

Defender or accomplice? Dual roles of plant vesicle trafficking in restricting and enabling geminiviral systemic infection

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Summary

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- The vesicle trafficking system enables multidirectional cargo fluxes between endomembrane compartments. However, vesicle trafficking plays dual roles during pathogen infections. In plants, it mediates autophagic immune responses but can also be hijacked by pathogens to facilitate successful infections.
- We demonstrate that vesicle trafficking machinery acts as a double-edged sword during infection by the geminivirus tomato yellow leaf curl Sardinia virus (TYLCSaV) in *Nicotiana benthamiana*. Virus-induced gene silencing of eight genes encoding key vesicle trafficking regulators revealed contrasting outcomes. Silencing of *NbSAR1* and *NbAP-1γ* significantly increased systemic geminiviral DNA accumulation, whereas silencing of *Nbδ-COP*, *NbARF1* and clathrin genes almost completely abolished infection. Notably, this inhibition is hypothesized to result from direct or indirect impairment in viral movement, as replication remained unaffected by gene silencing.
- The observed effects affect other geminiviruses, including tomato yellow leaf curl virus (TYLCV) and beet curly top virus (BCTV), but not unrelated pathogens, such as the RNA potato virus X (PVX) or the plant pathogenic bacterium *Pseudomonas syringae*.
- These findings suggest that while the vacuolar and autophagy branches of the vesicle trafficking system might mediate antiviral autophagic defence responses, the integrity of endocytosis and retrograde transport is essential for systemic geminiviral infection.

Introduction

Vesicle trafficking constitutes a complex network of transport pathways between organelles and membranes within eukaryotic cells that allows the preservation of each subcellular compartment identity, viability and function. Despite the ravishing complexity of vesicle trafficking in eukaryotes, major routes are conserved across the *Eukarya* domain, although distinct organizational traits are found between species. Thus, the most extensively described pathways in mammals and yeasts have also been thoroughly characterized in plants mainly comprising: (1) endoplasmic reticulum (ER)–Golgi apparatus (hereafter referred to as Golgi) interface, (2) the trafficking between *trans*-Golgi network (TGN) and plasma membrane (PM) and (3) vacuolar transport. ER–Golgi interface trafficking mediates bidirectional communication between these organelles through anterograde and retrograde

routes. TGN–PM crossroads involve both secretory and endocytic pathways. Finally, vacuolar transport involves both TGN maturation to constitute multivesicular bodies/prevacuolar compartments (MVB/PVC) and their fusion to the vacuole or the PM (Fig. 1; reviewed in Hu *et al.*, 2020; Aniento *et al.*, 2022; González Solís *et al.*, 2022; Zeng *et al.*, 2023; Cadena-Ramos & De-la-Peña, 2024).

Vesicular transport orchestrates the formation, movement and fusion of vesicles from donor organelles to their target membranes. This process begins with membrane deformation, which facilitates the budding and scission of vesicles from their originating compartments. Once released, vesicles traverse the cytosol either through free diffusion or via interactions with cytoskeletal elements, which guide and propel them towards their destinations. Upon reaching their target membranes, vesicles dock and fuse, ensuring the precise delivery of their cargo to maintain cellular functionality and compartmental integrity. Such a complex process requires regulation and specificity given by an array of

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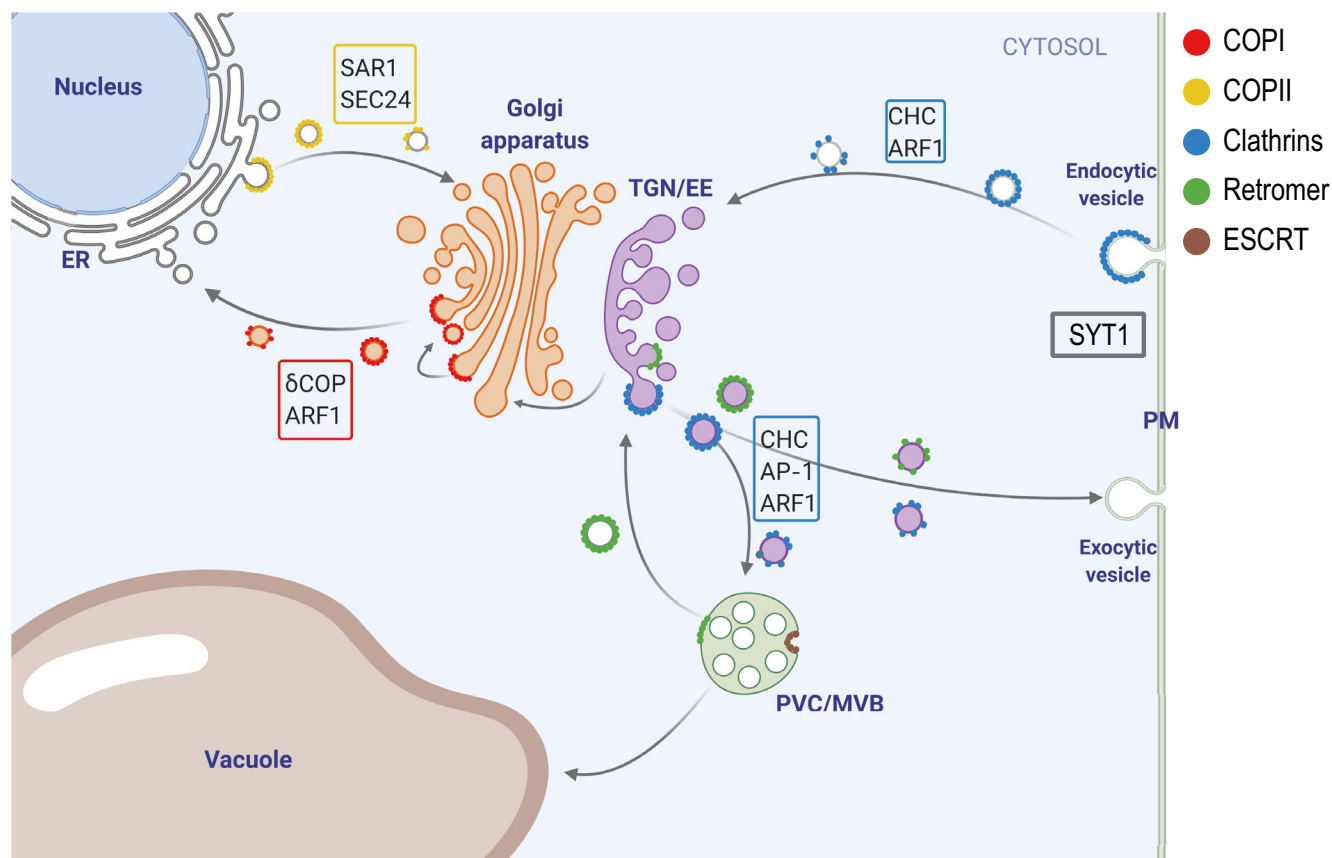


Fig. 1 Location of the selected factors in the different endomembrane system pathways. The genes selected in this study (shown in boxes) are placed next to the routes in which they participate using the same colour code used to represent the different vesicle coatings. δ -COP and ARF1 were selected to interrupt the retrograde pathway, SAR1 and SEC24 to interrupt the anterograde pathway, CHC1 and CHC2 for every pathway in which clathrins intervene and AP-1 for the TGN)-to-PVC/MVB and secretory routes. Even though SYT1 is not involved in specific vesicle trafficking pathways, it allows membrane contact site formation between the ER and the PM. Vesicle outlines indicate the specific set of coat proteins involved in forming each type of vesicle: COPI for retrograde Golgi-to-ER pathway, COPII for anterograde ER-to-Golgi pathway, clathrins for most of the post-Golgi trafficking, retromer complexes for recycling routes and ESCRT (Endosomal Sorting Complex Required for Transport) proteins for the budding of intraluminal vesicles within MVBs. ARF1, ADP-ribosylation factor 1; CHC, Clathrin Heavy Chain; COP, Coat Protein Complex; EE, early endosome; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; PM, plasma membrane; PVC/MVB, prevacuolar compartment/multivesicular body; SAR1, Secretion-associated RAS 1; SYT1, Synaptotagmin1; TGN, Trans-Golgi Network.

factors (such as coat GTPases or vesicle coat proteins) present in each organelle, whose different combinations will give rise to each particular vesicle and define each of the aforementioned vesicular pathways (Aniento *et al.*, 2022; Gao & Chao, 2022; Li *et al.*, 2022). Coat GTPases function as molecular switches eliciting the recruitment of cargoes and vesicle structural proteins. All described coat GTPases are classified into the family of small GTPases named secretion-associated RAS (SAR) and ADP-ribosylation factor (ARF), the SAR/ARF family (Yorimitsu *et al.*, 2014; Jackson *et al.*, 2023). Five different SAR1 genes have been identified in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* (hereafter referred to as *Arabidopsis*) genome, named SAR1A-E (Brandizzi, 2018), that mediate ER-to-Golgi anterograde transport (Van der Verren & Zanetti, 2023). On the contrary, at least nine ARF proteins have been characterized in *Arabidopsis*. Six of them are orthologous to the mammalian class-I ARFs (ADP-ribosylation factor 1 (ARF1); Vernoud *et al.*, 2003; Gebbie *et al.*, 2005; Muthamilarsan *et al.*, 2016; Singh & Jürgens, 2018) and participate in

various pathways: (1) Golgi-to-ER retrograde trafficking (Lee *et al.*, 2002; Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002), (2) endocytosis and/or recycling pathways (Xu & Scheres, 2005; Naramoto *et al.*, 2010; Tanaka *et al.*, 2014) and (3) vacuolar trafficking (Pimpl *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, vesicle coat proteins encompass both adaptor proteins, involved in cargo recognition, and cage proteins, conferring structural support and specificity for vesicle docking. The Coat Protein Complex II (COPII) components are required for anterograde transport from the ER to the Golgi, whereas retrograde transport from the Golgi to the ER is mediated by the COPI complex. COPII vesicles require the assembly of SAR1 GTPase, the adaptor complex SEC23/SEC24 and the cage complex SEC13/SEC31. On the contrary, formation of COPI vesicles involves the recruitment of ARF1 GTPases and seven subunits of coat proteins assembled *en bloc*: α -, β -, β' -, γ -, δ -, ϵ - and ζ -COP (Brandizzi & Barlowe, 2013; Luo & Boyce, 2019; Aniento *et al.*, 2022; Li *et al.*, 2022). Vesicles covering the exocytic and endocytic pathways, as well as vacuolar

transport, require the action of ARF GTPases and are coated by two subsets of proteins: adaptor complexes (e.g. adaptor protein 1 (AP-1) complex) and the cage-forming proteins named clathrins. The latter give name to these vesicles: clathrin-coated vesicles (CCVs; Fig. 1; Law *et al.*, 2022; Shimizu & Uemura, 2022).

The endomembrane trafficking system also entails an important source of components and pathways for viruses to co-opt for their own benefit (Yuen *et al.*, 2023). Plant RNA viruses make use of this system for cell-to-cell movement and the formation of viral replication complexes (VRCs). Frequently, these processes rely on molecular interactions between components of the vesicle trafficking pathways and viral movement proteins (MPs; Pitzalis & Heinlein, 2017; Navarro *et al.*, 2019; Rodríguez-Peña *et al.*, 2021). Geminiviruses are circular single-stranded (ss) DNA viruses of small size (from 2.5 to 3.0 kb) that constitute the largest plant DNA viral family. Among them, the *Begomovirus* genus is the best characterized and comprises > 450 species that are transmitted by the whitefly *Bemisia tabaci* (Fiallo-Olivé *et al.*, 2021; Fiallo-Olivé & Navas-Castillo, 2023). Geminiviruses replicate in the nucleus of infected plant cells, utilizing the host DNA polymerases α and δ (Wu *et al.*, 2021). Unlike many other viruses, geminiviruses have not been reported to induce significant remodelling of the host endomembrane system for their replication or movement within the plant host. However, several pieces of evidence suggest the relevance of the endomembrane trafficking system during geminivirus infection. Interactions of geminiviral proteins, including MPs and nuclear shuttle proteins (NSPs), and plant proteins involved in post-Golgi clathrin-mediated trafficking (STOMATAL CYTOKINESIS DEFECTIVE, SCD2), endocytosis and ER–PM contact sites tethering (Synaptotagmin1, SYT1) or nuclear export of NSP–viral DNA complex to plasmodesmata (NSP-interacting GTPase, NIG1) have been described (Carvalho *et al.*, 2008; Krapp *et al.*, 2017). Based on the presence of viral DNA and geminivirus movement-related proteins (MP and the NSP) in endosomes (Lewis & Lazarowitz, 2010), Gouveia-Mageste *et al.* (2021) proposed a model in which interactions between NSP and the plant syntaxin protein NISP regulate the intracellular trafficking of vDNA to endosomes. At this site, MP – recruited from the PM by the endosomal protein SYTA – opportunistically associates with the NSP–vDNA complex to mediate cell-to-cell movement through an endocytic recycling pathway that redirects the complex back to the plasmodesmata. Moreover, intercellular movement of the begomovirus cabbage leaf curl virus (CabLCV) is reduced in infected *sytl* mutant plants, as it was also observed for several species of tobamoviruses and potyviruses (Uchiyama *et al.*, 2014; Cabanillas *et al.*, 2018). Excitingly, the relevance of vesicle trafficking for geminiviral movement has even been demonstrated within their insect viral vectors, as the begomoviruses tomato yellow leaf curl virus (TYLCV) and cotton leaf curl Multan virus (CLCu-MuV) have been shown to accumulate in vesicle-like structures inside *Bemisia tabaci* cells that cross the whitefly midgut through clathrin-mediated endocytosis (Pan *et al.*, 2017; Chi *et al.*, 2021).

Using a combination of virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) and transgenic *Nicotiana benthamiana* reporter plants that contain a GFP (Green Fluorescence Protein) transgene whose expression is dependent on the viral replication (2IRGFP plants, Morilla

et al., 2006), we previously demonstrated that the δ -COP subunit of the COPI complex is required for viral infection (Lozano-Durán *et al.*, 2011). In this study, we further characterized different pathways of the plant endomembrane trafficking system by silencing specific components and analysing their effects on the localization of Golgi, TGN and MVB markers. Moreover, our results showed that some vesicle trafficking elements, such as SAR1 or AP-1 γ , play antiviral roles during geminivirus infection while, in addition to δ -COP, the expression of *ARF1* and *Clathrin heavy chain 1* and 2 (*CHC1* and *CHC2*) is essential for geminivirus infection, but not for other pathogens, such as RNA viruses or bacteria. Hence, this work highlights the dual role of the vesicle trafficking system in maintaining cellular function and mediating susceptibility to geminiviruses.

Materials and Methods

Microorganisms: bacterial strains and infectious clones

Manipulation of bacteria was performed according to standard methods (Ausubel *et al.*, 1998; Sambrook & Russell, 2001). *Escherichia coli* strain DH5 α was used for cloning procedures. *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3101 allowed the delivery of tobacco rattle virus (TRV) RNA2-based vectors and the infective clones of tomato yellow leaf curl Sardinia virus (TYLCSaV) (GenBank accession: [L27708](#)) and beet curly top virus (BCTV) (GenBank accession: [NC001412](#)), whereas strain LBA4404 was employed for the delivery of the infectious clone of tomato yellow leaf curl virus (TYLCV) (GenBank accession: [AJ489258](#)) and strain C58 was used for the transient expression of fluorescence proteins in *N. benthamiana* Domin.

Plant material and growth conditions

Nicotiana benthamiana Domin wild-type and 2IRGFP plants (Morilla *et al.*, 2006) were grown in controlled growth chambers at 24°C under 16 h : 8 h, light : dark long-day conditions.

Plasmids and cloning

Candidate genes for the VIGS constructs were introduced into VIGS Tool ([solgenomics.net](#)) and 300-bp regions were selected and amplified by specific primers from *N. benthamiana* cDNA (Supporting Information Table S1). Amplified fragments were cloned into pGEMT-easy (Promega) and sequenced. pGEMT clones were digested with *SpeI* and *ApaI* restriction enzymes (Takara), and the corresponding fragments were subcloned into *SpeI/ApaI* sites of the TRV RNA2-based vector pTV00 (Ratcliff *et al.*, 2001), yielding the correspondent TRV-derived VIGS constructs used to silence the selected vesicle trafficking plant genes (Table 1).

Virus-induced gene silencing

VIGS assays in *N. benthamiana* plants were performed using TRV according to the method described in Ratcliff *et al.* (2001). Different cultures of *A. tumefaciens* harbouring pTV00 or

Table 1 Selected genes used to test the impact of the vesicle trafficking in geminiviral infection.

Silenced genes	Pathway	Function	Arabidopsis locus
<i>δ-COP</i>	Golgi-to-ER retrograde transport, intra-Golgi transport	COPI complex subunit	At5g05010
<i>ARFA1B</i>	Golgi-to-ER retrograde transport, intra-Golgi transport, post-Golgi trafficking	Small GTPase essential for COPI and clathrin-coated vesicles (CCVs) formation	At5g14670
<i>SAR1B</i>	ER-to-Golgi anterograde pathway	Small GTPase essential for COPII vesicle formation	At1g56330
<i>SEC24A</i>	ER-to-Golgi anterograde pathway	Structural coat protein of COPII vesicles	At3g07100
<i>SYT1</i>	Membrane contact sites	ER-PM tethering. Impacts over geminiviral infection	At2g20990
<i>AP-1γ</i>	Vacuolar trafficking from the TGN	AP-1γ complex subunit and structural component of CCVs	At1g60070
<i>CHC1</i>	Post-Golgi trafficking, endo-exocytosis	Structural component of CCVs	At3g11130
<i>CHC2</i>	Post-Golgi trafficking, endo-exocytosis	Structural component of CCVs	At3g08530

Selected genes from different vesicle trafficking routes to be silenced by virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS). Pathway involvement, function and *loci* of the *Arabidopsis thaliana* selected genes are indicated. *AP-1*, adaptor protein 1; *ARF1*, ADP-ribosylation factor 1; *CHC*, Clathrin Heavy Chain; *COP*, Coat Protein Complex; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; *SAR1*, Secretion-associated RAS 1; *SYT1*, Synaptotagmin1; TGN, Trans-Golgi Network.

pTV00-derived constructs and an independent culture of *A. tumefaciens* carrying pBINTRA6 were liquid-cultured in LB (Lysogeny broth) overnight with appropriate antibiotics. The cultures were then prepared for agroinfiltration at an OD₆₀₀ = 1. A 1 : 1 mixture was done with the pBINTRA6 culture and the pTV00 or pTV00-derived cultures. Mixed cell cultures were infiltrated in the underside of two leaves of 4-wk-old *N. benthamiana* plants. In certain experiments, the plants were also infected with geminiviruses at the same time as described below.

Specific primers to evaluate the silencing efficiency of the TRV constructs are shown in Table S1. Sequence alignment between primers and cDNA sequences of the family members allowed us to estimate which transcripts could be measured and amplified by qPCR (Table 2).

Geminivirus systemic infection assays

Five-week-old *2IRGFP N. benthamiana* plants were agroinoculated with the infectious clones of TYLCSaV (Lozano-Durán *et al.*, 2011), TYLCV (Morilla *et al.*, 2005) or BCTV (Bridson *et al.*, 1989) according to previously described methods (Elmer *et al.*, 1988). In brief, *A. tumefaciens* carrying the respective infectious clones were grown on liquid LB medium supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics overnight. Bacterial cultures were centrifuged at 4000 *g* for 10 min and resuspended in agroinoculation buffer (10 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM MES pH 5.6, and 100 μM acetosyringone), the optical density being adjusted to 1 (OD₆₀₀ = 1).

Between 2 and 4 h after incubation in the dark at room temperature, bacterial cultures were inoculated in the axillary bud of the fourth/fifth leaf of the plants using a syringe with a needle. After 15 d, samples were collected and processed for DNA and RNA isolation.

Geminivirus replication assay

The second and third leaves of *2IRGFP N. benthamiana* plants inoculated with empty TRV control or silenced using VIGS were agroinoculated with the TYLCSaV infectious clone (pGTYA14)

7 d after TRV constructs infiltration using a needleless syringe and following the same agroinfiltration method as described above with an OD₆₀₀ = 0.5. Four days later, the infiltrated leaves were sampled and processed for DNA and RNA isolation.

PVX infection assays

Potato virus X (PVX)-GFP was kindly provided by Dr. Peter Moffett and previously used in Peart *et al.* (2002); Jaubert *et al.* (2011). *N. benthamiana* plants were agroinoculated at an OD₆₀₀ = 0.01 at 7 d postinoculation (dpi) after TRV constructs inoculation. Leaf samples were taken at 15 dpi, and total RNA was extracted from the three apical leaves of each infected *N. benthamiana* plant. For quantification of PVX-GFP, virus-derived GFP expression was assessed by real-time PCR as described below.

Pseudomonas syringae inoculation and growth assays

Ten days after the inoculation with TRV-silencing constructs, the leaves from both silenced and control plants were infiltrated with the bacteria. *Pseudomonas syringae* pv tomato DC3000 cultures (Cuppels, 1986) were grown at 28 °C in LB medium supplemented with the proper antibiotics. Bacteria were suspended in agroinoculation buffer (as described in the previous section). Two leaves of 4- to 5-wk-old *N. benthamiana* plants were inoculated by infiltrating a 5 × 10⁴ colony-forming units (CFU) ml⁻¹ bacterial suspension using a needleless syringe. Samples were taken from inoculated leaves at 0 and 3 dpi and homogenized in 10 mM MgCl₂ by mechanical disruption. Serial dilutions of the resulting bacterial suspensions were plated onto LB plates supplemented with cycloheximide (2 μg ml⁻¹) and rifampicin (15 μg ml⁻¹) to determine the bacterial count (CFU ml⁻¹).

Nucleic acids isolation

Plant total DNA was extracted from *N. benthamiana* leaves (from infiltrated leaves for replication assays and from apical leaves in systemic infection assays) following the CTAB method as

Table 2 Vesicle trafficking-related genes targeted for silencing.

G.O.I.	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> selected gene	<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i> genes	Predicted silencing	Putatively detected by RT-qPCR	Plant phenotype
δ -COP	At5g05010	Niben101Scf09552g01014 Niben101Scf08334g03001	✓ ¹ ✓ ¹	✓ ✓	Stunted, wrinkled and curved apical leaves
ARFA1B	At5g14670	Nbv6.1trP74299* Nbv6.1trP47890*	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	Stunted, wrinkled and curved apical leaves
SAR1B	At1g56330	Niben101Scf02693g00001 Niben101Scf01623g17008 Niben101Scf00332g05012 Niben101Scf04473g02002 Niben101Scf00466g04034 Niben101Scf07576g00030 Niben101Scf05336g00011 Niben101Scf09612g00005 Niben101Scf05099g00008 Niben101Scf09203g01012 Niben101Scf04819g02004	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	None
SEC24A	At3g07100	Niben101Scf06077g05012 Niben101Scf07027g02001	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	None
SYT1	At2g20990	Niben101Scf02025g03007 Niben101Scf07109g01003	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	None
AP-1 γ	At1g60070	Niben101Scf08728g01001 Niben101Scf01053g01016 Niben101Scf03099g00001 Niben101Scf06734g01028	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	None
CHC1	At3g11130	Niben101Scf05954g03005 Niben101Scf03779g01005	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	Stunted, wrinkled and curved apical leaves
CHC2	At3g08530	Niben101Scf10169g04008 Niben101Scf01237g01011 Niben101Scf01200g02001 Niben101Scf10519g01006	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	Stunted, wrinkled and curved apical leaves

Selected *Arabidopsis thaliana* loci served as reference sequences in outlining *Nicotiana benthamiana* homologue gene family, annotated using SolGenomics accession codes. Bold marks the putative *N. benthamiana* orthologue. *NbARFA1B* genes, marked with (*), are referenced from QUT database (Ranawaka *et al.*, 2023) due to incomplete annotation in SolGenomics. *N. benthamiana* genes *in silico* predicted to be silenced and/or measured by RT-qPCR are shown and silenced plant phenotypes are briefly described.

¹*In silico* predicted silencing allowing at least 1 mismatch in VIGS-Tool (SolGenomics). *AP-1*, adaptor protein 1; *ARF1*, ADP-ribosylation factor 1; *CHC*, Clathrin Heavy Chain; *COP*, Coat Protein Complex; *SAR1*, Secretion-associated RAS 1; *SYT1*, Synaptotagmin1.

described in Lukowitz *et al.* (1996). Briefly, c. 50–100 mg of plant macerated tissue was homogenized into 500 μ l of extraction buffer (2% cetyl trimethylammonium bromide (CTAB), 1.5 M NaCl, 100 mM Tris pH 8, 100 mM EDTA pH 8) and incubated at 65°C for 15 min. After cooling, the mixture was extracted with chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (24 : 1) and the nucleic acids were precipitated with isopropanol. DNA was finally resuspended in water and treated with RNase (10 mg ml⁻¹; Invitrogen).

RNA extractions were performed according to the phenol-free method described by Oñate-Sánchez & Vicente-Carabajosa (2008). Approximately 50–100 mg of plant tissue was homogenized into 300 μ l of cell lysis buffer (2% sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS), 68 mM sodium citrate, 132 mM citric acid, 1 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) pH 8). One hundred microlitres of protein–DNA precipitation solution (4 M NaCl, 16 mM sodium citrate and 32 mM citric acid) was added to the cell lysate, and the mixture was incubated on ice for 10 min. The samples were centrifuged at 4°C for 10 min, and supernatants were transferred to new tubes for isopropanol precipitation as previously described.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) and reverse transcription qPCR (RT-qPCR)

cDNA was synthesized using iScript™ cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad) following the instructions provided by the manufacturer.

Quantitative PCR was performed to quantify viral accumulation and measure transcript levels. Ten microlitres of reactions were prepared containing 1–10 ng of genomic DNA or cDNA as template, specific primers at 10 μ M (Table S1) and 5 μ l of SsoFast EvaGreen Supermix (Bio-Rad). The reactions were carried out in the CFX96 and CFX384 Touch Real-Time PCR Detection System instrument (Bio-Rad) following 10 min at 95°C and 40 cycles of 15 s at 95°C and 10 s at 60°C. Three technical replicates per sample were included in each reaction plate. The data were analysed using Livak's 2-DDCT method (Livak & Schmittgen, 2001).

Confocal laser scanning microscopy

To evaluate the effect of individual gene silencing on organelle markers, *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* cultures harbouring the

binary vectors expressing STmd-GFP, SYP41-GFP and BP80-GFP, and were adjusted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.25 and agroinfiltrated into the leaves of *N. benthamiana* plants previously subjected to VIGS. The infiltrations of the markers were performed 11 d after infection with TRV-VIGS constructs.

In every case, fluorescence was detected in epidermal cells 2 d after infiltration using an inverted Zeiss LSM780 or Zeiss LSM880 confocal microscope (Zeiss, <http://www.zeiss.com>). GFP fluorescence was visualized by 488 nm excitation with an argon laser and its emission examined with a band-pass filter for 500–530 nm. Cortical plane images are maximum z-projections of several planes (1 mm spacing) from the cell surface to the cell equatorial plane.

Image analysis of organelle markers in silenced *N. benthamiana* leaves

Two-dimensional, max-intensity, z-projections of the z-stacks were made using the Fiji software (<https://fiji.sc/>; Schindelin *et al.*, 2012). Images were inspected, and the most general behaviour of each organellar marker (i.e. STmd-GFP, SYP41-GFP and BP80-GFP) in response to each gene silencing was extracted. Representative images were selected and subjected to basic treatment in Fiji (brightness/contrast enhancement, smoothing) just for display purposes. The conditions where changes in the localization of the organellar markers were clear (STmd-GFP and SYP41-GFP) were selected for further image analysis to quantify those changes.

For the analysis of BP80 marker signal, images were segmented using the interactive machine learning and segmentation software Ilastik (<https://www.ilastik.org/>; Berg *et al.*, 2019) to quantify the size of puncta. Five images were used for training, with all sigma values selected for all features. Training was based on three labels: background, defined puncta and blurry cytosolic-like signal. The colour-coded probability maps were generated and subsequently treated with Fiji for puncta analysis. A colour threshold was applied (min Hue = 34, max Hue = 132; min Brightness = 136, max Brightness = 255) to generate binary segmentation images. Then, particles were analysed to extract the list of puncta and their sizes (area) for each image. All image analysis data were represented as bar charts and histograms using GRAPH-PAD PRISM v.10.4.1.

CFDA phloem transport assays

Phloem transport was assessed by infiltrating 100 µl of 500 µM 5(6)-carboxyfluorescein diacetate (CFDA; Sigma-Aldrich) into the abaxial surface of mature source leaves (fifth leaf from the apex) using a needleless syringe. Transport to both source and sink tissues (second leaf from the apex) was observed after 3 h of CFDA application in δ -COP-, *ARF1*-silenced and TRV control plants at 9 dpi.

Transversal sections of petioles from source and sink leaves were obtained using an epifluorescence stereomicroscope under (1) visible light, (2) ultraviolet (UV) light (450–490 nm) using a band-pass filter (500–575 nm) to visualize CFDA signal (green) and (3)

a long-pass filter (> 500 nm) allowing simultaneous detection of CFDA fluorescence (green) and Chl autofluorescence (red).

Statistical analysis

Comparisons between experimental conditions and TRV controls were evaluated for statistically significant differences according to standard unpaired Student's *t*-tests (****, *P*-value < 0.0001; ***, *P*-value < 0.001; **, *P*-value < 0.01; *, *P*-value < 0.05).

Results

Identification of *N. benthamiana* orthologues of selected *A. thaliana* vesicle trafficking-related genes

To investigate the role of the vesicle trafficking system in geminiviral infection, we silenced key components of the vesicle trafficking machinery using the reverse genetic approach previously established by our group (Lozano-Durán *et al.*, 2011). Considering the complexity of the endomembrane pathway, which involves numerous genes in Arabidopsis, we selected specific genes to target distinct vesicle trafficking routes (Fig. 1; Table 1): (1) Golgi-to-ER retrograde pathway by silencing δ -COP and *ARF1* (also involved in post-Golgi trafficking), (2) ER-Golgi anterograde trafficking by targeting *SEC24* and *SARI* and (3) post-Golgi routes encompassing trafficking pathways between the TGN, the vacuole and the PM by impairing the expression of *SYT1*, *AP-1 γ* , *CHC1* and *CHC2*.

VIGS constructs to silence δ -COP and *ARF1* in *N. benthamiana* have been previously described (Coemans *et al.*, 2008; Lozano-Durán *et al.*, 2011). For the remaining genes, we performed a bioinformatic analysis to identify *N. benthamiana* orthologues of the selected Arabidopsis genes, following the workflow outlined in Fig. S1. The cDNA and protein sequences of the Arabidopsis genes were used to launch a BLAST search in the Sol Genomics Network database (solgenomics.net). Genes with the highest nucleotide and protein sequence homology scores were considered orthologues and were selected to design the VIGS constructs (Figs S2A–S9A). When discrepancies occurred between BLASTP and BLASTN results, candidate genes were refined through reverse BLASTP, sequence conservation, gene family context and functional annotation. In cases where multiple Arabidopsis orthologs with very similar score of homology were retrieved, additional BLASTP searches were performed using the identified *N. benthamiana* protein sequences as queries against the Arabidopsis database. To complete the study and assess the composition and complexity of the gene families, we performed a phylogenetic analysis of all selected genes using the Sol Genomics Network database, except for *ARF1* for which we resorted to the QUT database (Ranawaka *et al.*, 2023) due to incomplete annotation in Solgenomics (Figs S2B–S9B). Given the allotetraploid nature of *N. benthamiana* and the fact that many of the genes involved in vesicular trafficking are part of large gene families, special care was taken in designing the VIGS constructs in order to reduce the expression of many paralogues of each of the selected genes.

Table 3 Subcellular relocalization of endomembrane system upon silencing of vesicle trafficking elements.

Silenced genes	STtmd-GFP (Golgi)	SYP41-GFP (TGN)	BP80-GFP (MVB)
Control	Golgi	TGN	Multivesicular bodies (MBV)
δ -COP	Relocated at ER	Not altered	Not altered
ARF1B	Relocated at ER	Not altered	Not altered
SAR1B	Relocated at ER	TGN localization lost	Severe changes. Located mainly at ER. Larger foci
SEC24A	Relocated at ER	Not altered	Not altered
AP-1 γ	Mainly relocated at ER	Not altered	Localization severely altered. Larger foci
CHC2	Slightly relocated at ER	Not altered	Affected the integrity of the MVB. Larger foci

Impact in the localization of Golgi apparatus (STtmd-GFP), Trans-Golgi Network (SYP41-GFP) and Multivesicular bodies (BP80-GFP) markers in the silenced *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants. AP-1, adaptor protein 1; ARF1, ADP-ribosylation factor 1; CHC, Clathrin Heavy Chain; COP, Coat Protein Complex; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; SAR1, Secretion-associated RAS 1; SYT1, Synaptotagmin1; TGN, Trans-Golgi Network.

VIGS constructs to silence *SAR1*, *SEC24*, *SYT1*, *AP-1 γ* , *CHC1* and *CHC2* were designed according to the flow chart outlined in Fig. S10. cDNA sequences of *N. benthamiana* orthologues of each gene family were analysed using the 'VIGS tool' from the Sol Genomics Network database to select a 300-bp fragment (RNA_{VIGS}) for each sequence. These fragments were chosen based on their ability to target the highest number of family members for each selected gene with high specificity while avoiding off-target effects outside the gene family. To predict the potential silencing efficiency across transcripts within each gene family, the 'VIGS tool' software was employed to calculate the number of predicted 21-mers generated from the RNA_{VIGS} fragments that would target these transcripts. Additionally, the percentage of nucleotide identity between the target sequences and the corresponding RNA_{VIGS} fragment was determined using the CLUSTALW alignment tool from the European Bioinformatics Institute (EBI, ebi.ac.uk; Figs S2B–S9B).

To further confirm that the selected fragments did not have obvious undesired off-targets, the RNA_{VIGS} fragments were used as queries for BLAST searches on the *N. benthamiana* cDNA library (Fig. S10). The fragments that putatively only targeted the gene or gene family of interest were selected, PCR-amplified and cloned into the TRV RNA2-based VIGS vector, pTV00 (Ratcliff *et al.*, 2001). The silencing specificity and efficiency of TRV constructs *in silico* are shown in Figs S2C–S9C and Table 2.

Phenotype of plants silenced in elements of the plant endomembrane trafficking system

Silencing of *SAR1*, *SEC24*, *SYT1* and *AP-1 γ* did not result in detectable alterations in plant morphology or development when compared with plants inoculated with the empty TRV vector. By contrast, silencing of δ -COP, *ARF1*, *CHC1* and *CHC2* led to morphological alterations, which became apparent between 7 and 9 dpi and were clearly manifested by 15 dpi (Fig. S11). These phenotypic alterations were characterized by reduced internodal elongation, leaf curling and chlorosis, and the onset of necrosis when silencing *CHC1* and *CHC2*.

In order to assess the effect of the silencing of the selected elements in the endomembrane trafficking system, we studied the localization of markers fused to GFP for different subcellular

compartments: (1) the transmembrane domain of the rat α -2,6-sialyltransferase (STtmd) to mark the Golgi, (2) the syntaxin SYP41 to mark the TGN and (3) the vacuolar receptor BP80 to mark PVC/MVB. The third and fourth younger leaves from silenced plants were infiltrated with *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* cultures to express the organelle-specific fluorescent markers. Two days later, the fluorescent signal from markers was analysed by confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM; Fig. S12). As a control, the fluorescent markers were agroinfiltrated in *N. benthamiana* leaves from nonsilenced plants (inoculated with the empty TRV vector). The analysis was performed in plants silenced with six out of the eight genes selected (δ -COP, *ARF1*, *SAR1*, *SEC24*, *CHC2* and *AP-1 γ*). *CHC1* was discarded, due to its functional redundancy with *CHC2* (Figs S8, S9), and *SYT1* was not included since it has been previously reported that Arabidopsis *yt1* knockout mutants only show severely altered phenotypes during salt stress (Benitez-Fuente & Botella, 2023). Representative images of all the results are shown in Fig. S13 and summarized in Table 3. The degree of silencing of each assayed gene was determined and the data for one representative replica are shown (Table S2).

Subcellular redistribution of the Golgi marker STtmd-GFP, primarily to the ER (Figs 2, S13, S14), was detected when the expression of any of the studied genes was reduced. This effect is likely due to the Golgi's central role as a crossroads organelle that organizes cargo sorting to various compartments. Among the silenced genes, *SAR1* reduction caused the most extensive disruption, also leading to a clear redistribution of the TGN marker (SYP41-GFP) into cytosolic strands and aggregates, as well as the MVB marker (BP80-GFP) to the ER (Figs 2, S14, S15). These results parallel those obtained with the GTPase-defective mutant Sar1p (H74L), which specifically inhibits COPII-mediated ER-to-Golgi trafficking. Overexpression of this mutant resulted in the redistribution of fluorescence to the ER, involving both the Golgi and vacuolar storage markers (Table S3). Intriguingly, although the *in silico* study with VIGS tool analysis predicted that the TRV-SAR1 VIGS construct could induce silencing in only four out of the 11 *N. benthamiana* homologues (Table 2), the significant relocalization of the markers suggests that SAR1 function was extensively impaired in the silenced plants. In Arabidopsis, all SAR1 family members are implicated in ER-to-Golgi trafficking and localized to ER exit sites (ERES) to mediate

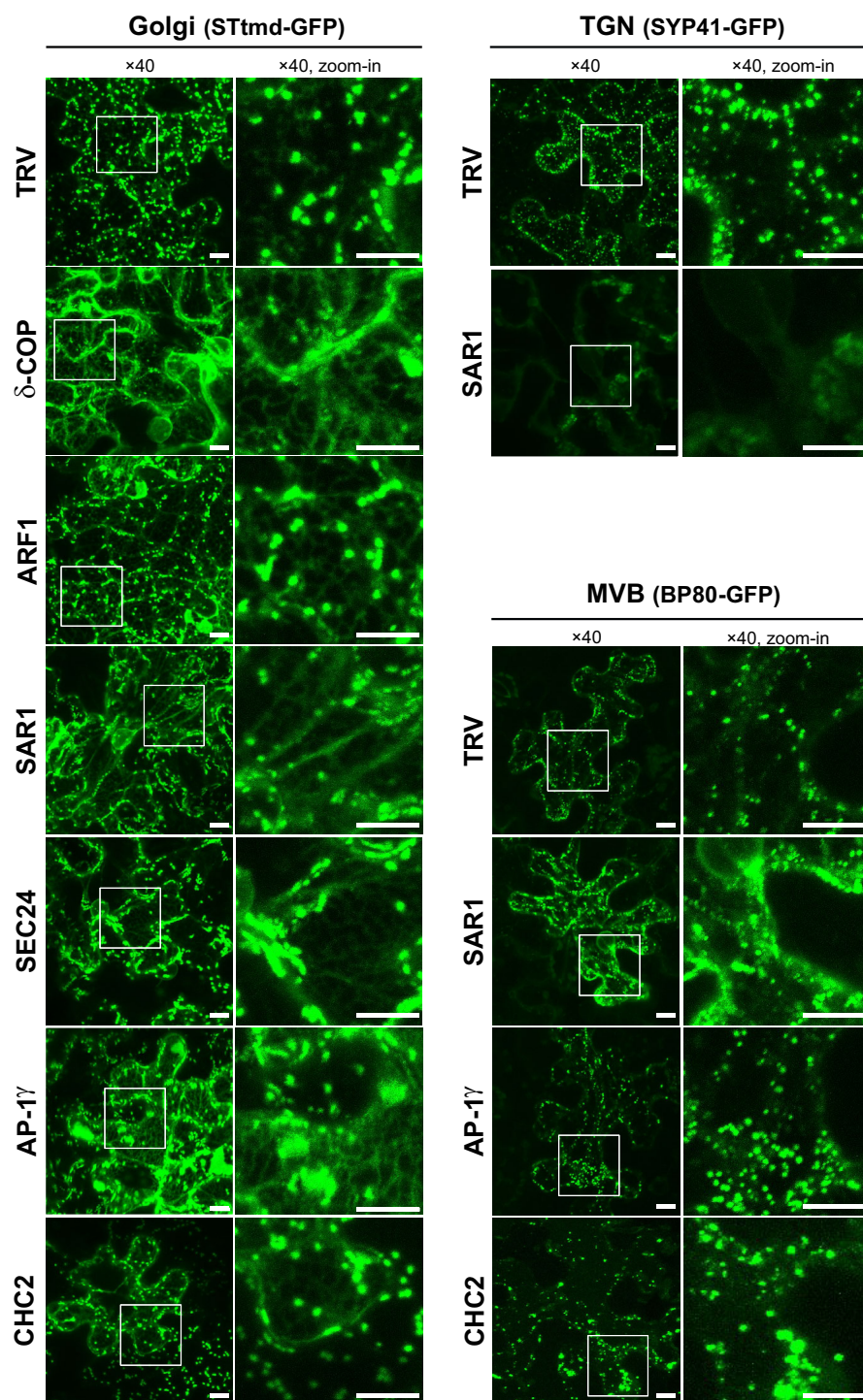


Fig. 2 Impact of δ -COP, ARF1, SAR1, SEC24, AP-1 γ and CHC2 silencing on the vesicle trafficking system. Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) images showing the subcellular localization in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves of STtmd-GFP (marker for Golgi), SYP41-GFP (marker for *trans*-Golgi network (TGN)) and BP80-GFP (marker for MVB) in leaves agroinfiltrated with the empty vector (TRV) or with the TRV constructs to silence the selected genes at 13 d postinfection. Bars, 10 μ m. Experiments were repeated twice with similar results. Representative images from both experiments are shown. Gene silencing efficiency was determined by RT-qPCR (Table S2). TRV, tobacco rattle virus.

anterograde trafficking, differing in their cargo recognition specificity for proper ER-to-Golgi delivery (Hanton *et al.*, 2008; Zeng *et al.*, 2015; Feng *et al.*, 2017). We speculate that if vesicles from the ER are not delivered, the Golgi precursor Golgi entry core compartments (GECCO) would not be formed, leading to severe distortions of Golgi structures (Ito & Boulté, 2020) and an altered distribution of TGN and MVB markers.

Nonetheless, these effects on the TGN and MVB markers were not observed when SEC24, which encodes an essential

anterograde trafficking factor forming adaptor subunits of COPII vesicles, was knocked down (Fig. S13). The differential effects observed when silencing SAR1 and SEC24 genes could arise from two distinct mechanisms: functional redundancy among SEC24A homologues or a partial knockdown of SEC24A that remains insufficient to impair trafficking function, in contrast to the profound disruption caused by SAR1 silencing. In Arabidopsis, three SEC24 paralogues (A–C) play distinct roles in vesicle trafficking (Faso *et al.*, 2009; Tanaka *et al.*, 2013). While SEC24A is

essential for plant viability (Faso *et al.*, 2009), SEC24B and SEC24C are crucial for gametogenesis but not required for plant survival, nor able to rescue *sec24a* mutants (Tanaka *et al.*, 2013; Chang *et al.*, 2022). Therefore, we speculate that these differences in *SARI* and *SEC24* silencing are most likely due to an incomplete silencing of *SEC24* rather than paralogue-specific functional compensation.

On the contrary, the distribution of the MVB/PVC marker (BP80-GFP) was also altered by silencing of *AP-1 γ* or *CHC2*, leading to its relocalization into large aggregates and to the ER, respectively (Figs 2, S16). The enlargement of MVBs in *CHC*-silenced plants is aligned with the central role of clathrins in the formation of most post-Golgi trafficking compartments (sorted in the TGN and MVBs), as well as in mediating endocytosis, secretion or vacuolar transport. Likewise, the pronounced effect on BP80 localization agreed with the role of the AP-1 complex in the vacuolar and secretory pathways (Law *et al.*, 2022; Shimizu & Uemura, 2022).

Surprisingly, *ARF1* silencing did not alter the distribution of TGN or MVB/PVC markers but specifically disrupted the localization of the Golgi marker (STmd-GFP; Figs S13, S14). This result was unexpected, as *ARF1* belongs to a complex gene family encoding GTPases critical for vesicle recruitment and formation at the Golgi, post-Golgi compartments and PM (Singh *et al.*, 2018). Consequently, *ARF1* knockdown was anticipated to impair TGN and MVB marker dynamics. Nonetheless, considering the large complexity of the *ARF1* gene family, it is very likely that some of *N. benthamiana* *ARF1* paralogues may not be targeted by our TRV-*ARF1* construct, which would explain the wild type-like post-Golgi marker distributions.

To place our observations within a broader context, we compiled a supplementary table summarizing the documented effects on endomembrane function and marker localization when the expression of our selected genes in *Arabidopsis* was altered (Table S3). This comparison underscores both the similarities and differences with our findings and supports the interpretation that the observed phenotypes are consistent with perturbations of endomembrane trafficking pathways described in previous studies.

Impact of silencing the selected vesicle trafficking-related genes on TYLCSaV infection

To evaluate the impact of the silencing of the selected genes on endomembrane trafficking during the infection with geminiviruses, we used *2IRGFP N. benthamiana* plants, which enable viral replication tracking through GFP expression (Morilla *et al.*, 2006; Lozano-Durán *et al.*, 2011). Leaves were first infiltrated with TRV-derived silencing constructs to induce gene silencing, followed by inoculation with an infectious TYLCSaV clone in the stem directly above the infiltration site (Fig. 3a). As a control, TYLCSaV was inoculated into *2IRGFP* plants preinfiltrated with the empty TRV-based vector. GFP expression was monitored from 7 to 15 dpi. To evaluate the development of the infection, we implemented an index named replication-associated phenotype (RAP), scoring the plants from 0 to 3 according to the

visually detected levels of GFP under UV light (Fig. 3b; Lozano-Durán *et al.*, 2011). A score of 0 was given to leaves that expressed no GFP at all, 1 to those leaves which showed GFP expression limited to the major veins of the leaf, 2 to those which had GFP not only in the major veins but also in some secondary veins and 3 when most of the leaf tissue was expressing GFP. The results are represented in Fig. 3c.

Silencing the two genes involved in the retrograde pathway (δ -*COP* and *ARF1*) or the structural components of the CCVs (*CHC1* and *CHC2*) severely impaired TYLCSaV infection. All silenced plants exhibited a RAP score of 0 throughout the experimental period, indicating that reduced expression of these genes completely disrupted viral infection. By contrast, silencing *AP-1 γ* , a CCV adaptor subunit, accelerated infection progression at early stages, achieving GFP expression levels comparable to control plants at 12 dpi. Conversely, silencing *SYT1* or the anterograde route-involved genes (*SARI* and *SEC24*) produced a delay in the infection development. However, *SARI* and *SYT1* silenced plants reached TRV control levels from 13 dpi onward. Notably, *SEC24* silenced plants maintained reduced GFP expression levels throughout the infection, showing an average RAP index 40% lower than the TRV control plants at 15 dpi (1.47 vs 2.47, respectively; Fig. 3c).

To further characterize the impact of gene silencing on viral infection, total DNA was extracted from each plant (TRV-silenced and nonsilenced) at 15 dpi and viral DNA accumulation was determined using qPCR. The qPCR results largely corroborated the RAP data. Consistent with the absence of GFP fluorescence, silencing of δ -*COP*, *ARF1*, *CHC1* and *CHC2* nearly abolished TYLCSaV accumulation (Fig. 4). Conversely, *SARI* silencing promoted a higher level of infection by tripling TYLCSaV accumulation as well as the silencing of *AP-1 γ* – a component of a specific subset of CCVs – which strikingly increased viral DNA levels on average. By contrast, *SYT1* and *SEC24* silencing had no significant effect on the accumulation of viral DNA at 15 dpi. Quantification of the mRNA levels, in the same tissue used for viral DNA accumulation, confirmed the silencing of the target genes, as their expression levels were reduced to 45% and 14% of those detected in nonsilenced plants (Table S4).

Our findings demonstrate that the plant vesicular trafficking system plays a critical role in the viral infection cycle. To clarify whether silencing key trafficking genes inhibits viral replication, we performed a local infection assay in leaves. *N. benthamiana* plants were agroinfiltrated with the TRV constructs targeting the genes that impair viral systemic infection: δ -*COP*, *ARF1* and *CHC2*. Seven days postinoculation with the TRV-based VIGS constructs (a timepoint when the phenotypical defects of silenced plants started to be evident) leaves were agroinoculated with TYLCSaV, and viral DNA accumulation was quantified in the infiltrated leaf areas at 4 dpi (Fig. 5a). No significant differences in viral DNA levels were observed between silenced and TRV control plants (Fig. 5b), indicating that viral replication remains unaffected despite disruption of vesicular trafficking. mRNA quantification on the same tissue used to measure viral DNA accumulation, confirmed successful silencing of δ -*COP*, *ARF1* and *CHC2* (Table S5). The results indicate that replication of

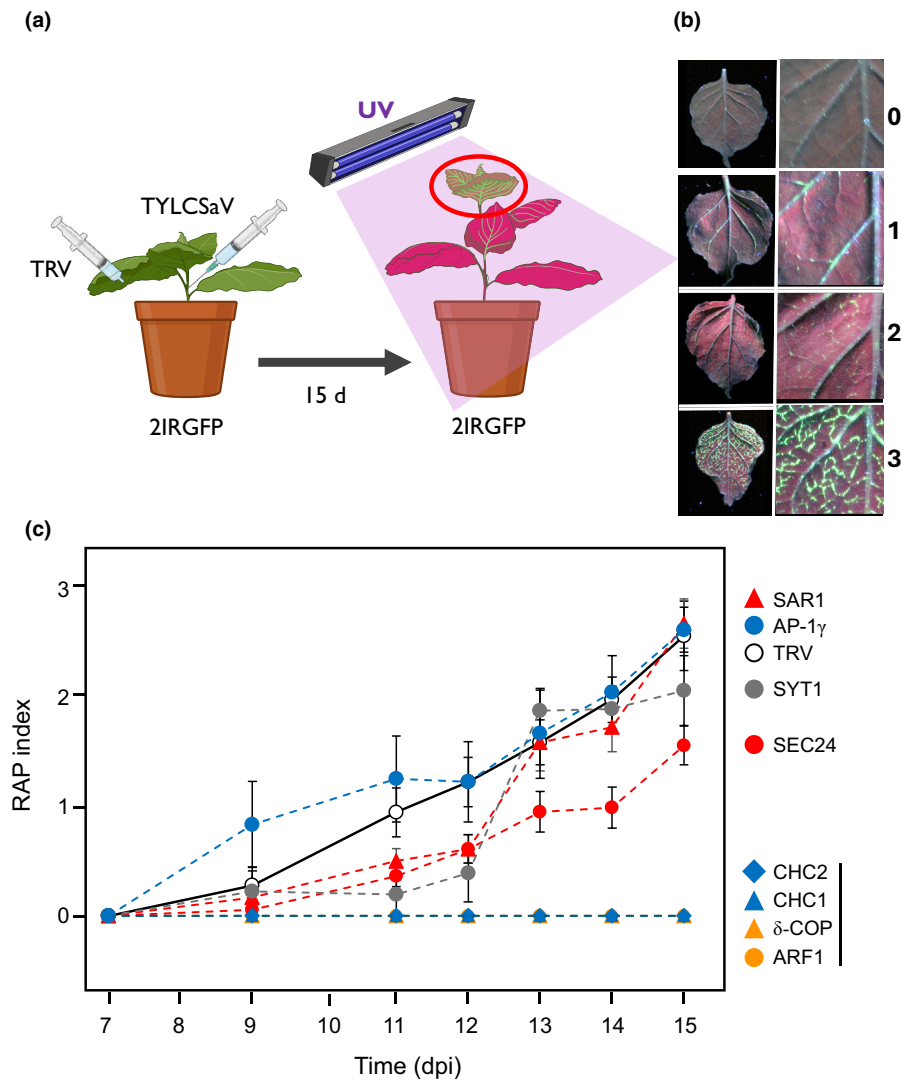


Fig. 3 Effect of silencing the selected vesicle trafficking-related genes during tomato yellow leaf curl Sardinia virus (TYLCSaV) infection. (a) *2IRGFP* *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants were co-inoculated with a TRV:Gene construct and TYLCSaV. GFP expression was daily monitored under UV light until 15 dpi (adapted from Lozano-Durán *et al.*, 2011). (b) Scale of replication-associated phenotype (RAP) by which plants were classified during the monitoring. 0 = no GFP expression, 1 = GFP in major veins only, 2 = GFP in major and some secondary veins, 3 = GFP in most of the veins of the leaf. (c) Dynamics of the RAP phenotype in plants silenced for each of the selected genes in the 7–15 dpi period. Each point represents the average RAP score of 5 (AP-1 γ and SYT1), 10 (δ -COP and ARF1) or 20 (CHC1, CHC2, SAR1 and SEC24) plants. Symbols of the genes that participate in the same type of vesicle coating formation are shown in the same colour. Error bars represent SE. dpi, d postinfection; GFP, green fluorescence protein; TRV, tobacco rattle virus.

TYLCSaV is not affected by the silencing of *ARF1*, *δ -COP* and *CHC2*. These findings demonstrate that TYLCSaV replication is independent of ARF1, δ -COP or CHC2 activity, suggesting that impaired systemic infection in silenced plants arises from postreplication defects.

Because impairment of systemic infection occurs in silenced plants affected in development, we cannot exclude the possibility that the reduced systemic spread might be a consequence of impaired phloem function. To test this, we performed CFDA assays to monitor phloem transport, which revealed no alteration in phloem conductivity in silenced plants (Fig. S17). *N. benthamiana* plants were agroinfiltrated with the TRV constructs targeting two of the genes that showed developmental effects when silenced (*δ -COP* and *ARF1*). Nine days postinoculation with the TRV-based VIGS constructs each source leaf was infiltrated with CFDA or water as a negative control, and the fluorescent signal was visualized and quantified in the source and the sink leaf and petiole at 3 h post infiltration. CFDA transport from source to sink leaves was unaffected in *ARF1*- and *δ -COP*-silenced plants, indicating that the reduction in systemic spread

does not result from a general defect in phloem function but rather reflects a specific impairment in viral phloem uploading when these genes are silenced.

Virus-induced silencing of *δ -COP* and *ARF1* abolishes geminivirus infection but does not affect infection by the RNA virus PVX or the plant pathogenic bacterium *Pseudomonas syringae*

To assess the specificity of the retrograde pathway's role in systemic viral infection, we challenged *δ -COP*- and *ARF1*-silenced plants with other DNA and RNA viruses. Plants were inoculated with two additional geminiviruses – the begomovirus TYLCV and the curtovirus BCTV – as well as a recombinant RNA virus PVX, containing the GFP gene (PVX-GFP; Peart *et al.*, 2002; Jaubert *et al.*, 2011).

Total DNA (for geminiviruses) or RNA (for PVX-GFP) was extracted from apical leaves at 15 dpi and quantified via qPCR or RT-qPCR (Reverse transcription quantitative PCR), respectively. Consistent with the results obtained with TYLCSaV, *δ -COP* and

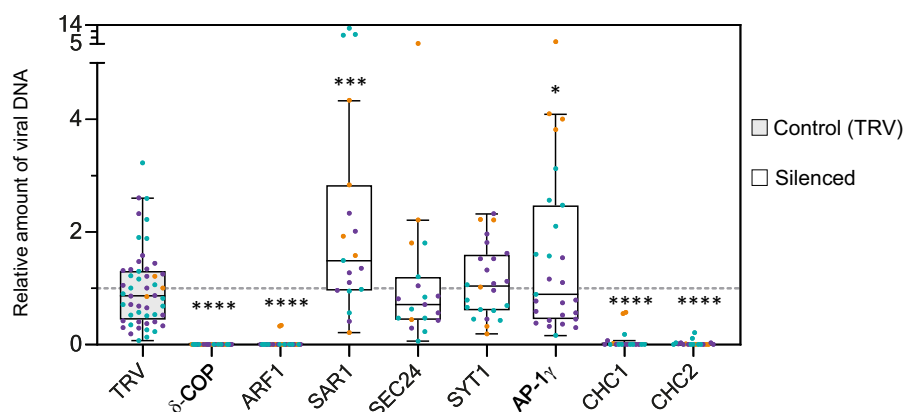


Fig. 4 Effect of virus-induced gene silencing of membrane trafficking-related genes on tomato yellow leaf curl Sardinia virus (TYLCSaV) accumulation. Relative amount of TYLCSaV DNA in the three most apical leaves of *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants co-infected with TYLCSaV and the respective TRV-derived silencing constructs or empty TRV as control. Viral DNA was measured by quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) at 15 d postinfection in silenced (gene indicated between brackets) and nonsilenced (TRV) plants. Values represent the mean from 18 to 28 measurements for silenced plants and 52 for the nonsilenced ones as a negative control for gene silencing. Viral DNA levels were normalized to *NbACT* and are presented as relative quantities compared with the nonsilenced control (TRV, set to 1). Whiskers were calculated according to the Tukey approach, extending to the most extreme data points within $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$ from the lower and upper quartiles. Asterisks indicate samples showing a statistically significant difference with the TRV control (no silencing) according to a Student's *t*-test (****, *P*-value < 0.0001; ***, *P*-value < 0.001; *, *P*-value < 0.05). The experiment was conducted in three independent replicates, yielding consistent results, which are distinguished by dot colours (orange, purple and blue). IQR, interquartile range; TRV, tobacco rattle virus.

ARF1 silencing drastically reduced TYLCV and BCTV DNA accumulation; however, it had no significant effect on PVX RNA levels (Fig. 6a).

To evaluate the retrograde pathway's role in the infection by extracellular pathogens, δ -COP- and *ARF1*-silenced *N. benthamiana* plants were inoculated with *Pseudomonas syringae* pv *tomato* DC3000 Δ *hopQ1-1*, a strain pathogenic in *N. benthamiana* (Wei *et al.*, 2007). Bacterial growth was measured at 3 dpi, with no significant differences observed between silenced and TRV control plants (Fig. 6b).

Taken together, these findings demonstrate that an intact retrograde trafficking pathway is specifically required for geminivirus infection, but not for PVX or bacterial infection.

Discussion

The endomembrane system plays a dual role in the viral life cycle, both providing the machinery and membranes necessary for viral infection and contributing to plant immunity mainly through autophagy (Yang *et al.*, 2020; Lozano-Durán, 2024; Yagyu & Yoshimoto, 2024). Previous evidence from our group demonstrated that silencing one of the genes of the COPI complex, δ -COP, almost completely blocked TYLCSaV infection, indicating that the host endomembrane trafficking network is essential for geminiviral infection (Lozano-Durán *et al.*, 2011). To further analyse the involvement of vesicle trafficking during infection, we have performed a functional analysis silencing essential genes for the function of the complexes of the three types of vesicles (COPI, COPII and CCVs) that are involved, respectively, in the Golgi-to-ER retrograde pathway (δ -COP and *ARF1*), the ER-to-Golgi anterograde pathway (*SAR1* and *SEC24*) and post-Golgi

trafficking (*AP-1 γ* , *CHC1*, *CHC2* and again *ARF1*). Additionally, we also included a host factor essential for functional membrane contact sites formation (*SYT1*).

The results obtained here confirm that vesicle trafficking plays a very important role in the infection by geminiviruses, since silencing six of the eight studied genes alters the viral accumulation in the plant. Only in two cases, *SYT1* and *SEC24*, silencing did not have any impact on the infection. In the case of *SYT1*, this result contrasts with that previously obtained with the bipartite begomovirus CabLCV in *Arabidopsis*, since a knockdown mutation of *SYT1* compromised viral cell-to-cell movement and delayed the infection (Lewis & Lazarowitz, 2010; Uchiyama *et al.*, 2014). The fact that the MP from CabLCV interacts with SYT1 led the authors to suggest that this interaction directs the MP to dock at plasmodesmata for the viral intercellular transport. Considering that TYLCSaV monopartite genome does not encode a homologue to MP, we cannot rule out the possibility that SYT1 may be specifically involved in the movement of bipartite begomoviruses.

Silencing of the other genes affects the ability of TYLCSaV to infect *N. benthamiana* plants allowing greater virus accumulation (*SAR1* and *AP-1 γ*) or strongly blocking infection (δ -COP, *ARF1*, *CHC1* and *CHC2*). We believe that these seemingly contradictory results can be explained, respectively, by the inhibition of different vesicular trafficking-dependent processes: (1) protein degradation by autophagy or vacuolar transport and (2) clathrin-mediated endo-exocytosis.

It is important to note that although the VIGS fragments were carefully designed to maximize specificity within each targeted gene family, the possibility of off-target silencing cannot be completely excluded, particularly through the generation of secondary

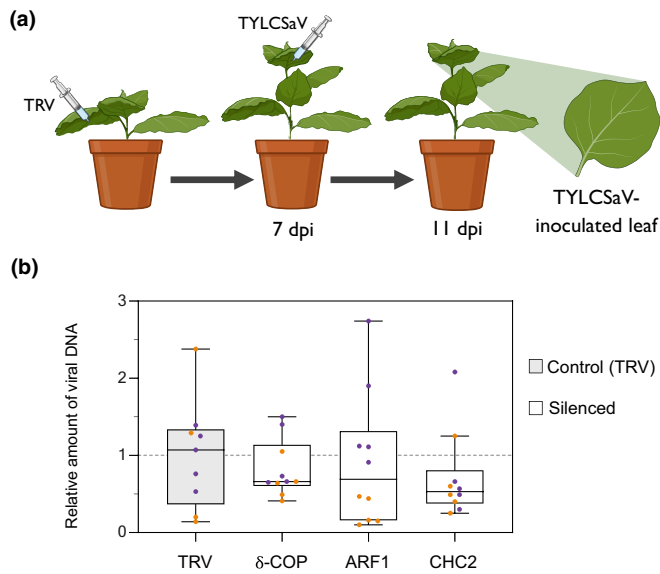


Fig. 5 Replication of tomato yellow leaf curl Sardinia virus (TYLCSaV) is not affected in δ -COP-, ARF1- or CHC-silenced plants. (a) Schematic representation of the experimental setup used to determine the capability of TYLCSaV to replicate in silenced *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants. (b) Relative amount of viral DNA in the TYLCSaV infiltrated leaves that were silenced for δ -COP, ARF1 and CHC2 genes or nonsilenced (TRV) at 11 d postinfection. Viral DNA levels were normalized to *NbACT* and are presented as relative quantities compared with the nonsilenced control (TRV, set to 1). Whiskers were calculated according to the Tukey approach, extending to the most extreme data points within $1.5 \times$ IQR from the lower and upper quartiles. No statistically significant differences were observed, as determined by Student's *t*-test. The experiment was conducted in two independent replicates, yielding consistent results, which are distinguished by dot colours (orange and purple). dpi, d postinoculation; IQR, interquartile range; TRV, tobacco rattle virus.

siRNAs by transitivity (de Felippes *et al.*, 2020). This limitation implies that the phenotypes we describe most likely reflect the combined contribution of multiple paralogues within a gene family rather than the function of a single gene, and thus should be interpreted as family-wide effects until validated by complementation or other genetic approaches. Future studies employing specific mutants will be required to disentangle the individual roles of each family member in the observed phenotype.

SAR1 and AP-1 γ participate in defence mechanisms that undermine the viral infection

Autophagy plays a significant antiviral role in the host's innate and adaptive plant immune responses (Yang *et al.*, 2020; Wu *et al.*, 2022; Zhang *et al.*, 2023). Numerous studies have described autophagy as a defence mechanism employed by plants against geminiviruses, among other strategies, through the degradation of viral proteins. Thus, geminiviral β C1 and Rep proteins that interact with autophagy-related gene 8 protein (ATG8) are degraded by autophagy (Haxim *et al.*, 2017; Li *et al.*, 2020) and, in accordance, a Rep mutation in the putative interaction motif

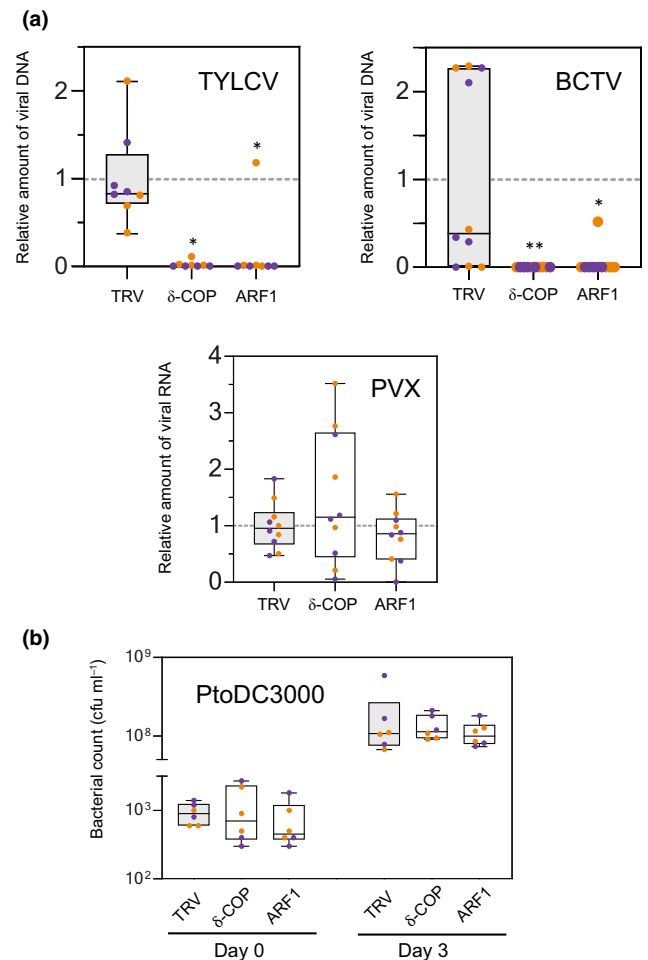


Fig. 6 Silencing of δ -COP and ARF1 abolishes geminivirus infection but does not alter potato virus X (PVX) or *Pseudomonas syringae* pv *tomato* DC3000 Δ hopQ1-1 infection. (a) Relative amount of TYLCSaV DNA, BCTV DNA (qPCR) or PVX RNA (RT-qPCR) in *Nicotiana benthamiana* infected plants that were silenced for δ -COP or ARF1 genes or nonsilenced (TRV) at 15 dpi. Viral DNA levels were normalized to *NbACT* and presented as relative quantities compared with the nonsilenced control (TRV, set to 1). Whiskers were calculated according to the Tukey approach, extending to the most extreme data points within $1.5 \times$ IQR from the lower and upper quartiles. Asterisks indicate samples showing a statistically significant difference compared with TRV control (**, *P*-value < 0.01; *, *P*-value < 0.05) according to a Student's *t*-test. The experiment was conducted in two independent replicates, yielding consistent results, which are distinguished by dot colours (orange and purple). (b) Ten-day-silenced δ -COP or ARF1 *N. benthamiana* plants were infiltrated with *P. syringae* pv *tomato* DC3000 Δ hopQ1-1 at 5×10^3 CFU ml⁻¹. The growth of the bacteria was determined at 0 dpi and 3 dpi. No statistically significant differences were observed, as determined by Student's *t*-test. The experiment was conducted in two independent replicates, yielding consistent results, which are distinguished by dot colours (orange and purple). CFU, colony-forming units; dpi, d postinfection; IQR, interquartile range; TRV, tobacco rattle virus.

with ATG8 enhanced virus pathogenicity (Li *et al.*, 2020). Besides, disruption of the autophagy by silencing either *ATG5* or *ATG7* enhances geminivirus accumulation, while autophagy induction impairs geminiviral infection (Haxim *et al.*, 2017).

Autophagy function requires the formation of large double-membrane vesicles, called autophagosomes, that deliver cytoplasmic components to the vacuole. The formation of those vesicles requires the recruitment of autophagy-related (ATG) proteins and the membrane trafficking machinery from the secretory pathway, including the COPII vesicles and the post-Golgi pathways, which provide membranes for autophagosome formation (Davis *et al.*, 2017; Li *et al.*, 2022).

In Arabidopsis, different COPII components are involved in separate steps of autophagosome biogenesis. SAR1D interacts with the ATG8 isoform ATG8e and the reduction in its activity affects the autophagic flux (Zeng *et al.*, 2021). SAR1B, another SAR paralogue, appears to have a role later than SAR1D (Kim *et al.*, 2022), indicating that COPII machinery is required for autophagy function. We consequently propose that *SAR1* silencing in *N. benthamiana* could impair autophagy; therefore allowing an increase in the viral accumulation.

Plant CCVs mainly function to sort *de novo* synthesized proteins from the TGN to PM for secretion or into MVB leading to vacuoles to constitute the vacuolar pathway. Besides, they are also involved in internalizing integral membrane proteins located on the PM into TGN in a mode of endocytosis (Paez Valencia *et al.*, 2016). The clathrin coat is mainly composed of a heterotetrameric adaptor protein (AP) complex together with a structure called the triskelion, comprised of three clathrin heavy chains and three light chains. The AP complex has five variants (AP-1 to AP-5), each comprising heterotetrameric polypeptides including two large subunits, a single medium and a single small one. These subunits work together to recognize specific signals on cargo proteins, bind to the cargo and assist in the recruitment of clathrins and other proteins necessary for vesicle formation. Each AP complex has been shown to function in protein trafficking at distinct locations. AP-1 γ is one of the proteins of the AP-1 complex that mediates clathrin-dependent trafficking at the TGN to PM and vacuoles (Law *et al.*, 2022). AP-1 γ drives the transport to the tonoplast of proteins by recognizing a dileucine-based sorting sequence (Wang *et al.*, 2014; Law *et al.*, 2022). Interestingly, we have noticed the CP of TYLCSaV contains a putative dileucine motif ENALLL at the C-terminus of the protein (aa 225 to 230) that is conserved in all begomoviral CPs (Fig. S18). During infection, the CP of TYLCV, located at the nucleus and cytoplasm, is degraded as a defence mechanism by protease digestion, 26S proteasome degradation and autophagy (Gorovits *et al.*, 2013, 2014, 2016). It would therefore be possible that CP transport to the vacuole for its degradation could be dependent on AP-1 γ recognition of the ENALLL motif of CP. If so, silencing of *AP-1 γ* would impair this transport, boosting the viral accumulation. These results suggest an antiviral effect of the vacuolar pathway, which could degrade viral components or proviral factors.

Clathrin-mediated endo-exocytosis: COPI and CCV-mediated trafficking are required for geminiviral infection

Silencing of δ -COP, *ARF1* and clathrin-coding genes almost completely abolished the virus detection in the apical leaves of infected plants. Even though δ -COP, CHC1 and CHC2 are

indirectly related by ARF1, there is no clear direct functional link among them. In eukaryotes, clathrins and ARF1 are involved in the formation of CCVs at post-Golgi transport routes (endocytosis, secretion and vacuolar trafficking), while δ -COP and ARF1 function together in the formation of COPI vesicles. Although COPI vesicles are primarily involved in retrograde transport from the Golgi to the ER, COPI disruption could directly affect Golgi function in a manner similar to clathrin silencing, as it plays a crucial role in establishing the specific protein composition of all membrane organelles. Besides, in mammals and yeast, it has been described that several COPI subunits seem to be also involved in endosomal functions (Gu *et al.*, 1997; Gabrieli *et al.*, 2007; Xu *et al.*, 2017), opening up the possibility that silencing of the COPI and CCV elements is altering common pathways, as it was also suggested by the fact that silenced plants showed similar morphological alterations.

Whatever the processes impaired by silencing these genes might be, our results indicate that they are not affecting the replication of geminiviruses (local infection; Fig. 5b) and therefore point to a suppression of their movement in the plant. The mechanisms involved do not alter infection of the RNA virus used (PVX) and neither affect the growth of *P. syringae* bacteria. Despite the co-occurrence of the abolishment of geminiviral infection and the developmental alterations observed when δ -COP, *ARF1* and clathrin genes were silenced, our results indicate that the vascular system of these plants is still functional, as CFDA transport was not affected (Fig. S17), PVX was still able to systemically infect plants and an acid fuchsin dye was able to reach apical leaves even when both genes were silenced (data not shown). According to our results, the reduced systemic spread is most likely due to direct effects on long-distance transport through the phloem. Given that *N. benthamiana* is an apoplastic-loading species, in which the phloem is relatively isolated from surrounding mesophyll cells, we propose that the observed effects more likely reflect limitations in phloem uploading and subsequent long-distance transport. Although the data pointed to defects in post-Golgi transport pathways (exocytic, endocytic or vacuolar) as responsible for the effect in this viral movement, additional work will be required to identify the specific processes affected by the gene silencing that are essential for geminiviruses to be able to infect the plant systemically.

Notably, during the preparation of this manuscript, Zhao *et al.* reported findings consistent with ours: silencing of the tomato δ -COP gene also impairs TYLCV infection in tomato. In addition, they further demonstrated that silencing two other COPI complex subunits, β -COP and ϵ -COP, significantly reduces TYLCV infection, whereas overexpressing β -COP via a PVX vector increases viral titre in infected plants. Finally, Zhao *et al.* proposed that COPI complexes mediate the targeting of the TYLCV C4 protein to chloroplasts and promote chloroplast clustering around the nucleus, proposing a model in which COPI components facilitate geminivirus infection by enabling C4 relocalization to chloroplasts.

However, our results with TYLCSaV cannot be fully explained by this chloroplast-targeting mechanism, since the C4 proteins of TYLCSaV and TYLCV differ in their subcellular localization

dynamics. Although both C4 proteins associate with the PM and chloroplasts, the TYLCV C4 protein which is predominantly PM-bound in noninfected cells relocates to chloroplasts upon infection. By contrast, TYLCSaV C4 is consistently detected in both compartments at comparable levels, even when transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves in the absence of viral infection (Fig. S19). Unlike the COPI-dependent relocalization of TYLCV C4 from the PM to the chloroplast (Zhao *et al.*, 2024), the localization of TYLCSaV C4 within chloroplasts of uninfected plants appears to be independent of COPI-mediated transport, as it is unaffected by either BFA treatment or δ -COP silencing (Fig. S19). Finally, silencing other host trafficking genes not involved in COPI-mediated transport, such as CHC or ARF1, produces a similarly strong inhibition of TYLCSaV infection as δ -COP silencing. This finding suggests that the pronounced antigeminiviral phenotype observed is due to a general disruption of the host vesicle transport machinery rather than exclusively to the mislocalization of C4 away from chloroplasts.

Conclusions

The endomembrane trafficking dissection shown in the present work lays one of the foundation stones in identifying the relevance of vacuolar trafficking for geminivirus infection. On the one hand, we speculate that the vacuolar pathway and MVBs might act as sorting hubs exerting dual roles in geminiviral infection, eliciting both defence responses against viruses (most likely autophagy-mediated) and facilitating viral movement through recycling routes or endocytosis. On the other hand, we hypothesize that endocytosis and retrograde pathways may constitute essential processes for successful systemic viral infection. The use of receptor-mediated endocytosis to enter host cells is well established for animal viruses (Helenius, 2018; Roth *et al.*, 2021), but in plants, its role during viral infections remains majorly unknown and only a few examples have been described, centred mainly on turnip mosaic virus and cauliflower mosaic virus (Carluccio *et al.*, 2014; Wu *et al.*, 2020). Interestingly, endocytosis has also been demonstrated to play an important role in the trafficking of geminiviruses through the midgut cells of their insect vectors (Pan *et al.*, 2017; Xia *et al.*, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2019; Zhao *et al.*, 2020). Considering that endocytic machinery is majorly conserved throughout kingdoms, a similar role of endocytosis during geminivirus infections in plants is conceivable and would open new thrilling questions in the field.

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Competing interests

None declared.

Author contributions

ERB, VP, AGC, RL-D and PC-Q conceived and designed the experiments. PC-Q performed most of the experiments. TR-D, TJ-G, NJA and JPS helped with the experiments. PC-Q, ERB, AGC and PM-M analysed and discussed the data. ERB, PM-M and AGC wrote the manuscript. All the authors have read, revised and approved the paper. PC-Q and PM-M contributed equally to this work.

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Data availability

All data are available in the manuscript and its [Supporting Information](#). Genomic sequences for viral species used in this work are indexed and stored in the GenBank Database: TYLCSaV (GenBank accession: [L27708](#)), TYLCV (GenBank accession: [AJ489258](#)) and BCTV (GenBank accession: [NC001412](#)).

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Fig. S1 Orthologue search in *Nicotiana benthamiana* and *in silico* silencing analysis.

Fig. S2 Analysis and characterization of δ -COP silencing in *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

Fig. S3 Analysis and characterization of *ARF1* silencing in *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

Fig. S4 Analysis and characterization of *SAR1* silencing in *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

Fig. S5 Analysis and characterization of *SEC24* silencing in *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

Fig. S6 Analysis and characterization of *SYT1* silencing in *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

Fig. S7 Analysis and characterization of *AP-1 γ* silencing in *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

Fig. S8 Analysis and characterization of *CHC1* silencing in *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

Fig. S9 Analysis and characterization of *CHC2* silencing in *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

Fig. S10 Design of TRV-derived constructs for silencing.

Fig. S11 Phenotypes of *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants at 15 d postinfection inoculated with empty TRV-based vector or TRV construct designed to silence the indicated vesicle trafficking-related-genes.

Fig. S12 Strategy used to study the impact of silencing the targeted genes on different compartments of the vesicle trafficking system.

Fig. S13 Impact of δ -COP, *ARF1*, *SAR1*, *SEC24*, *AP-1 γ* and *CHC2* silencing on the vesicle trafficking system.

Fig. S14 Quantification of the impact of δ -COP, *ARF1*, *SAR1*, *CHC2*, *SEC24* and *AP-1 γ* silencing on the Golgi marker STmd-GFP.

Fig. S15 Quantification of the impact of *SAR1* silencing on the TGN marker SYP41-GFP.

Fig. S16 Quantification of the impact of *SAR1*, *CHC2* and *AP-1 γ* silencing on the MVB marker BP80-GFP.

Fig. S17 CFDA transport in source and sink leaves of VIGS-silenced plants.

Fig. S18 Identification of a dileucine ENALLL motif in several geminiviral coat protein sequences.

Fig. S19 Effect of BFA treatment and δ -COP silencing on subcellular localization of C4 from TYLCSaV.

Table S1 List of primers used in this work.

Table S2 Measurement of targeted gene silencing in endomembrane trafficking markers CLSM analysis.

Table S3 Effect of mutations in COPII, COPI, ARF1, AP-1 subunits and clathrin, on endomembrane markers in *Arabidopsis thaliana*.

Table S4 Measurement of targeted gene silencing in TYLCSaV systemic infection assays.

Table S5 Measurement of targeted gene silencing in TYLCSaV replication assays.

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