

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Interplay of Plasma Membrane and Vacuolar Ion Channels, Together with BAK1, Elicits Rapid Cytosolic Calcium Elevations in Arabidopsis during Aphid Feeding

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Short title: Aphids elicit rapid plant calcium elevations

One-sentence summary: During feeding by aphids *in vivo*, a fluorescent calcium sensor reveals a mesophyll calcium signal that is dependent on BAK1, GLR3.3/GLR3.6 and TPC1.

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ABSTRACT

A transient rise in cytosolic calcium ion concentration is one of the main signals used by plants in perception of their environment. The role of calcium in the detection of abiotic stress is well documented; however, its role during biotic interactions remains unclear. Here, we use a fluorescent calcium biosensor (GCaMP3) in combination with the green peach aphid (*Myzus persicae*) as a tool to study *Arabidopsis thaliana* calcium dynamics *in vivo* and in real time during a live biotic interaction. We demonstrate rapid and highly-localised plant calcium elevations around the feeding sites of *M. persicae*, and by monitoring aphid feeding behaviour electrophysiologically we demonstrate that these elevations correlate with aphid probing of epidermal and mesophyll cells. Furthermore, we dissect the molecular mechanisms involved, showing that interplay between the plant defence co-receptor BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE-ASSOCIATED KINASE 1 (BAK1), the plasma membrane ion channels GLUTAMATE RECEPTOR-LIKE 3.3 and 3.6 (GLR3.3 and GLR3.6) and the vacuolar ion channel TWO-PORE CHANNEL 1 (TPC1) mediate these calcium elevations. Consequently, we identify a link between plant perception of biotic threats by BAK1, cellular calcium entry mediated by GLRs, and intracellular calcium release by TPC1 during a biologically relevant interaction.

INTRODUCTION

Transient rises in cytosolic calcium ion concentration ($[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$) act as ubiquitous signals that coordinate a range of physiological processes in plants. The capacity for abiotic stresses such as cold, salt and drought to elicit $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations in plants has been known for some time (Knight et al., 1991; McAinsh et al., 1995; Allen et al., 2000; Kiegle et al., 2000). Biotic stresses such as plant pathogens can also elicit $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations; however, the study of these elevations has been largely restricted to the use of elicitors as opposed to live organisms (Blume et al., 2000; Lecourieux et al., 2005; Thor and Peiter, 2014; Keinath et al., 2015; Charpentier et al., 2016). Conversely, although application of live chewing insects elicits large $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations, these are hard to differentiate from those caused by wounding alone (Verrillo et al., 2014; Kiep et al., 2015). The green peach aphid (*Myzus persicae*), which pierces a small number of plant cells (Will and van Bel, 2006), offers a unique opportunity to study plant Ca^{2+} dynamics *in vivo* during a biotic stress more akin to plant-microbe interactions.

Plant perceive detrimental biotic events through the detection of conserved pathogen/herbivore-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs/HAMPs), by pathogen recognition receptors (PRRs) in the plant (Chinchilla et al., 2006; Zipfel et al., 2006; Yamaguchi et al., 2006; Miya et al., 2007), many of which interact with the defence co-receptor BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE1-ASSOCIATED KINASE1 (BAK1) (Chinchilla et al., 2007; Heese et al., 2007) during response known as PAMP-triggered immunity (PTI) (Jones and Dangl, 2006; Zipfel, 2009; Mithofer and Boland, 2008). One of the earliest events upon pathogen recognition is a transient elevation in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ (Blume et al., 2000; Lecourieux et al., 2005; Keinath et al., 2015), whilst a

75 hallmark of symbiotic biotic interactions is $[Ca^{2+}]$ oscillations in the nucleus (Ehrhardt
76 et al., 1996; Kosuta et al., 2008). Despite this, the mechanisms underlying $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$
77 elevations during biotic interactions have remained unclear, although several Ca^{2+} -
78 permeable channels have been suggested to play a role. The CYCLIC
79 NUCLEOTIDE GATED CHANNEL (CNGC) and GLUTAMATE RECEPTOR-LIKE
80 CHANNEL (GLR) families include some of the best-characterised plasma membrane
81 Ca^{2+} -permeable channel families in plants (Dodd et al., 2010). CNGC15 facilitates
82 nuclear $[Ca^{2+}]$ oscillations in response to symbiotic elicitors (Charpentier et al.,
83 2016), whilst CNGC2 mediates entry of Ca^{2+} from the apoplast (Wang et al., 2017)
84 and the CNGC2-null mutant *defence no death 1 (dnd1)* exhibits a constitutive
85 defence phenotype (Yu et al., 1998; Clough et al., 2000). Furthermore, *GLR3.3* and
86 *GLR3.6* have been implicated in systemic signalling during wounding (Mousavi et al.,
87 2013; Salvador-Recatala, 2016). In addition, herbivory-elicited Ca^{2+} signals are
88 attenuated in null mutants of the vacuolar channel *TWO-PORE CHANNEL 1 (TPC1)*
89 (Kiep et al., 2015). TPC1 is a tonoplast-localised Ca^{2+} -permeable channel whose
90 activity is regulated by voltage and Ca^{2+} (Hedrich and Neher, 1987; Ward and
91 Schroeder, 1994; Peiter et al., 2005; Gradogna et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2016; Kintzer
92 and Stroud, 2016; Guo et al., 2017). TPC1 also has an established role in systemic
93 Ca^{2+} signalling in response to salt stress (Choi et al., 2014; Evans et al., 2016) and
94 wounding (Kiep et al., 2015) via its positive regulation by Ca^{2+} in a process termed
95 Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release. However, the mechanism by which Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+}
96 release is triggered in plants remains unknown.

97

98 *M. persicae* is a significant agricultural pest due to its highly polyphagous
99 nature (Blackman and Eastop, 2000; Schoonhoven et al., 2005; Blackman and

Eastop, 2007; Mathers et al., 2017). Aphids pierce plant tissue using specialised mouthparts, called stylets, to establish long-term feeding from the phloem (Dixon, 1998). On the route to the phloem, the stylets navigate between epidermal and mesophyll cells, occasionally penetrating these cells during a process known as the pathway feeding phase (Tjallingii, 1985; Tjallingii and Esch, 1993). The ability of an aphid to feed successfully on a plant appears to be partly determined during these penetrations, as the pathway phase still occurs with aphid species unable to establish long-term feeding (Chen et al., 1997; Sauge et al., 1998; Jaouannet et al., 2015; Nam and Hardie, 2012). Furthermore, as with microbial pathogens, aphids are detected through a BAK1-dependent mechanism, although the PRRs involved have remained elusive, with FLAGELLIN-SENSITIVE 2 (FLS2), EF-TU RECEPTOR (EFR), CHITIN ELICITOR RECEPTOR KINASE 1 (CERK1), PEP1 RECEPTOR 1 (PEPR1) and PEP1 RECEPTOR 2 (PEPR2) not appearing to play a role (Prince et al., 2014; Chaudhary et al., 2014).

There is circumstantial evidence that Ca^{2+} signalling is relevant to plant–aphid interactions. The majority of plant gene expression studies performed after infestation with aphids reveal a significant over-representation of Ca^{2+} signalling-related transcripts, most of which display upregulation (Foyer et al., 2015). In addition, feeding by *M. persicae* elicits plasma membrane depolarisations in *Arabidopsis* mesophyll cells (Bricchi et al., 2012), and Ca^{2+} -selective microelectrodes detect a significant Ca^{2+} flux out of the extracellular space into tobacco mesophyll cells after infestation with *M. persicae* (Ren et al., 2014). However, the primary role of Ca^{2+} in plant-aphid interactions is believed to be in the phloem, where it is hypothesised to have a function in signalling by promoting occlusion via regulation of

callose production (Kauss et al., 1983; Singh and Paolillo, 1990; Aidemark et al., 2009) and plugging by phloem proteins (Knoblauch et al., 2001; Knoblauch et al., 2003; Furch et al., 2009). Furthermore, it has been suggested that proteins in aphid saliva act to chelate phloem Ca^{2+} to prevent occlusion. Indeed, aphid saliva contains Ca^{2+} -binding proteins (Will et al., 2007; Carolan et al., 2009; Rao et al., 2013) and application of saliva to legume phloem-plugging proteins results in their contraction (Will et al., 2007). Aphid saliva also contains effector molecules that suppress plant defence (Bos et al., 2010; Pitino and Hogenhout, 2013; Atamian et al., 2013; Naessens et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Kettles and Kaloshian, 2016), as observed with microbial pathogens (Jones and Dangl, 2006; Galan et al., 2014) and chewing insects (Musser et al., 2002).

To date, there have been no direct measurements of local $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ dynamics in a leaf when only a few cells are under biotic attack. Aphids offer an approach by which to study such dynamics, because the stylets of these insects probe individual plant cells, and this behaviour can be monitored electrophysiologically (Tjallingii, 1985; Tjallingii and Esch, 1993). Here, using transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants expressing the GFP-based Ca^{2+} sensor GCaMP3 (Tian et al., 2009), we were able to show that aphid probing of epidermal and mesophyll cells elicits rapid and highly localised $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations around aphid feeding sites. We found that these $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations depend on *BAK1*, *GLR3.3/GLR3.6* and *TPC1*, indicating that $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ is produced as part of a cellular PTI response and is then propagated via the influx of extracellular and vacuolar Ca^{2+} and interplay between Ca^{2+} -permeable channels.

RESULTS

Aphids elicit rapid and highly-localised $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations in Arabidopsis

Although other single wavelength Ca^{2+} sensors have been used in plants, including Case12 (Zhu et al., 2010) and RGECO (Keniath et al., 2015), we chose to apply GCaMP3, a Ca^{2+} -responsive probe that combines a large dynamic range, photostability, and compatibility with standard GFP-based imaging equipment (Tian et al., 2009). In addition, the assay for imaging calcium dynamics around aphid feeding requires relatively low magnification to capture the final feeding site selected by the insect without disturbing (moving) the sample. We have found the ease of detection and compatibility with the stereo-fluorescence microscopy makes this probe superior for these assays when compared to, e.g., the ratiometric yellowameleon Ca^{2+} sensors (e.g., Choi et al., 2014) that need more sophisticated ratio imaging equipment such as a confocal microscope for accurate quantification.

To assess whether $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations are seen in 35S:GCaMP3 Arabidopsis plants during *M. persicae* feeding, a single leaf assay was developed. This assay was set up by detaching leaves from 35S:GCaMP3 plants and floating leaves on water inside single wells of a 96-well plate. Because wounding induces Ca^{2+} signals in leaves (Kiep et al., 2015), the single leaves were detached and placed into plates 24 h prior to the start of microscopy experiments to allow wound-induced Ca^{2+} signals to dissipate. The floating leaf assay prevented aphid escape from the wells and allowed standardization of the assay by restricting aphid feeding to the abaxial surface of leaves of similar developmental stages.

Upon transferring a *M. persicae* individual to a 35S:GCaMP3 leaf, a clear increase in GCaMP3 (GFP) fluorescence was observed around the feeding site (Figure 1A; Supplemental Movie 1), which indicated a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ (Tian et al., 2009). This rise was consistent and significantly greater than the fluorescence in equivalent locations on no-aphid control leaves (Figure 1B). Typically, the fluorescence burst was generated within 95 s upon settling of the aphids (Figure 1B, Supplemental Movie 1), with settling defined as an aphid remaining stationary for 5 min. From a total of 33 observations, the average area of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation was $110 \pm 18 \mu m^2$ and the leading wave front of this elevation travelled radially at $5.9 \pm 0.6 \mu m/s$ from its centre. Although variation in the raw GFP fluorescence (F) could be observed between leaves under the microscope (e.g. Supplemental Movie 1, Figure 1A), for quantitative analysis this was accounted for by normalising the GFP fluorescence to the baseline fluorescence before the aphid settled ($\Delta F/F$ – Figure 1B).

The aphid-elicited increase in fluorescence was not detected in regions of the leaf systemic to the feeding site (Figure 2). It has been shown previously that it is possible to detect systemic $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations in detached leaves in response to salt stress (Xiong et al., 2014), suggesting that detachment of leaves does not prohibit the detection of systemic signals. Furthermore, whole plants exposed to aphids also exhibited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations, although a high number of replicates was not possible as it proved to be challenging to track aphid movement on a whole plant (Supplemental Movie 2). By contrast, the detached leaf assay was capable of detecting changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ around the aphid feeding site in a robust and repeatable manner. Indeed, confocal microscopy confirmed that GCaMP fluorescence was present primarily in the cytosol and not within the vacuole,

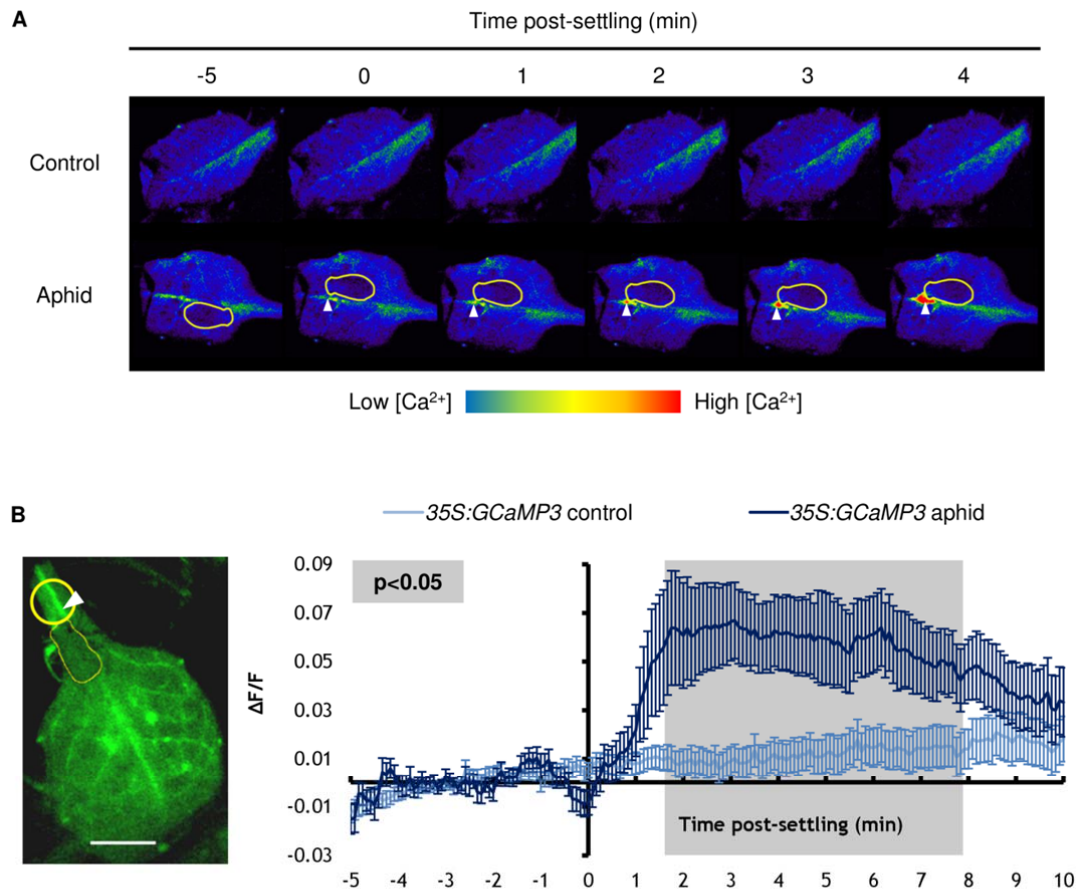


Figure 1. The GCaMP3 sensor detects $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations around the aphid feeding site on detached leaves.

A) Representative stereo-microscope images showing GFP fluorescence (colour coded according to the inset scale) around feeding sites of leaves exposed to a *M. persicae* adult at several time points after aphid settling. Aphid outlined in yellow. Location of feeding site indicated with an arrowhead.

B) Left: stereo-microscope image of a feeding site region (yellow circle) used for the analyses shown on the right (scale bar = 1 mm). Aphid outlined in yellow and location of feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Right: normalised GFP fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) measurements every 5 s around the feeding site from 5 min before until 10 min after settling of an adult aphid. F, average fluorescence intensity prior to aphid settling (baseline); ΔF , difference between measured fluorescence and baseline fluorescence. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean (SEM, $n=34$). The average area of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation was $110 \pm 18 \mu m^2$ and the leading wave front of this elevation travelled radially at $5.9 \pm 0.6 \mu m/s$ from its centre. Grey shading indicates a significant difference between treatments using a Student's t-test within a general linear model (GLM) at $p < 0.05$.

200 although the presence of the GCaMP3 sensor within the nucleus could not be
201 excluded (Supplemental Figure 1).

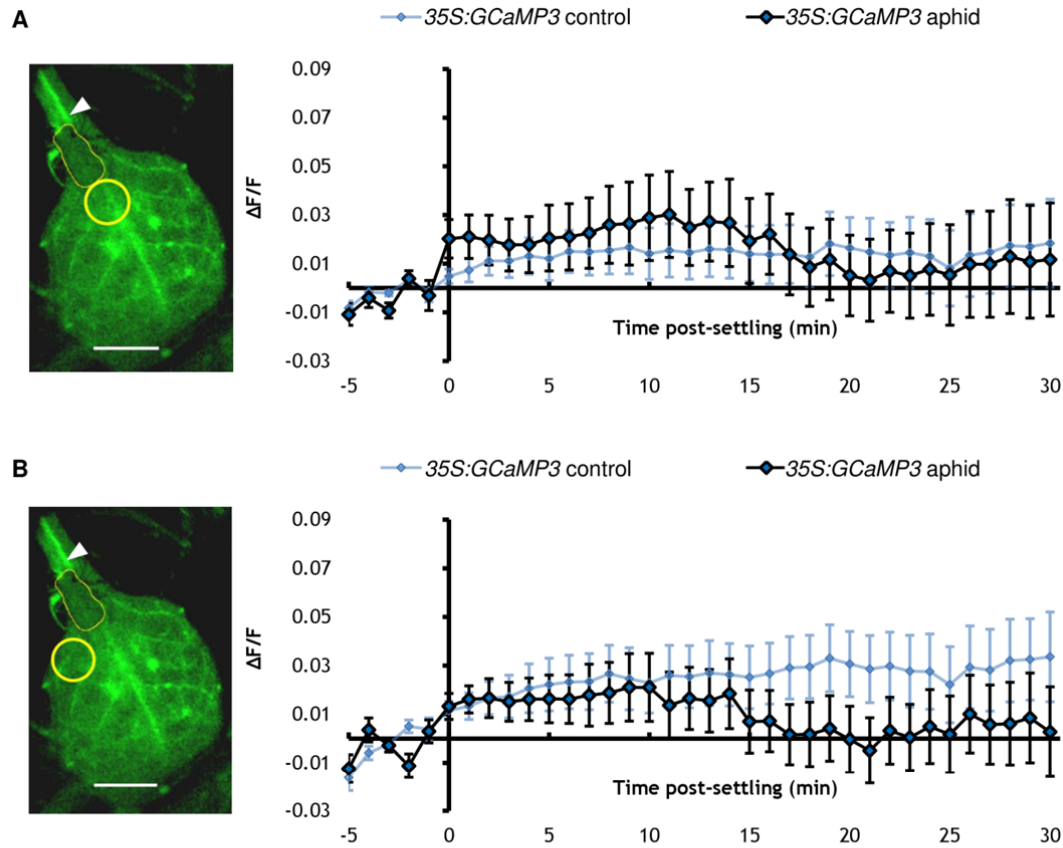


Figure 2. The GCaMP3 sensor does not detect $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations systemic to the aphid-feeding site.

A) Left: stereo-microscope image of a leaf exposed to an aphid with the yellow circle indicating the midrib region systemic to the feeding site (arrowhead) of an aphid (outlined in yellow). Scale bar = 1 mm. Right: $\Delta F/F$ at midrib regions systemic to the aphid feeding sites (as exemplified with the yellow circle in the image on the left) of $35S:GCaMP3$ leaves exposed to *M. persicae* adults and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=34). Data from aphid responding leaves are not significantly different from controls (Student's t-test within a GLM, $p > 0.05$).

B) Left: stereo-microscope image of a leaf exposed to an aphid with the yellow circle indicating the lateral tissue regions (next to the midrib) systemic to the feeding site (arrowhead) of an aphid (outlined in yellow). Right: $\Delta F/F$ at lateral tissue regions systemic to the aphid-feeding sites (as exemplified with the yellow circle in the image on the left) of $35S:GCaMP3$ leaves exposed to *M. persicae* adults and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=34). Data from aphid responding leaves are not significantly different from controls (Student's t-test within a GLM, $p > 0.05$).

Aphid-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations occur during probing of the epidermal and mesophyll cells

To investigate where the aphid stylets induce plant $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations, the aphid stylet behaviour was monitored using the Electrical Penetration Graph (EPG) technique (Tjallingii, 1978; Salvador-Recatala and Tjallingii, 2015). In this technique, the stylet penetrations of epidermal and mesophyll cells during the pathway phase versus the phloem feeding phase can be monitored as distinct changes in voltage output (Figure 3). From 22 observations on soil-grown plants, the first cell punctures occurred at 31 ± 11 s after the beginning of the pathway phase, with the phloem being accessed after 24 ± 3 min (Figure 3A). An adapted version of the EPG technique to assess feeding behaviour on detached *35S:GCaMP3* leaves floating in water showed that the timing of the pathway and phloem feeding phases of aphids on detached *35S:GCaMP3* leaves were comparable to those of soil-grown Col-0 plants, with the pathway phase lasting for 15-25 min (Figure 3B). In both EPG assays, the pathway phases began very rapidly upon aphid settling (Figure 3) and within the timeframe of the aphid-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation (Figure 1B). Thus, the aphid-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations mostly likely occur during the pathway phase when the aphid stylets probe epidermal and mesophyll cells.

Ca^{2+} is hypothesised to play a role in the phloem during plant-aphid interactions (Will et al., 2007). To investigate whether an aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation occurs in the phloem, the *GCaMP3* sensor was expressed under control of the *SUCROSE-PROTON SYMPORTER 2 (SUC2pro)* promoter (Stadler and Sauer, 1996). In contrast to the *35S:GCaMP3* leaves, *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* leaves did not show aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations, though there was a gradual increase in

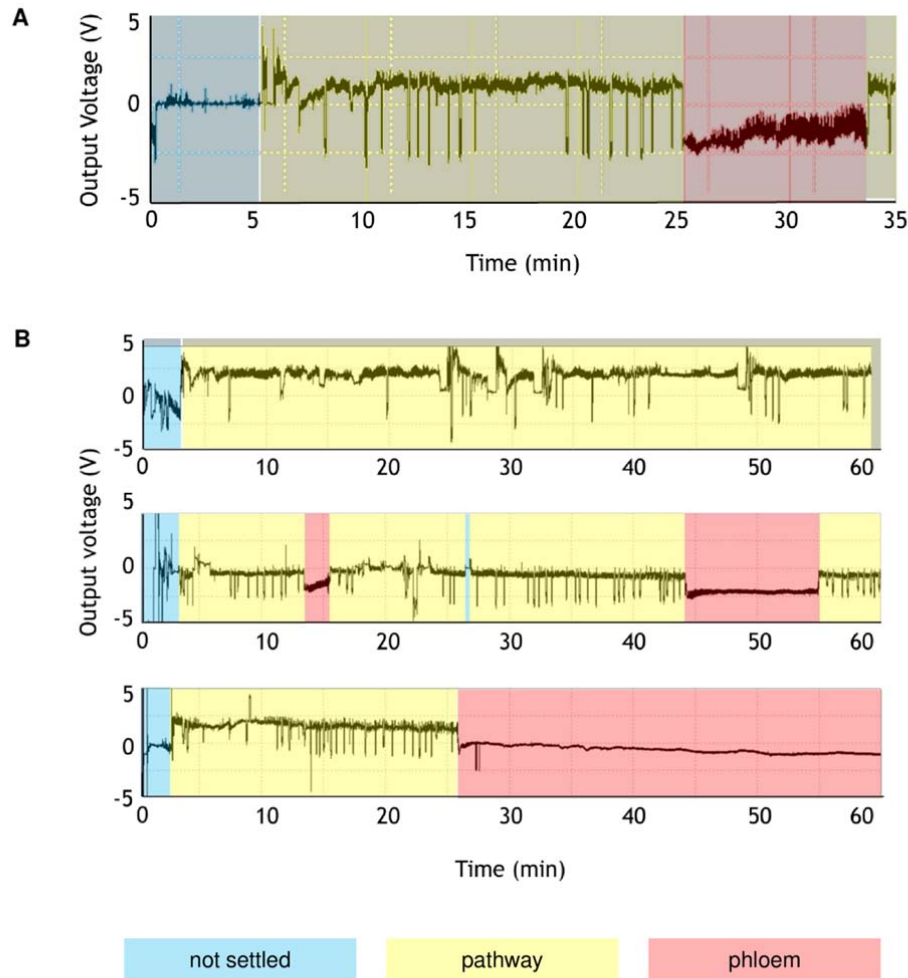


Figure 3. The pathway phase that includes aphid probing of epidermal and mesophyll cells starts immediately upon aphid settling.

Feeding phases represented by coloured shading.

A) Representative EPG trace from an aphid feeding on a whole Col-0 Arabidopsis plant. The first cell puncture occurred at 31 ± 11 s after the beginning of pathway phase, with the phloem accessed after 24 ± 3 min ($n=22$).

B) Representative EPG traces from aphids feeding on detached *35S:GCaMP3* leaves ($n=6$).

228 fluorescence over time that occurred independently of the presence of aphids
229 (Figure 4, Supplemental Movie 3). In addition, cold shock is a well-characterised

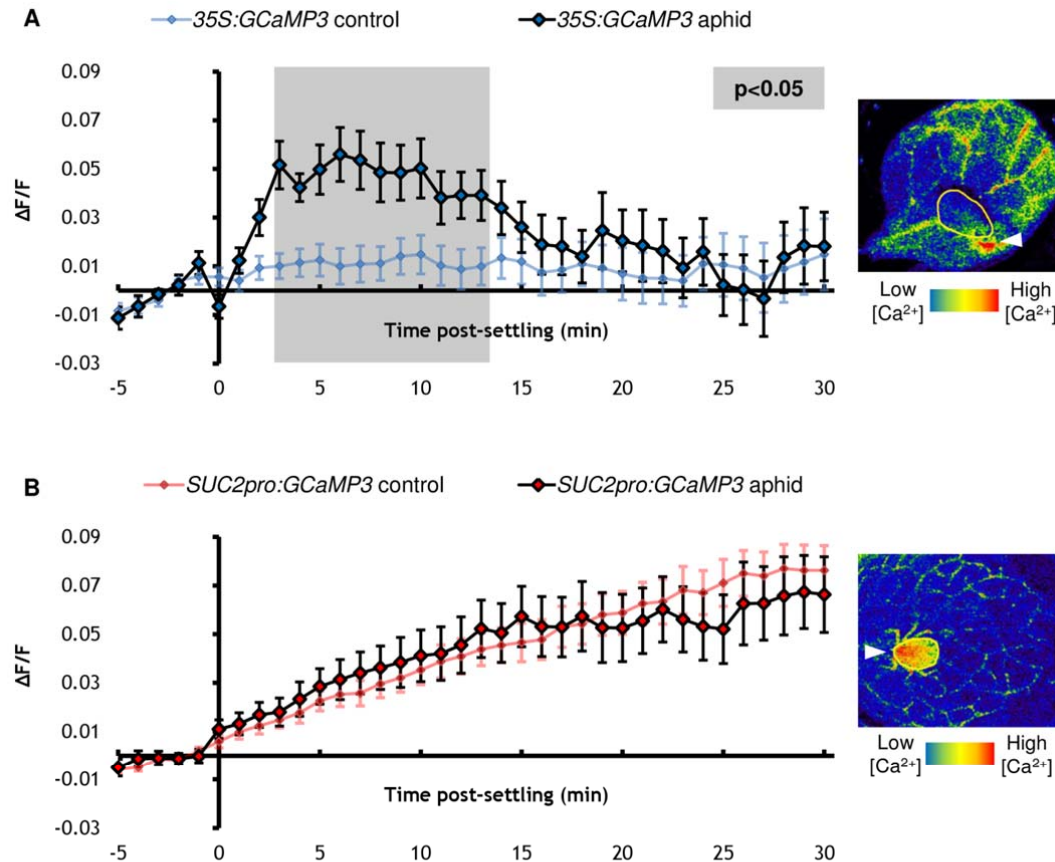


Figure 4. $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations are not detected in the phloem around aphid feeding sites.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around aphid-feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM ($n=31$). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p<0.05$). Right: representative stereo microscope image of a $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around an aphid-feeding site on a *35S:GCaMP3* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 3 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around the aphid-feeding sites of *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM ($n=34$). Right: representative stereo microscope image of the absence of $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation around an aphid-feeding site on a *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 3 min post-settling.

230 elicitor of Ca^{2+} signals in plants (Knight et al., 1996; Knight and Knight, 2000; Kiegle
231 et al., 2000). Therefore, to confirm that the *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* construct was

capable of reporting changes in phloem Ca^{2+} dynamics, *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* leaves were treated with cold water (Knight et al., 1996; Knight and Knight, 2000; Kiegle et al., 2000) and showed a clear increase in GFP fluorescence (Supplemental Movie 4). Thus, it does not appear that *M. persicae* elicits $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations in the Arabidopsis phloem.

Aphid elicitation of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ is dependent on BAK1 and GLR3.3/GLR3.6

BAK1 is a defence co-receptor required for PTI against microbes (Chinchilla et al., 2007; Heese et al., 2007) and aphids (Prince et al., 2014; Chaudhary et al., 2014). Thus, to establish whether the aphid-elicited $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevation is a component of PTI, *35S:GCaMP3*-expressing plants were crossed with the *BAK1* null mutant *bak1-5*. The *bak1-5* mutant was selected as it displays defects in immune signalling, but not in brassinosteroid signalling as seen with other *BAK1* mutants (Schwessinger et al., 2011). Whereas *35S:GCaMP3* leaves exhibited the characteristic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations around aphid feeding site (Figure 5A), these $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations were abolished in leaves of *35S:GCaMP3* x *bak1-5* line (Figure 5B, Figure 5C, Supplemental Movie 5). Thus, BAK1 is required for inducing $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations around aphid feeding sites.

The plasma membrane cation-permeable channels *GLR3.3* and *GLR3.6* have recently been implicated in the Arabidopsis wound response, with systemic electrical signals migrating via the phloem being attenuated in the *GLR* double mutant *glr3.3 glr3.6* (Mousavi et al., 2013). To investigate if these channels also have a role in the more local systemic spread around the aphid feeding sites, we generated a *35S:GCaMP3* x *glr3.3 glr3.6* line. The aphid-induced $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevation was also

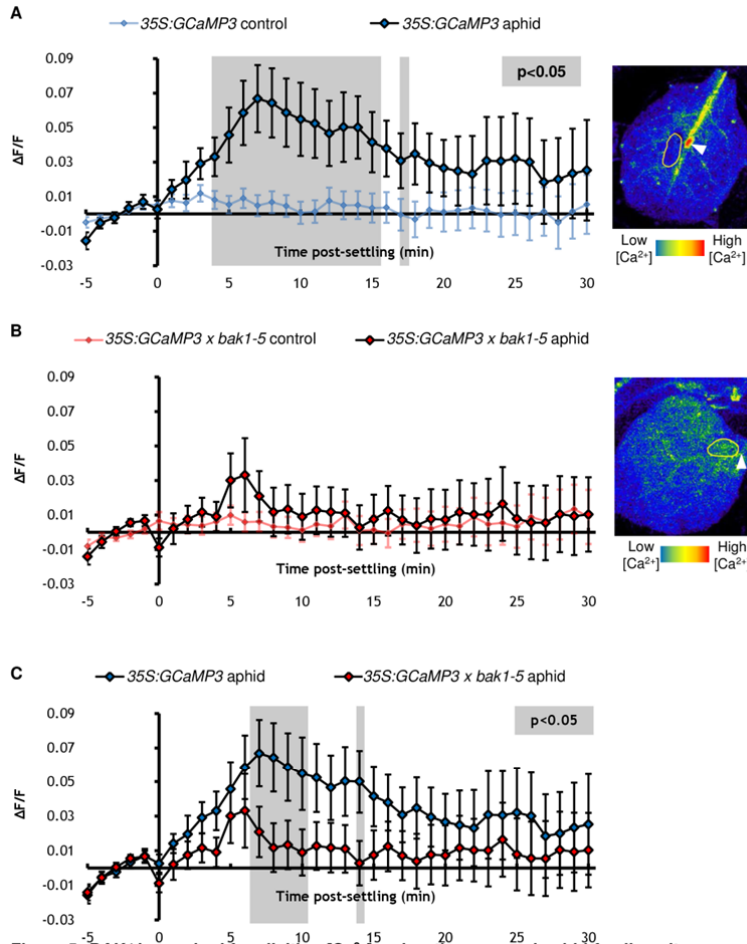


Figure 5. *BAK1* is required for eliciting $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations around aphid-feeding sites.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=30). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around an aphid-feeding site of a *35S:GCaMP3* leaf. GFP fluorescence colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 2 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3 x bak1-5* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=34). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the absence of $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation around an aphid-feeding site of a *35S:GCaMP3 x bak1-5* leaf. GFP fluorescence colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 2 min post-settling.

C) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3* and *35S:GCaMP3 x bak1-5* leaves. Data of aphid exposures shown in panels A and B were replotted together. Areas shaded in grey indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$).

257 abolished in this line (Figure 6, Supplemental Movie 6). These data indicate that
 258 *GLR3.3* and *GLR3.6* are required for inducing $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations around aphid

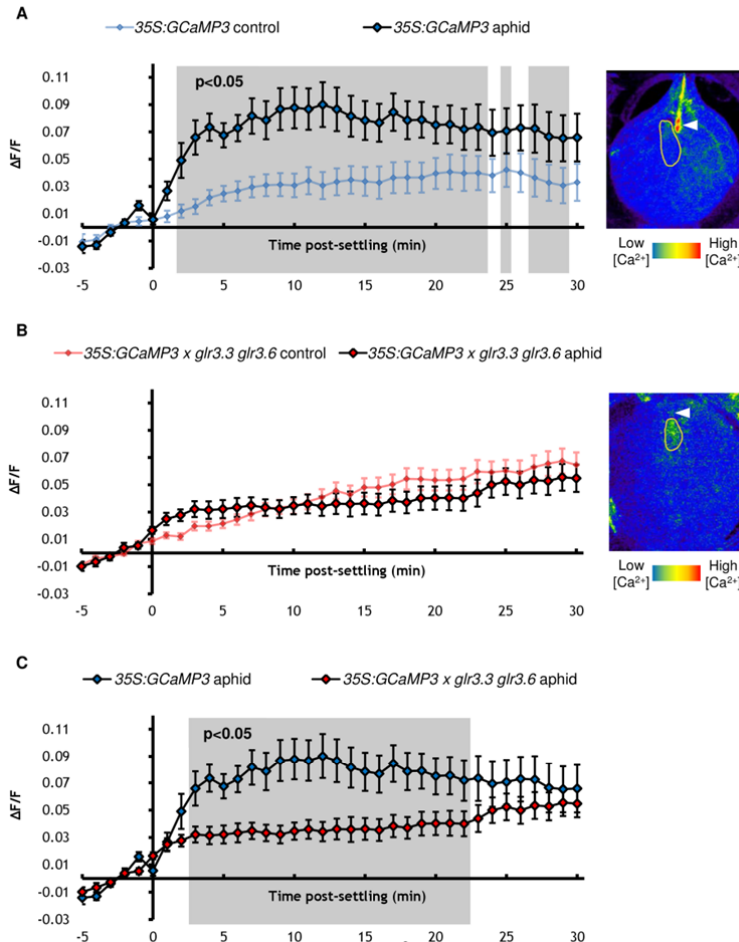


Figure 6. *GLR3.3* and *GLR3.6* are required for $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations elicited around aphid-feeding sites.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM ($n=34$). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p<0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations seen around an aphid-feeding of a *35S:GCaMP3* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 3 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3 x glr3.3 glr3.6* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM ($n=37$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the absence $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation around an aphid-feeding site of a *35S:GCaMP3 x glr3.3 glr3.6* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 3 min post-settling.

C) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3* and *35S:GCaMP3 x glr3.3 glr3.6* leaves. Data of aphid exposures shown in panels A and B were replotted together. Areas shaded in grey indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p<0.05$).

259 feeding sites.

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TPC1 contributes to the aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation

TPC1 has been implicated in Ca^{2+} signalling during insect attack, with local and systemic wound-induced Ca^{2+} signals lost in the *tpc1-2* mutant (Kiep et al., 2015). To assess whether *TPC1* plays a role in aphid-induced Ca^{2+} signalling, *GCaMP3* was introduced into the *tpc1-2* mutant and the *35S:TPC1 5.6* over-expression line (Peiter et al., 2005). In comparison to *35S:GCaMP3* (Figure 7A), the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations around the aphid-feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3* x *tpc1-2* leaves were significantly reduced, though not totally abolished (Figure 7B, Figure 7C, Supplemental Movie 7), implying that intracellular Ca^{2+} is involved in the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations. Overexpression of *TPC1* had no effect on the initial phases of $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation, though the elevation was significantly extended beyond 25 min in a non-aphid-specific manner (Figure 8, Supplemental Movie 8).

Over-activation of TPC1 results in systemic $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations and decreased aphid fecundity

Over-activation of TPC1 can be achieved via the *fatty acid oxygenation upregulated 2 (fou2)* mutation that results in enhanced TPC1 channel opening (Bonaventure et al., 2007a). *35S:GCaMP3* x *fou2* leaves showed unchanged $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations around *M. persicae* feeding sites (Figure 9A). However, $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations in leaf tissue systemic to the aphid-feeding sites were detected and these elevations were significantly higher than those observed in *35S:GCaMP3* leaves (Figure 9B, Figure 9C, Supplemental Movie 9).

To determine whether the feeding site $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation had an effect on aphid fitness, the number of progeny produced by *M. persicae* (fecundity) was

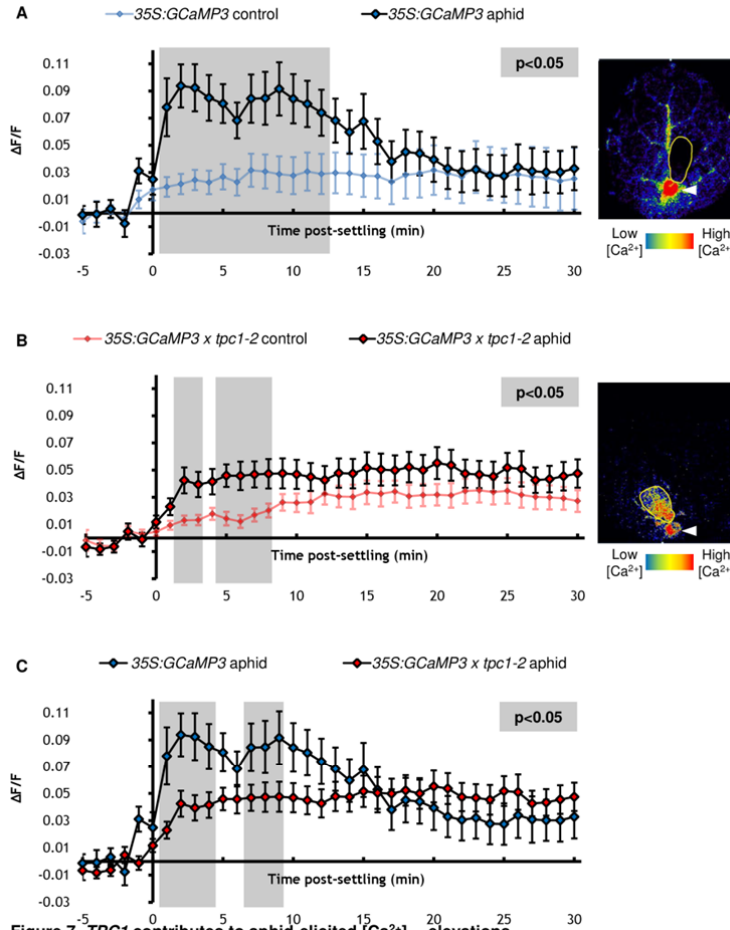


Figure 7. *TPC1* contributes to aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM ($n=27$). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p<0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around a feeding site of a 35S:GCaMP3 leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken 1 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 $\times$ *tpc1-2* leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM ($n=29$). Grey shaded areas indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p<0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the reduction in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around a feeding site of a 35S:GCaMP3 $\times$ *tpc1-2* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken 2 min post-settling.

C) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 and 35S:GCaMP3 $\times$ *tpc1-2* leaves. Data of aphid exposures shown in panels A and B were replotted together. Areas shaded in grey indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p<0.05$).

286 assessed. *M. persicae* fecundity was unaltered on the *glr3.3 glr3.6* mutant (Figure
287 10A) the *tpc1-2* mutant (Figure 10B) and the 35S:*TPC1* 5.6 line (Figure 10C). *M.*

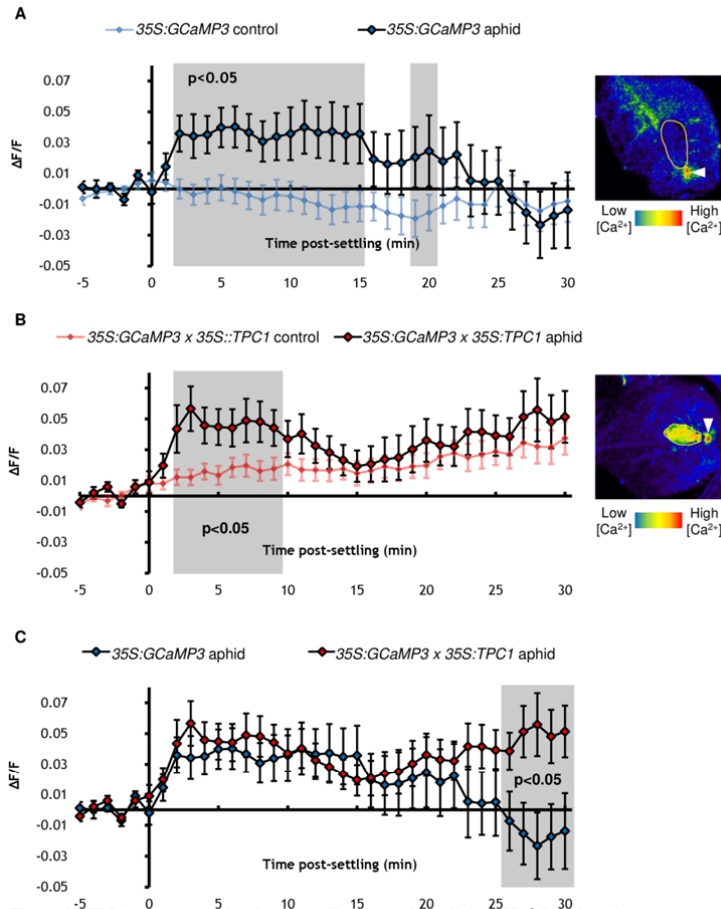


Figure 8. *TPC1* overexpression has no effect on aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM ($n=30$). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around a feeding site of a 35S:GCaMP3 leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken 6 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 x 35S::TPC1 5.6 leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM ($n=29$). Grey shaded areas indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around a feeding site of a 35S:GCaMP3 x 35S::TPC1 5.6 leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken 5 min post-settling.

C) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 and 35S:GCaMP3 x 35S::TPC1 5.6 leaves. Data of aphid exposures shown in panels A and B were replotted together. Areas shaded in grey indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$).

288 *persicae* fecundity on the *bak1-5* mutant has been assessed previously and is also
 289 not significantly different from wild type (Prince et al., 2014). However, the *fou2*

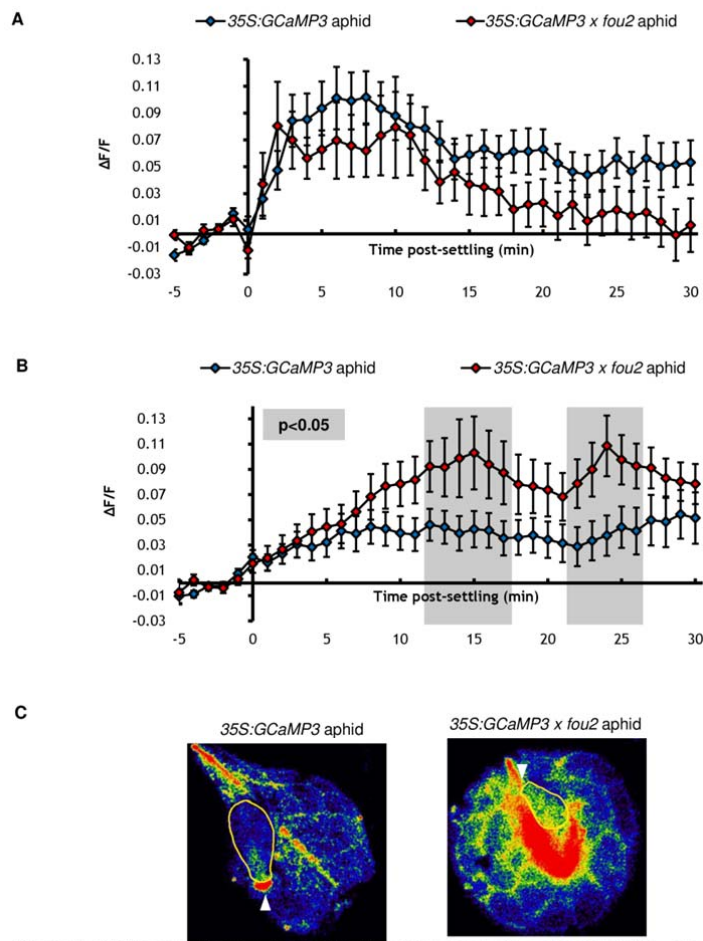


Figure 9. *TPC1* over-activation (in the *fou2* mutant) results in systemic $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations in response to aphid feeding.

A) Comparison of normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3* and aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3 x fou2* leaves. Error bars represent SEM (*35S:GCaMP3* n=28, *35S:GCaMP3 x fou2* n=25).

B) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around systemic lateral tissue sites of aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3* and aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3 x fou2* leaves. Error bars represent SEM (*35S:GCaMP3* n=28, *35S:GCaMP3 x fou2* n=25). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p<0.05$).

C) Representative stereo-microscope images of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations seen in *35S:GCaMP3* (left) *35S:GCaMP3 x fou2* (right) leaves exposed to *M. persicae*. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image on left taken at 2 min post-settling, image on right taken at 10 min post-settling.

290 mutation resulted in a significant reduction in *M. persicae* fecundity (Figure 10D).
 291 Interestingly, when the *fou2* mutant was crossed with the jasmonic acid (JA)

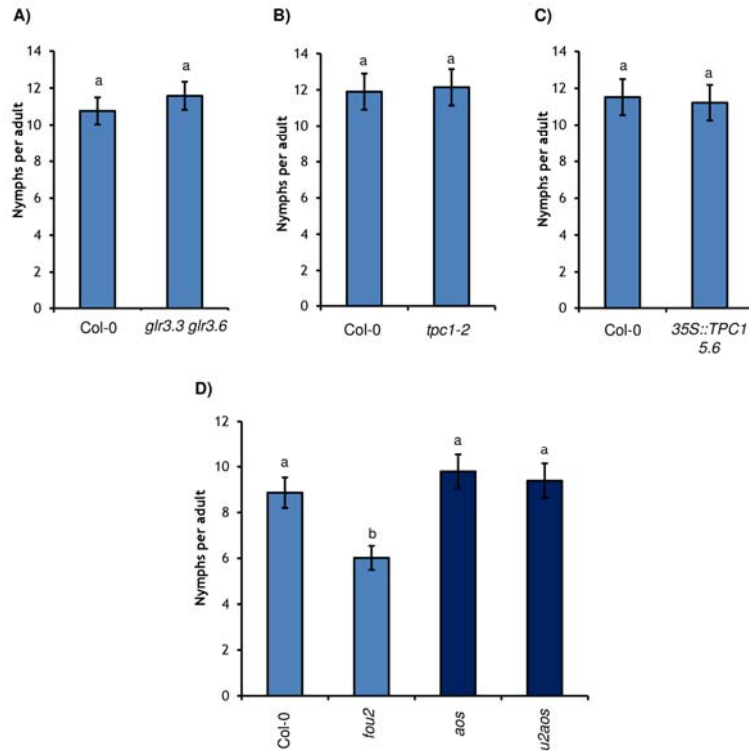


Figure 10. Aphid fecundity is reduced by TPC1 over-activation (*fou2*), but not by altering the expression of *TPC1* or abolishing transcription of *GLR3.3/3.6*.
M. persicae fecundity quantified by the total number of progeny produced per adult over 14 days. Letters indicate significant difference between genotypes (Student's t-test within GLM, $p < 0.05$).

A) Fecundity is not altered on the *glr3.3 glr3.6* mutant. Bars represent SEM (n=24).

B) Fecundity is not altered on the *tpc1-2* mutant. Bars represent SEM (n=12).

C) Fecundity is not altered on the *35S::TPC1 5.6* line. Bars represent SEM (n=12).

D) Fecundity is significantly reduced on the *fou2* mutant, and can be rescued on the *fou2 aos* double mutant. Bars represent SEM (n=16).

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292 synthesis mutant *allene oxide synthase* (*aos*) (Park et al., 2002), the *M. persicae*
 293 fecundity was similar to that of wild-type plants (Figure 10D), indicating that the

294 documented increase in JA synthesis in the *fou2* mutant (Bonaventure et al., 2007a)
295 is responsible for the decline in *M. persicae* fecundity. Aphid feeding behaviour was
296 also assessed using EPG on the *bak1-5*, *tpc1-2* and *35S:TPC1* 5.6 lines
297 (Supplemental Data Set 1), with few differences found between genotypes.

298

299

DISCUSSION

To date, the majority of studies dissecting the genetic components involved in plant biotic $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations have been conducted by application of elicitors to leaf sections, wounding of leaves via tweezers or application of chewing insects - all treatments that typically involve exposure of large number of cells to elicitation. Here, we elucidated the genetic components involved in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations upon plant perception of a piercing-sucking insect that attacks only a small number of epidermal and mesophyll cells within a leaf, as outlined in Figure 11. Aphids trigger $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations during probing of epidermal and mesophyll cells. These $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations are dependent on *BAK1* and *GLR3.3/GLR3.6*, which are key regulators of PTI and import of extracellular Ca^{2+} into the plant cell cytoplasm, respectively (Chinchilla et al., 2007; Tapken and Hollmann, 2008; Vincill et al., 2012). Furthermore, this study has revealed the role of an endomembrane channel, TPC1, in this interaction and provides evidence for the role of TPC1 in Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release (Allen and Sanders, 1996; Ward and Schroeder, 1994). In accord with this interpretation, $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations were amplified in the *fou2* mutant, which has an overactive TPC1 channel (Bonaventure et al., 2007a; Bonaventure et al., 2007b), and this resulted in *M. persicae* producing less progeny, implying that TPC1 plays a role in plant immunity.

The dependence of the aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation on *BAK1* clearly demonstrates that this response forms part of PTI. Whilst wounding during herbivory by chewing insects is sufficient to induce Ca^{2+} signalling (Maffei et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2012; Kiep et al., 2015), aphids probe only a small number of cells (Will and van Bel, 2006), and thus are more comparable to microbial pathogens. Indeed, *BAK1* is

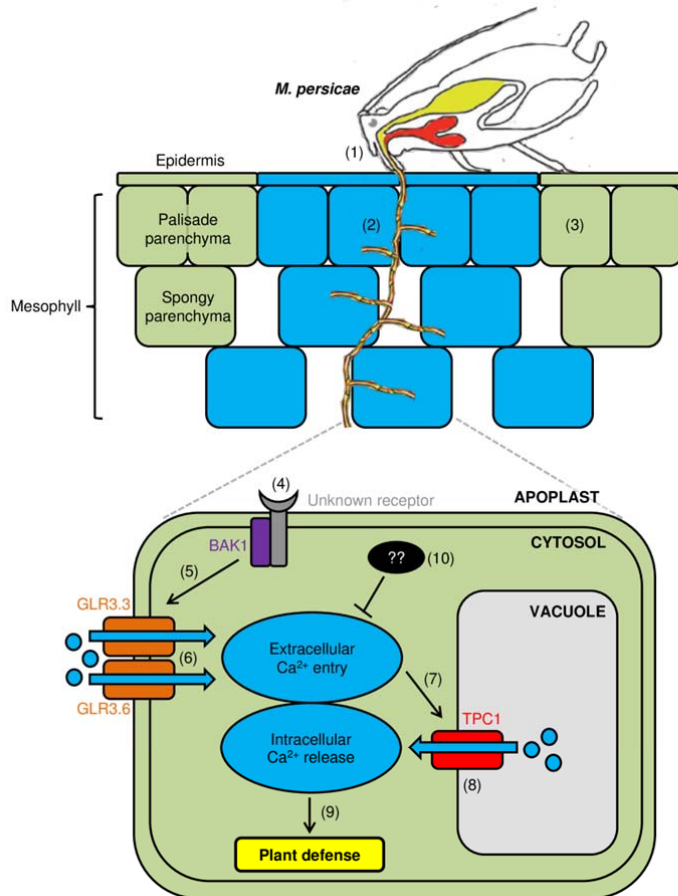


Figure 11. Proposed model of Ca^{2+} release during *M. persicae* feeding.

Aphid image taken from Hogenhout and Bos (2011). (1) Aphids typically probe epidermal and mesophyll cell layers within 31 s of the start of feeding. (2) An aphid-induced $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevation can be detected around the feeding site within 95 s of settling that spreads to adjacent cells. (3) This $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevation is not detected systemically beyond the feeding site. (4) BAK1 and an unknown receptor (PRR) perceive aphid herbivore-associated molecular patterns (HAMPs) (Prince et al., 2014). (5) Perception of aphid HAMPs by BAK1 leads to activation of GLR3.3/GLR3.6, potentially through the release of glutamate (Chiu et al., 2002, Qi et al., 2006, Forde and Lea, 2007, Stephens et al., 2008). (6) GLR3.3/GLR3.6 mediate extracellular Ca^{2+} influx into the cell (Tapken and Hollmann, 2008, Vincill et al., 2012). (7) The increase in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ results in activation of TPC1 (Hedrich and Neher, 1987, Ward and Schroeder, 1994). (8) TPC1, either directly or indirectly mediates release of intracellular Ca^{2+} from the vacuole (Peiter et al., 2005). (9) The increase in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ may result in the activation of plant immunity against aphids, which can be enhanced by over-activation of TPC1. (10) During compatible interactions, such as that between Arabidopsis and *M. persicae*, the aphid suppresses plant immunity using effectors (Bos et al., 2010, Mugford et al., 2016), which might also suppresses $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations.

325 an essential component of PTI against microbial pathogens (Chinchilla et al., 2007;
326 Heese et al., 2007) and aphids (Prince et al., 2014; Chaudhary et al., 2014). Several

plasma membrane PRRs that interact with *BAK1* have been implicated in Ca^{2+} release during plant-microbe interactions, including CERK1, FLS2, EFR, and PEPR1 (Miya et al., 2007; Jeworutzki et al., 2010; Qi et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2012). Elicitors that are detected by such PRRs, including chitin, flg22, elf18 and Pep3 all induce rapid $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations in Arabidopsis leaves within 2-3 mins (Ranf et al., 2008; Ma et al., 2012; Keinath et al., 2015), comparable to the rapid elevations seen in response to aphid feeding. Whilst GroEL from the aphid endosymbiont *Buchnera aphidicola* has been identified as the aphid elicitor of BAK1-mediated PTI (Chaudhary et al., 2014), CERK1, FLS2, EFR and PEPR1 are not involved (Prince et al., 2014). Our study provides direct, *in vivo* evidence of the involvement of BAK1 in PTI $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations that are unlikely to be the result of wounding, and implicates the involvement of an as-yet unknown PRR in mediating these elevations.

Plant $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations are observed in a larger area than the small number of cells directly probed by the aphid stylets (Tjallingii, 1985; Tjallingii and Esch, 1993) and can be detected within 95 s of aphid settling, suggesting that $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations spread within the epidermal and mesophyll cells upon perception of aphid feeding. However, the highly localised spread of the feeding site $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevation in the epidermal and mesophyll cells is significantly different from the systemic, phloem-based signals seen in response to wounding and herbivory (Mousavi et al., 2013; Kiep et al., 2015). In addition, the 6 $\mu\text{m/s}$ speed of the Ca^{2+} spread is significantly slower than the systemically-propagating Ca^{2+} signals in roots during salt stress, or the electrical signals within leaves during wounding, both of which travel at around 400 $\mu\text{m/s}$ (Choi et al., 2014; Mousavi et al., 2013). Indeed, a phloem-based signal is required for systemic spread (Mousavi et al., 2013; Kiep et al., 2015), and this might

explain the lack of long-distance systemic $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations in response to aphids. Agreeing with this, *M. persicae* feeding fails to prime systemic defences in *Arabidopsis* (Zhang et al., 2015), unlike microbial pathogens (Traw et al., 2007; Conrath, 2011). This lack of response suggests that the aphid might be actively suppressing systemic signalling, as seen with caterpillars (Kiep et al., 2015). Taken together, our data describe a $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation that spreads outside of the phloem, in the epidermal and mesophyll cells upon perception of a biotic threat.

GLR3.3 and *GLR 3.6* are also required for the aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations to occur, establishing the apoplast as a source of the Ca^{2+} released during detrimental biotic interactions. An influx of Ca^{2+} from the extracellular space can be observed during plant-microbe interactions (Gelli et al., 1997; Blume et al., 2000) that can be blocked by plasma membrane channel inhibitors (Zimmermann et al., 1997; Lecourieux et al., 2002; Lecourieux et al., 2005). In addition, a net Ca^{2+} efflux from the extracellular space of tobacco leaf disks was recently measured after *M. persicae* feeding using Ca^{2+} -selective microelectrodes (Ren et al., 2014). *GLR3.3* and *GLR3.6* have been implicated in systemic electrical signalling during wounding (Mousavi et al., 2013; Salvador-Recatala, 2016), and *GLR3.3* regulates damage perception during oomycete infection (Manzoor et al., 2013). However, given the involvement of *BAK1* in the *M. persicae*-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation, it is likely that the GLRs are acting as a part of PTI during plant-aphid interactions. Indeed, GLRs have been implicated in PAMP perception, with iGluR (mammalian GLR homologues) inhibitors attenuating flg22- elf18- and chitin-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations (Kwaaitaal et al., 2011). Interestingly, it is possible that glutamate itself is a GLR-activating ligand (Chiu et al., 2002; Qi et al., 2006; Forde and Lea, 2007; Stephens et al.,

2008). The fungal PAMP cryptogein can elicit an extracellular rise in glutamate and $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ that is driven by exocytosis (Vatsa et al., 2011), suggesting that glutamate release from the cell is downstream of PAMP perception (Weiland et al., 2016). This might provide a mechanism by which BAK1-mediated glutamate release could stimulate GLR activation. However, to our knowledge no direct link between BAK1 and glutamate release has yet been established. Our current findings demonstrate a role for the GLRs in local Ca^{2+} signalling and directly identify GLRs as a mechanism leading to of $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations during biotic interactions.

A long-standing question regarding Ca^{2+} signalling in plants relates to the way in which various Ca^{2+} release pathways interact to produce stimulus-specific signatures. The nature of the interplay of plasma membrane and endomembrane Ca^{2+} release channels has been particularly opaque. It has been hypothesised that *TPC1*, which mediates release of Ca^{2+} from the lumen of the vacuole into the cell cytoplasm (Ward and Schroeder, 1994; Peiter et al., 2005), contributes to Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release (Ward and Schroeder, 1994; Allen and Sanders, 1996). Since the feeding site $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations are attenuated, but not abolished in the *tpc1-2* mutant, it appears that release of vacuolar Ca^{2+} by *TPC1* is downstream of and dependent on extracellular Ca^{2+} release by the GLRs. This finding agrees with work showing that *TPC1* activity is positively regulated by $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ (Hedrich and Neher, 1987; Ward and Schroeder, 1994; Allen and Sanders, 1996; Guo et al., 2016; Kintzer and Stroud, 2016) and plays a role in systemically-propagating Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release (Dubiella et al., 2013; Evans et al., 2016; Gilroy et al., 2016; Choi et al., 2016). Consequently, *TPC1* appears to be activated by GLR-mediated Ca^{2+} influx and involved in the cell-to-cell spread of Ca^{2+} during biotic interactions. Moreover,

mature sieve elements do not contain vacuoles (Esau, 1977), supporting our conclusion that the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations do not occur in the phloem, and Arabidopsis spongy mesophyll cells contain a higher $[Ca^{2+}]_{vac}$ than most other cell types (Conn et al., 2011a; Conn et al., 2011b), making them a significant source of Ca^{2+} influx. Importantly, mesophyll $[Ca^{2+}]_{vac}$ is not significantly altered in *tpc1-2* (Gilliham et al., 2011) and consequently the reduced Ca^{2+} burst in the *tpc1-2* mutant is not related to reduced vacuolar storage of Ca^{2+} . Thus, we have identified a role for *TPC1* in Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release during biotic interactions, contributing to the growing body of evidence demonstrating the biological relevance of this channel in plants.

Despite the role of *BAK1*, *GLR3.3*, *GLR3.6*, and *TPC1* in generating the aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations and the established role of *BAK1* and Ca^{2+} in PTI (Blume et al., 2000; Lecourieux et al., 2005; Keinath et al., 2015), abolishing transcription of these genes had no effect on *M. persicae* performance. Downstream of aphid perception by *BAK1*, hallmarks of PTI such as ROS production, callose deposition, and the expression of defence marker genes occur (Prince et al., 2014; Chaudhary et al., 2014). Furthermore, *BAK1* is required for plants to prime defence against *M. persicae* after prior exposure to aphids (Prince et al., 2014). Despite this, *M. persicae* fecundity is unaltered on the *bak1-5* mutant (Prince et al., 2014), as seen for the *glr3.3 glr3.6* or *tpc1-2* mutants in this study. Aphid feeding behaviour was also largely unaltered on the *bak1-5* and *tpc1-2* mutants, indicating that the differences in the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations observed in these mutants was not the result of altered feeding behaviour. We therefore suggest that since *M. persicae* can feed successfully from Arabidopsis, plant immunity is already being sufficiently suppressed. As a result, there is no capacity to increase plant susceptibility to the aphid by

disrupting Ca^{2+} signalling. The suppression of Arabidopsis defence by aphids is achieved via effector proteins (Bos et al., 2010; Hogenhout and Bos, 2011; Pitino and Hogenhout, 2013; Atamian et al., 2013; Elzinga et al., 2014; Naessens et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Kettles and Kaloshian, 2016) that are injected into epidermal and mesophyll cells during feeding (Martin et al., 1997; Moreno et al., 2011; Mugford et al., 2016). These effectors may actively suppress the feeding site $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations, as aphid saliva contains Ca^{2+} binding proteins (Will et al., 2007; Carolan et al., 2009; Rao et al., 2013). Accordingly, the $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations observed in response to *M. persicae* are not sufficient to activate additional defence, adding to a growing body of evidence showing that this insect is a highly adapted plant pest.

In agreement with the hypothesis that Ca^{2+} signalling forms part of the plant defence response, which *M. persicae* may be suppressing, enhancement of the feeding site $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations was detrimental to the aphids. Over-activation of *TPC1* via the *fou2* mutation resulted in the generation of systemic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ signals not seen in wild-type plants, and significantly reduced aphid fecundity. These observations fit with the understanding that *TPC1* is regulated post-transcriptionally (Gfeller et al., 2011) and is involved in systemic Ca^{2+} signalling (Choi et al., 2014; Kiep et al., 2015), and that the *fou2* mutation is detrimental to the specialist aphid *Brevicoryne brassicae* (Kusnierczyk et al., 2011). Given the lack of a phenotype in the *TPC1* overexpression line, these data also imply that the voltage sensitivity of *TPC1* is more important than protein abundance in biotic interactions. Furthermore, this result suggests that *in vivo* there is a role for changes in the trans-tonoplast voltage to regulate vacuolar Ca^{2+} release and aphid defence responses. The detrimental effect of the *fou2* mutation on *M. persicae* was dependent on JA

production by AOS, in accord with the upregulation of JA and JA-related transcripts in the *fou2* mutant (Bonaventure et al., 2007a; Bonaventure et al., 2007b). The involvement of JA in aphid–plant interactions is unclear, with some reporting an effect of JA on aphids (Ellis et al., 2002) and others not (Staswick et al., 1992; Kusnierczyk et al., 2011; Kettles et al., 2013). Furthermore, the activation of systemic $[Ca^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ elevations in the *fou2* mutant suggests that systemic spread of the signal via Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release might lead to activation of defence, and that aphid suppression of this is based on restricting these signals to a small area. Thus, our data suggest that over-activation of Ca^{2+} signalling is a potential mechanism by which to increase plant resistance to pests.

METHODS

Arabidopsis growth

Plants used in the microscopy and single leaf EPG were grown on 100 mm² square plastic plates (R & L Slaughter Ltd, Upminster, UK) on ¼ strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium (recipe: 1.1 g Murashige and Skoog medium, 7.5 g sucrose, 10 g Formedium agar, 1 L de-ionised water) (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) and stratified for three days in the dark (8°C). They were then transferred to a controlled environment room (CER) with a 16 h day and 8 h night (90 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ sodium lamp), at a constant temperature of 23°C. Plants were used in experiments at 16-18 days old. Plants for use in fecundity assays and whole-plant EPG were germinated and maintained on Scotts Levington F2 compost (Scotts, Ipswich, UK). Seeds were stratified for one week at 4–6°C before being transferred to a CER for 4–5 weeks, maintained at 22°C and with a photoperiod of 10 h light (90 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ sodium lamp) and 14 h dark.

Aphids

A stock colony of *M. persicae* (clone US1L, Mark Stevens, Brooms Barn) (Bos et al., 2010) was reared continuously on Chinese cabbage (*Brassica rapa*, subspecies *chinensis*) in cages in a 16 h day (90 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ at 22°C), 8 h night (20°C) photoperiod. For use in experiments, *M. persicae* individuals of standardized ages were used. These were produced by placing 5-15 mixed instar adults from the stock colony onto four-week-old Arabidopsis (Col-0) grown in a CER with a 16 h day (90 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ at 22°C) and 9 h night (20°C) photoperiod, in pots (13.5 cm diameter, 9 cm depth) and caged inside clear plastic tubing (10 cm x 15 cm) with a

plastic lid. These adults were removed after 24–48 h, leaving nymphs of the same age for use in later experiments.

Fluorescence microscopy

Leaves from plate-grown plants were detached using sharp scissors, and placed in the wells of a clear 96-well Microtitre™ plate (ThermoFisher Scientific) with 300 µL of distilled water, abaxial surface facing up. These plates were left in the dark at room temperature overnight and used in microscopy the following day. To visualise fluorescence from the 35S:GCaMP3 construct (K_d *in vitro* = 660 ±19 nM, Tian et al., 2009), a Leica M205FA stereo microscope (Leica Microsystems) was used. GFP was excited using a LED light source at 470 nm and fluorescent emission was captured using a 500 - 550 nm emission filter. Images were captured every 5 seconds using a Leica DFC310FX camera with a gain of 3.5 and a constant exposure time (1–2.5 seconds depending on the brightness of the line). The microscope was controlled via Leica Application Suite v3.2.0 (Leica Microsystems). Leaves were imaged in groups of four, two leaves per genotype, at a 7.8 X magnification. One 8–10-day-old aphid was added to a leaf of each genotype, with the other leaf left un-infested as a control. Each leaf represented one biological replicate (n). Images were captured for 50–60 min after aphid application, with the 96-well plate covered in cling film to prevent aphid escape. Images were exported as Tagged Image File Format (TIFF) files for analysis.

Fluorescent signal analysis

TIFF files were imported into Fiji (Image J) v1.48a (National Institutes of Health, USA) and converted into 32-bit images. Fluorescence was analysed over time for various regions of interest (ROIs) using the Fiji plugin Time Series Analyser v2 (University of California, Los Angeles, CA, USA). For aphid treatments, circular ROIs with a 50 pixel (0.65 mm) diameter were selected in three locations: at the feeding site, on the midrib systemic to the aphid feeding site, and in the tissue beside the midrib ('lateral tissue'). $\Delta F/F$ was calculated according to the equation $\Delta F/F = (F - F_0)/F_0$, where F_0 was the average baseline fluorescence calculated from the average of F over the first 60 frames of the recording (Keinath et al., 2015) before the aphid settled. Samples in which the controls showed large $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations ($\Delta F/F > 0.2$) prior to treatment were discarded. The area of the aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations was calculated using the Fiji freehand selection tool to draw around the maximum visible GFP signal. For analysis of the speed of the wave front, the Fiji plugin MTrackJ v 1.5.1 (Meijering et al., 2012) was used. Representative supplemental videos of the aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations were created by converting the raw F values to heat maps using the NucMed_Image LUTs plugin for Fiji (J.A. Parker, IEEE.org), with the feeding site Ca^{2+} burst used to determine the colour scale. Time information was added using the Time Stamper plugin (W. Rasband, National Institutes of Health, USA).

Confocal Microscopy

Confocal images of the GCaMP3 signal were acquired with a laser scanning confocal microscope (LSM780/Elyra, Newcomb Imaging Center, Department of Botany, UW-Madison). GCaMP3 was excited by a 488 nm laser and GFP signal was detected with a 34 element internal GAsP detector.

537

538 **Crossing Arabidopsis**

539 Crossing was conducted with 4-week-old Arabidopsis plants, grown in a CER
540 at a constant temperature of 22°C with a 16 h day (HQI lighting), 8 h night
541 photoperiod. Two unopened buds per stalk were selected and the remaining buds
542 were removed. The sepals, petals and stamens were removed from the selected
543 buds, leaving a single carpel. Stamens from the other crossing partner were
544 dissected and pollen transfer between the two was achieved by brushing the stamen
545 against the carpel of the selected mutant. Dissections were carried out with a pair of
546 sharp tweezers. Pollinated carpels were covered in 74 mm x 41 mm paper bags
547 (Global Polythene, Preston, UK) sealed with tape and allowed to mature.

548

549 **Whole-plant EPG**

550 Experiments were conducted as described previously (Tjallingii, 1978). Adult
551 13-15 day old *M. persicae* were attached to the Giga-8 EPG system (EPG Systems,
552 Wageningen, Netherlands) using 12.5 µm gold wire (EPG Systems) and silver glue
553 (EPG Systems) and then placed on 4-week old Arabidopsis. One aphid was added
554 to each plant and this represented one biological replicate (n). The experiment was
555 contained inside a Faraday cage to minimise electrical interference. Feeding
556 behaviour was recorded for 8 h using Stylet+d (EPG Systems). Each EPG track was
557 then analysed blind in Stylet+a (EPG Systems). The timing of aphid settling relative
558 to the beginning of probing was also documented. Relevant EPG parameters were
559 calculated using the Microsoft Excel spreadsheet developed by Dr Edgar
560 Schliephake (Julius Kuhn Institute, Germany) (Sarria et al., 2009).

561

Single-leaf EPG

Single-leaf EPG was performed using a modified version of the set-up described above. Leaves were dissected from plate-grown plants (grown as detailed the microscopy section) and floated in 300 μ L of water in 96-well plates. A small piece of copper wire was attached to the EPG ground electrode, and this was inserted into the well. Nine-to-eleven-day-old *M. persicae* were then added to these leaves and the experiment was conducted and analysed as outlined above.

Aphid fecundity assay

M. persicae fecundity was assessed as previously described (Pitino et al., 2011). Briefly, five adult aphids from the stock colony were added to each plant at the beginning of the experiment, and after 48 h all adults were removed. After a further 72 h, any excess nymphs were removed, to leave five nymphs per plant. The number of offspring produced by these aphids was counted after 11 and 14 days, as was the final number of adult aphids. Each plant was considered one biological replicate (n).

Statistical analysis

Genstat v18 (VSN International) was used for the majority of statistical analyses. GCaMP3 fluorescence data were assessed using classical linear regression within a General Linear Model (GLM). Pairwise comparisons between treatments at each time point were conducted within this model using Student's t probabilities. Aphid fecundity assays were analysed by a classical linear regression within a GLM using a Poisson distribution. The model took into account the experimental replicates as an additional factor. Pairwise comparisons between

treatments using Student's t probabilities were conducted within this model. EPG data was analysed in R v3.0 (Free Software Foundation, Boston, MA, USA) by comparing behaviours between treatments using a Mann-Whitney U test.

Accession Numbers

Sequence data from this article can be found in the Arabidopsis Genome Initiative or GenBank/EMBL databases under the following accession numbers: ADJ53338.1 (GCaMP3), NC_003075.7 (Two-pore channel 1), NC_003075.7 (BRI1-associated receptor kinase), NC_003070.9 (glutamate receptor 3.3), NC_003074.8 (glutamate receptor 3.6), NC_003070.9 (sucrose-proton symporter 2), and NC_003076.8 (allene oxide synthase).

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Figure 1 (Supports Figure 1). GCaMP3 sub-cellular localization in the epidermis of *35S:GCaMP3* leaves, measured by confocal microscopy.

Supplemental Movie 1 (Supports Figure 1). The GCaMP3 sensor detects aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations in detached leaves.

Supplemental Movie 2 (Supports Figure 2). The GCaMP3 sensor detects $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations around the putative aphid feeding site on leaves of whole Arabidopsis plants.

Supplemental Movie 3 (Supports Figure 4). $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations are detected around feeding sites of aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3* leaves, but not *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* leaves.

Supplemental Movie 4 (Supports Figure 4). Visualisation of $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations elicited by cold water on *35S:GCaMP3* and *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* leaves.

612 **Supplemental Movie 5 (Supports Figure 5).** *BAK1* is required for $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$
613 elevations elicited around aphid-feeding sites.

614 **Supplemental Movie 6 (Supports Figure 6).** *GLR3.3* and *GLR3.6* are required for
615 $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations elicited around aphid-feeding sites.

616 **Supplemental Movie 7 (Supports Figure 7).** *TPC1* contributes to aphid-elicited
617 $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations.

618 **Supplemental Movie 8(Supports Figure 8).** Aphid-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations are
619 not altered by overexpression of *TPC1*.

620 **Supplemental Movie 9 (Supports Figure 9).** Over-activation of TPC1 results in
621 systemic aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations.

622 **Supplemental Data Set 1 (Supports Figure 3).** Aphid feeding behaviors analyzed
623 by EPG on selected Arabidopsis mutants (pairwise comparisons).

624

625

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

T.V., S.T.M., T.M., S.H. and D.S. designed the research. T.V., M.A., J.C., P.H., N.B. and M.P. performed experiments. M.T. and S.G. contributed new experimental tools and materials. T.V., M.A., J.C., P.H., N.B. and M.P. analysed results. T.V., S.G., T.M., S.H. and D.S. wrote the paper.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. The GCaMP3 sensor detects $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations around the aphid feeding site on detached leaves.

A) Representative stereo-microscope images showing GFP fluorescence (colour coded according to the inset scale) around feeding sites of leaves exposed to a *M. persicae* adult at several time points after aphid settling. Aphid outlined in yellow. Location of feeding site indicated with an arrowhead.

B) Left: stereo-microscope image of a feeding site region (yellow circle) used for the analyses shown on the right (scale bar = 1 mm). Aphid outlined in yellow and location of feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Right: normalised GFP fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) measurements every 5 s around the feeding site from 5 min before until 10 min after settling of an adult aphid. F, average fluorescence intensity prior to aphid settling (baseline); ΔF , difference between measured fluorescence and baseline fluorescence. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean (SEM, n=34). The average area of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation was $110 \pm 18 \mu m^2$ and the leading wave front of this elevation travelled radially at $5.9 \pm 0.6 \mu m/s$ from its centre. Grey shading indicates a significant difference between treatments using a Student's t-test within a general linear model (GLM) at $p < 0.05$.

Figure 2. The GCaMP3 sensor does not detect $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations systemic to the aphid-feeding site.

A) Left: stereo-microscope image of a leaf exposed to an aphid with the yellow circle indicating the midrib region systemic to the feeding site (arrowhead) of an aphid (outlined in yellow). Scale bar = 1 mm. Right: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) at midrib regions systemic to the aphid feeding sites (as exemplified with the yellow circle in the image on the left) of 35S:GCaMP3 leaves exposed to *M. persicae* adults and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=34). Data from aphid responding leaves are not significantly different from controls (Student's t-test within a GLM, $p > 0.05$).

B) Left: stereo-microscope image of a leaf exposed to an aphid with the yellow circle indicating the lateral tissue regions (next to the midrib) systemic to the feeding site (arrowhead) of an aphid (outlined in yellow). Right: $\Delta F/F$ at lateral tissue regions systemic to the aphid-feeding sites (as exemplified with the yellow circle in the image on the left) of 35S:GCaMP3 leaves exposed to *M. persicae* adults and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=34). Data from aphid responding leaves are not significantly different from controls (Student's t-test within a GLM, $p > 0.05$).

Figure 3. The pathway phase that includes aphid probing of epidermal and mesophyll cells starts immediately upon aphid settling.

Feeding phases represented by coloured shading.

A) Representative EPG trace from an aphid feeding on a whole Col-0 Arabidopsis plant. The first cell puncture occurred at 31 ± 11 s after the beginning of pathway phase, with the phloem accessed after 24 ± 3 min (n=22).

B) Representative EPG traces from aphids feeding on detached 35S:GCaMP3 leaves (n=6).

Figure 4. $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations are not detected in the phloem around aphid feeding sites.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around aphid-feeding sites of 35S:GCaMP3 aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=31). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$).

Right: representative stereo microscope image of a $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around an aphid-feeding site on a *35S:GCaMP3* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 3 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around the aphid-feeding sites of *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=34). Right: representative stereo microscope image of the absence of $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation around an aphid-feeding site on a *SUC2pro:GCaMP3* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 3 min post-settling.

Figure 5. *BAK1* is required for eliciting $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations around aphid-feeding sites.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=30). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around an aphid-feeding site of a *35S:GCaMP3* leaf. GFP fluorescence colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 2 min post-settling

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3 x bak1-5* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=34). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the absence of $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation around an aphid-feeding site of a *35S:GCaMP3 x bak1-5* leaf. GFP fluorescence colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 2 min post-settling.

C) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3* and *35S:GCaMP3 x bak1-5* leaves. Data of aphid exposures shown in panels A and B were replotted together. Areas shaded in grey indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$).

Figure 6. *GLR3.3* and *GLR3.6* are required for $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations elicited around aphid-feeding sites.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=34). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations seen around an aphid-feeding site of a *35S:GCaMP3* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 3 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of *35S:GCaMP3 x glr3.3 glr3.6* aphid-exposed leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=37). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the absence $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation around an aphid-feeding site of a *35S:GCaMP3 x glr3.3 glr3.6* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken at 3 min post-settling.

C) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed *35S:GCaMP3* and *35S:GCaMP3 x glr3.3 glr3.6* leaves. Data of aphid exposures shown in panels A and B were replotted together. Areas shaded in grey indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$).

Figure 7. *TPC1* contributes to aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=27). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around a feeding site of a 35S:GCaMP3 leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken 1 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 x *tpc1-2* leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=29). Grey shaded areas indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the reduction in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around a feeding site of a 35S:GCaMP3 x *tpc1-2* leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken 2 min post-settling.

C) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 and 35S:GCaMP3 x *tpc1-2* leaves. Data of aphid exposures shown in panels A and B were replotted together. Areas shaded in grey indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$).

Figure 8. *TPC1* overexpression has no effect on aphid-elicited $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations.

A) Left: normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=30). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope image of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around a feeding site of a 35S:GCaMP3 leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken 6 min post-settling.

B) Left: $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 x 35S:TPC1 5.6 leaves and no-aphid controls. Error bars represent SEM (n=29). Grey shaded areas indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$). Right: representative stereo-microscope of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation seen around a feeding site of a 35S:GCaMP3 x 35S:TPC1 5.6 leaf. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image taken 5 min post-settling.

C) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 and 35S:GCaMP3 x 35S:TPC1 5.6 leaves. Data of aphid exposures shown in panels A and B were replotted together. Areas shaded in grey indicate significant differences between the two treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$).

Figure 9. *TPC1* over-activation (in the *fou2* mutant) results in systemic $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations in response to aphid feeding.

A) Comparison of normalized fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) around feeding sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 and aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 x *fou2* leaves. Error bars represent SEM (35S:GCaMP3 n=28, 35S:GCaMP3 x *fou2* n=25).

B) Comparison of $\Delta F/F$ around systemic lateral tissue sites of aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 and aphid-exposed 35S:GCaMP3 x *fou2* leaves. Error bars represent SEM (35S:GCaMP3 n=28, 35S:GCaMP3 x *fou2* n=25). Grey shading indicates significant difference between treatments (Student's t-test within GLM at $p < 0.05$).

C) Representative stereo-microscope images of the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations seen in 35S:GCaMP3 (left) 35S:GCaMP3 x *fou2* (right) leaves exposed to *M. persicae*. GFP fluorescence is colour-coded according to the inset scale. Aphid outlined in yellow and feeding site indicated with an arrowhead. Image on left taken at 2 min post-settling, image on right taken at 10 min post-settling.

Figure 10. Aphid fecundity is reduced by TPC1 over-activation (*fou2*), but not by altering the expression of TPC1 or abolishing transcription of GLR3.3/3.6.

M. persicae fecundity quantified by the total number of progeny produced per adult over 14 days. Letters indicate significant difference between genotypes (Student's t-test within GLM, $p < 0.05$).

A) Fecundity is not altered on the *glr3.3 glr3.6* mutant. Bars represent SEM (n=24).

B) Fecundity is not altered on the *tpc1-2* mutant. Bars represent SEM (n=12).

C) Fecundity is not altered on the 35S:TCP1 5.6 line. Bars represent SEM (n=12).

D) Fecundity is significantly reduced on the *fou2* mutant, and can be rescued on the *fou2 aos* double mutant. Bars represent SEM (n=16).

Figure 11. Proposed model of Ca^{2+} release during *M. persicae* feeding.

Aphid image taken from Hogenhout and Bos (2011). (1) Aphids typically probe epidermal and mesophyll cell layers within 31 s of the start of feeding. (2) An aphid-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation can be detected around the feeding site within 95 s of settling that spreads to adjacent cells. (3) This $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevation is not detected systemically beyond the feeding site. (4) BAK1 and an unknown receptor (PRR) perceive aphid herbivore-associated molecular patterns (HAMPs) (Prince et al., 2014). (5) Perception of aphid HAMPs by BAK1 leads to activation of GLR3.3/GLR3.6, potentially through the release of glutamate (Chiu et al., 2002, Qi et al., 2006, Forde and Lea, 2007, Stephens et al., 2008). (6) GLR3.3/GLR3.6 mediate extracellular Ca^{2+} influx into the cell (Tapken and Hollmann, 2008, Vincill et al., 2012). (7) The increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ results in activation of TPC1 (Hedrich and Neher, 1987, Ward and Schroeder, 1994). (8) TPC1, either directly or indirectly mediates release of intracellular Ca^{2+} from the vacuole (Peiter et al., 2005). (9) The increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ may result in the activation of plant immunity against aphids, which can be enhanced by over-activation of TPC1. (10) During compatible interactions, such as that between *Arabidopsis* and *M. persicae*, the aphid suppresses plant immunity using effectors (Bos et al., 2010, Mugford et al., 2016), which might also suppresses $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ elevations.

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Interplay of Plasma Membrane and Vacuolar Ion Channels, Together with BAK1, Elicits Rapid Cytosolic Calcium Elevations in Arabidopsis during Aphid Feeding

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