



Advances in functional proteomics to study plant-pathogen interactions

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Abstract

Pathogen infection triggers complex signaling networks in plant cells that ultimately result in either susceptibility or resistance. We have made substantial progress in dissecting many of these signaling events, and it is becoming clear that changes in proteome composition and protein activity are major drivers of plant-microbe interactions. Here, we highlight different approaches to analyze the functional proteomes of hosts and pathogens and discuss how they have been used to further our understanding of plant disease. Global proteome profiling can quantify the dynamics of proteins, post-translational modifications, and biological pathways that contribute to immune-related outcomes. In addition, emerging techniques such as enzyme activity-based profiling, proximity labeling, and kinase-substrate profiling are being used to dissect biochemical events that operate during infection. Finally, we discuss how these functional approaches can be integrated with other profiling data to gain a mechanistic, systems-level view of plant and pathogen signaling.

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Introduction

Proteins are the machines of the cell, driving nearly every aspect of organismal growth, reproduction, and stress responses. Although transcriptome analyses give a good indication of what the cell *can possibly do*, proteome analyses can yield a better picture of what the cell *is*

doing at any given point in time. Mass spectrometry (MS)-based, quantitative proteomics is essential to understanding global changes in protein abundance and how the diversity of protein posttranslational modifications (PTMs) contribute to plant responses to pathogens. Over time, the field of proteomics has evolved from being primarily descriptive, generating lists of proteins or PTMs, to more functional and quantitative approaches that aim to understand the molecular mechanisms that regulate cellular activities [1]. Functional proteomics includes not only expression profiling under perturbation but also quantifying PTMs, characterizing the behavior of specific classes of proteins, determining activated enzyme states, and identifying and testing protein-protein interactions. These approaches can be integrated with other -omics data to generate multilevel network models of plant function. Thus, MS-based proteomics is a robust tool to not only generate hypotheses but also to test them in sophisticated ways not possible 10 years ago. In this review, we describe recent technological advances that enable functional proteomics and highlight their application toward studying plant-pathogen interactions.

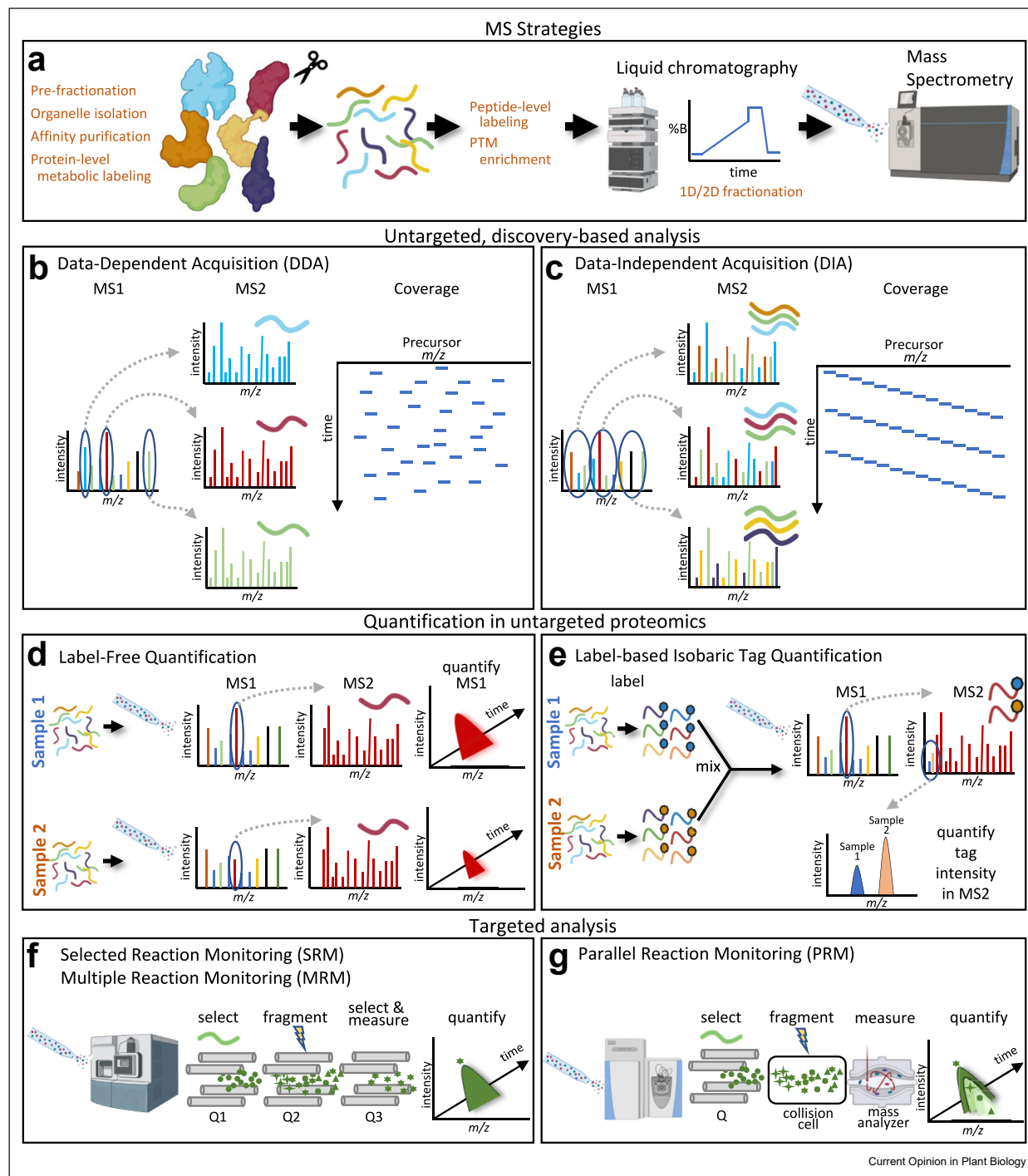
MS strategies

Many options exist for MS-based quantitative proteomics (Fig. 1a) [2]. Decisions on what strategies to use are influenced by the specific biological question(s), and the equipment/expertise available for sample analysis. Researchers interested in global-scale proteome changes during infection would likely choose an *untargeted analysis* (also termed “discovery” or “shotgun”) approach to quantify as many proteins as possible. For researchers interested in accurate and precise quantification of the behavior of a specific protein, small group of proteins or specific PTM sites, a *targeted analysis* is preferred. In both approaches, researchers can decide on how the data are acquired and quantified, and these decisions will influence experimental design and sample processing.

Untargeted or discovery analysis: data-dependent and data-independent acquisition

Traditionally, data-dependent acquisition (DDA) has dominated untargeted proteomics (Fig. 1b). In DDA mode, MS1 scans identify the 10–25 most abundant peptide ions at each point of the chromatographic gradient. These precursor ions are sequentially selected

Fig. 1



Strategies in quantitative mass spectrometry-based proteomics. (a) A general sample processing and analysis workflow for a quantitative liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) experiment. Optional steps are indicated in orange text. (b) In data-dependent acquisition (DDA), the most abundant ions in MS1 scans during of the LC gradient are isolated individually and fragmented to generate MS2 spectra used for peptide identifications. The semistochastic nature of ion selection results in variable coverage of peptide species from run to run. (c) In data-independent acquisition (DIA), mass-to-charge (m/z) ranges are selected for fragmentation, yielding multiplexed MS2 spectra used for peptide identification and quantification. This approach results in consistent measurements and more uniform sample coverage. (d) Label-free quantification relies on comparing peptide amounts across different LC-MS runs. (e) Label-based quantification approaches, such as using isobaric mass tags, use chemical modifications to distinguish different samples. Modification allows the mixing of different samples and co-analysis in the same LC-MS run. (f) Targeted MS quantification using selected- or multiple-reaction monitoring (SRM/MRM) uses a triple quadrupole (Q-Q-Q) instrument to select specific precursor ions and measure specific fragment ions. (g) Targeted MS quantification using parallel reaction monitoring (PRM) uses a hybrid quadrupole-orbitrap or Q-time of flight instrument to select specific precursor ions, but all fragment ions are measured in the high-resolution mass analyzer.

and fragmented to acquire MS2 spectra. MS2 spectra in DDA are mostly pure in that each corresponds to single analyte (except in cases of chimeric spectra arising from co-isolation of ions with similar m/z). MS2 spectra are matched to a sequence database to identify specific peptides with various search engines using spectrum-centric scoring [3]. Recent advances in “open” search algorithms that use a wide precursor mass tolerance enhance our ability to identify PTMs and chemical modifications that can be missed by traditional narrow mass window searches [4]. A deep proteome survey of *Arabidopsis* developmental stages and immune responses to flg22, an immunogenic epitope of bacterial flagellin, used open searches to estimate that phosphorylation and acetylation each affect approximately 1.25% of the total identified protein content [5]. Ion selection in DDA is semistochastic and depends on the relative abundance and ionization efficiency of co-eluting peptides in the sample. Thus, usually the most abundant peptides are identified consistently from run to run. As a consequence, when analyzing a data set from multiple DDA runs, missing values are often encountered, which limits the statistical analysis of all identified proteins across a study.

Data-independent acquisition (DIA) approaches have emerged as a viable alternative to DDA (Fig. 1c). DIA-MS exhibits high quantitative accuracy and good coverage, even for low-abundance proteins, which alleviates the missing value problem [6]. Sequential Window Acquisition of All Theoretical Mass Spectra (SWATH-MS) is one of the most popular DIA methods [7]. In SWATH-MS, all precursor ions in a narrow mass window (e.g. 400–425 m/z) are selected for fragmentation, yielding a highly multiplexed MS2 spectrum containing product ions from all co-eluting precursors in that mass window. The mass window is then shifted (i.e. 425–450 m/z , 450–475 m/z , etc.) in subsequent scans to cover the mass range of most tryptic peptides. This cycle is repeated over the course of the run to generate an unbiased map of detectable peptides in the sample. DIA data, as a result, are more consistent and reproducible than DDA [7]. Identifying peptides from complex DIA MS2 spectra can be challenging, and various peptide-centric and spectrum-centric approaches have been developed [6]. Some of these rely on using prior information from DDA data in the form of spectral libraries, but *in silico* generation of theoretical libraries and library-free approaches are accelerating the adoption of DIA-MS [6]. Another feature of DIA is the data can be queried retroactively, meaning that as spectral libraries and algorithms are developed, previous DIA results can be reanalyzed to increase protein quantification.

Recent studies have used DIA-MS to study plant-pathogen interactions. SWATH-MS analysis of apoplastic fluid from susceptible barley leaves infected with *Pyrenophora teres* f. *teres* quantified over 1000 proteins and found strong

upregulation of multiple classes of pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins, including antifungal thaumatin-like PR-5 proteins [8]. This finding suggests that the fungus deploys mechanisms to overcome the activities of these defense proteins. A similar strategy identified over 2000 proteins from tomato leaves at 4-, 8-, and 24-h after infection with *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000. Most of the detected changes occurred at 8 and 24 h, including a strong upregulation in proteins associated with energy generation, immune response, and redox processes and a downregulation of carbon fixation in the chloroplast [9]. SWATH-MS also uncovered a downregulation of photosynthesis and an increase in flavonoid and jasmonic acid biosynthesis associated with rice resistance to leafhopper insect infestation [10]. As new mass spectrometers with enhanced resolution and scan speeds are introduced, DIA-MS has the potential to overtake DDA-MS as the method of choice for discovery-based proteomics.

Quantification and multiplexing in untargeted proteomics: label-free and label-based approaches

Many researchers are interested in quantifying the molecular changes that drive phenotypes such as disease resistance or susceptibility. MS-based protein or peptide quantification can be divided into label-free and label-based approaches [11]. Label-free methods for DDA data include MS1-based quantification of extracted ion chromatograms (XICs) from precursor peptides (Fig. 1d), MS2 count-based methods such as spectrum counting, and combinations of both [12]. Peptides identified in label-free DIA data are quantified using MS2 and/or MS1 XICs [6]. One key consideration for label-free strategies is the inability to multiplex samples can lead to run-to-run variability, which can lower quantitative precision.

Label-based quantification strategies are designed around the ability to multiplex, meaning that different samples are chemically modified, combined, and co-analyzed in the same liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) run. This feature can eliminate important sources of variability, greatly reduce missing data, and substantially reduce demands on instrument time. Stable isotope labeling by amino acids in cell culture (SILAC) has been performed in plants, but their autotrophic nature leads to incomplete incorporation of heavy isotopes under most growth conditions [13]. An alternative to SILAC to metabolically label proteins is to use ^{15}N labeling [13]. Most often, plant samples are labeled at the peptide level using chemical labeling via reductive dimethylation [14], isotope-coded affinity tags [15], or isobaric mass tags, such as iTRAQ [16] or TMT [17] (Fig. 1e). These strategies vary on the degree of multiplexing that can be achieved and whether peptides are quantified at the MS1 or MS2 level. Furthermore, the number of co-analyzed samples can be extended by combining different types of labels [18]. In addition to reducing variability, sample multiplexing can substantially reduce instrument time, especially in

studies with hundreds of samples to be analyzed. In general, MS2 level isobaric tag-based quantification is highly precise but less accurate, especially for large fold changes due to ratio compression, whereas label-free XIC-based quantification yields less precise but more accurate measurements [19,20].

Targeted quantification by reaction monitoring

MS-based targeted quantification strategies program the MS to isolate and quantify a small group (usually less than 100) of peptides. Selected- and multiple-reaction monitoring (SRM/MRM) use a triple quadrupole (Q-Q-Q) instrument to monitor and isolate specific, preselected precursor ions in Q1 (Fig. 1f). Precursors are then fragmented in Q2, and specific product ion XICs are measured in Q3. This dual-stage filtering empowers excellent sensitivity for quantifying even very low-abundance peptides [21]. SRM/MRM assay development can be resource intensive and requires the selection of proteotypic peptides, optimal transitions (precursor ion pairs > fragment ion pairs), and validation before quantitative experiments. Similar to SRM/MRM, parallel reaction monitoring (PRM) uses the quadrupole of Q-Orbitrap or Q-TOF instruments as a mass filter for targeted precursors, but all generated fragment ions are monitored in the high-resolution mass analyzer (Fig. 1g) [22]. This obviates the need to pick specific transitions up-front. In all cases, the use of isotopically labeled synthetic peptides can assist method development, validation, and quantification [23].

The power of MS-based targeted approaches lies in the ability to quantify nearly any protein or PTM site using short chromatographic gradients. Recent targeted approaches have characterized phosphorylation mechanisms that regulate the NADPH oxidase RBOHD activity during pattern- and effector-triggered immune (PTI/ETI) responses [24–26]. SRM identified antagonism between phospho- and acetyl-sites that regulate activity of the immune receptor RRS1-R in *Arabidopsis* [27]. SRM confirmed *in planta* BIK1-dependent phosphorylation of the calcium channel OSCA1.3 at serine 54, which is required for stomatal closure during PTI [28]. Thus, targeted MS strategies can replace Western blotting with custom antibodies and can speed confirmation of *in vivo* protein and PTM dynamics [29].

Functional proteomics approaches

Purify to probe proteins participating in particular processes

Reducing sample complexity is useful for studying specific aspects of plant-microbe interactions because it can boost identifications of low-abundance plant and/or pathogen proteins. This can be achieved by purifying specific proteins, organelles, or structures during sample preparation and/or two-dimensional peptide chromatography during LC-MS. Affinity purification/affinity enrichment (AP/AE) using antibodies

or epitopes to purify target protein(s) of interest is useful to not only quantify low-abundance proteins but also to identify new PTM sites and interacting protein partners [30,31]. AE-MS using an anti-all-WRKY antibody quantified the dynamics of the WRKY transcription factor family upon flg22 elicitation [32]. DeBlasio et al. used a similar strategy to identify host proteins that associate with *Potato leafroll virus* and used virus mutants to characterize subnetworks of protein-protein interactions that control different stages of the viral infection cycle [33–36].

Recent work has identified tissue-type and organelle-specific dynamics during disease progression. Quantitative analysis of purified tomato leaf nuclei revealed hundreds of proteins whose abundance dynamically changes during *Phytophthora* infection and led to the identification of AT-Hook-Like DNA-binding proteins as positive regulators of the immune response to *Phytophthora capsici* [37]. Analysis of the barley leaf epidermal proteome has characterized proteins that modulate plant susceptibility to powdery mildew, which infects only epidermal cells [38]. Fungal secretome analyses have identified putative virulence factors [39], and proteomics of apoplastic fluid has characterized both pathogen and plant proteins that are secreted during infection [40]. Recently, extracellular vesicles from plants and pathogens have emerged as key mediators of infection. Studies have revealed the identity of the protein cargo contained within these secreted vesicles, including important immune-related proteins from the plant side and virulence-associated proteins from the pathogen [41–43]. These various pre-MS enrichment strategies are critical to identify not only specific plant organellar proteins for more focused studies but can also enable the quantification of pathogen proteins that can be present at low levels in whole-plant samples.

Proximity labeling

Proximity labeling is a relatively new technology for determining protein-protein interactions and offers a powerful approach to determine biochemical events occurring during plant-microbe interactions. Proximity labeling is complementary to AP-MS strategies [30]. AP-MS can capture high-affinity interactions but not weak transient interactions and has low efficiency for recovering membrane proteins [44]. Proximity labeling overcomes these inherent limitations of AP-MS. Proteins of interest are fused with a catalytic enzyme that, in the presence of substrate, rapidly covalently tag proximal proteins. The most commonly used enzymes are biotin ligase variants (BioID, BioID2, TurboID, and mini-TurboID) and ascorbate peroxidase (APEX), which both result in biotinylation of proximal proteins [45–47]. However, because APEX requires the addition of toxic H₂O₂ and biotin-phenol, biotin ligase variants are best suited for *in vivo* studies. Finally, because of fast kinetics, proximity labeling enables identification of weak and

transient interactors and is able to effectually recover interactors of membrane proteins [48–52].

As proximity labeling is an emerging technique, it is just beginning to shed light on interactors of proteins involved in plant immune signaling. Conlan et al. used BioID to identify proteins that interact with AvrPto, an effector protein in *P. syringae*, to further elucidate plant immune responses [53]. Das et al. used BioID to identify transient interacting proteins to a tobacco mosaic virus replicase [54]. Zhang et al. identified the interacting proteins to N, a resistance protein that recognizes tobacco mosaic virus. They found the biotin ligase variant TurboID to outperform BioID and BioID2 and demonstrated the utility of TurboID for identifying transient interactors of the N immune receptor. Among the N-interacting proteins, the E3 ubiquitin ligase UBR7 was shown to negatively regulate N protein levels and N-mediated resistance to TMV [55]. Proximity labeling will surely complement other protein-protein interaction screens to generate more complete host and host–microbe interactomes.

PTM profiling

Protein PTMs are covalent attachments of various functional groups to specific amino acid residues. PTMs can modulate enzyme activity, protein structure, and interaction with other proteins, thus impacting protein function and/or localization within the cell. MS-based proteomics is currently the method of choice to identify and quantify PTMs at the proteome and individual protein levels. The vast array of different PTMs and potentially modified sites suggests a level of complexity to protein regulation of which we are only scratching the surface [56–58].

Phosphorylation has been the most intensively studied PTM owing to its prevalent occurrence, relative ease in purification of phosphopeptides, and the extensive involvement of kinase signaling networks in plant immunity [59]. Refinements to phospho-enrichment strategies, peptide separations, and MS technology improvement have enabled the quantification of 10,000 to >30,000 phosphosites in a single study. Typically, one- or multi-stage enrichment strategies using immobilized metal-affinity or metal oxide–affinity chromatography are used to achieve comprehensive coverage of phosphorylation events [60,61]. Recent large-scale phosphoproteome analyses have uncovered dynamic phosphorylation events during PTI and ETI that regulate plant immunity to pathogens [25,62]. Phosphoproteomics combined with mutant analyses can reveal direct and indirect targets of phosphosignaling cascades [63]. Comparison of the cytoplasmic and chromatin-associated phosphoproteomes of mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) knockout lines identified shared and specific target proteins, including new

kinases and chromatin-associated proteins that regulate in immune signaling [64,65].

Large-scale profiling of other PTMs during plant-microbe interactions is becoming more common. Enrichment of acetylated and ubiquitinated peptides is typically performed using antibody affinity-based enrichment [66–69]. Recent studies have identified hundreds of ubiquitin-modified proteins during PTI responses in rice [70] and *Arabidopsis* [71]. In an alternate purification strategy, Ma et al. used a genetically encoded tagged ubiquitin protein and two-step purification to isolate ubiquitin-conjugated proteins upon treatment with flg22 [72]. They found many known immune proteins to be ubiquitinated during flg22 responses and identified receptor-like kinase RKL1, ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme UBC13, and proteasome component RPN8b as negative regulators of PTI responses [72]. Quantitative acetylome profiling of maize in response to HC-toxin produced by *Cochliobolus carbonum* revealed hyperacetylation of many proteins involved in transcriptional regulation, including transcription factors, co-repressors, and chromatin remodeling enzymes [67]. In addition, several recent studies have identified thousands of acetylated proteins in diverse plant pathogens, although the impact of these PTMs on pathogenicity remains to be studied [73–75]. Analysis of reversible cysteine oxidation in *Arabidopsis* uncovered distinct, time-dependent patterns of protein oxidation during ETI [76]. These and other studies lay the foundation for understanding the functional roles of specific PTMs and PTM cross-talk during plant-microbe interactions.

Activity-based protein profiling

Activity-based protein profiling (ABPP) is a powerful technique to characterize enzyme active states. ABPP uses small-molecule tags that covalently bond to enzyme active sites [77]. The tags are linked to various reporter groups, such as fluorophores for gel-based visualization, biotin for affinity-based purification, or reactive azide or alkyne moieties for click-based reporter additions. ABPP tags have been developed for a wide variety of enzymes, including distinct subclasses of cysteine proteases, proteasome subunits, serine hydrolases, vacuolar processing enzymes, glycosyl hydrolases, and ATP-binding proteins [77].

Because ABPP probes label enzymes in their active states, they are an excellent tool to survey functional subproteomes of plants and pathogens. Franco et al. identified global reprogramming of peroxidase and serine protease activity in the phloem of citrus trees infected with the citrus greening pathogen [78]. Combined ABPP and abundance profiling of apoplastic fluid from tomato revealed activation of the cysteine proteases Rcr3 (Required for *Cladosporium fulvum* resistance 3) and Pip1 (*Phytophthora* inhibited protease 1), post-translational activation of specific P69 subtilase serine

proteases, and a general inhibition of GDSL-lipases during *Ralstonia solanacearum* infection [79]. Rcr3 and Pip1 are related proteases that have differential roles in immunity to fungal, oomycete, and bacterial pathogens [80]. ABPP demonstrated that Rcr3 is processed *in planta* by P69B and other host subtilases to convert it to a catalytically active form [81]. ABPP of plant enzymes can also identify pathogen virulence factors that inhibit host immune-related enzymes [82]. Glycosidase activity profiling revealed a strong decrease in *Nicotiana benthamiana* β -galactosidase BGAL1 activity during *P. syringae* infection and revealed the presence of small inhibitor molecule produced by *Pseudomonas* during infection [83]. Further investigation discovered a mechanism by which BGAL1 contributes to plant immunity by hydrolyzing glycans decorating bacterial flagellin, thus exposing it to host proteases that process it to immunogenic peptides that are recognized by FLS2 RLKs in *Nicotiana* and *Arabidopsis* [83].

N-terminomics for protease substrate identification

In addition to profiling active proteases, identification of protease targets is of key interest because proteolysis acts at many levels of infection, including host immune suppression, pathogen recognition, peptide hormone signaling, priming, and the hypersensitive response [84–86]. Recent efforts have exploited the ability of diverse plant species to recognize the *P. syringae* effector protease AvrPphB to engineer new disease resistance specificities to unrelated pathogen proteases [87–89]. To apply this approach to new pathosystems, the target cleavage sequence of pathogen proteases must be identified.

Some of the most widely used methods to identify protease substrates include TAILS (terminal amine isotopic labeling of substrates) [90], COFRADIC (combined fractional diagonal chromatography) [91], and ChaFRADIC (charge-based fractional diagonal chromatography) [92]. All three methods rely on a first step to block or label primary amines (exposed N-termini and lysines) at the protein level, followed by enzymatic digestion, which yields new primary amines that are subsequently depleted from the sample. This negative selection step enriches native protein N-termini and N-terminal proteolytic products, which are analyzed via LC-MS. These techniques can link host proteases with different immune pathways, as well as identify effector protease substrates, ultimately unraveling mechanisms of disease resistance and susceptibility.

Kinase substrate identification and kinase signaling networks

Kinase-signaling networks serve essential functions during plant-microbe interactions. Protein microarrays are one approach to uncover kinase substrates. Using

protein microarrays, Popescu et al. were able to reconstruct a signaling network comprised of 10 MAPKs and 570 putative substrates [93]. Another approach to directly identify kinase substrates is multiplexed assay for kinase specificity (MAKS) [94]. For MAKS, protein extracts are incubated with a recombinantly produced kinase. After incubation, the samples are multiplexed using isobaric tags and analyzed by MS using standard phosphoproteomic workflows. Thus, MAKS allows for high-throughput proteome-wide identification of direct kinase substrates, including substrates of the receptor-like kinases LYK3 and NORK, which are required for nodulation and arbuscular mycorrhizal associations in *Medicago truncatula* [94]. A conceptually similar method is kinase assay linked phosphoproteomics (KALIP 2.0), where phosphopeptides are extracted from plant tissue, dephosphorylated, and then incubated *in vitro* with recombinant kinases [95]. This method resulted in the identification of 5,075 putative targets of nine kinases, including MPK6 and CPK11, after incubation with the elicitor flg22 [95].

Computational reconstruction of kinase-signaling networks from phosphoproteomics data sets offers another approach to predict the relationship of kinases and potential substrates. Activation sites of protein kinases are regulated by phosphorylation in their activation loop (A-loop) [96,97]. Because A-loop phosphorylation is necessary for kinase activation, phosphosite intensity in the A-loop can be used to infer kinase activity. Using this information, various approaches have reconstructed kinase signaling networks by correlating phosphosite level with kinase activation state [98–100].

Looking ahead: integration of orthogonal data sets for systems-level predictions

Host and pathogen signaling during infection is coordinated at multiple molecular, temporal, and spatial scales. One key challenge moving forward is to integrate different types of functional proteomics data with orthogonal genome, interactome, transcriptome, metabolome, and phenome information to generate predictive models of the mechanisms underlying disease resistance and susceptibility [101,102]. One issue is data from different sources can have disparate properties. Current proteomics data lack the depth of most transcriptome studies, and the “bottom-up” approach of analyzing peptides can result in uncertainty in protein assignments. Furthermore, the diversity of functional proteoforms generated from the same protein-coding gene means it is hard to derive a single, protein-level measurement that can be matched to a gene or transcript. In addition, different -omics data can relate to each other in different ways, so there is no “one size fits all” solution for data integration. There are a multitude of available approaches, ranging from correlation/cluster analyses and pathway mapping to machine learning and mathematical modeling [101–103]. It has been shown that

the predictive power of gene regulatory networks can be improved by combining transcription factor protein and phosphosite abundance to predict target transcript regulation [104]. Thus, true integrative analysis differs from parallel data collection and interpretation and exploits the synergistic properties of different data types to discover novel biological relationships [105].

Integrated transcriptome, protein interactome, and mutant analyses uncovered *Arabidopsis* protein subnetworks that contribute to quantitative disease resistance to *Xanthomonas campestris* [106]. Ding *et al.* integrated transcriptomic data and Genome-Wide Association Study (GWAS) with enzyme assays, proteomics, and mutant analysis to elucidate the kauralexin biosynthesis pathway that contributes to *Fusarium* stalk rot resistance in maize [107]. Time-resolved, multiomics analyses revealed coordinated molecular changes in *Candidatus liberibacter asiaticus*-infected citrus trees before the development of citrus greening symptoms and identified biomarkers for early detection [108,109]. Sekiya *et al.* combined proteome and metabolome measurements with weighted gene co-expression network analysis in rust-resistant and rust-susceptible eucalyptus to predict the protein modules that regulate metabolites associated with immunity and disease [110]. Nobori *et al.* integrated transcriptomic and proteomic data of *P. syringae* isolated from wild-type and mutant *Arabidopsis* to discover bacterial virulence mechanisms that are suppressed by host salicylic acid signaling [111]. These and other studies exemplify the power of multiomics data integration to generate a systems-level view of plant-microbe interactions.

Conclusion

The functional proteomics approaches described above are just some of the technologies that are being applied to gain new insights into diverse plant pathosystems. Global proteome profiling during infection can identify specific proteins, PTMs, and biological pathways that contribute to disease resistance and susceptibility. Activity-based profiling, proximity labeling, and kinase-substrate profiling characterize specific immune signaling subnetworks and pathogenic strategies that operate during infection. One challenging, but exciting, prospect is integrating these data with other -omic data to associate molecular traits with each other and connect mechanisms with immune outcomes. Together, these systems approaches can guide breeding and engineering efforts, leading to the development of disease-resistant crops and improved global food security.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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- * of special interest
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