4D). This data further supports a role for leafexpressed CEP4 in local responses. We were next interested in resolving the spatial expression pattern of CEPR1, CEPR2 and RLK7 in shoot tissue. Previous reports using promoter::β-GLUCURONIDASE lines suggested restricted CEPR1 expression to the vasculature and more widespread CEPR2 promoter activity (22, 54). Consistently, a pCEPR1::NLS-3xmVenus revealed that CEPR1 expression was specific to vasculature tissue, while pCEPR2::NLS-3xmVenus signals were largely restricted to stomatal guard cells (Fig. 4E). The pRLK7::Venus-H2B line showed widespread promoter activity, including the vasculature, mesophyll and epidermal cells (Fig. 4E). RLK7 showed a large overlap with CEP4 expression in leaves,

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suggesting that CEP4 and RLK7 can meet in vivo to function as a receptor-ligand pair. Although our results point to CEPR1/CEPR2 and RLK7 being required for full CEP4 sensitivity (Fig. 3E, F), only RLK7 shows an overlapping expression pattern with CEP4. Moreover, CEP4 expression was absent in the vasculature (Fig. 4D) but CEP4 induced FRK1 expression in this tissue (Fig. 1F, Supplementary Fig. 3F). This raises the possibility for CEP4 mobility between tissue layers and that the peptide may exert its function in a combination of cell-autonomous and short-to-long distance signaling. The restriction of expression of CEPR1 and CEPR2 in the vasculature and guard cells, respectively, may also explain the minor contribution of these receptors to mount CEP4-induced early responses upon elicitation in whole seedlings (Fig. 3A-F). For this reason, we generated CEPR2-GFP and CEPR1-GFP overexpression lines to test whether the constitutive expression of these receptors can promote CEP4-induced responses. Two 35S::CEPR2-GFP lines overexpressed the receptor ~100-150 fold compared to Col-0 and protein accumulation was detected by western blots (Supplementary Fig. 9A, B). We only obtained one 35S::CEPR1-GFP line with a ~10 fold overexpression relative to Col-0 (Supplementary Fig. 9C). However, we failed to detect CEPR1-GFP accumulation in this line, suggesting that the protein may be unstable. Consistent with a function as a CEP4 receptor (Fig. 2D, G), the overexpression of CEPR2-GFP enhanced the responsiveness of seedlings to CEP4 in MAPK activation experiments (Fig. 4F). As expected from the lack of detectable protein, CEPR1 transcript overexpression did not alter CEP4-induced MAPK activation (Supplementary Figure 9D). However, CEPR1 overexpression mildly promoted CEP3-induced MAPK activation (Supplementary Fig. 9D), in line with previous reports of CEPR1 being the primary receptor for canonical class I CEPs (22, 27, 30, 31, 42). This suggests that CEPR2 is a physiologically relevant CEP4 receptor.

CEP signaling promotes FLS2 signaling under reduced nitrogen supply

Unlike other immune-promoting phytocytokines, such as PIPs and SCOOPs, *CEP4* is transcriptionally downregulated upon flg22 perception in whole seedling and roots (Supplementary Fig. 1A-C), and only mildly upregulated upon flg22 treatment in seedling shoots or upon *Pto* infection in leaf tissue (Supplementary Fig. 1C, Fig. 4B). We were thus interested to determine the biological relevance of CEP-mediated control of cell surface immunity. First, we tested whether CEP treatment affects FLS2-dependent signaling. CEP4 application could promote flg22-induced ethylene accumulation and resistance induced by a low dose of flg22 (100 nM) (Fig. 5A, B). Yet, we did not observe a noticeable

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defect in flg22-induced ethylene accumulation in cep6x and cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ (Supplementary Fig. 10A, B). CEP4 did not induce ethylene production in cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ, similar to abolished CEP4-triggered calcium influx and MAPK activation in this mutant background (Supplementary Fig. 10B, Fig. 3E, F). Unlike cepr1-3/2-4 (Supplementary Fig. 7A), the triple receptor mutant did not show elevated basal ethylene levels, raising the question whether RLK7 promotes ethylene accumulation in the absence of CEPR1/CEPR2 (Supplementary Fig. 10B). Also, flg22-induced MAPK activation and/or FRK1 expression were unaltered in cep6x and cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ (Supplementary Fig. 10C-E). As modulators of systemic N-demand signaling, several CEPs are transcriptionally upregulated in Nstarved roots, including CEP1 (22, 55, 56). It is known that the N status of plants affects disease resistance to different pathogens, but the underlying molecular mechanisms remain unknown (57, 58). We noticed that CEP4 is transcriptionally upregulated upon placing seedlings in ½ MS containing 10% N concentrations compared to the control medium (100% N ½ MS medium, 20 mM NO₃-, 10 mM NH₄+, Fig. 5C). Importantly, N starvation promoted resistance to Pto (59), suggesting a connection between N homeostasis and antibacterial resistance. We hypothesized that CEPs coordinate the plant's N status with cell surface immunity. We transferred two-week-old seedlings for 24 h to ½ MS medium with different N concentrations before challenging them with flg22. Ten percent N and 5% N medium promoted flg22-induced MAPK activation, while 1% N did not (Supplementary Fig. 10F). This suggests that different N concentrations modulate the ability to mount FLS2 signaling. The promotion of flg22induced MAPK activation upon 10% N treatment was compromised in cep6x, suggesting that CEPs promote FLS2 signaling under reduced N conditions (Fig. 5D, E). We confirmed this phenotype by measuring FRK1 expression upon 10% N treatment and subsequent flg22 elicitation in wild-type and cep6x (Fig. 5F). We next tested whether CEP receptors are required for the N-dependent regulation of FLS2 signaling. Indeed, 10% N-promoted flg22-induced MAPK activation was reduced in cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ (Fig. 5G, H). We raised the question whether the impairment in FLS2 signaling under 10% N conditions in cep6x and cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ mutants might be associated with defects in N homeostasis. Indeed, the No-0 cepr1/2 mutant has paler leaves, smaller rosette size and constitutive anthocyanin accumulation, related to defects in nitrate uptake (22) but the cep6x shoot is indistinguishable from the wild-type plant (Supplementary Fig. 2D). We grew cep6x and cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ seedlings in 100% N, 10% N and 1% N medium. We noticed a mild reduction in seedling growth of all genotypes in 10% N medium, which was

more pronounced in 1% N medium after seven days (Supplementary Fig. 10G, H). The *cep6x* mutant phenotype was indistinguishable from the WT (Supplementary Fig. 10G). The *cepr1/2/rlk7*^{AEQ} seedlings also showed similar growth at lower N concentrations compared to its WT control (Supplementary Fig. 10H). This suggests that 10% N-induced promotion of flg22-triggered responses is not a mere consequence of deregulated metabolism in *cep6x* and *cepr1/2/rlk7*^{AEQ}. Strongly reduced nitrate concentrations enhance the expression of the high-affinity nitrate transporter *NRT2.1* (60–62). We could not detect enhanced *NRT2.1* expression in WT under 10% N conditions, which remains higher than nitrate concentrations previously tested for *NRT2.1* expression (2 mM nitrate vs 1 mM) (Fig. 5I) (61). However, flg22 promoted *NRT2.1* transcript accumulation which was abrogated in *cep6x* (Fig. 5I). Altogether, these results indicate a CEP-and CEP receptor-dependent connection between FLS2-triggered PTI and the plant's N supply, revealing a previously unknown mechanism of signaling crosstalk between cell surface immunity and the plant's nutritional status.

Discussion

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This work shows that CEP perception in Arabidopsis is achieved by three partially cell type and tissuespecific receptors that regulate plant immunity and likely coordinate biotic stress with plant nutritional cues. CEP4 binds to both CEPR2 and RLK7, and CEP4 outputs show variable grades of dependency on specific receptors. The canonical group I CEP1 and CEP9.5, however, exclusively depend on CEPR1/2 and CEP1 does not bind to RLK7. The overlap of CEP4 with RLK7 expression in leaves, but not with CEPR1 and CEPR2, suggests a combination of cell autonomous and short-distance signaling contributing to CEP-mediated immune modulation. Our work reveals an unexpected and previously undescribed complexity of phytocytokine signaling. A challenge for the future will be to determine how three CEP receptors with distinct expression patterns integrate responses between tissues and the concerted action of multiple ligands. RLK7 also recognizes PIPs to regulate growth, salt stress and immunity (50, 52) (Fig. 3J). RLK7 binds PIP1 with higher affinity and likely preferentially recognizes this ligand. Members of the CLE peptide family also bind multiple receptors with variable affinities to regulate epidermal cell patterning (44, 63). Dissecting spatiotemporal ligand availability and CEP4-PIP1 signaling specificity will be an important future task. RLK7 binds CEP4, but not CEP1, suggesting that CEP4's receptor specificities are unique among CEPs, likely caused by its distinct sequence (Supplementary Fig. 1D). It will be interesting to compare the molecular mechanisms of PIP1/CEP4-RLK7 and CEP1/CEP4-CEPR2/CEPR1 recognition and activation in future structure analyses. Plant

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peptides may be versatile tools for the evolution of plant plasticity. High numbers of diverse ligands and receptors may provide the plant with vast combinations for fine-tuned signal outputs during adaption to environmental challenges. Our data suggest that short-term reduction in N supplementation promotes CEP expression to promote FLS2 activation. Other phytocytokines modulate immune signaling by regulating PRR abundance or receptor complex formation and dynamics, but in most cases the mechanism remains unknown (7-9, 11). It will be interesting to reveal whether CEPs directly or indirectly modulate PRR signaling. Accumulating evidence suggests a direct integration of nutrient homeostasis and PTI in plants. Perception of flg22 by FLS2 induces PHT1.4 phosphorylation to inhibit phosphate (Pi) uptake and promote root immunity (64). It remains unknown whether immune activation also regulates N transport in root or shoot tissue. CEPs induce nitrate, Pi and sulfate uptake, suggesting CEP-CEPR1/CEPR2/RLK7-dependent modulation of several transporter pathways (65). This raises the question whether nutrient uptake directly contributes to CEP-mediated immune modulation. The main source of inorganic N for plant utilization is nitrate, which also functions as a signaling molecule to induce adaptive growth responses (66). Nitrate is sensed by the plasma membrane transceptor NRT1.1 and the nuclear transcriptional regulator NLP7 (67, 68). NRT1.1 and similar transporters are regulated by phosphorylation to control transport activity, including NRT1.2 phosphorylation by CEPR2 (67, 69-73), which we identified as a CEP4 receptor. It will be interesting to resolve whether and how cell surface signaling and nitrogen sensing/transport directly or indirectly intersect. Since seedlings grown under high N concentrations (as provided by ½ MS medium) show reduced flg22 responsiveness, it is also possible that N saturation inhibits PTI by suppressing CEP expression and accumulation. CEPR1/CEPR2/RLK7 and CEPs are widely conserved among angiosperms, including crop plants (40). CEPs are important to promote nodulation in legumes and also regulate sucrose-dependent root growth inhibition and fecundity (28, 41, 74, 75). This places CEPs as central integrators of biotic interactions (symbiosis and pathogen defense) with plant nutrition, growth and development (65, 76). It will be critical to understand whether N-dependent and CEP-mediated PTI modulation extends beyond Arabidopsis, and to decipher how CEPs can promote immunity and control symbiosis in diverse species. This will provide important insights for future crop improvement strategies that coordinate crop nutrition with disease resistance.

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Materials and methods Molecular cloning To generate CEP4 overexpression lines, the coding sequence of CEP4 (AT2G35612) was synthesized (Twist Bioscience, USA) with attB attachment sites for subsequent gateway cloning into pDONRZeo (Invitrogen, USA) and recombination with pB7WG2 (VIB, Ghent). To generate CRISPR-Cas9 mutants, appropriate target sites (two per gene of interest) were designed using the software tool chopchop (https://chopchop.cbu.uib.no/). Individual guide RNA constructs containing gene-specific target sites were synthesized (Twist Bioscience, USA) and subsequently stacked in a GoldenGate-adapted pUC18based vector. To generate different order CRISPR cep mutants, cepr1/2AEQ, rlk7/iku2AEQ and rlk7AEQ 12. 4, 4 and 2 target site-containing qRNA constructs were stacked, respectively (Supplementary Table 2). Together with FastRed-pRPS5::Cas9, higher-order gRNA stacks were subsequently cloned into pICSL4723 for in planta expression (77). To generate the pCEP4::NLS-3xmVenus, pCEPR1::NLS-3xmVenus and pCEPR2::NLS-3xmVenus reporter constructs, 1000, 1696 and 2788 bp fragments upstream of the start codon, respectively, were amplified from genomic DNA and assembled together with the sequence coding for the nuclear localization signal of SV40 large T antigen followed by 3 consecutive mVenus YFP fluorophores (78) into a GoldenGate-modified pCB302 binary vector for plant expression. For pRLK7 the 1957 bp promoter sequence upstream from the start codon was amplified with primers containing attB attachment sites for subsequent gateway cloning into pDONRZeo (Invitrogen, USA) and recombination with promotor::Venus (YFP)-H2B destination vector (78). For CEPR1 (AT5G49660) and CEPR2 (AT1G72180) overexpression lines, the coding sequence of both genes was amplified from cDNA with attB attachment sites for subsequent cloning into a pDONR223 (Invitrogen, USA) and recombination with pK7FWG2 (VIB Ghent, Belgium). All of the generated plant expression constructs were subsequently transformed into Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101 before floral dip transformation of Arabidopsis. All primers used for cloning are listed in (Supplementary Table 3). Plant material and growth conditions

Arabidopsis Col-0, Col-0^{AEQ} (*36*) and No-0 were used as wild types for experiments and generation of transgenic lines or CRISPR mutants. The *cepr1-3* (GK-467C01), *cepr2-3* (SALK_014533), *rlk7-1*

(SALK_056583), rlk7-3 (SALK_120595), iku2-4 (Salk_073260) and the novel cepr2-4 allele (GK-695D11) were obtained from NASC (UK) (28, 52, 79, 80). The No-0 cepr2-1xcepr2-1 was obtained from RIKEN (Japan) (22). T-DNA insertion mutants were genotyped by PCR using T-DNA- and gene-specific primers as listed in Supplementary Table 3. The lack of CEPR2 transcript in cepr2-4 (GK-695D11) was determined by semi-quantitative PCR from cDNA using cepr2-4 genotyping primers (Supplementary Fig. 5A). The cepr1-3/2-4 double mutant was obtained by genetic crossing. The bak1-5/bkk1 mutant was characterized previously (81). For visualizing tissue-specific FRK1 expression, a pFRK1::NLS-3xmVenus line was used (82). To isolate homozygous CRISPR mutants, pICSL4723 transformant T1 seeds showing red fluorescence were selected and grown on soil before genotyping with gene-specific primers and Sanger sequencing (Supplementary Table 3). Mutants lacking the transgene were identified by loss of fluorescence. To generate the cep6x 35S::CEP4 lines, the same pB7WG2 CEP4 construct used for the generation of CEP4 overexpression lines was utilized for floral dip transformation of homozygous cep6x. Plants for physiological assays involving mature plants were vernalized for 2-3 days in the dark at 4°C and later grown in individual pots in environmentally controlled growth rooms (20-21°C, 55% relative humidity, 8 h photoperiod). For seedling-based assays, seeds were sterilized using chlorine gas and grown axenically on ½ Murashige and Skoog (MS) media supplemented with vitamins (Duchefa, Netherlands), 1% sucrose, with or without 0.8% agarose at 22°C and a 16 h photoperiod unless stated otherwise. For experiments using ½ MS medium with reduced N concentrations, modified MS salts without nitrogen-containing compounds (Duchefa, Netherlands) were used and supplemented with KNO₃/NH₄NO₃ to achieve 100% N (KNO₃ 9.395 mM, NH₄NO₃ 10.305 mM), 10% N (KNO₃ 0.9395 mM, NH₄NO₃ 1.0305 mM), 5% (KNO₃ 0.4698 mM, NH₄NO₃ 0.5153 mM) and 1% (KNO₃ 0.09395 mM, NH₄NO₃ 0.10305 mM) conditions. To keep the ionic strength equal in 10%, 5% and 1% N conditions, media were supplemented with 90% (8.455 mM), 95% (8.925 mM) and 99% (9.301 mM) KCl, respectively.

Grafting

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Arabidopsis seedlings were grown vertically on ½ MS agar medium without sucrose in short-day conditions seven days before grafting. Grafting was performed aseptically under a stereo microscope

as previously described (83). Vertically mounted plates with reciprocally grafted seedlings were returned to short-day conditions for 10 days. Healthy seedlings were transferred to the soil.

Imaging and microscopy

Confocal laser-scanning microscopy was performed using a Leica TCS SP5 (Leica, Germany) microscope (with Leica Application Suite X 3.7.4.23463) and all the pictures were taken with a 20x water immersion objective. For the mVenus fluorophore, pictures were imaged with argon laser excitation at 514nm and a detection window of 525-535 nm. Propidium iodide was visualized using DPSS 561 laser emitting at 561 nm with a detection window of 575-590 nm. For imagining the expression pattern of NLS-3xmVenus or Venus (YFP)-H2B under the control of different promoters (pCEP4, pCEPR1, pCEPR2 and pRLK7), vertically-grown seedlings were stained with propidium iodide immediately before microscopic analysis. For imagining the pFRK1::NLS-3xmVenus reporter line, 12-day-old seedlings were transferred to a 24-well-plate containing ddH₂O with or without (mock) peptides in the indicated concentrations. For comparison of FRK1 promoter activity, seedlings were analysed by confocal microscopy using identical laser intensities and interval/number of slices for Z stack projection 16 h after treatment.

Calcium influx assay

Apoaequorin-expressing liquid-grown eight-day-old seedlings were transferred individually to a 96-well plate containing 100 μl of 5 μM coelenterazine-h (PJK Biotech, Germany) and incubated in the dark overnight. Luminescence was measured using a plate reader (Luminoskan Ascent 2.1, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Background luminescence was recorded by scanning each well 12 times at 10 s intervals, before adding a 25 μl elicitor solution to the indicated final concentration. Luminescence was recorded for 30 min at the same interval. The remaining aequorin was discharged using 2 M CaCl₂, 20% ethanol. The values for cytosolic Ca²⁺ concentrations ([Ca²⁺]_{cyt}) were calculated as luminescence counts per second relative to total luminescence counts remaining (L/L_{max}).

Ethylene measurement

Leaf discs (4 mm in diameter) from four-to-five-week-old soil-grown Arabidopsis were recovered overnight in ddH₂O. Three leaf discs per sample were transferred to a glass vial containing 500 μl of

ddH₂O before adding ddH₂O (mock) or peptides to the indicated final concentration. Glass vials were capped with a rubber lid and incubated under gentle agitation for 3.5 h. One mL of the vial headspace was extracted with a syringe and injected into a Varian 3300 gas chromatograph (Varian, USA) to measure ethylene.

MAPK activation and western blot analysis

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Five-day old Arabidopsis seedlings growing on ½ MS agar plates, were transferred into a 24-well plate containing liquid medium for seven days. 24 h before the experiment, seedlings were equilibrated in a fresh ½ MS medium. For N reduction experiments, modified ½ MS containing 100% N, 10% N, 5% N and 1 % N supplemented with KCl was used. MAPK activation was elicited by adding the peptides to the indicated concentrations. Six seedlings per sample were harvested, frozen in liquid nitrogen and homogenized using a tissue lyser (Qiagen, Germany). Proteins were extracted using a buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 50 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 5 mM DTT, 1% protease inhibitor cocktail, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 1% IGEPAL, 10 mM EGTA, 2 mM NaF, 2 mM Na₃VO₄, 2 mM Na₂MoO₄, 15 mM ß-Glycerophosphate and 15 mM p-nitrophenylphosphate before analysis by SDS-PAGE and western blot. Phosphorylated MAPKs were detected by α-p44/42 antibodies (Cell Signaling, USA). To quantify the intensity of the specific bands, ImageJ software (version 1.53t) was used. Each band was selected with the same-sized frame and the intensity peak was determined. The area under each peak was calculated and normalized to Coomassie staining as a measure of relative band intensity (RBI). The RBI of the wild-type genotypes at 100% N upon flg22 treatment was set to one. To determine CEPR1 and CEPR2 protein levels in 35S::CEPR1-GFP and 35S::CEPR2-GFP overexpression lines, seedlings were grown in ½ MS liquid medium for 12 days. Afterwards, harvested seedlings were frozen in liquid nitrogen, homogenized using a tissue lyser (Qiagen, Germany) and the proteins were isolated using an extraction buffer contenting 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 50 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 2 mM EDTA, 2 mM DTT, 1% protease inhibitor cocktail, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) and 1% IGEPAL. After SDS-PAGE and western blot, GFP-tagged proteins were detected by α-GFP antibodies (ChromoTek).

Seedling growth inhibition

Arabidopsis seedlings were grown for five days on ½ MS agar plates before the transfer of individual seedlings into each well of a 48-well plate containing liquid medium with or without elicitors in the indicated concentration. After seven-day treatment, the fresh weight of individual seedlings was measured.

Pathogen growth assay

*Pseudomonas syringa*e pv. *tomato* (*Pto*) DC3000 and *Pto* lacking the effector molecular coronatine Pto^{COR-} were grown on King's B agar plates containing 50 μg/mL rifampicin and 50 μg/mL kanamycin at 28°C. After two-to-three days bacteria were resuspended in ddH₂O containing 0.04% Silwet L77 (Sigma Aldrich, USA). The bacterial suspension was adjusted to an OD₆₀₀ = 0.2 (10⁸ cfu/mL) for Pto^{COR-} or OD₆₀₀ = 0.02 (10⁷ cfu/mL) for Pto DC3000 before spray inoculating four-to-five-week-old plants. For peptide-induced resistance in local tissues, ddH₂O (mock), flg22 (100 nM) and/or CEP4 (1 μM) were syringe-infiltrated into mature leaves. After 24 h, Pto DC3000 (OD₆₀₀ = 0.0002, 10⁵ cfu/mL) was syringe-infiltrated into pre-treated leaves and incubated for three days before determining bacterial counts. For CEP4-induced resistance in systemic tissues, CEP4 (1 or 5 μM) or ddH₂O (mock) were syringe-infiltrated into the first two true leaves of young three-to-four-week-old Arabidopsis. After four days, Pto DC3000 (OD₆₀₀=0.0002, 10⁵ cfu/mL) was syringe-infiltrated into leaves three and four of the pre-treated plants. Bacterial counts were determined four days after infection.

Systemic acquired resistance

SAR experiments were performed as previously described (*84*). Briefly, plants were cultivated in a mixture of substrate (Floradur) and silica sand in a 5:1 ratio under short day (SD) conditions (10 h) in a growth chamber at 22 °C /18 °C (day/night) with a light intensity of 100 µmol m⁻²s⁻¹, and 70% relative humidity (RH). SAR assays were performed using *Pto* DC3000 and *Pto* AvrRpm1. Bacteria were grown on NYGA media (0.5% peptone, 0.3% yeast extract, 2% glycerol, 1.8% agar, 50 µg/mL kanamycin, 50 µg/mL Rifampicin) at 28° C before infiltration. Freshly grown *Pto* avrRpm1 was diluted in 10 mM MgCl₂ (to reach a final concentration of 1×10⁶ cfu/mL) and syringe-infiltrated in the first two true leaves of four-and-a-half-week-old plants. Concurrently, 10 mM MgCl₂ was applied to a separate set of plants as the mock control treatment. Three days after *Pto* avrRpm1 infiltration, plants were challenged in their 3rd

and 4th leaves with *Pto* DC3000 (1×10⁵ cfu/mL). Bacterial titers were determined four days after *Pto* DC3000 infection.

Gene expression analysis

For seedlings-based assays, 12-day-old liquid-grown seedlings were equilibrated in fresh medium for 24 h before treatment with the indicated peptides. For adult plants, four-to-five-week-old Arabidopsis leaves were syringe-infiltrated with ddH₂O (mock), flg22 (1 μM) or *Pto* DC3000 (OD₆₀₀ = 0.001, 5x10⁵ cfu/mL) and incubated for 24 h. All samples for RT-qPCR analysis were harvested at the indicated time points, frozen in liquid nitrogen and homogenized using a tissue lyser (Qiagen, Germany). Total RNA was isolated using TRIzol reagent (Roche, Switzerland) and purified using Direct-zolTM RNA Miniprep Plus kit (Zymo Research, Germany). 2 μg of the total RNA was digested with DNase I and reverse transcribed with oligo (dT)18 and Revert Aid reverse transcriptase. RT-qPCR experiments were performed using TakyonTM Low ROX SYBR MasterMix (Eurogentec, Belgium) with the AriaMx Real-Time PCR system (Agilent Technologies, USA). Expression levels of all tested genes were normalized to the house-keeping gene *Ubiquitin 5* (*UBQ5*). Sequences of all primers used for RT-qPCR analysis are found in Supplementary Table 3.

Expression and purification of recombinant receptor ectodomains

Spodoptera frugiperda codon-optimized synthetic genes (Invitrogen GeneArt), coding for Arabidopsis CEPR1 (residues 23 to 592), CEPR2 (residues 32 to 620) and RLK7 (residues 29 to 608) were cloned into a modified pFastBAC vector (Geneva Biotech) providing a 30K signal peptide (*85*), a C-terminal TEV (tobacco etch virus protease) cleavable site and a StrepII-9xHis affinity tag. For protein expression, *Trichoplusia ni Tnao38* cells (*86*) were infected with CEPR1, CEPR2 or RLK7 virus with a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 3 and incubated one day at 28°C and two days at 21°C at 110 rounds per minute (rpm). The secreted proteins were purified by Ni²⁺ (HisTrap excel, Cytiva, equilibrated in 25 mM KP_i pH 7.8 and 500 mM NaCl) followed by Strep (Strep-Tactin Superflow high-capacity, IBA Lifesciences, equilibrated in 25 mM Tris pH 8.0, 250 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA) affinity chromatography. All proteins were incubated with TEV protease to remove the tags. Proteins were purified by SEC on a Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 GL column (Cytiva, USA) equilibrated in 20 mM citrate pH 5.0, 150 mM NaCl and further concentrated using Amicon Ultra concentrators from Millipore (Merck, Germany) with a 30,000

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Data and material availability

Da molecular weight cut-off. Purity and structural integrity of the different proteins were assessed by SDS-PAGE. Analytical size-exclusion (SEC) chromatography Analytical SEC experiments were performed using a Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 GL column (GE, USA). The columns were pre-equilibrated in 20 mM citric acid pH 5, 150 mM NaCl. 150 µg of CEPR1, CEPR2 and RLK7 were injected sequentially onto the column and eluted at 0.5 mL/min. Ultraviolet absorbance (UV) at 280 nm was used to monitor the elution of the proteins. The peak fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE followed by Coomassie blue staining. Isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) Experiments were performed at 25°C on a MicroCal PEAQ-ITC (Malvern Instruments, UK) using a 200 μL standard cell and a 40 μL titration syringe. CEP1, CEP4, CEP4^{scr} and PIP1 peptides were dissolved in the SEC buffer to match the receptor protein. A typical experiment consisted of injecting 1 µL of a 300 µM solution of the peptide into 30 µM CEPR2 or RLK7 solution in the cell at 150 s intervals. ITC data were corrected for the heat of dilution by subtracting the mixing enthalpies for titrant solution injections into protein-free ITC buffer. Experiments were done in duplicates and data were analyzed using the MicroCal PEAQ-ITC Analysis Software provided by the manufacturer. The N values were fitted to 1 in the analysis. Synthetic peptides The flg22 peptide was kindly provided by Dr. Justin Lee (IPB Halle). Other peptides were synthesized by Pepmic (China) with at least 90% purity and dissolved in ddH₂O. Sequences of all the synthetic peptides can be found in Supplementary Table 1. Quantification and statistical analysis Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism (Version 10.1.0). Sample size, p-values and statistical methods employed are described in the respective figure legends.

- All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials. All newly generated mutant lines
- are available upon request to M.S.

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Author contributions Conceptualization: MS; Investigation: JR, HL, HKL, CB, SN, CW, JM, ZC, VOL, MS; Funding acquisition: MS, JA, RH, ACV, MAD; Project administration: MS; Supervision: MS, JR, ACV, JS, MAD, RH; Writing - original draft: MS, JR; Writing - review & editing: HL, HKL, CB, SN, CW, JM, VOL, MAD, ACV, RH, JS. **Competing interests** Authors declare that there are no competing interests. **Acknowledgments** We thank Stefanie Ranf for providing GoldenGate vectors for molecular cloning and Ulrich Hammes for advice in grafting experiments. This work was funded by the following agencies: Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) grants STE2448/3-1 (MS and JR), STE2448/4-1 (MS and HL) and SFB924 TP B06 (ACV), the Technical University of Munich (MS, JR, RH, ZC, CW and JM), the Research Council of Norway, Grant 230849 (VOL), Australian Research Council, Grant DP200101885 (MAD), the University of Lausanne (CB), the Swiss National Science Foundation grants no. 310030_204526 and the European Research Council (ERC) grant agreement no. 716358 (JS, HKL).

Figures

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Figure 1

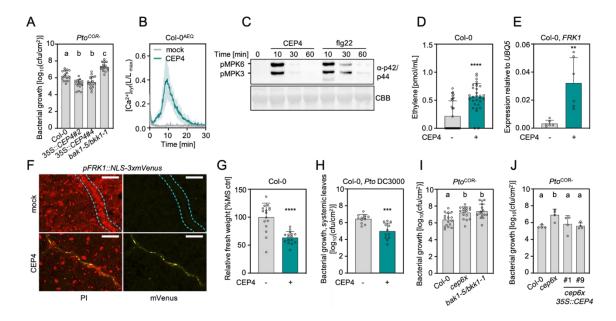
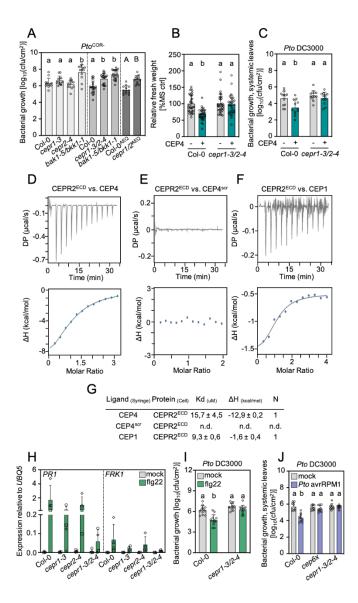


Figure 1: CEPs induce immune responses and are important determinants of plant immunity. A) Colony forming units (cfu) of Pto^{COR-} 3 days post inoculation (3 dpi) upon spray infection; n = 16 pooled from four experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test; a-b, p<0.01; a/b-c p<0.0001). B) Kinetics of cytosolic calcium concentrations ([Ca²⁺]_{cyt}) in Col-0^{AEQ} seedlings upon mock (ddH₂O) or CEP4 (1 μ M) treatment; n = 8, \pm SD. **C**) MAPK activation in Col-0 upon CEP4 (1 μ M) or flg22 (100 nM) treatment for the indicated time. Western blots were probed with α-p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. D) Ethylene concentration in Col-0 leaf discs 3.5 h upon mock (ddH₂O) or CEP4 (1 µM) treatment: n = 30 pooled from six experiments \pm SD (two-tailed Student's t-test, **** p<0.0001). **E**) RT-qPCR of *FRK1* in seedlings upon CEP4 (1 μ M) or mock (ddH₂O) treatment for 4 h. Housekeeping gene *UBQ5*; n = 6 pooled from six experiments ± SD (two-tailed Student's t-test, ** p<0.01). F) NLS-3xmVenus signal in pFRK1::NLS-3xmVenus upon mock (ddH2O) or CEP4 (100 nM) treatment for 16 h. Cyan dotted line indicates vasculature. PI = propidium iodide, scale bar = 100 µm. G) Relative fresh weight (as percent of ½ MS medium control = % MS ctrl) of five-day-old seedlings treated with CEP4 (1 µM) for seven days p<0.0001, two-tailed Student's t-test). H) cfu of Pto DC3000 (4 dpi) in distal leaves upon local CEP4 (1 μM) or mock (ddH₂O) pre-treatment; n = 12 pooled from three experiments ± SD (two-tailed Student's t-test, *** p=0.0001). I) cfu of PtoCOR (3 dpi) upon spray infection. The bak1-5/bkk1-1 mutant was used as a hypersusceptible control; n = 16 pooled from four experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p \leq 0.001). **J**) cfu of *Pto*^{COR} (3dpi) upon spray infection; n = 4 ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.05). All experiments were repeated at least three times in independent biological repeats with similar results.



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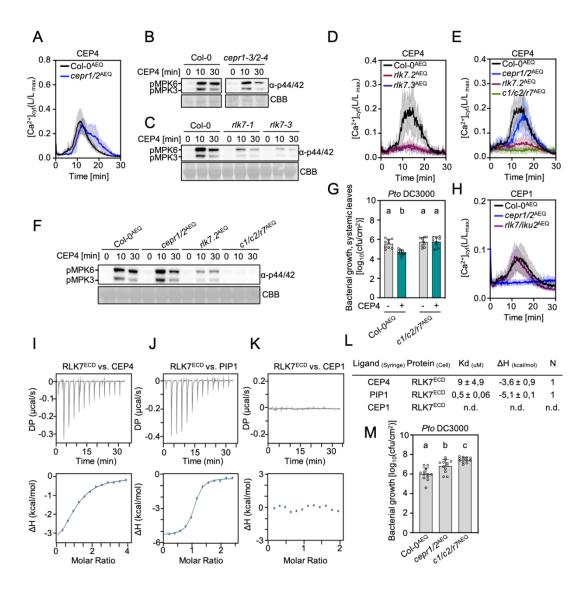
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Figure 2: CEPR1 and CEPR2 are CEP4 receptors and are important determinants of plant immunity. A) cfu of PtoCOR- (3 dpi) upon spray infection. The dotted line indicates different experiments; n = 12, 21 and 13 pooled from three, five and three experiments, respectively ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0001, two-tailed Student's t-test, A-B p<0.0001). B) Relative fresh weight of five-days-old seedlings treated with CEP4 (1 μM) for seven days; n = 35-36 pooled from three experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0001). C) cfu of Pto DC3000 (4 dpi) in distal leaves upon local CEP4 (1 μ M) or mock (ddH₂O) pre-treatment; n = 12 pooled from three experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.01). D) CEP4, E) CEP4^{scr} and F) CEP1 were titrated into a solution containing CEPR2^{ECD} in ITC cells. Top: raw data thermogram; bottom: fitted integrated ITC data curves. DP = differential power between reference and sample cell; ΔH = enthalpy change. G) ITC table summarizing CEPR2^{ECD} vs CEP4/CEP4^{scr}/CEP1 as means ± SD of two experiments. The dissociation constant (K_d) indicates receptor-ligand binding affinity. N indicates reaction stoichiometry (n = 1 for 1:1 interaction). H) RT-qPCR of PR1 and FRK1 in adult leaves after treatment with flg22 (1 µM) or mock (ddH₂O) for 24 h. Housekeeping gene *UBQ5*. Different symbols represent four independent experiments; n = 4 ± SD. I) cfu of *Pto* DC3000 (3 dpi) in leaves upon flg22 (1 μM) or ddH₂O pre-treatment; n = 12 pooled from three experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0001). J) cfu of Pto DC3000 (4 dpi) in distal leaves upon local infection with Pto avrRPM1 or 10 mM MgCl₂; n = 9 pooled from three independent experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0001). Experiments in **A-C**, **H-J**, and **D-F** were repeated at least three times in independent biological repeats or in two independent technical repeats, respectively, with similar results.



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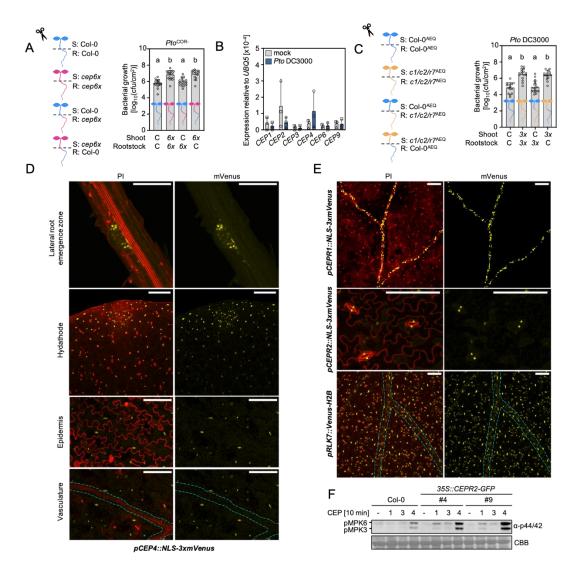
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Figure 3: RLK7 is an additional CEP4 receptor. A) ([Ca²⁺]_{cyt}) kinetics in seedlings upon CEP4 (1 μM) treatment; n = 6 ± SD. B-C) MAPK activation upon CEP4 (1 µM) treatment for the indicated time. Western blots were probed with α -p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. **D-E)** [Ca²⁺]_{cvt} kinetics in seedlings upon CEP4 treatment (1 μ M); n = 3, n = 4, respectively \pm SD. $c1c2r7 = cepr1/2/rlk7^{AEQ}$ **F)** MAPK activation upon CEP4 (1 µM) treatment for the indicated time. Western blots were probed with α-p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. G) cfu of Pto DC3000 (4 dpi) in distal leaves upon local CEP4 (5 μM) or mock (ddH₂O) pre-treatment; n = 9 pooled from three experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.01). H) [Ca²⁺]_{cyt} kinetics in seedlings upon CEP1 (10 μ M) treatment; n = 4, ± SD. I) CEP4, J) PIP1 and K) CEP1 were titrated into a solution containing CEPR2^{ECD} in ITC cells. Top: raw data thermogram: bottom: fitted integrated ITC data curves. DP = differential power between reference and sample cell; ΔH = enthalpy change. L) ITC table summarizing RLK7^{ECD} vs CEP4/PIP1/CEP1 as mean ± SD of two experiments. The dissociation constant (Kd) indicates receptorligand binding affinity. N indicates reaction stoichiometry (n = 1 for 1:1 interaction). M) cfu of Pto DC3000 (3 dpi) upon spray infection; n = 12 pooled from three independent experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0021; a-c p<0.0001; b-c p<0.0209). Experiments in A-H, M and I-K were repeated at least two times in independent biological repeats or in two independent technical repeats, respectively, with similar results.



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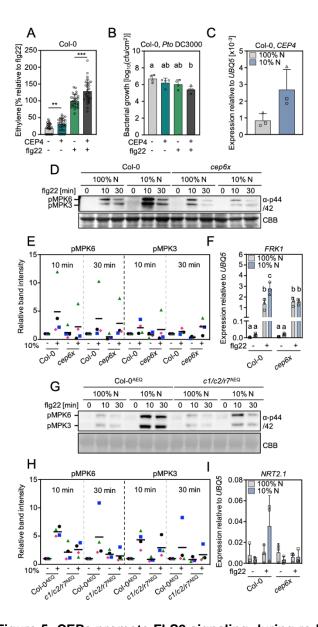
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Figure 4: Shoot-expressed CEPs and CEPR1, CEPR2, RLK7 receptors are required for basal immunity against Pto. A) Cfu of Pto^{COR-} (3 dpi) upon spray infection of reciprocally grafted Col-0 (C) and cep6x (6x) plants. The genotype of the shoot scion is indicated with S, and the genotype of the rootstock is indicated with R; n = 17-19 pooled from four experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0001). B) RT-qPCR analysis of CEP expression in mock (ddH2O) and Pto DC3000-inoculated leaves 24 h post-treatment. Housekeeping gene UBQ5; n = 3, \pm SD. C) cfu of Pto^{COR-} (3 dpi) upon spray infection of reciprocally grafted Col-0^{AEQ} (C) and cepr1/2/rlk7^{AEQ} (3x) plants. The genotype of the shoot scion is indicated with S, and the genotype of the rootstock is indicated with R: n = 15-17 pooled from three experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA. Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0001). **D)** pCEP4::NLS-3xmVenus signal in the indicated plant tissues. For imaging the lateral root emergence zone and the hydathode region, the maximum projection of Z-stacks for mVenus is merged with Z-stacked propidium iodide (PI) signal. To show the lack of mVenus signal in the vasculature, the maximum projection of Z-stacks for mVenus is merged with the same single section of PI, showing a single epidermal layer or vasculature (cyan-dotted line). E) NLS-3xmVenus or Venus-H2B signal in the leaves of indicated lines. The maximum projection of Z-stacks for mVenus is merged with Z-stacked PI signal. The cyan-dotted line represents vasculature; scale bar = 100 µm. F) MAPK activation upon CEP1 (1), CEP3 (3) and CEP4 (4) 1 μ M treatment. Western blots were probed with α -p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. Different symbols in B represent independent experiments. Experiments were repeated at least two times in independent biological repeats with similar results, except F, which has been repeated once with identical results.



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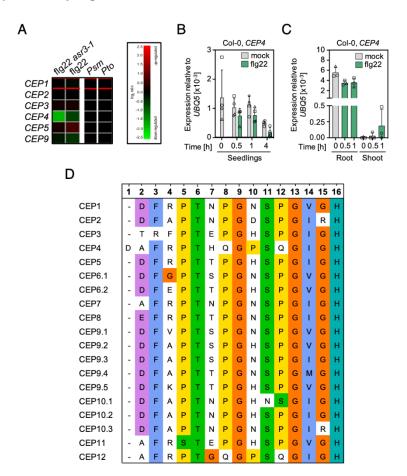
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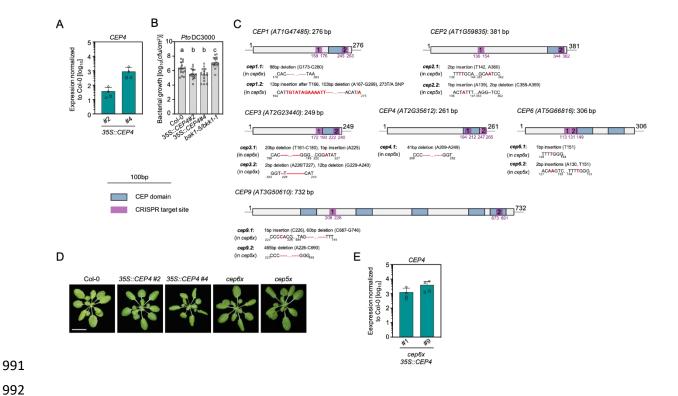
Figure 5: CEPs promote FLS2 signaling during reduced N conditions. A) Ethylene concentration in Col-0 leaf discs 3.5 h after mock (ddH₂O), CEP4 (1 µM) and/or flg22 (500 nM) treatment; n = 30, seven pooled experiments \pm SD (two-tailed Student's t-test, ** p<0.05, *** p = 0.0001). **B)** cfu of *Pto* DC3000 (3 dpi) in Col-0 leaves upon mock (ddH₂O), CEP4 (1 µM) and/or flg22 (100 nM) pre-treatment; n = 4 ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post hoc, a-b p<0.05). C) RT-qPCR of CEP4 after 24 h transfer of Col-0 seedlings to 100% N or 10 % N medium. Housekeeping gene UBQ5; n = 3 ± SD. D) MAPK activation upon flg22 (100 nM) treatment after 24 h transfer of seedlings to 100% N or 10% N medium. Western blots were probed with α -p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. E) Quantification of pMPK6/MPK3 band intensities normalized to the CBB band and relative to 100% N flg22 set as 1 using ImageJ software; n = 4 biological replicates. F) RT-qPCR of FRK1 upon flg22 (100 nM) treatment for 4 h after 24 h transfer of seedlings to 100% N or 10% N medium. Housekeeping gene UBQ5; n = 3 ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post hoc, a-b p<0.01, b-c ≤ 0,001, a-c <0.0001). F) MAPK activation upon flg22 (100 nM) treatment after 24 h transfer of seedlings to normal N or reduced N medium. Western blots were probed with α -p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. **H)** Quantification of pMPK6/MPK3 band intensities normalized to the CBB band and relative to 100% N flg22 set as 1 using ImageJ software.; n = 4 biological replicates. I) RT-qPCR of NRT2.1 upon flg22 (100 nM) treatment of seedlings for 4 h after 24 h transfer to 100% N or 10% N. Housekeeping gene UBQ5; n = 3 ± SD. Different symbols in figures C, E, F, H and I represent independent experiments. All experiments were repeated at least three times in independent biological repeats with similar results.

Supplementary Figures



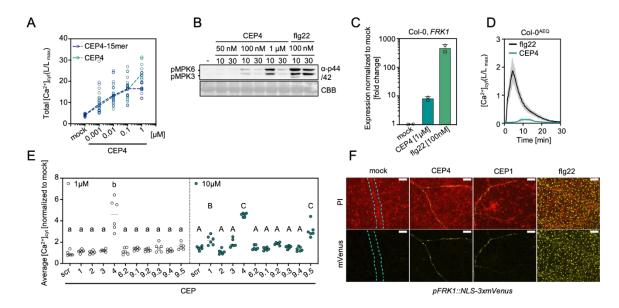
Supplementary Fig. 1: CEP4 expression is differentially regulated after flg22 perception.

A) CEP4 is downregulated after flg22 treatment in an asr3 mutant background (32). Data were obtained using Genevestigator software and are based on the AT_mRNASeq_ARABI_GL-1 data set. All CEP genes for which RNAseq data was available are depicted B) CEP4 expression in seedlings is weakly downregulated after flg22 treatment. Col-0 seedlings were treated with flg22 (100 nM) or mock (100 nM



Supplementary Fig. 2: Characterization of 35S::CEP4, CRISPR cep mutant alleles and cep6x 35S::CEP4.

 A) CEP4 transcript levels in two independent CEP4 overexpression lines, shown as fold induction compared to Col-0. Housekeeping gene UBQ5; $n=4\pm SD$. B) Cfu of Pto DC3000 3 dpi upon spray infection; n=16 pooled from four experiments \pm SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test; a-b/c p<0.05; b-c p<0.0001). C) Characterization of four independent cep mutant alleles. Schematic diagram of CEP1, CEP2, CEP3, CEP4, CEP6 and CEP9 gene structure and the CRISPR-Cas9-mediated mutation pattern detected by DNA sequencing. The locus number and the length of the coding sequence (CDS) are indicated above the scheme for each gene. CRISPR cep6x is mutated in cep1/2/3/4/6/9 (alleles cep1.1, cep2.1, cep3.1, cep4.1, cep6.1, cep9.1), CRISPR cep5x is mutated in cep1/2/3/6/9 with CEP4 wild-type (alleles cep1.2, cep2.2, cep3.2, cep6.2, cep9.2). The specific location and type of mutations for each gene are indicated in the schematics describing the mutants. The CEP domain is indicated in blue, and the two CRISPR target sites are indicated in purple. D) Pictures of 5-week-old plants of the indicated genotypes grown on soil; scale bar = 2 cm. E) CEP4 transcript levels in two independent lines of cep6x 35S::CEP4 shown as fold induction compared to Col-0; Housekeeping gene UBQ5; $n=4\pm SD$. Different symbols in A and E represent independent biological repeats.



Supplementary Fig. 3: CEP4 is the strongest inducer of PTI responses on the whole tissue level.

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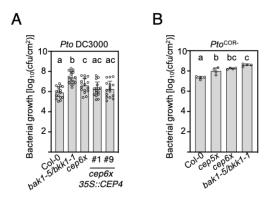
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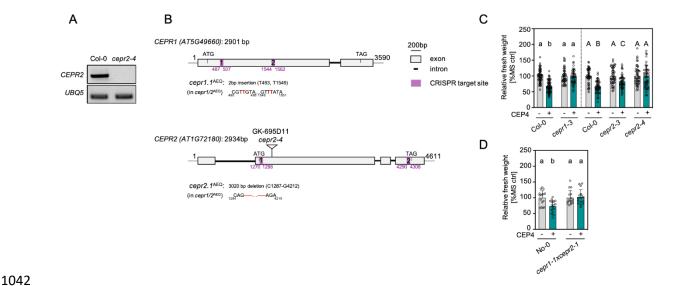
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A) Both CEP4 variants trigger influx of calcium ions. Col-0^{AEQ} seedlings were treated with the indicated concentrations of CEP4 and CEP4-15mer. ([Ca2+]cyt) was measured for 30 min. Shown is total calcium influx; n = 12 pooled from two experiments. B) MAPK activation in Col-0 upon treatment with indicated concentrations of CEP4 or flg22. Western blots were probed with α-p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. C) RT-qPCR of FRK1 in seedlings upon mock (ddH₂O), CEP4 (1 µM) or flg22 (100 nM) treatment for 4 h, shown as a fold induction compared to Col-0. Different symbols represent independent biological repeats. Housekeeping gene UBQ5; n = 2 ± SD. D) Kinetics of cytosolic calcium concentrations ([Ca²⁺]_{cyt}) in Col-0^{AEQ} seedlings upon CEP4 (100 nM) and flg22 (100nM) treatment; $n = 12, \pm SD$. **E)** Some CEPs induce Ca²⁺ influx at higher concentrations. Col-0^{AEQ} seedlings were treated with the indicated concentrations of CEPs. ([Ca²⁺]_{cvt}) was measured for 30 min. The average calcium influx triggered by individual CEPs is normalized to mock (ddH2O). The dotted line represents different experiments. Statistical analysis was performed separately for each group. Statistical significance was compared to CEP4scr of the indicated concentration; n = 6 (one-way ANOVA, Dunnett post hoc test, ab p<0.0001, A-B p<0.001, A-C p<0.0001). F) CEP4 and CEP1 induce FRK1 promoter activity in the vasculature. Representative images of NLS-3xmVenus signal in pFRK1::NLS-3xmVenus lines upon mock (ddH₂O), CEP1 (100 nM), CEP4 (100 nM) or flg22 (100 nM) treatment for 16 h. Maximum projection of Z-stack for mVenus merged with Z-stacked propidium iodide (PI) signal. Cyan dotted line indicates vasculature, scale bar = 100 µm. The experiment was repeated three times in independent biological repeats with similar results.



Supplementary Fig. 4: CEPs are important for resistance against Pto.

A) *CEP4* overexpression does not fully rescue the CRISPR *cep6x* susceptibility to *Pto* DC3000. Cfu of *Pto* DC3000 (3 dpi) upon spray infection; n = 16 pooled from four experiments \pm SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test; a-b p<0.0001; a-c, b-c p<0.05; a/c-b p<0.0001). **B)** Loss of *CEPs* increases Arabidopsis susceptibility to *Pto*^{COR-}. Cfu of *Pto*^{COR-} (3 dpi) upon spray infection; $n = 4 \pm$ SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test; a-b p = 0.0015; a-bc/a-c p<0.0001; b-c p = 0.0041). All experiments were repeated at least three times in independent biological repeats with similar results.



Supplementary Fig. 5: Characterization of *cepr2-4* and *cepr1/2*^{AEQ} mutants and CEP4-induced seedling growth inhibition.

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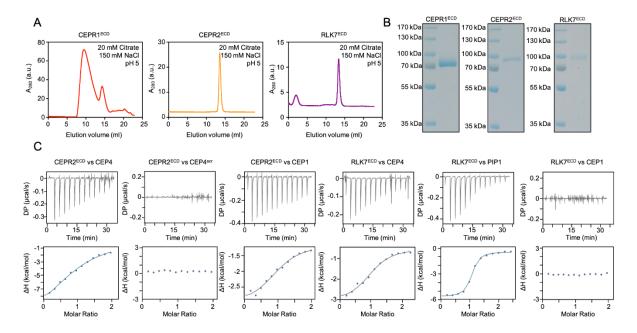
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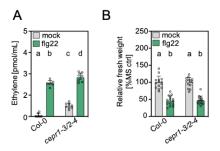
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A) Characterization of the cepr2-4 mutant. The CEPR2 transcript could not be detected in cepr2-4 mutant in a semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis. Housekeeping gene UBQ5. B) Schematic diagram of the CEPR1 and CEPR2 genomic sequence, structure, and the CRISPR-Cas9-mediated mutation pattern detected by DNA sequencing. The locus number and the length of the coding sequence (CDS) are indicated above the scheme for each gene. The CRISPR cepr1/2AEQ mutant was generated in Col-0AEQ background. CRISPR cepr1AEQ (in cepr1/2AEQ) has two 1 bp insertions, which lead to a frameshift mutation and an early stop codon. CRISPR cepr2AEQ (in cepr1/2AEQ) has a 3020 bp deletion between the start and stop codon. The specific location and type of mutations for each gene are indicated in the schematics describing the mutants. The two CRISPR target sites are indicated in purple. The T-DNA insertion site in cepr2-4 is indicated with a black triangle. C) CEPR1 and CEPR2 are similarly required for CEP4-induced seedling growth inhibition. Relative fresh weight of five-day-old seedlings treated with CEP4 (1 µM) for seven days. The dotted line represents different experiments. Statistical analysis was performed separately for each group; n = 42-60 and n = 46-48 pooled from five and four experiments, respectively (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0001; A-B p<0.0001; A/B-C p<0.05). D) CEP4-induced seedling growth inhibition is abolished in cepr1-1xcepr2-1. Relative fresh weight of fiveday-old seedlings treated with CEP4 (1 µM) for seven days; n=16 ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey posthoc test, a-b p<0.01). Similar results were obtained in three independent biological repeats.



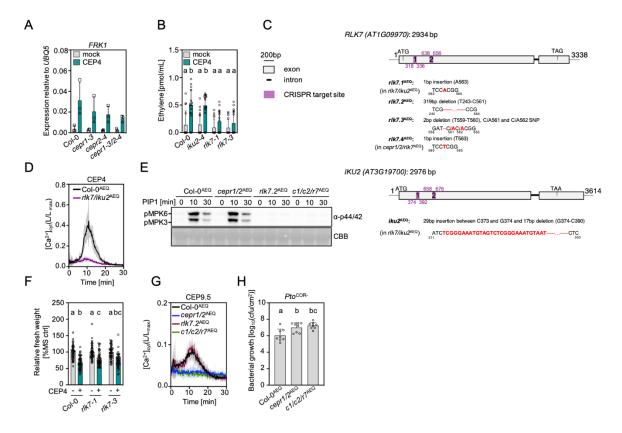
Supplementary Fig. 6: Quality control of recombinant CEPR1, CEPR2 and RLK7 ectodomains and supplemental ITC data.

A) Analytical size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) experiments show CEPR1^{ECD} aggregates in comparison to single peaks for CEPR2^{ECD} and RLK7^{ECD}. **B)** SDS-PAGE of the ECD peaks of the SEC analysis in **A. C)** ITC thermograms of the second technical repeat performed for each ectodomain and peptide analyzed in Fig. 2 (**D-F**) and Fig. 3 (**I-K**).



Supplementary Fig. 7: CEPR1 and CEPR2 are dispensable for flg22-induced ethylene accumulation and growth inhibition.

A) Basal and flg22-triggered ethylene production is higher in *cepr1-3/2-4* mutants. Ethylene concentration in leaf discs upon mock (ddH₂O) or CEP4 (1 μ M) for 3.5 h; n = 7 - 8 pooled from two experiments \pm SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b/c/d, c-b/d p<0.0001, b-d p<0.005). B) flg22-induced seedling growth inhibition is not affected in *cepr1-3/2-4*. Relative fresh weight of five-day-old seedlings treated with flg22 (100 nM) for seven days; n = 14 \pm SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.0001). All experiments were performed at least twice in independent biological repeats with similar results.



Supplementary Fig. 8: Identification of RLK7 as an additional CEP4 receptor.

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A) RT-qPCR of FRK1 in seedlings upon mock (ddH₂O) or CEP4 (1 µM) treatment for 4 h. Housekeeping gene UBQ5. Different symbols represent three independent biological repeats ± SD. B) CEP4-triggered ethylene production is reduced in rlk7 mutants. Ethylene concentration in leaf discs upon mock (ddH2O) or CEP4 (1 μM) treatment for 3.5 h; n = 15 pooled from three experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post hoc, a-b p<0.01). C) Schematic diagram of the RLK7 and IKU2 genomic sequence, structure, and the CRISPR-Cas9-mediated mutation pattern detected by DNA sequencing. The locus number and the length of the coding sequence (CDS) are indicated above the scheme for each gene. There are four rlk7 alleles generated in Col-0^{AEQ} background: rlk7.1^{AEQ} in rlk7/iku2^{AEQ} double mutant, two single rlk7AEQ mutants: rlk7.2AEQ and rlk7.3AEQ, and rlk7.4AEQ in CRISPR cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ. CRISPR iku2 (in rlk7/iku2AEQ) has a 29 bp insertion, followed by a 17 bp deletion. Mutations in both genes lead to a frameshift mutation and an early stop codon. The specific location and type of mutations for each gene are indicated in the schematics describing the mutants. The two CRISPR target sites are indicated in purple. **D)** [Ca²⁺]_{cyt} kinetics in seedlings upon CEP4 treatment (1 μ M); n = 6, \pm SD. **E)** MAPK activation upon CEP4 (1 μM) treatment. Western blots were probed with α-p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. F) Relative fresh weight of five-day-old seedlings treated with CEP4 (1 µM) for seven days; n = 48 pooled from four experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b/c/bc p<0.0001, b-c p<0.05). **G)** [Ca²⁺]_{cvt} kinetics in seedlings upon CEP9.5 (10 μ M) treatment; n = 6, \pm SD. **H)** cfu of Pto^{COR-} (3 dpi) upon spray infection; n = 8 pooled from two experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey posthoc test; a-b, p<0.0120; a-bc p=0.0019). All experiments were performed at least twice in independent biological repeats with similar results.

Supplementary Fig. 9: Characterization of 35S::CEPR1-GFP and 35S::CEPR2-GFP overexpression lines.

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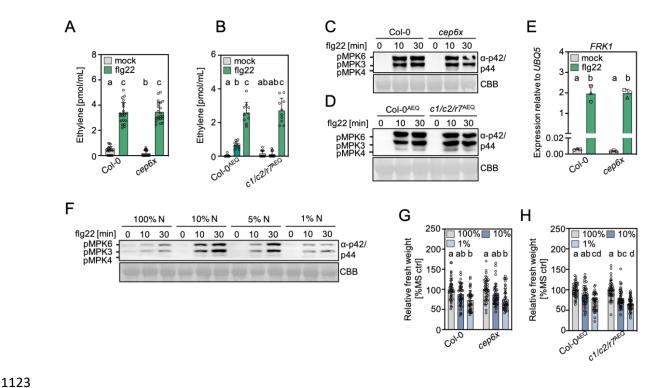
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A) CEPR2 transcript levels in two independent CEPR2-GFP overexpression lines. CEPR2 expression was normalized to UBQ5 and is shown as fold induction compared to Col-0. B) CEPR2-GFP protein levels in wild-type Col-0 and CEPR2 overexpression lines. Western blots were probed with α -GFP. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. C) CEPR1 transcript levels in the CEPR1-GFP overexpression line. CEPR1 expression was normalized to UBQ5 and is shown as fold induction compared to Col-0. D) MAPK activation in Col-0 and 35S::CEPR1-GFP line upon CEP1 (1), CEP3 (3) and CEP4 (4) 1 μ M treatment. Western blots were probed with α -p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. Different symbols in A and C represent two independent experiments. All experiments were performed at least twice in independent biological repeats with similar results.



Supplementary Fig. 10: Further characterization of CRISPR cep and CRISPR cepr1/2/rlk7^{AEQ} mutants.

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A) Flg22-triggered ethylene production is not impaired in cep6x. Ethylene concentration in leaf discs upon mock (ddH₂O) or flg22 (500 nM) treatment for 3.5 h; n = 21 pooled from four experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post hoc, a-b p<0.05; a/b-c p<0.0001). B) CEP4-triggered ethylene production is abolished in cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ. Ethylene concentration in leaf discs upon mock (ddH2O), CEP4 (1 µM) or flg22 (500 nM) treatment for 3.5 h; n = 10 pooled from two experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post hoc, a-b p=0.0166; a/b/ab-c p<0.0001). cep6x (C) and $cepr1/2/rlk7^{AEQ}$ (D) are not affected in flg22-triggered MAPK activation under normal conditions. MAPK activation upon flg22 (100 nM) treatment. Western blots were probed with α -p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. **E)** cep6x is not affected in flg22-triggered expression of FRK1 in seedlings. RT-qPCR of FRK1 upon flg22 (100 nM) treatment for 4 h normalized to UBQ5. Different symbols represent different experiments; $n = 3 \pm SD$ (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post hoc, a-b p<0.0001). F) N availability modulates flg22-triggered MAPK activation. MAPK activation upon flg22 (100 nM) treatment after 24 h transfer of seedlings to 100% N, 10% N, 5% N and 1% N medium. Western blots were probed with α-p44/42. CBB = Coomassie brilliant blue. **G)** The *cep6x* mutant shows wild-type growth response to different medium N concentration. Relative fresh weight of five-day-old seedlings grown in 100% N, 10% N and 1% N medium for seven days; n = 40 pooled from five independent experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-b p<0.001). H) The cepr1/2/rlk7AEQ shows slightly stronger growth response to different medium N concentrations. Relative fresh weight of five-day-old seedlings grown in 100% N, 10% N and 1% N medium for seven days; n = 39-40 pooled from five independent experiments ± SD (one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc test, a-cd p<0.0001, a-bc p=0.0002, a-d p<0.0001, ab-d, p<0.0001, bc-d p=0.0303).

Peptide name	Sequence
CEP1	DFRHypTNPGNSHypGVGH
CEP2	DFAHypTNPGDSHypGIRH
CEP3	TFRHypTEPGHSHypGIGH
CEP4 ^{scr}	TGQHypDHQRHypFAHIGGS
CEP4 ^{15mer}	AFRHypTHQGHypSQGIGH
CEP4 ^{16mer}	DAFRHypTHQGHypSQGIGH
CEP6.2	DFEPTTHypGHSHypGVGH
CEP9.1	DFVHypTSHypGNSHypGVGH
CEP9.2	DFAHypTSHypGHSHypGVGH
CEP9.3	DFAHypTSHypGNSHypGIGH
CEP9.4	DFAHypTTHypGNSHypGMGH
CEP9.5	DFKPTTHypGHSHypGVGH
PIP1	RLASGHypSPRGRGH
flg22	Ac-QRLSTGSRINSAKDDAAGLQIA

Supplementary Table 1: Peptides used in this study.

Hyp (in red) indicates hydroxylated proline residues.

Target site	Sequence	Purpose	
CEP1.1	TGGTCACATATACACGGCG		
CEP1.2	CAGGCGTTGGACACTCTAA		
CEP2.1	GTCCCGGTATCAGGCATCC		
CEP2.2	ATGTATGCCCTGCAAAAGT		
CEP3.1	TACGGAATGTCCAATACCG		
CEP3.2	TATCAACCCCGTGGCTCGG	Generation of CRISPR cep mutants	
CEP4.1	CATTCCGACCAACCCACCA		
CEP4.2	TATTTTAAGGAGCACCTGG		
CEP6.1	ATGATCATCATTTCACAGT		
CEP6.2	TCGGGTACACTGATGATTT		
CEP9.1	CAAGATGACTTCAAGCCCA		
CEP9.2	ACACCAGGACATAGCCCCG		
CEPR1.1	AGAGAGACGAAGTACACGG		
CEPR1.2	AGCTCATGAGGTATAACAC	Generation of <i>cepr1/2</i> ^{AEQ} mutant	
CEPR2.1	GACCTCCTACGTGGCAGCG		
CEPR2.2	CTCAGACCGAGTATGAGAG		
RLK7.1	AGATTGATCTCTCGTCG	Generation of rlk7AEQ and	
RLK7.2	GCGACGGCTGATTTCCCGG	rlk7/iku2 ^{AEQ} mutants	
IKU2.1	GCTTGAGATACTTAGACCT	Generation of iku2 ^{AEQ} mutant	
IKU2.2	CTTGTTCGTCTACAAAACT		

Supplementary Table 2: CRISPR-Cas9 target sites.

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Primers used for cloning				
Primer name	Sequence (5'→3')	Purpose		
pCEPR1-Bsal-F	GCGCGCGTCTCTCGAGTCAGTTTTTTT			
'	GGATTCAGATTTG	proCEPR1 for pCEPR1::NLS-		
pCEPR1-Bsal-R	GCGCGCGTCTCTCATTTTTCAGAGAAA	3xmVenus-tNOS		
	GATCAAAAGTAACC			
pCEPR2-Bsal-F	GCGCGCGTCTCTCGAGTTTTGTATACT			
	CTTAAAAAACTATG	proCEPR2 for pCEPR2::NLS-3xmVenus-tNOS		
pCEPR2-Bsal-R	GCGCGCGTCTCTCATTTTATAGTGATT			
	CCCAAGGG			
pCEP4-BpiI-F	TTGAAGACTTCGAGAATATAAACAAATA			
	TAGGTAAC	proCEP4 for pCEP4::NLS-		
pCEP4-BpiI-R	TTGAAGACTTCATTCACTTGACAACTTTC	3xmVenus-t35S		
	TG			
pRLK7-AttB1	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGG			
	CTTAGAGCTAAGACATATAACT	proRLK7 for pRLK7-H2B-		
pRLK7-AttB2	GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGG	mVenus		
	GTAGTCGGAGAGAAGAGTGG			
CEPR1-AttB-F	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGG			
05004.440	CTTTTATGCGTCTCAAAAATTTCCC	35S::CEPR1-GFP		
CEPR1-AttB-R	GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGG			
OEDDO AHD E	GTCGAGTCTTGTTTGCGTGAG			
CEPR2-AttB-F	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGG			
OEDDO AHD D	CTATGTCGAGAAGACCAGACC	35S::CEPR2-GFP		
CEPR2-AttB-R	GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGG			
	GTCTACTGTAATCTTTCCAGTTGTGTC Primers used for RT-qPCR			
Primer name	Sequence (5'→3')	Purpose		
qUBQ5-F	ACTCCTTCCTCAAACGCTGA	•		
qUBQ5-R	CCAAGCCGAAGAAGATCAAG	UBQ5		
qFRK1-F	TGCAGCGCAAGGACTAGAG			
qFRK1-R	ATCTTCGCTTGGAGCTTCTC	FRK1		
qPR1-F	CGGAGCTACGCAGAACAACT	554		
qPR1-R	CAGACAAGTCACCGCTACCC	PR1		
qNRT2.1-F	AACAAGGGCTAACGTGGATG	NIDTO 4		
qNRT2.1-R	CTGCTTCTCCTGCTCATTCC	NRT2.1		
qCEP1-F	AATGCTAAAGGGGTGTTTGG	· CEP1		
qCEP1-R	ACAAACCCACGACAAAGACA			
qCEP2-F	TGGTGACCATTTTGACCATC	CEDO		
qCEP2-R	CCGACCATCTTTTCGACTT	CEP2		
qCEP3-F	GACCTACGGAACCTGGTCAT	CEP3		
qCEP3-R	AAAAAGTCACCAGGCCAATC	CEP3		
qCEP4-F	AGAATACAAAAGCAGCTCGAC	CEP4		
qCEP4-R	TCCAATACCTTGACTAGGACC			
qCEP6-F	GTCGGGTAATCTAGACCTTCCTC	CEP6		
qCEP6-R	CGGTTTTTCGCAACTGTCTCG			
qCEP9-F	AGCTGGATTTACAGATGATTTCG	CEP9		
qCEP9-R	TGTCCCACACCAGGACTGT	OLF9		
qCEPR1-F	ATGCGTACTCGTCCAAAGCA	CEPR1		
qCEPR1-R	CTCCCGAAACACGAATCCA	<i>52.77.</i> 7		
qCEPR2-F	CTTCAAAAACCGCCTCGACG	CEPR2		
qCEPR2-R	CCGATGACTTCGCCGGATAA			
Primers used for genotyping and sequencing				
Primer name	Sequence (5'→3')	Purpose		
GG pUC18 Seq-F	GTATCACGAGGCCCTTTCGT	Inserts in GoldenGate pUC18 CRISPR CEP1		
GG pUC18 Seq-R	TAATGAATCGCCAACGC			
CEP1-CRISP-s1	CCTTGTTTTGTTTTACATATTCTT			
CEP1-CRISP-s2	TCTGAATGAAAATACATGTAATTTTC	<u> </u>		

CEP2-CRISP-s1	CATTCAATACTTCTCATATACAAAAC	
CEP2-CRISP-s1	TCACCAGTTTTCTTTAGTCTTC	- CRISPR CEP2
CEP3-CRISP-s2		
CEP3-CRISP-s1	CATTTTCGCCTTCGACTA	- CRISPR CEP3
	CAATCATATTTTCAACATGTAATCAC	
CEP4-CRISP-s1	GACATACGCTTTTAAAGGAAG	- CRISPR CEP4
CEP4-CRISP-s2	GAAGAACTGTGTGCGATAAAG	
CEP6-CRISP-s1	CCTCTCGTATACACTAGAAAC	CRISPR CEP6
CEP6-CRISP-s2	TTAATTTAGCAAAAGCATTGAAG	
CEP9-CRISP-s1	ATATACAAACTCCTAAACCTTGC	CRISPR CEP9
CEP9-CRISP-s2	CATATCGTAAACCAATGTATTAGA	011101 TX 021 0
CEPR1-CRISP-s1	CGTAAGATGTGACGGTCAA	CRISPR CEPR1
CEPR1-CRISP-s2	GGTTGCCTTGCAGTACAA	GIGHT GET ICT
CEPR2-CRISP-s1	GAATTCCAGTGCATCGACC	CRISPR CEPR2
CEPR2-CRISP-s2	CTAAAACGTGGTAGGTGAATCAT	ONION NO DEL NE
RLK7-CRISP-s1	TCAAACCACCGTCACCACTT	CRISPR RLK7
RLK7-CRISP-s2	TCCAAATTCCGAAGCTCCGT	CRISER RERA
IKU2-CRISP-s1	GCATGTGAATTCGCCGGAAT	CDISDD IKI IS
IKU2-CRISP-s2	CCGCAGCTCTGATAAATCACC	CRISPR IKU2
pCEPR1-s1	CTAGTCACCTGCAGCTCG	
pCEPR1-s2	GTGTAGTTCACGTCGGATG	pCEPR1
pCEPR1-s3	CAAACGCTTCACTTATGTAATG	
pCEPR1-s4	GCATCTATCTGATTCTGATCGTG	Ţ ·
pCEPR1-s5	CATCCGACGTGAACTACAC	7
pCEPR2-s1	ACGACAATCTGAGCTCCAC	†
pCEPR2-s2	TGGGATTCGGAGCATAAGG	7
pCEPR2-s3	TCCATCTAGAAACATTAACCGA	1
pCEPR2-s4	CCTAGAACGTGGTCCAAG	pCEPR2
pCEPR2-s5	CTGCACTGTAATGAGTACC	1
pCEPR2-s6	CGGTAATAGATAGTGAAATGG	
cepr1-3-LP	TAAATCAAGAATCCACTTCCATGC	
cepr1-3-RP	CCTAATGGTAACTTATGGGACGCT	cepr1-3
cepr2-4-LP	GGTGAGTTCGTTATCGCTGAG	
cepr2-4-RP	AATGTTGAATCGACCGTTGAG	cepr2-4
GABI 08474	ATAATAACGCTGCGGACATCTACATTTT	T-DNA primer for GABI-kat
cepr2-3-LP	TCACAACTCTGTAACGCAACG	•
cepr2-3-RP	AACTCGGAGTTTTGAAGGAGC	cepr2-3
rlk7-1-LP	CCGCCTCTCTCTCTCTCTC	
rlk7-1-RP	AAGCAGAGCTTTCATCTTCCC	- rlk7-1
rlk7-3-LP	ACGATTTGATCGTCGTGCTAC	
rlk7-3-RP	TTACAACAACTCCTTGACCGG	rlk7-3
iku2-4-LP	TCTTTAAGAACCGCAGCTCTG	
iku2-4-RP	GTTGTTTCGCCTACAATGACC	iku2-4
		T-DNA LB primer for rlk7-1,
LBb1.3	ATTTTGCCGATTTCGGAAC	rlk7-3, iku2-4
LBb1	GCGTGGACCGCTTGCTGCAACT	T-DNA LB primer for cepr2-3

Supplementary Table 3: Primers used in this study.