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1 Synchronization of Circadian Clock Gene Expression in *Arabidopsis* and

2 Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis and its Impact on Host-Pathogen

- 3 Interactions
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1 Abstract

2 Organisms across all kingdoms have an internal circadian clock running in 24h cycles. 3 This clock affects a variety of processes, including innate immunity in plants. However, 4 the role of pathogen circadian clocks had not been extensively explored. We previously 5 showed that light can influence infection of the oomycete Hyaloperonospora 6 arabidopsidis (Hpa, downy mildew disease) on its natural host Arabidopsis thaliana. 7 Here, we identified Hpa orthologs of known circadian clock genes (CCGs) Drosophila 8 TIMELESS (TIM) and Arabidopsis Sensitive to Red Light Reduced 1 (AtSRR1) genes. 9 Expression of both *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* showed a circadian rhythm when *Hpa* was 10 exposed to constant light. Contrastingly, these two genes were negatively regulated by 11 constant dark exposure. Furthermore, the expression patterns of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 12 correlate with those of AtCCA1 and AtLHY, indicating a synchronisation of biological 13 clock genes between the host and the pathogen. In addition, screening mutants of 14 Arabidopsis Clock Regulated Genes (AtCRGs) with three virulent Hpa isolates revealed that mutations in AtCRGs influenced HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 expression and Hpa 15 16 development, indicating a functional link between the plant biological clock and virulence. Moreover, sporulation of Hpa was reduced by targeting HpaTIM and 17 18 *HpaSRR1* with short synthesized small interfering RNAs, indicating that the pathogen 19 clock is also relevant to virulence. We propose that plant and pathogen clocks are 20 synchronized during infection and that proper regulation of both clocks are genetically 21 necessary for pathogen virulence.

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Keywords: Circadian clock, downy mildew, *Arabidopsis*, compatibility, plant microbe interactions

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1 Introduction

2 Circadian clocks are endogenous subcellular machines that allow organisms to 3 anticipate predictable environmental changes. Changes in the expression of circadian 4 clock genes (CCGs) contribute to plant adaptation to environmental changes, including 5 growth regulation, photoperiodic control of flowering, and responses to biotic and abiotic 6 stresses (Creux & Harmer, 2019; Luklova et al., 2019). Similarly, in fungi such as 7 Neurospora crassa and the plant-pathogen Botrytis cinerea, circadian rhythms affect many processes, such as nutrient uptake, metabolism, conidial production and virulence 8 9 (Baker et al., 2012; Hevia et al., 2015). In addition, the circadian rhythms of plants and microbes can influence the timing and outcome of their interactions, including the 10 11 establishment of beneficial or harmful relationships and defence responses (Bhardwaj 12 et al., 2011; Hubbard et al., 2018; Newman et al., 2022).

13

The main external signals that affect circadian regulation are light and temperature 14 15 (Annunziata et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020). The centre of all known circadian clocks 16 contains at least one internal autonomous circadian oscillator, with positive and negative 17 elements that create automatic regulatory feedback loops (Hevia et al., 2015). In most 18 cases, these loops are used to create 24h timing circuits (Hennessey & Field, 1992). 19 Components of these loops can directly or indirectly receive environmental input to allow 20 entrainment of the clock to environmental time and transfer temporal information through 21 output pathways to regulate expression of rhythmic clock-regulated genes (CRGs) and 22 rhythmic biological activities (Panda et al., 2002).

23

24 Studies with the model plant Arabidopsis and its obligate downy mildew pathogen 25 Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis (Hpa) have illuminated many aspects of plant-26 pathogen interactions (Holub, 2007; Herlihy et al., 2019). For example, several disease 27 resistance genes against Hpa have been molecularly cloned from Arabidopsis. The Rgene RPP4 encodes a nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat protein with 28 29 Toll/interleukin-1 receptor domains and provides resistance to isolates Hpa-Emoy2 and 30 Hpa-Emwa1 (Van Der Biezen et al., 2002). Recent studies on this gene identified a link 31 between *R*-gene-mediated defence and the circadian clock of the host plant (Wang et 32 al., 2011). This raises the question of whether Hpa's clock influences virulence in 33 compatible host plants, and whether the host and pathogen clocks might influence each 34 other. Recently, we reported that all developmental stages of Hpa during the infection

cycle (germination, mycelial growth, and sporulation) are subject to photoregulation
 (Telli *et al.*, 2020), prompting a search for oscillator and clock-related genes (CRGs) in
 Hpa.

4

5 The TIMELESS (TIM) gene regulate circadian clocks across species (Myers et al., 1995; Lee et al., 1996; Panda et al., 2002). In Drosophila, TIM facilitates entrainment to light-6 7 dark cycles by undergoing degradation induced by light, allowing adaptation to the 24h environmental cycle (Allada & Chung, 2010; Rothenfluh et al., 2000). TIM forms a 8 9 complex with the Period (PER) protein in the evening that represses clock gene transcription. Degradation of this complex is initiated by a phosphorylation cycle at late 10 11 night (Rosato & Kyriacou, 2002). TIM homologs in other organisms like mice and 12 humans have varied functions, with roles in embryonic development and cell cycle 13 regulation (Unsal-Kacmaz et al., 2005; Gotter et al., 2000; Young & Kay, 2001), indicating evolutionary divergence while maintaining coordination with circadian 14 15 rhythms.

16

SRR1 (SENSITIVITY TO RED LIGHT REDUCED) is a functional gene for clock-17 18 regulated expression during day-night cycle (Staiger et al., 2003). It was first identified 19 in Arabidopsis and its orthologs have been discovered in various organisms (Johansson 20 & Staiger, 2014). Arabidopsis srr1 mutants display some disfunctions in hypocotyl elongation, greening, petiole growth and flowering, indicating SRR1 is multifunctional in 21 22 Arabidopsis (Staiger et al., 2003). The mouse SRR1 homologue plays a role in circadian 23 rhythms and cell proliferation (Adachi et al., 2017). Similarly, the yeast SRR1-like protein 24 BER1 (Benomyl REsistant 1) is involved in microtubule stability and cell proliferation 25 (Fiechter et al., 2008).

26

27 Considering the effects of light on Hpa virulence (Telli et al., 2020) and the rich information on circadian control in other organisms, we reasoned that it would be useful 28 29 to examine circadian clock regulation in Hpa. Here, we identified HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 30 in Hpa, and investigated their expression patterns under different light regimes. 31 Additionally, we investigated the expression pattern of three well-characterized Arabidopsis circadian clock genes, CIRCADIAN CLOCK-ASSOCIATED 1 (CCA1), 32 33 TIMING OF CAB EXPRESSION 1 (TOC1) and LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL 34 (LHY) during infection by Hpa under different light regimes. We report here that HpaTIM

1 and HpaSRR1 show rhythmic expression and synchrony with the expression of CCA1

2 and *LHY*, and we provide genetic evidence from the host and pathogen that supports

- 3 the biological relevance of this synchronization.
- 4

5 Results

6 Hpa encodes clock-related genes

7 Until now, no investigation on circadian-related genes has been reported for Hpa. We 8 addressed this knowledge gap by searching the Hpa genome for homologues of 9 important circadian genes from other organisms, using BLAST and domain-searches using protein domains that are characteristic of the relevant proteins in model 10 11 organisms. Two putative CRGs were identified in the Hpa genome: Timeless (Hpa-12 G810921, designated HpaTIM) and Sensitive to Red Light Reduced 1 (Hpa-G801448, 13 designated HpaSRR1). Further bioinformatic analyses and EnsemblProtists gene 14 annotation revealed that HpaTIM exists as a single-copy gene with two introns that 15 encodes a predicted protein of 1175 amino acids with a molecular mass of 131.7 kDa. 16 Domain and motif searches of *Hpa*TIM revealed two TIMELESS domains (N35-A592; W688-T751) (Supplemental Figure 1). Amino acid sequences of TIMELESS proteins 17 18 from various species were aligned (Figure 1A) and a phylogenetic tree was constructed 19 (Figure 1C). HpaTIM showed a high amino-acid identity to TIM proteins from other 20 species (Figures 1A and C). HpaTIM orthologues were also found in other oomycete 21 pathogens (Supplemental Figure 2). Published transcriptome data in Arabidopsis Col-0 22 inoculated with the avirulent or virulent Hpa isolates Emoy2 or Waco9, respectively (Asai 23 et al., 2018) indicates that HpaTIM is expressed in spores and during infection 24 (Supplemental Figure 3).

25

26 HpaSRR1 exists as a single copy in the reference Hpa genome and has three predicted 27 introns. The open reading frame of HpaSRR1 encodes a predicted protein of 335 aa (molecular weight 37.013 kDa). Domain and motif searches revealed a SRR1-like 28 29 protein domain (H3-S304) (Supplemental Figure 4). Proteins from various species were identified, amino-acid sequences were aligned (Figure 1B) and a phylogenetic tree was 30 31 constructed (Figure 1D). Additionally, orthologues of HpaSRR1 were identified in other 32 oomycete pathogens, indicating the conserved nature of the gene (Supplemental Figure 33 5). Expression of this gene was not evident in the published transcriptome data (Asai et

al., 2018). However, we were able to demonstrate *HpaSSR1* expression during
 infection, as described in the following section.

3

4 Targeting HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 with small dsRNA reduces Hpa sporulation

5 Following identification of *HpaTIM* and *Hpa-SSR1*, we used a genetic approach to test 6 whether these genes are necessary for Hpa viulence on Arabidopsis. Hpa is an obligate 7 biotroph and cannot be genetically transformed by conventional approaches. However, 8 a small RNA-based approach was recently developed to reduce the expression of 9 targeted Hpa genes through transcriptional or translational silencing (Bilir et al., 2019). Short, synthetic, double-stranded RNAs (SS-dsRNAs) were designed to target HpaTIM 10 11 and HpaSSR1. These SS-dsRNAs were mixed with Hpa-Emoy2 spores at 5µM 12 concentrations and used to drop-inoculate 7-day old seedings of the disease-13 susceptible mutant Arabidopsis Ws-eds1. At 7dpi, plants inoculated with spore suspensions containing 5µM SS-dsRNA targeting HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 showed 14 15 reduced sporulation (~50-70%) compared to plants inoculated with untreated spores 16 (Figure 2A). No sporulation was observed with the positive control targeting the essential 17 Hpa-CesA3 gene as reported before (Bilir et al., 2019). We then checked the relative 18 mRNA abundance of the targeted genes. While there was statistically significant reduction in the expression level of Hpa-CesA3, we did not observe any significant 19 20 decrease in the expression level of *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* (Figure 2B), suggesting that the SS-dsRNAs interfered with translation of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 rather than 21 22 transcription.

23

24 HpaTIM gene is influenced by light regime

25 After establishing *HpaTIM* as a strong candidate CRG, with biologically relevant effects 26 on Hpa virulence, we wanted to investigate whether HpaTIM expression shows a 27 circadian rhythm during infection of Arabidopsis. Because Col-0 is resistant to Hpa-28 Emoy2, we used a susceptible mutant (Col-rpp4) seedlings in the experiments. Seven-29 day old seedlings were infected at 0 ZT hour with Hpa spores, allowed to grow under a 30 "normal" light regime (12h D / 12h L) for the first 3 days, and then were exposed to 31 constant light or constant dark for 24h between 3 to 4dpi. After the 24h exposure, 32 samples were taken every 6h from infected plants between 4-7dpi. Similarly, samples 33 were also taken from infected plants between 4-7dpi that were kept under the normal

light cycle to serve as controls. Abundance of the *HpaTIM* mRNA was quantified with
 qRT-PCR.

3

4 HpaTIM displayed a rhythmic pattern with a 24h period under a normal 12h D / 12h L 5 (DL) cycle (Figure 3A and B). Expression peaked at the beginning of each light cycle (dawn) and gradually decreased until the beginning of the dark cycle (Figure 3A). After 6 7 24h constant light exposure (between 3 and 4dpi), the expression pattern of the HpaTIM 8 was disrupted slightly: although the amplitude was not changed, the length of the period 9 shortened to around 18h, but was still rhythmic indicating that this gene has a circadian 10 pattern. At 60 hrs after constant light treatment (6 dpi), HpaTIM expression returned to 11 its normal 24h-period cycle (Figure 3A).

12

The amplitude of *HpaTIM* expression in tissues exposed to constant dark for 24 hours was much lower compared to tissues exposed to normal or constant light. There was also a shift in the expression cycle of *HpaTIM* in tissues exposed to 24h constant dark between 3 and 4 dpi (Figure 3B). The period was shortened, however, by day 6 the cycle of expression had almost returned to normal.

18

19 In a second set of experiments, inoculated plants were allowed to grow for 3 days under 20 a normal light regime (12h D / 12h L) and were then exposed to 4 days constant light or 21 constant dark (Figure 4). The expression of HpaTIM under constant light showed 22 reduced period and increased amplitude in comparison to the control. The expression 23 peaked at different times, such as into 4 and 5 dpi, peaks were observed at dusk, 24 however into 6 and 7dpi, peaks were observed at dawn. HpaTIM expression under 25 constant dark did not display a proper period and a clear peak (Figure 4), suggesting 26 that it may be totally suppressed.

27

28 HpaSRR1 shows rhythmic expression

Similar to *HpaTIM*, we investigated *HpaSRR1* expression under different light regimes.
Inoculated plants were grown under normal light regimes for 3d (12h D / 12h L) and then
were exposed to constant light or constant dark for 24h. Samples were taken every 6h
for 3 days and expression pattern of *HpaSRR1* was determined. Under a normal DL
regime, expression of *HpaSRR1* showed a periodic cycle similar to that of *HpaTIM*.

Expression peaked at dawn for each day (Figure 5). Exposure to constant light at 3-4 dpi did not change the expression pattern of *HpaSSR1;* the gene exhibited a rhythmic expression pattern under the constant light just as in the normal cycle. The amplitude of *HpaSRR1* expression was slightly higher at the beginning but in general, it was very similar to that of the control (Figure 5A).

6

HpaSRR1 expression levels were observed with samples, which were exposed to constant dark at 3-4 dpi (Figure 5B). Similar to the DL and 3-4 dpi constant light series, all peaks in expression levels were observed at dawn for each day. However, expression levels in samples exposed to constant dark were lower than that found with constant light (4d/0h) and 4d/6h. These findings indicate that *HpaSRR1* expression may have rhythmic oscillation, even under the irregular light regime for a short period where expression patterns were not broken or shifted (Figure 5A).

14

15 Arabidopsis and Hpa timing systems are synchronised

16 Hpa has an obligate biotrophic lifestyle and cannot exist apart from its host (Woods-Tör 17 et al., 2018). Given this intimate relationship, it is plausible that the Hpa's clock is 18 synchronized with the Arabidopsis' clock during infection. In the Arabidopsis circadian clock system, expression of CCA1 (Circadian Clock Associated 1), LHY (Late Elongated 19 20 Hypocotyl) and TOC1 (Timing of CAB expression 1) genes are commonly used as 21 biomarkers for circadian regulation (McClung, 2006). Expression of CCA1 and LHY has 22 been reported to peak at dawn, and TOC1 expression peaks have been observed at 23 2006; De Caluwé et al., 2016). (McClung, Reciprocal regulation dusk. 24 between CCA1, LHY, and TOC1 is thought to provide a feedback loop mechanism 25 which is essential for circadian rhythmicity in Arabidopsis (Alabadi et al., 2001)

26

27 We wanted to determine whether there is a correlation between the expression pattern of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 genes compared to Arabidopsis CCA1, LHY and TOC1 28 29 genes. First, we examined the expression patterns of CCA1 and LHY over 3d between 4 and 7dpi. Expression of both CCA1 and LHY peaked at dawn during this period (Figure 30 31 6A). CCA1 expression levels were higher than that of LHY. With TOC1 expressions, 32 peaks were observed at dusk, and were lowest at dawn (Figure 6A). These results were 33 in agreement with published data from uninfected plants (Alabadi et al., 2001). 34 Secondly, we compared the rhythmic expression patterns of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1

with that of *CCA1* and *LHY*. We observed that the expression pattern of *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* were very similar to that of *CCA1* and *LHY* (Figure 6B). In all series, expression levels were peaked at dawn. Expression levels increased during the dark and decreased in light cycle. These findings suggest that *Arabidopsis-Hpa* pathosystem has a synchronised circadian regulation.

6

7 Mutations in *cca1* and *cca1/lhy* influence *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* expressions

8 If the *Arabidopsis* and *Hpa* clocks are synchronized, then *Arabidopsis* mutations that 9 affect circadian regulation might disrupt the regulation of CRGs in *Hpa* during the 10 infection cycle. To address this prediction, we investigated expression patterns of 11 *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* during infection of Col-*cca1* single mutants and Col-*cca1/lhy* 12 double mutant lines.

13

14 HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 expression were assayed between 4 and 6 dpi on the cca1 15 mutant line (Figure 7A). Although HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 showed a circadian expression pattern on the Col-cca1 mutant, this pattern did not exactly match with that 16 17 of *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* on wild-type Col-0 line (Figure 7A). When compared with the 18 normal pattern; the expression peaks on the cca1 mutant line were observed not at dawn, but in the middle of the day (4d.18h and 5d.18h), and the lowest points of the 19 20 expression were observed in the middle of the night (Figure 7A), indicating that the 21 CCA1 gene influences the timing but not the amplitude of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 22 expression.

23

24 Similarly, expression levels of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 were also investigated in the Col-25 cca1/lhy double mutants between 4 and 6 dpi for 2d (Figure 7B). The expression levels 26 of *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* observed on the double mutant differed significantly from the 27 expression levels observed on the wild-type Col-0. HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 expression levels were peaked in the middle of the night (4d, 6h), at the beginning of the day (5d) 28 29 and in the middle of the day (5d,18h) (Figure 7B). The expression patterns of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 were still similar and parallel to each other, and peaks were shifted 30 31 (Figure 7B), indicating that *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* are regulated during infection by a 32 common mechanism that requires Arabidopsis CCA1 and LHY1 genes.

33

34 *Mutation in Arabidopsis CRGs alters* Hpa sporulation and biomass production

1 Observation of altered *Hpa* CR gene expression on *Arabidopsis* single and double clock 2 mutants prompted us to determine whether pathogen sporulation and biomass 3 production was affected by mutations in Arabidopsis CRGs. We screened 26 single-, 2 4 double- and 1 triple mutants, along with 3 overexpressors (ox) lines.

5

6 Each homozygous mutant line, and CCA10x lines were inoculated with the compatible 7 isolate Hpa-Noks1, and the amount of sporulation was calculated and compared to the 8 control Col-0 line (Figure 8A). Overall, 10 lines supported less sporulation than that in 9 the control: elf3 (75%), phyb (75%), kat2 (73%), lux (73%), cry1 (70%), lcl5 (65%), CCA1ox (60%), *Ihy* (60%), *cca1*(47%) and *pif3* (47%) (Figure 8A), indicating that that 10 these CRGs contribute to compatibility. Contrastingly, three mutant lines supported 11 more sporulation compared to the Col-0 control: prr9 (138%), toc1(135%) and tic1 12 (133%) (Figure 8A), suggesting that these genes could be essential for basal defence 13 14 in Arabidopsis.

15

The 13 mutant lines displaying a significant sporulation phenotype with Hpa-Noks1 were 16 17 evaluated for vegetative hyphal biomass at 3 dpi. Among the 13 lines, cry1 phyb (66%), 18 cry1 (64%) and elf3 (60%) produced less biomass production compared to the wild-type control. Contrastingly more biomass was produced in *lux* (241%), *tic1* (226%), 19 20 toc1(173%), cca1 (141%) and prr9 (140%) (Figure 8B). Interestingly, null lux and cca1 21 mutant lines produced a smaller number of conidiophores despite increased hyphal 22 biomass amounts.

23

24 Inoculation of Arabidopsis CRG mutants with the compatible isolate Hpa-Maks9 was 25 carried out in the same way as with Hpa-Noks1. Reduced sporulation was observed in 26 seven lines: prr3 (74%), prr7 (72%), elf3 (71%), cca1 (69%), toc1 (61%), prr5 (56%) and 27 phyb (55%), suggesting the genes are required for compatibility. Enhanced sporulation was observed in three lines (Figure 8C): kat2 (177%), det1 (163%) and lhy (150%), 28 29 indicating that these genes play a significant role for basal defence against Hpa-Maks9. 30

31 Hpa-Maks9 hyphal biomass was evaluated for these ten mutant lines: cca1 (73%), det1

32 (70%), toc1 (66%) and elf3 (62%) produced less biomass than then control; by contrast,

33 prr7 (155%), prr5 (141%), phyb (138%), lhy (137%), prr3 (133%) and kat2 (117) had

34 more biomass than that obtained with control Col-0 (Figure 8D). Biomass production in

phyb, prr3, prr7, prr5 were clearly higher than that in control at 3dpi, whereas sporulation
 was reduced at 7dpi.

3

Result obtained with *Hpa*-Maks9 on *elf, phyb* and *cca1* mutant lines were similar to those
recorded with *Hpa*-Noks1, showing less sporulation than that on controls. Contrastingly, *kat2* and *lhy* mutant lines supported less sporulation, and *toc1* showed more sporulation
with *Hpa*-Noks1 infection, giving totally opposite results to those obtained with Maks9.
These differences suggest that some mutants might have isolate-specific effects.

9

As *lhy/toc1* and *cca1/lhy* double mutants, cca1/lhy/toc1 triple mutants were in Ws-0 10 11 background, the Ws-compatible isolate Hpa-Emco5 were used for both sporulation and 12 biomass production assays. While overexpressors including TOC1ox (113%), LHYox 13 (102%) showed results similar to that obtained from the control, cca1/lhy (40%), lhy/toc1 (34%) and a triple mutant line cca1/lhy/toc1 (%3) showed statistically significant less 14 15 sporulation with Hpa-Emco5 compared to the Ws control (Figure 8E). Hpa biomass was investigated 3 dpi and the results were consistent with the sporulation data (Figure 8F): 16 17 *lhy/toc1* 46%, *cca1/lhy* 49%, and the triple mutant line *cca1/lhy/toc1* showed the lowest 18 biomass production with 12% (Figure 8F).

19

20 Discussion

21

22 Circadian rhythms have long been known to govern various aspects of plant physiology, 23 from growth, differentiation, metabolism and flowering to responses to environmental 24 stresses (Annunziata et al., 2018; Luklova et al., 2019; Liang et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 25 2022). Similarly, microbial microorganisms including fungi and cyanobacteria have their 26 own circadian rhythms that influence processes such as metabolism, nutrient uptake 27 and virulence (Brody, 2019; Valim et al., 2022). Previously we showed that light plays a significant role in the development of Hpa (Telli et al., 2020). In this study, our exploration 28 29 of the interplay between circadian rhythms and plant-microbe interactions in the Arabidopsis-Hpa pathosystem revealed the circadian-related genes (CRGs) HpaTIM 30 31 and HpaSRR1. This current study extends our understanding to a biotrophic oomycete 32 pathogen, offering compelling evidence that Hpa possesses its own circadian-regulated 33 genes that are necessary for full virulence and provides evidence that circadian rhythms

in a biotrophic pathogen can be influenced, directly or indirectly, by CRGs in the planthost.

3

4 The discovery of *HpaTIM*, and *HpaSRR1* genes in a plant-obligate oomycete pathogen 5 emphasizes the universal nature of circadian rhythms across diverse organisms. 6 Drosophila TIM (Myers et al., 1995) plays a central role in entrainment to light-dark (LD) 7 cycles, an adaptation critical for organisms to synchronize with their environment. The 8 rhythmic expression of HpaTIM in response to different light conditions indicates its 9 involvement in regulating the pathogen's circadian clock. Similarly, SRR1, or SENSITIVITY TO RED LIGHT REDUCED 1, is another key gene found to be essential 10 11 for circadian regulation (Staiger et al., 2003). Its role in influencing various aspects of 12 plant growth and development, as well as its homologues in other organisms, highlights 13 its significance. The presence of HpaSRR1 and its rhythmic expression further 14 underscores the similarity of biological clocks in both the host and pathogen.

15

16 Our recent work demonstrated the efficacy of SS-dsRNA targeting the Hpa-CesA3 gene, 17 resulting in inhibited spore germination and plant infection (Bilir et al., 2019). We used 18 this method to target *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* and the results that both genes *HpaTIM* and HpaSRR1 are crucial for pathogen virulence. Interestingly, the mRNA levels of 19 20 HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 remained unaltered, contrasting with complete suppression of 21 mRNA from positive control Hpa-Ces3. Two distinct gene silencing phenomena has been reported: transcriptional and post-transcriptional gene silencing (TGS and PTGS, 22 23 respectively (Sijen et al., 2001). Notably, small RNA studies predominantly implicate 24 PTGS, where they modulate gene expression by base pairing with mRNA targets, 25 leading to degradation or translational inhibition (Saxena et al., 2003). Our findings with 26 SS-dsRNAs may be explained by PTGS that inhibits translation of HpaTIM and 27 HpaSRR1 RNA.

28

One of the most intriguing findings of this study is the correlation of circadian rhythms between *Arabidopsis* and *Hpa*. We observed that the expression patterns of *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* mirrored those of *Arabidopsis* circadian biomarkers *CCA1* and *LHY*. In principle, this correlation could be coincident with no regulatory connection between host and pathogen, due to both organisms' exposure to the same light regime during infection. On the other hand, we demonstrated that expression of *HpaTIM* and

1 HpaSRR1 are disrupted by mutations in CCA1 and LHY. Based on this result, we 2 hypothesize that Hpa circadian rhythms are coordinated by the Arabidopsis clock. It is 3 well documented that host clock can influence rhizosphere microbial community 4 (Hubbard et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2021; Newman et al., 2022). Similarly, the rhizosphere 5 microbial community affects the host clock function (Hubbard et al., 2021). These 6 studies suggest there is a bidirectional rhythmic interaction between plants and their 7 rhizomicrobiome (Xu & Dodd, 2022). Investigations with Drosophila and its gut 8 microbiome led to the conclusion that microbiome stabilizes circadian rhythm in the host 9 gut to prevent rapid fluctuations with changing environmental conditions (Zhang et al., 2023). In addition, the synchronization between the gut microbiome and the host in 10 11 humans involves intricate crosstalk influenced by diet, lifestyle, and host genetics. This 12 dynamic interaction impacts immune modulation, metabolism and overall health 13 (Thursby & Juge, 2017).

14

The circadian system can be disturbed transiently or permanently by different factors 15 16 including light (Telli et al., 2020) and temperature (Annunziata et al., 2018). Such 17 disturbances are referred to as "circadian dysrhythmia (Bishehsari et al., 2020) or 18 "circadian disruption" (Vetter, 2020). Circadian disruption could result in altered 19 microbiome communities and perturbed host metabolism in human health (Bishehsari 20 et al., 2020), and changes in global responses in plant immune system (Wang et al., 21 2011). We reported that altering light conditions delayed or inhibited Hpa development 22 and sporulation (Telli et al., 2020). The data presented in this study represent another 23 step towards defining whether and how plant and pathogen clocks interact, as well as 24 whether circadian dysrhythmia is a factor in plant-pathogen interactions. It will be of 25 interest to assess bidirectional rhythmic interaction between Hpa and Arabidopsis using 26 gene silencing for Hpa and more detailed characterization of Arabidopsis CRG mutants. 27

A recent study on *Arabidopsis* demonstrated that disruption of the plant circadian clock is associated with altered rhythmicity of rhizosphere bacteria and fungi (Newman et al, 2022; (Xu & Dodd, 2022). Here we used *Arabidopsis* single or double clock mutants *cca1 and cca1/lhy* and investigated the expression of *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1*. There was an alteration in the circadian expression pattern of these genes on single and double mutants suggesting that the host clock could influence the pathogen clock.

34

1 As the influence of the host CRGs on the expression patterns of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 2 was clear, we then used 26 singles, 2 double-, 1 triple mutant and also 3 overexpressors 3 (ox) of host clock genes to determine if host clock genes can influence infection and 4 development of the pathogen. We used relevant virulent isolates and measured 5 sporulation and vegetative growth (hyphae). Results of these investigations suggest that 6 CRGs could contribute to compatible interactions as well as basal defence. In addition, 7 double and triple mutants considerably reduced pathogen growth indicating the host 8 CRGs has a major role impact on compatibles interaction. The plant circadian genes 9 impact on large network of defence and development pathways, affecting multiple aspects of biology (Hua, 2013; Luklova et al., 2019). It is plausible that access to 10 11 nutrients by Hpa isolates, the amount of host metabolites in the infected tissues and the 12 host redox homeostasis will be altered by some of these CRG mutants resulting in the 13 influence on the pathogen development.

14

Effector- and PAMP-triggered immunity (ETI and PTI) have been studied in detail in 15 16 plant-microbe interactions. Control of the *R*-gene mediated defence responses to *Hpa* 17 has been shown to be regulated by CCA1 in Arabidopsis (Wang et al., 2011). Similarly, 18 PTI against Pseudomonas syringae in Arabidopsis have been demonstrated to be 19 modulated by the circadian clock (Bhardwaj et al., 2011). A recent study on GIGANTIA 20 (GI) in Arabidopsis and the wheat linked the circadian clock to plant susceptibility to 21 pathogens (Kundu & Sahu, 2021), indicating the compatibility may possibly be regulated 22 by the plant's clock function. Our study on Arabidopsis CRG mutants with different 23 virulent Hpa isolates clearly indicates the link between host circadian clock and the 24 pathogen in a compatible interaction. Some CRG mutants had different effects on 25 virulence of the two compatible isolates used in this study, suggesting that those isolates 26 might differ in their response to various CRG-regulated pathways that are relevant to 27 Hpa virulence. This is another avenue of potential interest in the future.

28

While we have identified circadian-regulated genes in *Hpa* and possible synchronization with *Arabidopsis* clock genes, the specific mechanisms and the functional implications of this coordination require further investigation. Future research could focus on deciphering the molecular pathways and the specific genes involved in this synchronization, as well as their impact on the development and pathogenicity of the downy mildew pathogen.

1 Materials and Methods

2 Plant lines, pathogen isolates and their propagation

- 3 H. arabidopsidis isolates Emoy2, Noks1, Maks9 and Emco5 were maintained on
- 4 Arabidopsis accessions Ws-eds1 (Parker et al., 1996) or Col-rpp4 (Roux et al., 2011).
- 5 Inoculum preparation followed established protocols (Tör et al., 2002; Woods-Tör et al.,
- 6 2018)

7 Identifying orthologues of two circadian clock genes in Hpa genome

Important circadian genes published in model organisms for circadian clock studies
were identified through literature. Protein domain-searches through Pfam database
(http://pfam.xfam.org) revealed two putative CRGs in *Hpa* genome: *Timeless* (Pfam:
PF04821; *Hpa-G810921*, designated *HpaTIM*) and *Sensitive to Red Light Reduced 1*(Pfam: PF07985; *Hpa-G801448*, designated *HpaSRR1*).

13 Time course experiments

14 Col-rpp4 seedlings were infected with Hpa-Emoy2 as described previously in (Tör et al., 2002). Samples were taken every 6h between 4 dpi to 7 dpi from infected seedlings. 15 16 Total RNA was extracted and analysed with Real-Time PCR. Real-Time PCR analysis 17 used Hpa-Actin or At-Actin genes as housekeeping genes. The results of samples were 18 analysed by Roche LightCycler 480 Real-Time software program. Each group of 19 experiment had three biological replicas and was repeated thrice. All samples were kept 20 under the 12h Dark/ 12h Light (D/L) cycle, referred to hereafter as "normal". The 21 inoculated samples were exposed to 4 different light regimes 3 dpi; 1) exposed to 22 constant light between 3 dpi to 4 dpi, then normal 12h L/12h D cycle; 2) exposed to 23 constant dark between 3 dpi to 4 dpi, then normal 12h L/12h D cycle; 3) exposed to constant light 3 dpi until 7 dpi; and 4) exposed to constant dark 3 dpi until 7 dpi. Similarly, 24 25 in these experiments, samples were taken every 6 hours 4 dpi, and they were analysed 26 with qRT-PCR.

27

28 RNA extraction and gene expression analysis using qRT-PCR.

29 An experiment was designed to confirm the expression pattern of Arabidopsis clock

30 genes CCA1, TOC1 and LHY1. Uninfected Col-*rpp4* seedlings were used, only sprayed

31 with water, and placed into growth cabinet for a week at 16[°]C with a photoperiod of 12h

1 dark / 12h light. Samples were taken at 6h intervals 4 dpi and they were analysed using

2 qRT-PCR with the relevant primers (Supplemental Table 1).

To assess dsRNA-mediated gene silencing, gene expression analysis was conducted on four-week-old Ws-*eds1* plants inoculated with a *Hpa*-Emoy2 spore suspension of 5 $\times 10^4$ spores/mL containing 5 µM siRNA. Six leaves in total were drop-inoculated with a mixture of spores and siRNA (30µl per leaf), with two leaves serving as a biological replicate. The Arabidopsis plants were then placed in a magenta box and subjected to a 12-hour light/12-hour dark regime at 16°C for 3 days.

- 9 RNA extraction at different time points after inoculation was carried out. Total RNA 10 extraction protocol by TRIzol (Thermo Fisher) was adapted from (Chomczynski & 11 Sacchi, 2006). Quantitative Real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) was carried out using 12 SensiFASTTM SYBR® No-ROX One-Step Kit (Bioline) and the results were analysed 13 using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method (Livak & Schmittgen, 2001). Primers for the housekeeping gene 14 for *Arabidopsis* or *Hpa*, *At-Actin or Hpa-Actin*, were included as a control to normalize 15 the results.
- A master mix containing; 5 µl of SensiFAST™ SYBR® No-ROX One-Step mix, 2 µl of 16 17 template (RNA, 20-30ng/µl) from each sample, 0.5 µl of each primer (Supplemental 18 Table 1), 0.01 µl of reverse transcriptase, 0.002 µl RNA-inhibitor was prepared and DEPC water was added to give a final reaction volume of 10 µl. gRT-PCR reactions 19 20 were carried out in 96-well plates using a Roche Light Cycler Real-Time PCR System. 21 PCR conditions were as follows, 45°C 10 min, 95°C for 2 min, followed by 9 cycles 22 touchdown procedure; 95°C for 5 s; 1°C in each annealing step of (68-60)°C for 10 s, 23 72°C 5 s, then 31 cycles of 95°C for 5 s, 60°C for 10 s, 72°C for 5 s.

24 Selection of *At-CRG*s genes and their mutant lines

Arabidopsis TAIR database (https://www.arabidopsis.org) were searched using the "clock gene" keyword and 46 loci matching with 131 distinct gene models were identified. These were then further evaluated for their function and involvement in the circadian rhythm using the available literature. Twenty-six different genes that may play a role in circadian regulation were then selected (Supplemental Table 2).

30 Identification of homozygous T-DNA mutants

Totally, 26 singles, 2 double and 1 triple *Arabidopsis* mutant lines along with 3 overexpressors (ox) were selected. Seed of the mutant lines were obtained from NASC 1 (https://arabidopsis.info). To confirm the identity and homozygosity of each mutant, 2 specific primers for each T-DNA line (Supplemental Table 2) were designed using SALK 3 (http://signal.salk.edu/tdnaprimers.2.html) and were ordered from Sigma site 4 (https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/GB/en).Ten seeds from each T-DNA mutant line were 5 sown and seedlings were picked and transferred to pots. DNA was extracted using the REDExtract-N-Amp Tissue PCR Kit protocol (Sigma-R4775) according to the 6 7 manufacturer's instruction. DNAs were then used for PCR amplifications. Using this 8 protocol, all lines were screened, and homozygous plants were propagated to obtain 9 seeds for subsequent analyses.

10 Sporulation and biomass production assays on T-DNA mutant lines

11 T-DNA lines were screened with Hpa-Maks9, Hpa-Noks1 and Hpa-Emco5. The samples 12 were taken at 3 dpi and their DNAs extracted for biomass production. DNA was isolated using CTAB method (Doyle, 1987) and the guantitative PCR was performed in a total of 13 14 25 µl containing 50ng of gDNA, 12.5 µl of SyberGreen Mastermix (ABI, 15 Carlsbad, California), Hpa-Actin or At-Actin primers (Supplemental Table 1) and water 16 on a Roche LightCycler 480 device. PCR conditions were as follows, 95°C for 4 min, 17 then 10 cycles touchdown of 95°C for 30 s, annealing temperature of 65°C, decreasing 18 1°C every cycle to 56°C, and extension at 72°C for 30 s. After 10 cycles of touchdown, 19 a further 25 cycles of 95 C for 30 s, 60 C for 30 s and 72 C for 30 s and a final extension 20 at 72°C for 5 min were carried out. Biomass production and sporulation were assessed 21 using quantitative PCR and established protocol as described (Telli et al., 2020). 22

23 Application of SS-dsRNAs to pathogen spores and plant inoculations

Silencing of *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* were performed using 30nt-long dsRNA as described previously (Bilir *et al.*, 2019). *Hpa-CesA3* were used as a positive control in the silencing experiments. RNA duplexes (Supplemental Table 3) were obtained as synthesised ribonucleotides from Merck.

28

29 Statistical analysis

30 Statistical analyses were performed using MiniTab Express[™] 31 (https://www.minitab.com/en-us/) and GraphPad prism version 10.1.1(GraphPad 32 software, Inc. USA) computer software was used for the statistical analysis. All tests in 33 this study were performed in triplicate. The significant differences among the means

1 were analysed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) complemented by Dunnett's

- 2 test at the p < 0.05 level.
- 3

4 Bioinformatics and phylogenetics

5 Primer design was performed using Geneious (v10.0) (Kearse *et al.*, 2012).

We used the EnsemblProtist (Kersey et al., 2016) and InterPro (Quevillon et al., 2005) 6 7 databases to identify candidate Hpa clock genes. Reciprocal BLASTN and BLASTX 8 (Altschul et al., 1997) were used to perform similarity-searches of nucleotide and amino 9 acid sequences, respectively, between Hpa clock genes and oomycete and Arabidopsis sequences in the UniProt (The UniProt Consortium, 2023) and GenBank (Sayers et a., 10 11 2022) databases. To generate multiple sequence alignments against Pfam domains, we 12 used the hmmalign tool from the HMMER package version 3.4 (Eddy, 2011) and profile-13 HMMs downloaded from Pfam 36.0 (Mistry et al., 2021). Alignments were trimmed, 14 visualised and rendered using JalView (Waterhouse et al. 2009).

15

16 Evolutionary histories of protein sequences were inferred by using the maximum-17 likelihood method and JTT matrix-based model (Jones et al., 1992) conducted in 18 MEGA11 (Tamura et al., 2021). The trees with the highest log likelihoods are shown. 19 Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained automatically by applying Neighbor-20 Join and BioNJ algorithms to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using the JTT model, and then selecting the topology with superior log likelihood value. All positions 21 22 with less than 95% site coverage were eliminated, i.e., fewer than 5% alignment gaps, 23 missing data, and ambiguous bases were allowed at any position (partial deletion 24 option). Bootstrapping (i.e. random sampling with replacement) was performed to 25 generate 1000 bootstrapped trees (Felsenstein, 1985). Phylogenetic trees were 26 rendered and visualised using iTOL (Letunic and Bork, 2021). The trees are drawn to 27 scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site.

28

29 **Conflict of Interest**

30 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests.

31

32 Author contributions

1	MT and OT planned and designed the research. OT and DG conducted the laboratory	
2	work. OT, WJ and DJS performed bioinformatic research, OT, BC-K, YH, JMM, DJS and	
3	MT were involved in the analysis of data and wrote the manuscript.	
4		
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8	Telli was supported by the Turkish Ministry of Education.	
9		
10	Data availability statement	
11	The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding	
12	author on reasonable request.	
13		
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21	
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23	
24	Figure Legends
25	
26	Figure 1. Phylogenies of HpaTIM and Hpa-SSR1. <u>Panel A</u> shows a multiple sequence
27	alignment of the Timeless protein domain (Pfam: PF04821) of HpaTIM against
28	homologues in model organisms. <u>Panel B</u> shows a multiple sequence alignment of the
29	SRR1 domain (Pfam: PF07985) of HpaSRR1 against homologues in plants and model

evolutionary history of HpaSRR1. The sizes of the black circles indicate the proportions
 of 1000 bootstrapped trees in which the associated taxa clustered together. The trees
 are drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per
 site.

organisms. Panel C shows evolutionary analysis of HpaTIM. Panel D shows the

1

Figure 2. Sporulation of *Hpa* and expression level of *HpaTIM* and *HpaSRR1* targeted with SS-dsRNA. Sporulation was assessed 7dpi (A), and gene expression was determined using qRT-PCR at 3dpi (B). *Hpa-CesA3* was targeted as a positive control. An SS-dsRNA that does not inhibit pathogen growth was also used. One-way ANOVA has been performed on data to compare treated samples with control samples. Data expressed as mean ± mean standard deviation. ****p < 0.0001, **p = 0.0039, *p = 0.0102

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Figure 3. Expression analyses of HpaTIM in different light regimes. A. Expression 10 11 of HpaTIM gene in a normal light cycle (black line) and constant light exposure between 12 3dpi to 4dpi followed by a normal light cycle (red line). **B.** Expression pattern of *HpaTIM* normal cycle (black line) and subsequently exposed to constant dark between 3dpi-4dpi 13 followed by normal cycle (blue line). For the first three days post inoculation (dpi), all 14 15 samples were kept under the 12h Dark/ 12h Light (D/L) cycle, referred to hereafter as "normal". After 4dpi, ZT time (Zeitgeber Time) started, and samples were taken every 16 17 6h over 3 days. Experiments started at dusk. While black blocks represent dark periods, 18 yellow blocks represent light periods. Hpa-Actin was used as a standard. The 19 experiment was repeated 3 times and similar results were obtained. Standard error of 20 mean for 3 biological replicas are indicated.

21

Figure 4. Expression of *HpaTIM* under constant light and constant dark exposure.

23 After an initial 3-day normal D/L conditions, one group was exposed to continuous light 24 for the following 4d while the other group exposed to continuous darkness for the 25 following 4d. Normal D/L cycle time-course served as the control. Samples were taken 26 every 6h and the expression levels of the *HpaTIM* gene were investigated. Experiments 27 started at dusk. While black blocks represent dark periods, yellow blocks represent light periods. Hpa-Actin was used as a standard. The experiment was repeated 3 times and 28 29 similar results were obtained. Standard error of mean for 3 biological replicas are 30 indicated.

31

Figure 5. Expression of *HpaSRR1* in different light regimes. A. Expression of *HpaSRR1* in normal D/L cycle (black line) and then constant light exposure after 3 dpi (blue line). Expression showed rhythmic expression pattern just as observed with a

normal cycle. B. Expression of *HpaSRR1* in a normal light cycle (black line) followed by
exposure to constant dark between 3 dpi to 4 dpi, followed by a normal light cycle (blue
line). Experiments started at dusk. Black bars represent dark periods, yellow bars are
light periods. *Hpa-Actin* was used as a standard. The experiment was repeated 3 times
and similar results were obtained. Standard error of mean for 3 biological replicas are
indicated.

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8 Figure 6. Expression of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 compared with CCA1 and LHY 9 during infection. A) Expression of CCA1 (black line), LHY (dashed line) and TOC1 (grey line) in D/L cycle. Samples were taken every 6h into 4 dpi-7 dpi. At-Actin was used 10 11 as a standard. B) Comparison of the expression of HpaTIM (red line) and HpaSRR1 (green line) with CCA1 (black line), LHY (purple line). Samples were taken every 6h 12 from 4 dpi-7 dpi. This experiment started at dusk. Black bars represent dark period, 13 14 yellow bars are light period. Experiment was repeated 3 times and similar results were 15 obtained. Standard error of mean for 3 biological replicas are indicated.

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17 Figure 7. Expressions of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 on Arabidopsis single or double 18 **clock mutants**. Each graph displays expression of these genes in *Hpa* growing on the mutant (solid lines) or wild-type Col-0 (dashed lines). A) HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 19 20 expressions on Col-cca1 mutant line. B) HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 expression in cca1/lhy 21 double mutant line. Col-cca1 or cca1/lhy mutants were inoculated with Hpa-Maks9. Samples were taken from inoculated seedlings between 4 and 6 dpi and expression 22 23 patterns of HpaTIM and HpaSRR1 were guantified with RT-gPCR. Experiments started 24 at dusk. Black bars represent dark periods, yellow bars are light periods. Hpa-Actin was 25 used as a normalization control. This experiment repeated 3 times with consistent 26 results. Standard error of mean for 3 biological replicas are indicated.

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Figure 8. Mutations in *Arabidopsis* clock regulated genes influence sporulation and biomass production. T-DNA null mutants in Col-0 or Ws-0 background and overexpressor (ox) were inoculated with a compatible *Hpa* isolate and the amount of sporulation was calculated at 7 dpi. The biomass of vegetative hyphae was investigated with selected mutant lines 3 dpi using q-PCR. Overexpressors, TOC1ox and LHYox were also included. One-way ANOVA has been performed on data to compare mutant lines with control samples. Data expressed as mean ± mean standard deviation.

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     A) Mutant lines inoculated with Hpa-Noks1 (CCA1ox, cca1, pif3, tic1, toc1, prr9, prr5,
     prr3. phya. lcl5. lhy. cry1 ****p < 0.0001; lux. kat2, ***p = 0.0003; phyb. elf3 **p = 0.0013,
 2
 3
     lwd1 *p = 0.0301). B) Mutant lines inoculated with Hpa-Noks1 (prr9, lux, toc1, tic1 ****
     p < 0.0001; cry1 ***p=0.0007; elf3 ***p=0.0002; cca1 ***p=0.0001; phyb **p=0.0015).
 4
 5
     C) Mutant lines inoculated with Hpa-Maks9 (toc1, prr5, phyb, lhy, kat2, det1 ****p <
     0.0001; cca1 **p=0.0023; prr7 **p=0.0069; elf3 **p=0.0049; prr3 *p=0.0190). D) Mutant
 6
 7
     lines inoculated with Hpa-Maks9 (det1, elf3, lhy, phyb, prr3, prr7, prr5, toc1, cca1 ****p
 8
     < 0.0001; kat2 **p=0.0067). E) Mutant lines were inoculated with Hpa-Emco5 (cca1/lhy,
     cca1/lhy/toc1, lhy/toc1 ****p < 0.0001). F) Mutant lines were inoculated with Hpa-Emco5
 9
     (lhy/toc1, cca1/lhy/toc1, cca1/lhy ****p < 0.0001; LHYox *p=0.0232).
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     Supplemental Figure Legends
     Supplemental Figure 1. Domain structure of HpaTIM.
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     Supplemental Figure 2. Amino-acid multiple sequence alignment of Timeless
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     proteins from Hpa and other oomycete pathogens.
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19
     Supplemental Figure 3. Expression pattern of HpaTIM in Waco9 and Emoy2
20
     isolates. Expression levels were represented as TPM (tags per million) of total reads
21
     mapped to Hpa genome. Data was acquired from Asai et al. (2018). Cs, conidiospore,
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     dpi, days post inoculation.
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     Supplemental Figure 4. Domain structure of HpaSRR1.
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     Supplemental Figure 5. Amino-acid multiple sequence alignment of SRR1
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     proteins from Hpa and other oomycete pathogens.
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     Tables
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      Table 1. Putative Hpa circadian genes and their orthologues
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Gene and	Orthologue	Domain name and	Function
Gene ID	from	Domain ID	
HpaTIM	Drosophila,	TIMELESS	Essential protein that
(HpaG810921)	Arabidopsis,	(PF04821)	regulates circadian
	Homo sapiens	TIMELESS_C	rhythm (Sehgal et al,
		(PF05029)	1994).
HpaSRR1	Arabidopsis	SRR	Mediates phyB signalling
(HpaG801448)		(PF07985)	and is required for normal
			circadian clock function
			(Staiger et al, 2003).

1713727.174964 -13.4.5 10.10.10.10.10.10.10.10.10.10.10.10.10.1	D Q9VEB5 Drosophila melanogaster Q06688 Saccharomyces cerevisiae 0 006688 Saccharomyces cerevisiae 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
NP 001441580.2 Crassostrea gigas NP 001441580.2 Crassostrea gigas NP 001441580.2 Crassostrea gigas NP 00136513613.1 Anopheles gambiae NP 00136529.1 Danio rerio NP 003911.2 Homo sapiens NP 200103.1 Arabidopsis thaliana MBWM0 Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis M4BWM0 Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis M4BWM0 Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis M4BWM0 Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis M4BWM0 Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis	M4B599 Hyaloperonasyona arabidopsidis A0A2K3D9D0 Chlamydomoas reinhardtii 0.5 0.7



















