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**Analysing disease susceptibility genes to generate
potato plants resistant to bacterial wilt and late blight**

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ABBREVIATIONS

AAO3: Abscisic Aldehyde Oxidase 3	GO: Gene Ontology	RDR6: RNA Dependent RNA polymerase 6
ABA: Abscisic Acid	GRF: Growth-Regulating Factor	RIN: RNA Integrity Numbers
AGO: Argonaute	HPLC: High-Performance Liquid Chromatography	RIPs: Ralstonia-Injected Proteins
API: Antimicrobial Peptide 1	HR: Hypersensitive Response	RLK: Receptor-Like Kinase
ARLPK: Atypical Receptor-like Pseudokinase	HRc: Homologous Recombination	RNAi: RNA Interference
BR: Balatoni Rózsa	IAA: Indole-Acetic Acid	ROI: Region of Interest
Bt: Botond	INF: Infected	ROS: Reactive Oxygen Species
BSL: BRI1-Suppressor1-Like	JA: Jasmonic Acid	Rs: <i>Ralstonia solanacearum</i>
CC-NB-LRR: Coiled-Coil-Nucleotide-Binding Leucine-Rich-Repeat	KEGG: Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes	RRS1: Resistance to Rs 1
CDPKs: Ca ²⁺ -dependent protein kinases	LRR: Leucine-Rich-Repeat	Rssc: <i>Ralstonia solanacearum</i> species complex
CERK1: Chitin Elicitor Receptor Kinase 1	LysM: Lysin-Motif	S genes: Susceptibility genes
CG: ‘Calalo Gaspar’	MAP: Mitogen-Activated Protein	SA: Salicylic Acid
CIM: Callus Induction Medium	MAPK: Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase	SAR: Systemic Acquired Resistance
CR: ‘Cruza 148’	MAPK9: MAPK 9	sgRNA: Single Guide RNA
CRISPR/Cas: Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats/CRISPR-Associated Protein	MEKK1: MAPK Kinase 1	siRNAs: small interfering RNAs
CsLOB1: Lateral Organ Boundaries 1	miRNAs: MicroRNAs	SIM: Shoot Induction Medium
CTR: Control	MS: Murashige and Skoog	SSNs: Site-Specific Nucleases
DCL1: Dicer-Like 1	mRNA: messenger RNA	STAS: Sulphate Transporter and Anti-Sigma factor antagonist
DEG: Differentially Expressed Genes	NBS: Nucleotide Binding Site	StDMR1: <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> DOWNY MILDEW RESISTANCE 1
DES: ‘Désirée’	NHEJ: Non-Homologous End-Joining	StDMR6: <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> DOWNY MILDEW RESISTANCE 6
DMR6: Downy Mildew Resistance 6	NLR: Nucleotide-binding domain and Leucine-rich Repeats	StDND1: <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> Defense, No Death 1
DND1: Defence, No Death 1	NPRI: Nonexpressor of PR-1	StPM1: <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> Plasma Membrane protein 1
DPI: Days Post-Inoculation	OD: Optical Density	StSYR1: <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> Syntaxin-Related 1
DSBs: Double Strand Breaks	PAL: Phenylalanine Ammonia-Lyase	SULTR: Sulphate Transporter
EBD: Enteric B-Defensin	PAM: Protospacer Adjacent Motif	T2SS: Type II Secretion System
EBEs: Effector Binding Elements	PAMPs: Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns	T3SS: Type III Secretion System
EDR1: Enhanced Disease Resistance 1	PCA: Principal Component Analysis	TAL: Transcription Activator-Like
EFR: Elongation Factor-Tu Receptor	PCD: Programmed Cell Death	TALEN: Transcription Activators Like Effector Nuclease
EF-Tu: Elongation Factor Thermo unstable	PEN1: Penetration 1	UPLC-MS: Ultra-Performance Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry
EPS: Extracellular Polymeric Substances	PHA: Dihydrophaseic Acid	Xcc: <i>Xanthomonas citri</i> subsp. <i>citri</i>
ET: Ethylene	Pi: <i>Phytophthora infestans</i>	Xoo: <i>Xanthomonas oryzae</i> pv. <i>oryzae</i>
ETI: Effector-Triggered Immunity	PM: Powdery Mildew	ZFN: Zinc Finger Nuclease
FDR: False Discovery rate	POD: Peroxidase	
FLS2: Flagellin Sensitive 2	PPO: Polyphenol Oxidase	
FW: Fresh weight	PR: Pathogenesis-Related	
GA: Gibberellic acid	pri-miRNAs: Primary miRNAs	
GFP: Green Fluorescent Protein	PRRs: Pattern Recognition Receptors	
	PTI: PAMP-Triggered Immunity	
	PVA: Potato Virus A	
	R genes: Resistance genes	

1. INTRODUCTION

The intricate interplay between plants and pathogens is a perpetual struggle, with far-reaching consequences, particularly when it comes to crops of paramount significance. One such crop, the potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.), ranks as the fourth most vital global crop, renowned for its nutritional value, notably its high carbohydrate production. However, the limited genetic diversity within potato cultivars presents a formidable challenge when it comes to developing resistance against devastating pathogens. Two diseases that have left a historical and economic impact are bacterial wilt (BW), caused by the biotrophic pathogen *Ralstonia solanacearum* (*Rs*), and late blight, driven by the hemibiotrophic oomycete *Phytophthora infestans* (*Pi*). Despite sustained efforts in managing these pathogens since their identification in the 19th century, achieving ultimate control has remained elusive, as underscored by historical crises like the Irish famine.

The persistent consumption of potatoes highlights the pressing need for effective remedial measures to mitigate potential crises. Efforts to induce resistance through traditional breeding methods, particularly by incorporating genetic diversity from wild varieties, have encountered successes but also significant challenges. Environmental variations, pathogen heterogeneity, ploidy, and the intricacies of resistance induction have made it a formidable task.

Pathogens, following their recognition of a suitable host, navigate through the plant's constitutive defence barriers, infiltrate tissues and cell walls, and are then met with a barrage of pathogen-induced defences. Most pathogens, especially biotrophs, require host cooperation to establish compatible interactions, allowing them to form feeding structures such as haustoria within host cells. The genes that facilitate pathogen infection and host compatibility are referred to as susceptibility (*S*) genes, and their mutation or loss can curtail pathogen success. The emergence of CRISPR/Cas genome editing technology has opened new avenues for controlling plant diseases by targeting these susceptibility genes at the genomic level.

A comprehensive understanding of plant defence mechanisms is pivotal in the identification of susceptibility gene candidates for disease resistance. The remarkable adaptability of pathogens like *Rs* and *Pi*, characterised by their wide host range and resilience, necessitates a comprehensive investigation into their infection strategies, the role of injected effectors, shifts in plant transcriptome and metabolome, and structural modifications. These interactions give rise to notable changes in biological and molecular functions, encompassing activities like cell wall modification, binding, and catalytic activity. Our first research aim was to understand the resistance mechanisms displayed by known resistant potato varieties to *Rs*, such as 'Calalo Gaspar' and 'Cruza 148', by comparing their responses with that of a commercially grown susceptible

variety like ‘Désirée’. By leveraging insights from the existing literature and transcriptomic data from *Rs*-resistant lines, a list of susceptibility gene candidates could be systematically compiled for both *Rs* and *Pi*.

Polyphenol oxidases (PPOs) are a class of enzymes responsible for catalysing the oxidation of monophenols and o-phenols, and their role in defence against a range of pathogens and herbivores is well-documented. However, the precise role of PPOs in response to *Rs* and *Pi* infections has remained elusive. As part of our research, our second aim was to generate PPO mutants and rigorously analyse their responses when subjected to *Rs* and *Pi* infections.

MiR396, a non-coding RNA molecule ranging from 20-24 nucleotides, is a central regulator in plant biology. It plays a pivotal role in regulating plant growth, development, and responses to environmental stressors and diseases. Notably, miR396's involvement in disease resistance has been observed through its reduced levels in *Rs*-resistant peanut plants and its capacity to suppress hypersensitive responses. In the context of potatoes, miR396 is predicted to target genes associated with disease resistance, including multicyclic proteins and NBS-LRR disease resistance proteins (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). It had also been known to influence *Pi* colonisation. Given its significance in both *Rs* and *Pi* resistance responses, a key research aim involved generating miR396 mutants and systematically evaluating their resistance responses.

Plant sulphate transporters (SULTR) are central to the absorption and distribution of sulphur, an essential element for plant growth. Recent evidence suggests that plants can strategically withhold sulphur from pathogens as part of their immune response (Criollo-Arteaga *et al.*, 2021). Within this framework, the research sets its sights on analysing *Arabidopsis* SULTR mutants, offering an opportunity to scrutinise their responses to *Rs* in light of the literature that supports the potential of sulphate transporters as susceptibility genes (Cernadas *et al.*, 2014).

This integrated approach aims to contribute to a deeper understanding of plant-pathogen interactions, resistance mechanisms, and the potential for innovative strategies to combat these devastating diseases, ultimately benefiting both producers and consumers contributing to the ultimate aim of this study.

2. OBJECTIVES TO ACHIEVE

1. Analysing resistance mechanisms of *Rs*-resistant potato lines
2. Studying the effect of PPO knockout in tetraploid potato on resistance to *Rs* and *Pi*
3. Studying the effect of miR396 knockout in tetraploid potato on resistance to *Rs* and *Pi*
4. Studying the effect of sulphate transporters in resistance response to *Rs* in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

Climate change is expected to elevate the frequency of extreme weather events, presenting a formidable challenge to crop production in agriculture (Fedoroff *et al.*, 2010). The primary impediments to crop yield and the distribution of wild plant species arise from both biotic and abiotic stresses. A myriad of pathogens, including bacteria, fungi, oomycetes, viruses, and nematodes, infect plants displaying varying lifestyles ranging from biotrophs (which derive nutrients from living cells), hemibiotrophs (which derive nutrients with initial biotrophic-like phase and a latter necrotrophic phase) to necrotrophs (which derive nutrients from dead cells) (Hane *et al.*, 2020). These pathogens employ diverse infection strategies, such as intracellular or extracellular methods, targeting different plant tissues such as the xylem, phloem, roots, or leaves. The escalating incidence and severity of plant disease outbreaks pose significant threats with consequences that extend beyond immediate agricultural concerns to encompass substantial risks to global food security and environmental sustainability on a worldwide scale. (Fones *et al.*, 2020; Ristaino *et al.*, 2021).

Potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L. (2n=4x=48)) stands as the world's fourth most important food crop, following rice, wheat, and maize (FAO, 2006; He *et al.*, 2012), with an annual global yield of approximately 330 million tons (Tang *et al.*, 2018). Belonging to the Solanaceae family, it holds a prominent position among vegetable crops in terms of both production quantity and human consumption, playing a vital role in food security (Birch *et al.*, 2012; Devaux *et al.*, 2014). Potatoes are unrivalled in their efficiency in generating food energy, making them indispensable (Karim *et al.*, 2018; Tolessa, 2018).

Despite its significance, the potato faces numerous threats from various pathogens. Many plant viruses, nematodes, bacteria, and fungi are documented as severe pests of the potato crop. Among bacterial diseases, brown rot, bacterial wilt, and blackleg stand out as particularly destructive (Rupp and Jacobsen, 2017; Charkowski *et al.*, 2020), while fungal diseases such as early blight, late blight, and powdery mildew pose significant challenges (Rupp and Jacobsen, 2017; Adolf *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, viral pathogens like PVY and PLRV, which cause potato mosaic and leaf roll, can result in complete crop loss (Kreuze *et al.*, 2019).

Plant pathogens significantly contribute to substantial decreases in crop yields. Estimates indicate that approximately 13% to 16% of global crop production is directly lost each year encompassing factors such as yield and quality due to the impact of pathogens (Oerke, 2006; Vurro *et al.*, 2010). Plant resistance becomes even more challenging when dealing with complex and damaging bacterial pathogens like *Ralstonia solanacearum* or persistent oomycetes like *Phytophthora infestans* capable of damaging an entire field.

3.1. *Ralstonia solanacearum* and resistance breeding of plants

Ralstonia solanacearum (*Rs*), a versatile biotrophic phytopathogen, induces the destructive bacterial wilt disease and is found in around 200 host species across over 50 botanical families (Buddenhagen and Kelman, 1964; Hayward, 1991; Patil *et al.*, 2012). Its impact extends beyond banana, eggplant, peanut, pepper, tobacco, and tomato, with potatoes (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) being a significant global target (Elphinstone, 2005; Álvarez *et al.*, 2010). The economic repercussions of *Rs* infections amount to approximately 1 billion USD annually, leading to regional potato crop losses ranging from 10% to 80% (Kinyua *et al.*, 2014; Kurabachew and Ayana, 2017; Karim *et al.*, 2018; Savary *et al.*, 2019). Recognised as the second most impactful plant pathogenic bacterium globally, *Rs* earns this distinction due to its lethal effects, causing wilting in host plants, and its challenging eradication due to prolonged survival and environmental persistence (Van Elsas *et al.*, 2000; Mansfield *et al.*, 2012; Kong *et al.*, 2014)

Since the early 1990s, *Rs* has been classified as a quarantine pest in Europe, and its rapid spread across the continent is linked to the global import of numerous host plants carrying latent infections (Janse *et al.*, 1998, 2004). The distinct classifications of *Rs* can be seen in **Figure 1**, where it is classified into races based on the host range and into biovars on the basis of its ability to metabolise sugar alcohols (mannitol, sorbitol, dulcitol) and disaccharides (sucrose, maltose, lactose) and three hexose alcohols (Denny, 2001). They were further classified into phylotypes based on variations of the internal transcribed spacer region (Fegan and Prior, 2005). The strains of *Rs* responsible for causing brown rot disease in European potatoes fall into race 3 and biovar 2 (R3B2; **Figure 1 A and B**; Buddenhagen *et al.*, 1962; Hayward, 1964), as well as phylotype IIB and sequevar 1 (PIIB-1; Fegan and Prior, 2005). The pathogenicity of *Rs* is contingent upon factors such as extracellular polymeric substances (EPS), flagellin, antioxidant enzymes, type II secretion system (T2SS) secreted proteins (e.g., endoglucanase), and notably, the type III secretion system (T3SS) secreted proteins (Genin and Denny, 2012). Each RSSC strain typically harbours 50-70 T3SS proteins, also known as *Ralstonia*-injected proteins (Rips), which are injected into the host to enable the bacterium to suppress plant defence responses (Block *et al.*, 2008; Remigi *et al.*, 2011; Deslandes and Rivas, 2012). Crucial elements in impeding the dissemination of *Rs* within vascular tissues include physical barriers like the reinforcement of the cell wall and the production of tylose (Grimault and Prior, 1993; Grimault *et al.*, 1994; Nakaho *et al.*, 2004; Caldwell *et al.*, 2017). Substantiating this, Ferreira *et al.* (2017) observed that when comparing various potato clones with different rootstocks for their resistance to *Rs*, the tolerant clones exhibited a lower bacterial load in the stems compared to the susceptible ones. This observation underscores the root-restriction basis of resistance in potatoes.

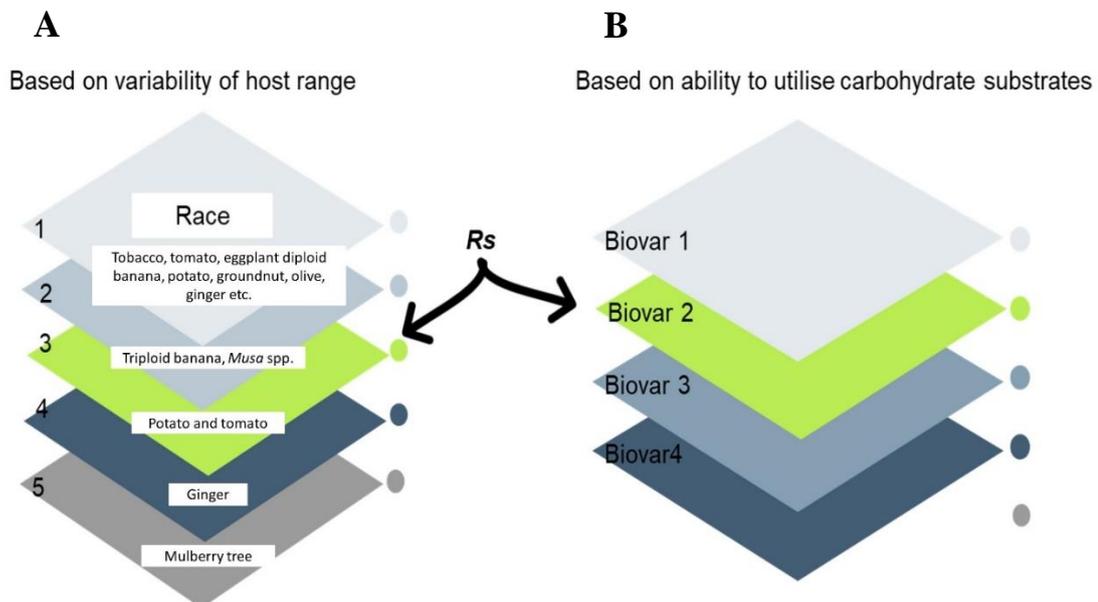


Figure 1. Classification of *Ralstonia solanacearum* spp. complex. Based on variability of host range (A). Based on ability to utilise carbohydrate substrates including glucose, trehalose, mannitol, sorbitol, dulcitol and to oxidise lactose, maltose, and cellobiose (B).

Despite over 2 million years of co-evolution between potato plants (Särkinen *et al.*, 2013; Aversano *et al.*, 2015) and the *Rs* bacterium (Marin *et al.*, 2017), natural resistance or immunity within cultivated *S. tuberosum* genotypes has been exceedingly rare (Nielsen and Haynes, 1960; Jaworski *et al.*, 1980). The pathogenic success of *Rs* is attributed to the coordinated action of various virulence factors and effectors, many of which are delivered into their host(s) through the type II and type III secretion systems (Genin and Denny, 2012; Coll and Valls, 2013; Peeters *et al.*, 2013).

Previously the locus position of two genes responsible for resistance to *Rs* (race 1, biovar 3) was presumed to be on chromosomes 2 and 9 of *S. chacoense*, respectively (Chen *et al.*, 2013). Then, Habe *et al.* (2019) mapped five QTLs associated with resistance in diploid resistant clone induced from ‘Saikai 35’. It was hypothesised that *S. phureja* possesses three primary resistance genes (Sequeira and Rowe, 1969), while the resistance in *S. tuberosum* is governed by a recessive resistance gene (Katayama and Kimura, 1987). However, ongoing observations have revealed that the resistance response is significantly influenced by factors such as the bacterial strain, potato genotype, and environmental conditions (Tung *et al.*, 1990b; Watanabe *et al.*, 1999) making it complex. Numerous breeding initiatives were launched in the 1960s to incorporate resistance to *Rs* from wild relatives like *S. phureja* (Thurston and Lozano, 1968; Sequeira and Rowe, 1969), *S. microdontum* (Tyagi *et al.*, 1980), and *S. commersonii* (Carputo *et al.*, 2009; Siri *et al.*, 2009; Andino *et al.*, 2022). Somatic hybridisation was explored due to genetic distance and sexual incompatibility with resistant wild species, aiming to transfer *Rs* resistance from various sources, including *S. phureja*, *S. stenotomum*, *S. chacoense*, *S. commersonii*, and even eggplant (*S. melongena*; Laferriere *et al.*, 1999; Fock *et al.*, 2000, 2001; Kim-Lee *et al.*, 2005; Chen *et al.*,

2013; Yu *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2016; Cao *et al.*, 2020). However, along with successes, these attempts faced challenges such as linkage drag of unfavourable traits, like high-temperature sensitivity in the case of *S. phureja*, resulting in primarily *Rs*-resistant breeding lines rather than commercially successful cultivars (French *et al.*, 1998; Patil *et al.*, 2012; Huet, 2014; Park *et al.*, 2016; Muthoni *et al.*, 2020).

The bacterium is drawn to plant root injuries, where it senses the presence of amino and organic acids. Using specialised pili, *Rs* attaches itself to root surfaces and gain entry through wounded or secondary roots, colonise the xylem, forming biofilms that can lead to the partial or complete wilting of the host plant by impeding water transport (Grimault and Prior, 1993; Caldwell *et al.*, 2017). Remarkably, these bacteria can remain viable for extended periods in both water and soil environments. Furthermore, when plants exhibit wilting symptoms, *Rs* can migrate from the roots back into the surrounding soil (reviewed by Wang *et al.*, 2023). In mounting a defence against *Rs*, changes occur in various gene expression, accompanied by a nuanced interplay of secondary metabolites and phytohormones. Notably, the defence pathways activated during *Rs* infection encompass critical processes such as plant-pathogen interaction, secondary metabolite biosynthesis, MAPK signalling, plant hormone transduction, phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, and glutathione metabolism. This comprehensive orchestration underscores the pivotal role these pathways play in fortifying the plant's defence mechanisms (Zuluaga *et al.*, 2015; Jiang *et al.*, 2019; Cao *et al.*, 2020; Li *et al.*, 2021; Pan *et al.*, 2021; Peng *et al.*, 2021; Alariqi *et al.*, 2022; Chen *et al.*, 2022; Jose *et al.*, 2023; Xiao *et al.*, 2023). The understanding of molecular mechanisms related to *Rs* resistance primarily stems from investigations conducted on the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* that constitutes initial defence (Kunze *et al.*, 2004). Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) are membrane-localised receptor proteins that detect pathogens and start defence response resulting in PAMP-triggered immunity (PTI) (Zipfel, 2014). Elongation Factor-Tu Receptor (EFR) is a PRR receptor that triggers PTI in *A. thaliana* upon perception of the *Rs* effector EF-Tu. Besides, EFR, various receptors have been identified that contribute to *Rs* detection and provide resistance in the host plant. These include RRS1 and RPS4 in the *A. thaliana* ecotype 'ND-1', ERECTA in the *A. thaliana* ecotype 'Columbia', Re-bw from eggplant 'E-31', and AhRRS5 from peanut (Deslandes *et al.*, 2003; Godiard *et al.*, 2003; Xi'ou *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2017a). Ectopic overexpression of the AhRRS5 receptor demonstrated resistance to *Rs* in tobacco (Zhang *et al.*, 2017a). The expression of antimicrobial peptides, such as Antimicrobial Peptide 1 (AP1) isolated from the resistant potato clone MS42.3, Cecropin B, and Shiva, has been shown to enhance resistance against *Rs* (Jia *et al.*, 1993; Xuping *et al.*, 1996). Potato lacks the PRR Ef-Tu receptors that contribute to resistance in *A. thaliana*, but when these were expressed ectopically, they increased resistance to *Rs* (Boschi *et al.*, 2017). RNA interference (RNAi) PAP2

lines exhibit resistance attributed to increased jasmonic acid (JA) expression and reduced salicylic acid (SA) expression (Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2019).

Various cell wall mutants/overexpressing lines have demonstrated enhanced resistance to *Rs* upon pathogen exposure (Bellincampi *et al.*, 2014; Miedes *et al.*, 2014; Kesten *et al.*, 2017). Mutants of *Arabidopsis* genes associated with secondary cell wall synthesis, such as irregular xylem mutants *irx 1,3,5*, or mutants with reduced secondary cell wall thickness like *wat1*, activate defence responses against *Rs* in an abscisic acid (ABA) and SA-dependent manner, respectively (Hernández-Blanco *et al.*, 2007; Denancé *et al.*, 2013). Potatoes expressing the *ENTERIC B-DEFENSIN (EBD)* gene, possessing antibacterial activity, exhibit higher resistance towards *Rs* in both *in vitro* and greenhouse conditions (Kumar and Chakrabarti, 2017). A chimeric gene comprising the sequence of a *SYNTHETIC TACHYPLESIN I* gene and barley *HORDOTHIONIN* is reported to inhibit *Erwinia caratovora* subspecies in potatoes (Allefs *et al.*, 1996). All of these results indicate the potential of exploiting the same concept of gene regulation to control pathogens, here *Rs*. Additionally, potatoes expressing antimicrobial proteins, *SNAKIN1*, and *SNAKIN2*, demonstrated increased resistance to bacterial wilt (Berrocal-Lobo *et al.*, 2002). *Rs*-resistant potato genotypes show promise for engineering resistance through repurposing intrafamily PRRs and identifying key defence mechanisms (Boschi *et al.*, 2017). Comprehensive molecular analyses of resistant genotypes are vital for uncovering target genes to enhance bacterial wilt resistance in potatoes. Editing candidate susceptibility gene candidates using precise genome editing techniques like CRISPR/Cas is a promising approach towards generating resistance (Tyagi *et al.*, 2021).

3.2. *Phytophthora infestans* and resistance breeding of plants

Phytophthora infestans (*Pi*), an oomycete, exhibits a heterothallic nature and functions as a nearly obligatory hemibiotrophic pathogen in both natural and agricultural settings. The asexual cycle facilitates swift population expansion within susceptible host tissue (Aylor *et al.*, 2001). Studies on gene expression in *Pi* have identified genes associated with sporulation (Ah-Fong and Judelson, 2003; Cvitanich and Judelson, 2003; Kim and Judelson, 2003), zoosporegenesis (Tani *et al.*, 2004), and zoospore behaviour (Latijnhouwers *et al.*, 2004).

Late blight, caused by the oomycete *Pi*, stands out as one of the most destructive potato diseases globally. Guenther *et al.* (2001) estimated late blight's economic impact in the USA at 287.8 million USD, while Haverkort *et al.* (2009) pegged it in the EU at 900 million EUR. Late blight, caused by *Pi*, devastates global potato production, costing up to 10 billion USD annually. Originating in Central Mexico or South America, it has spread to major potato-producing countries like the USA, Canada, China, and India (Fry *et al.*, 2015; Fry, 2016). Late blight remains the primary threat to global food security, especially in regions heavily reliant on potatoes (Pennisi,

2010), causing annual losses of 3-10 billion USD (Haverkort *et al.*, 2009). In developing nations where chemical control is costly, late blight often leads to over 60% yield loss (Dong and Zhou, 2022). The pathogen disseminates through sporangia, airborne asexual spores, propelled by wind and rain. Infection initiates with the germination of a sporangium on a leaf or the development into a zoosporangium, unleashing zoospores that encyst and germinate (Melhus, 1915; Aylor *et al.*, 2001). Subsequently, the emerging germ tube evolves into an appressorium, breaching the leaf's cuticle and epidermis. The infection further proliferates within the leaf tissue through hyphal growth, manifesting as water-soaked lesions that evolve into blackened areas. Within a few days, the afflicted leaf tissue succumbs to necrosis, entering a phase of sporulation. The rapid devastation of an unprotected potato field can unfold within a mere 10 days, contingent on environmental conditions (Fry, 2008). The exceptional pathogenic capability of *Pi* has prompted numerous endeavours to discover or cultivate resistant hosts. Initiatives were launched in the mid-19th century, leading to the development of 'field resistance,' which achieved partial success (Ingram and Williams, 1991). In the early 20th century, the identification of the first resistance (R) genes in *S. demissum* led to initial optimism and a shift away from field resistance efforts against *Pi*. The discovered R genes provided immunity to specific *Pi* strains, recognising effector proteins and inducing host defences, including the hypersensitive response (HR). However, the rise of "resistance-breaking strains" in the pathogen population, initially undetectable, emerged over time, rendering individual R genes ineffective. As new potato cultivars with novel R genes gained popularity, the chance for strains compatible with the R gene to be selected increased. This recurrent pattern has hindered the long-term efficacy of R genes in practical potato late blight suppression in agriculture (Reddick, 1934; Ferris, 1955; Malcolmson, 1969; Ingram and Williams, 1991; Vleeshouwers *et al.*, 2000; Govers and Gijzen, 2006; Fry, 2008). Over 35 potato R genes providing resistance against late blight have been discovered thus far, with the majority encoding proteins characterised by a nucleotide-binding domain and leucine-rich repeats (NLR) (Vleeshouwers *et al.*, 2011; Rodewald and Trognitz, 2013; Vossen *et al.*, 2016; Armstrong *et al.*, 2019; Elnahal *et al.*, 2020). Although R genes from various *Solanum* species, such as *S. berthaultii* (R_{Pi-ber}, located on chromosome 10) (Rauscher *et al.*, 2006) and petunias (Becktell *et al.*, 2006), have been explored, their effectiveness is limited due to pathogen population diversity.

In addition to resistance mediated by R genes, the progression of *Pi* infection can be impeded by bolstering the overall defence capacity of the host. This involves activating defence-related genes, accumulating defensive metabolites, and reinforcing the cell wall (Llorente *et al.*, 2014; Du *et al.*, 2015; Yogendra *et al.*, 2017; Kuźnicki *et al.*, 2019). An alternative method for acquiring disease resistance involves targeting plant susceptibility genes (S genes). This concept has been actively employed in the past decade, contributing to the formulation of innovative

breeding approaches for the management of various crop diseases (Eschen-Lippold *et al.*, 2012; Pessina *et al.*, 2014; Sun *et al.*, 2016a, 2016b). Silencing of S gene orthologs of *A. thaliana* including *StDND1*, *StDMR1*, and *StDMR6*, through RNAi in the late blight-susceptible potato cultivar 'Désirée' resulted in enhanced resistance to *Pi* (Sun *et al.*, 2016a, 2022; Luo *et al.*, 2023). This highlights the potential of disrupting the function of presumed S genes to impede infection and leaf colonisation by *Pi*, ultimately conferring late blight resistance in potatoes. Until now, numerous S genes have been delineated in the interplay between *Pi* and potatoes (He *et al.*, 2020). Notably, members of the BRI1-SUPPRESSOR1-like (BSL) family function as susceptibility factors, actively fostering the virulence of *Pi* (Turnbull *et al.*, 2019). Editing of *S. tuberosum* *PLASMA MEMBRANE PROTEIN 1* (*StPM1*) in potato also resulted in increased resistance to *Pi* (Bi *et al.*, 2023). It is indeed an interesting and important way of engineering disease resistance. However, while generating edited lines, it is important to consider the versatility of the pathogen. It paves the way for multiple infection assays with varying explants to screen for resistance response and establish a reliable infection system. The **Supplementary Table 1** enlists some of the available literatures that direct the infection methodology and evaluation of *Pi*-potato response to aid research.

3.3. Plant defence responses

Plants face continuous exposure to diverse potentially harmful microorganisms. To ward off infections, plants have developed a sophisticated immune system with multiple layers (Chisholm *et al.*, 2006; Jones and Dangl, 2006). Plant immunity relies on innate immune receptors expressed in each cell, recognising invasion signals to initiate either pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) triggered immunity (PTI) or effector-triggered immunity (ETI) (Jones and Dangl, 2006) depending on the molecules being recognised. PTI is activated by a vast array of cell surface-localised pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), including leucine-rich-repeat (LRR) receptor-like kinases (RLKs) like FLS2 and EFR, which identify conserved PAMPs like bacterial flagellin and EF-Tu, respectively, and the lysine-motif (LysM) RLK CERK1, essential for recognising fungal chitin-oligomers and bacterial peptidoglycans (Couto and Zipfel, 2016) as can be seen in **Figure 2**. Upon ligand binding, receptors form complexes with coreceptor/adaptor kinases, triggering protein phosphorylation cascades involving RLKs and receptor-like cytoplasmic kinases (Yu *et al.*, 2017). PRR signalling encompasses cytosolic Ca²⁺ and apoplastic reactive oxygen species (ROS) bursts, Ca²⁺ dependent protein kinases (CDPKs), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascades, defence hormone networks, and extensive transcriptional and translational changes, callose deposition and metabolic reprogramming (Jones and Dangl, 2006; Boller and He, 2009; Yu *et al.*, 2017). These responses collectively contribute to PTI, which prevents the infection of most microbes and restricts that of adapted pathogens during basal resistance. While PRR

pathways share similarities in signalling modules, they exhibit divergence in rate-limiting steps, influencing their sensitivity to biotic/abiotic perturbations. Simultaneous engagement of multiple PRR pathways is likely to enhance the robustness of overall PTI signalling against both pathogenic attacks and environmental perturbations (Saijo *et al.*, 2018).

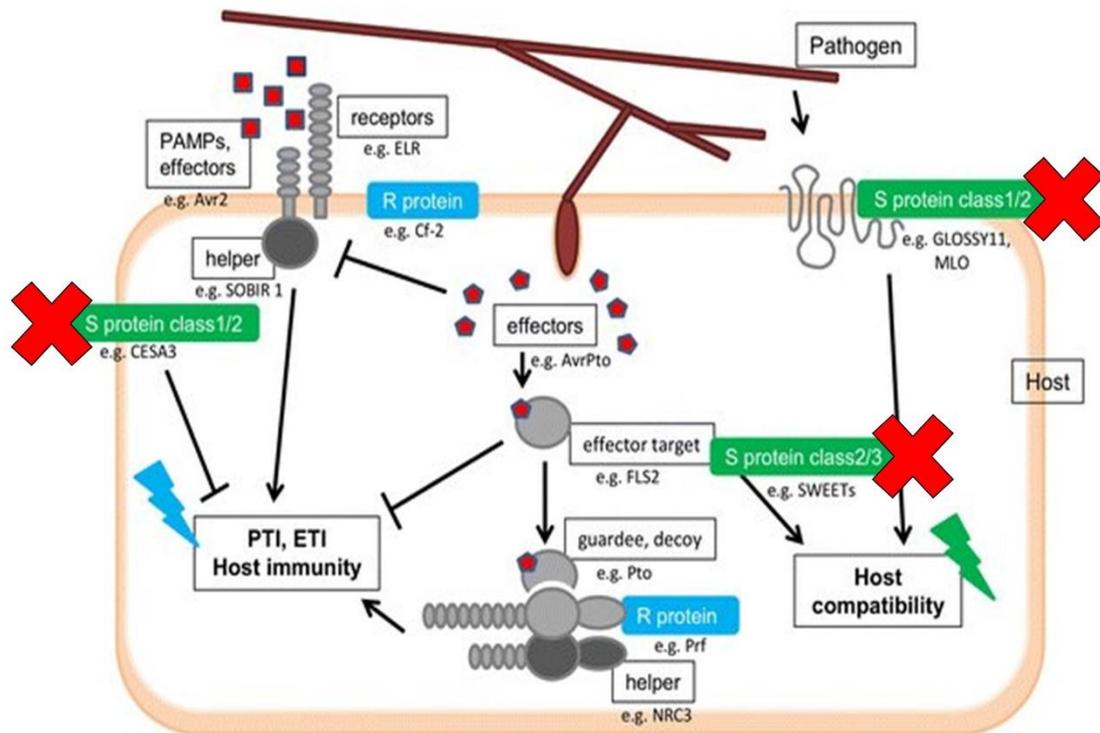


Figure 2. Plant defence mechanisms comprising PAMP-triggered immunity (PTI) and effector-triggered immunity (ETI). Receptors located on the plasma membrane recognise apoplastic pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs/apoplastic effectors) triggering the activation of PAMP-triggered immunity (PTI). Cytoplasmic resistance (R) proteins actively recognise injected intracellular pathogen effectors, or modified effector targets giving rise to effector-triggered immunity (ETI). The co-perception of pathogen-derived components involves helper proteins and guard proteins/decoys. Plant susceptibility genes (S-genes) encode host proteins (S proteins), such as MLO, CESA3, and SWEETs, which play a role in facilitating the entry and growth of pathogens, leading to host compatibility. These S proteins fall into three classes: class 1 genes provide features that aid pathogen entry, class 2 genes enhance innate immunity when disabled, and class 3 genes encode substrates essential for the pathogen. The crosses on the figure taken from Sun *et al.* (2016a) represent the strategy followed to knockout these susceptibility genes to confer resistance.

To evade PTI, pathogenic and mutualistic microbes have developed various effectors that manipulate host immunity and susceptibility components (Toruño *et al.*, 2016; Miwa and Okazaki, 2017). The second level of defence entails plant resistance (R) proteins recognising specific receptors from a pathogen (Avr proteins), resulting in ETI (**Figure 2**). Plants have evolved intracellular receptors, including nucleotide-binding domain and LRR-containing proteins (NLRs, otherwise termed as resistance genes: R-genes), which directly or indirectly via accessory proteins recognise microbial effectors (Dodds and Rathjen, 2010). In the absence of a pathogen-specific receptor, the plant will eventually sense its own damaged components (guard hypothesis) and this will also activate the immune response, nevertheless an early perception of the pathogen could give a plant an advantage and it might decide the outcome of the infection (Dangl and McDowell,

2006). NLR activation leads to an amplified form of defence, often involving localised cell death known as the hypersensitive response (HR). ETI stimulates HRs and triggers programmed cell death (PCD) in infected and surrounding cells (Dangl and McDowell, 2006; Gouveia *et al.*, 2017; Abdul Malik *et al.*, 2020).

ETI and PTI are linked to analogous qualitative changes in transcriptional reprogramming within the host, albeit displaying distinctions in quantity and kinetics (Maleck *et al.*, 2000; Tao *et al.*, 2003). Both PTI and ETI signals are often transduced through the MAPK pathway eventually phosphorylating WRKY transcription factors which in turn activate plant effector genes against the pathogen (Ishihama and Yoshioka, 2012). Compared to PTI, ETI is typically more resilient against pathogen-mediated perturbations (Cui *et al.*, 2015; Saijo *et al.*, 2018). Plant immunity also relies on non-cell autonomous signalling, where localised pathogen/damage recognition triggers the rapid generation of long-distance mobile signals transmitted throughout the plant (Hartmann *et al.*, 2018; Toyota *et al.*, 2018). R gene-mediated plant responses can induce systemic acquired resistance (SAR), conferring whole-plant systemic resistance against a broad spectrum of pathogens (Fu and Dong, 2013; Saijo and Loo, 2020). SAR is initiated through local encounters, stimulating resistance in other plant organs to a broad spectrum of pathogens through intraplant communication. SAR is accompanied by the induction or priming of genes encoding pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins, regulated in part through balanced transcriptional control via the SA-binding transcriptional coactivator NPR1 and corepressors NPR3/NPR4 (Ding *et al.*, 2018). To evade ETI, PTI and SAR, pathogen effectors alternately interact with host genes for successful infection. For instance, the transcription activator-like (TAL) effectors of *Xanthomonas* spp. represent an alternative bacterial effector strategy, functioning as transcription factors that induce the expression of specific host genes as seen in **Figure 3**, some of which contribute to symptom development (Kay and Bonas, 2009). Unlike R genes, S genes are essential for the successful infection of pathogens, playing a pivotal role in compatible plant–pathogen interactions. These interactions involve three main molecular mechanisms associated with S genes, as identified by Van Schie and Takken (2014) (i) basic compatibility, aiding in host recognition and penetration; (ii) sustained compatibility, crucial for pathogen proliferation and spread; and (iii) negative regulation of immune signals. Therefore, deploying a strategy to disable S genes is a good approach for plant resistance. A diagrammatic representation of how susceptibility genes work has been entailed in **Figure 3**. The TAL effectors of *Xanthomonas* spp. represent an alternative bacterial effector strategy, functioning as transcription factors that induce the expression of specific host genes, some of which contribute to symptom development (Kay and Bonas, 2009; Boch and Bonas, 2010; Doyle *et al.*, 2013).

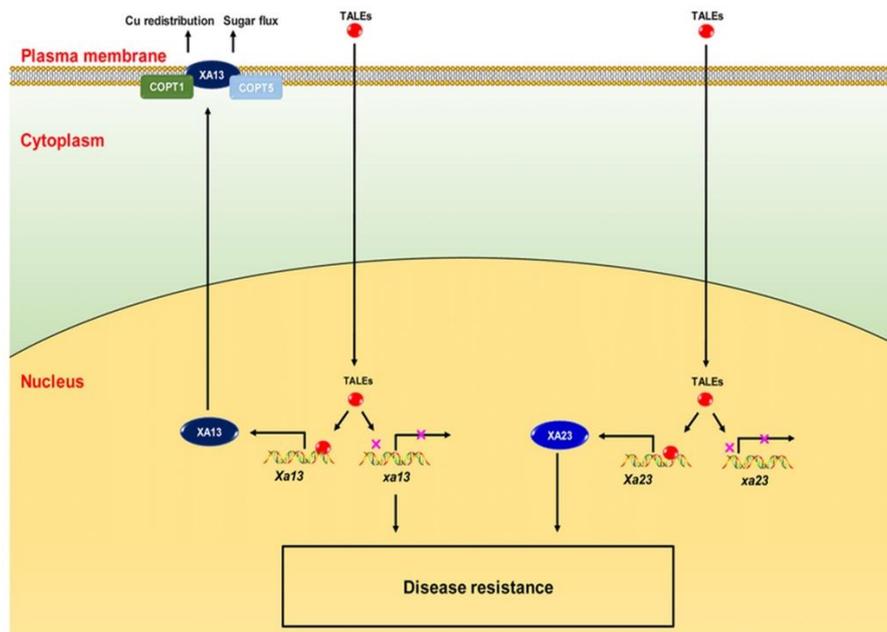


Figure 3. An example of the functioning of S genes. The immune signalling pathways initiated by *Xanthomonas oryzae* involve the SWEET gene *Xa13* and the executor gene *Xa23*. TALEs (Transcription Activator-Like Effectors) are secreted into the cytoplasm of plant cells via the type III secretion system, after which they enter the nucleus, bind to specific promoter elements, and induce the expression of *Xa13*. TALEs exploit XA13 to transport sucrose to the apoplast, providing nutrition to the pathogen. Additionally, TALEs utilise XA13 in conjunction with COPT1 and COPT5 to eliminate toxic Cu from xylem vessels. The resistant allele *xa13*, characterised by mutations in the Effector Binding Elements (EBEs), disrupts the binding of TALEs, resulting in disease resistance. Similarly, akin to SWEET genes, the executor R gene *Xa23* undergoes transcriptional activation by TALEs, instigating host defence responses. Figure taken from Jiang *et al.*, (2020).

In rice, the SWEET gene OsSWEET14 is manipulated by *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. *oryzae* (*Xoo*) during bacterial blight infection. *Xoo* utilises endogenous TAL effectors to redirect host sugars, crucial for the pathogen's nutritional needs. Disrupting this interaction, achieved by CRISPR/Cas9, triggers immunity against bacterial blight (Chen *et al.*, 2012a; Zafar *et al.*, 2020).

Over 150 S genes have been documented in *Arabidopsis*, and mounting evidence suggests the existence of orthologs of these S genes in a wide range of crop species (Bai *et al.*, 2008; Van Schie and Takken, 2014; Sun *et al.*, 2016b). The *dnd1* (*Defence, No Death 1*) mutant encoding a cyclic nucleotide-gated cation channel, exhibits resistance against the bacterium *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *glycinea*, the oomycete *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis*, and fungal pathogens including *Botrytis cinerea* and *Alternaria brassicicola* (Clough *et al.*, 2000; Govrin and Levine, 2000; Jurkowski *et al.*, 2004; Ahn, 2007; Genger *et al.*, 2008; Su'udi *et al.*, 2011). Similarly, mutants of *Arabidopsis* with disrupted *dmr1* (*Downy Mildew Resistance 1*) encoding a homoserine kinase were observed to exhibit resistance against *H. arabidopsidis*, the powdery mildew fungus *Oidium neolycopersici*, and two fusarium pathogens (Van Damme *et al.*, 2008; Huibers *et al.*, 2013; Brewer *et al.*, 2014). In the case of potatoes, reducing expression through RNAi-mediated silencing of the S gene *SYNTAXIN-RELATED1* (*StSYR1*), an *Arabidopsis* *PEN1* ortholog, led to reduced susceptibility to *Pi* (Eschen-Lippold *et al.*, 2012). Recently, evidence of increased

resistance against *Pi* was reported by CRISPR/Cas editing of *StPM1* in potato (Bi *et al.*, 2023). For over seven decades, the *Mlo* (S gene) mutation has consistently provided resistance to powdery mildew (PM) fungi in the field (Jørgensen, 1992; Freisleben and Lein, 1942; Van Schie and Takken, 2014). *Mlo*, a gene encoding a membrane-associated protein with seven transmembrane domains, is evolutionarily conserved across monocots and dicots and is crucial for PM fungal penetration of host epidermal cells (Acevedo-Garcia *et al.*, 2014).

S genes have also been used to induce immunity against bacterial threats, such as citrus canker caused by *X. citri* subsp. *citri* (Xcc). Mutation of the S gene *LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARIES 1* (*CsLOB1*) with CRISPR/Cas9 conferred robust resistance against citrus canker, showcasing its critical role in promoting pathogen growth and pustule formation (Peng *et al.*, 2017). Similarly, the S locus *DOWNY MILDEW RESISTANCE 6* (*DMR6*) has been exploited to trigger broad-spectrum resistance against multiple pathogens (Zeilmaker *et al.*, 2015; de Toledo Thomazella *et al.*, 2016). In rice, the SWEET gene *OsSWEET14* is manipulated by *Xoo* during bacterial blight infection. *Xoo* utilises endogenous TAL effectors to redirect host sugars, crucial for the pathogen's nutritional needs. Disrupting this interaction, achieved by CRISPR/Cas9, triggers immunity against bacterial blight (Antony *et al.*, 2010; Chen *et al.*, 2012a).

3.3.1. Genome editing towards generating resistance in plants

Employing genome editing by means of site-specific nucleases (SSNs) to identify particular DNA sequences, is a technique that involves introducing DNA double strand breaks (DSBs) at a specific genomic region or target site, initiating host DNA repair pathways. The presence of DSBs in DNA is extremely harmful, by causing the arrest of DNA-replication. For their repair, higher eukaryotes prefer the error-prone non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ), it is their dominant repair pathway even in the presence of a sister chromosome where perfect repair would also be possible via homologous recombination (HRc) using the sequence information from the sister chromosome (Voytas and Gao, 2014). Explanations include the time requirement of the two methods (~30 mins for NHEJ compared to ~24h for HRc) and the huge genome size of higher eukaryotes, most of which is non-coding so the effect of most mutations would be minimal (Kanaar *et al.*, 1998; Schaefer, 2001; Kass and Jasin, 2010). However we can use this phenomenon to our advantage by mutating coding regions which frequently results in the creation of a dysfunctional allele, thereby modifying the causal trait (Zaidi *et al.*, 2018). When a donor DNA template is available, the HRc pathway is prone to repairing double-stranded DNA breaks (DSBs), leading to accurate alterations at the base level or complete gene replacement. At present, genome editing relies on three primary categories of sequence-specific nucleases: zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs), transcription activators like effector nucleases (TALENs), and the clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats/CRISPR-associated protein (CRISPR/Cas) system (Yin and Qiu, 2019).

Genome editing, with its unique advantages, holds the promise to overcome the limitations inherent in conventional resistance breeding methods. Firstly, genome editing allows for the direct modification of target genes in elite varieties, bypassing the time-consuming mating procedures involved in traditional breeding approaches. Secondly, the independence of plant populations with ample genetic variation is not a prerequisite; only the sequence information of the target gene is essential. Thirdly, genome editing ensures alterations are confined to the target sites, mitigating the risk of unintended changes or linkage drag. Fourthly, the application of genome editing in resistance breeding obviates the need for complex genetic crosses and the subsequent selection of segregant progeny, facilitating rapid advancements in crop improvement as reviewed by Yin and Qiu (2019). This strategic application of genome editing holds tremendous potential for revolutionising crop disease management practices. Genome editing provides diverse approaches to enhance plant R genes. Techniques such as base editing enable precise amino acid substitutions in the nucleotide-binding site domain of resistance proteins, resembling naturally resistant wild counterparts (Stirnweis *et al.*, 2014; Kim, 2018). Additionally, CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knock-in offers a method for stacking R genes, providing broad-spectrum resistance (Giannakopoulou *et al.*, 2015; Wolter *et al.*, 2018). Another avenue involves modulating gene expression (Cao *et al.*, 2007; Chintamanani *et al.*, 2008; Chai *et al.*, 2017) through CRISPR activation (CRISPRa) or CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) techniques, enabling refined control over resistance gene expression levels (Yin and Qiu, 2019).

The CRISPR/Cas system, rooted in an adaptive immune mechanism that eliminates foreign plasmids or viral DNA by inducing cleavage within bacteria and archaea, has garnered significant attention (Marraffini and Sontheimer, 2010). This genome editing technology utilises a combination of a single guide RNA (sgRNA) and a Cas protein with nuclease activity. The sgRNA features a scaffold for binding with the Cas protein and a user-defined spacer sequence for precise targeting of genomic sequences. Notably, the simplicity, high efficiency, and user-friendly nature of the CRISPR/Cas system have propelled its applications far beyond those of ZFNs and TALENs in various organisms, including plants (Pennisi, 2013). The CRISPR/Cas system's primary constraint lies in the protospacer adjacent motif (PAM)-dependent cleavage of the target sequence. However, the identification and engineering of numerous CRISPR/Cas systems with diverse PAM specificities, such as CRISPR/saCas9, CRISPR/Cpf1 (Cas12a), and xCas9, have expanded its utility beyond the original CRISPR/Cas9 from *Streptococcus pyogenes* (Wrighton, 2018). Additionally, the CRISPR toolbox has been enriched by RNA-targeting systems, including CRISPR/Cas13a (C2c2), CRISPR/Cas13b, and CRISPR/Cas13d, each offering unique functionalities (Abudayyeh *et al.*, 2016; Smargon *et al.*, 2017; Yan *et al.*, 2018). It is a useful tool for editing plant genomes (Wright *et al.*, 2016) that can be applied across different plant species

to induce resistance (Jiang *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Zaidi *et al.*, 2016; Char *et al.*, 2017). Recently applications of CRISPR/Cas9 technology have successfully mutated *Mlo*, conferring PM resistance in wheat and non-transgenic tomato systems (Shan *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Nekrasov *et al.*, 2017). The susceptibility gene *ENHANCED DISEASE RESISTANCE 1 (EDR1)*, encoding a Raf-like mitogen-activated protein, has also been targeted with CRISPR/Cas9, resulting in a significant reduction of PM in wheat (Zhang *et al.*, 2017b) highlighting the scope of precise genome editing of plant S genes to explore and induce resistance. Successful genome editing necessitates knowledge of host genome sequences and molecular details about the target gene. While an increasing number of plant species have been fully sequenced, extensive genetic and molecular studies have unveiled finer details of plant innate immunity, providing a growing array of targets for pest and disease prevention and control. Negative regulators of plant disease resistance, the host S genes, emerge as promising targets for genome editing, with a particular focus on enhancing disease resistance traits. This is especially pertinent as bacterial diseases pose significant challenges in terms of control, particularly once epidemics have established, owing to the diverse nature, rapid multiplication, and various modes of spread exhibited by bacterial pathogens. Given the potential durability of S genes in field conditions, they have gained popularity as prime candidates for genome editing strategies aimed at developing crops resistant to bacterial diseases. Utilising the functional similarities of S genes across different plant species, genome editing enables the creation of desired mutant S genes in a wide range of plants for breeding, bypassing the need to account for species-specific barriers. The fundamental concept of the disease triangle in plant pathology, which involves a virulent pathogen, a susceptible host, and a conducive environment, highlights the interplay leading to disease manifestation. Genome editing offers a versatile approach by allowing interventions in any of the three factors including S genes, disrupting plant–pathogen interactions and offering a means of disease control.

3.4. Polyphenol oxidases

Polyphenols play a crucial role in defence responses against both biotrophic and hemibiotrophic pathogens, and their resistance-inducing impact is intricately linked to the temporal and spatial dynamics of their accumulation (Nicholson and Hammerschmidt, 1992). Among the key players in this defence network are polyphenol oxidases (PPOs), encompassing tyrosinases (EC 1.14.18.1), o-diphenol: oxygen oxidoreductases, also known as catechol oxidases (EC 1.10.3.1), and laccases (EC 1.10.3.2). The enzymatic browning induced by PPO activity in tubers not only impacts their quality but also raises significant biological and commercial concerns within the realm of potato production. This phenomenon has been a substantial issue, leading to approximately 50% losses in the industrial production of fruits and vegetables (Holderbaum *et al.*, 2010). Specifically in the context of potatoes, during post-harvest, about 20% of the product is

susceptible to compromise due to PPO-mediated browning, significantly affecting consumer acceptance and posing challenges for potato producers (Whitaker and Lee, 1995; Tomás-Barberán and Espín, 2001).

It is noteworthy that, in addition to affecting quality and consumer preference, PPOs have been associated with allergenic effects in certain species (Babu *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, the consequences of food browning extend beyond aesthetic concerns, as it results in the degradation of essential amino acids, reduced digestibility, and the formation of potentially harmful compounds during baking, thereby impacting the nutritional quality of the product (Friedman, 1996). The multifaceted implications of PPO activity highlight the importance of understanding and managing enzymatic browning in crops for both biological and commercial considerations. In the context of potato, genes responsible for *PPOs* exhibit intricate spatial and temporal expression patterns. Notably, *Pot32* (U22921), *Pot33* (U22922), *Nor333* (M95196), and *POT72* (U22923) are reported to be expressed in different parts such as tubers and roots (Thygesen *et al.*, 1995). These copper-containing enzymes, encoded by nuclear genes, primarily operate within plant chloroplasts, with an additional presence in fungi, certain animals, and bacteria (Burke and Cairney, 2002; Mayer, 2006). PPOs catalyse the oxidation of monophenols to o-diphenols and o-phenols to o-quinones, utilising molecular oxygen as a substrate (Van Gelder *et al.*, 1997; Oliveira *et al.*, 2011). The resulting quinones are cytotoxic, capable of cross-linking macromolecules and reducing the nutritional value of alkylated proteins (Felton *et al.*, 1992; Li and Steffens, 2002). Furthermore, these reactive o-quinone products undergo non-enzymatic polymerisation, culminating in the formation of a brown-black coloured melanin-like complex polymer on plant tissues and cell extracts (Golan-Goldhirsh *et al.*, 1984; Duffey and Felton, 1991). PPOs emerge as a dynamic defence system against biotrophic, necrotrophic pathogens, and herbivores, with their expression being induced by SA, JA, and systemin (Nicholson and Hammerschmidt, 1992; Van Gelder *et al.*, 1997; Burke and Cairney, 2002; Li and Steffens, 2002; Mayer, 2006; Oliveira *et al.*, 2011). This defence mechanism involves the formation of melanin complexes that establish a protective barrier, sealing tuber tissues against the entry and spread of pathogens (Johnson *et al.*, 2003). Laccases, a subset of PPOs, demonstrate the ability to oxidise monolignols, producing lignin that reinforces the cell wall, offering an effective protective mechanism against various pathogens (Liu *et al.*, 2020; Bai *et al.*, 2023). Remarkably, studies have shown that tomato plants overexpressing *PPO* exhibit increased resistance to *Pseudomonas syringae* (Li and Steffens, 2002), while the introduction of an antisense *PPO* construct heightens susceptibility (Duffey and Felton, 1991). Additionally, *PPO*-overexpressing strawberries were reported to display enhanced resistance to gray mold (Jia *et al.*, 2016) and Bhonwong *et al.* (2009) observed a decline in the growth rate and nutritional indices of two caterpillar species when reared on tomato plants

overexpressing *PPO*. Further *PPO* and its involvement with biotic stress has been reviewed by Zhang and Sun, (2021).

While substantial data highlight the protective role of *PPOs* against pathogens and their multifaceted functions in this defence mechanism, conflicting reports exist. Some studies, such as those by Melo *et al.* (2006) and Richter *et al.* (2012) found no correlation between *PPO* activity and resistance to fungal pathogens. Conversely, negative relationships were also established in studies like those conducted by Hakimi *et al.* (2002) and Llorente *et al.* (2014). In the context of *Rs*-resistant wild peanuts (*Arachis glabrata*), a significant increase in the expression level of the *PPO*-targeting miR3508 following *Rs* infection was observed (Zhao *et al.*, 2015). The patent WO2002061101A3 claims that antisense silencing of tuber specific *PPO* lead to enhanced resistance to fungal diseases such as late blight, induced by *Pi* (Hakimi *et al.*, 2002). Notably, the downregulation of *PPO* in potato tubers also led to altered metabolite concentrations, particularly chlorogenate, redirecting phenylpropanoid metabolism and enhancing the accumulation of defensive phenolic compounds, ultimately bolstering pathogenic resistance (Llorente *et al.*, 2014). The enzymatic reaction catalysed by *PPOs* presents a paradoxical scenario, akin to a double-edged sword. The oxidation resulting from *PPO* activity implies the loss of chlorogenic acid and other *PPO* substrates, which are otherwise potent antimicrobial compounds. For instance, chlorogenic acid has been demonstrated to inhibit both *Rs* and *Escherichia coli*, as well as the *Monilia* fungus in peaches (Villarino *et al.*, 2011; Kabir *et al.*, 2014; Yang *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, a myriad of phenolic and polyphenolic compounds have exhibited antibacterial and/or antifungal effects (Coppo and Marchese, 2014; Nakamura *et al.*, 2015; Pagliarulo *et al.*, 2016). This discrepancy in the role of *PPOs* in pathogen resistance is further complicated by the uncertainty of whether *PPOs* or the simple phenols/polyphenols (many of which are *PPO* substrates) represent the more critical and effective defence mechanism. These findings underscore the pivotal role of polyphenols and *PPOs* in orchestrating a robust defence against diverse pathogens, emphasising their potential for enhancing plant resistance through genetic modification.

Adding to the complexity, certain bacteria and fungi also express *PPOs*, with *Rs* expressing at least three genes exhibiting *PPO* activity, such as tyrosinases and laccases, contributing to secondary metabolism and defence against phenolic compounds (Hernández-Romero *et al.*, 2005). In the realm of fungal pathogens, melanin, a component of the cell wall, has been shown to protect the fungus from plant immune factors (Pihet *et al.*, 2009). Consequently, the challenge lies in deciphering how to effectively protect plants against *PPO*-expressing pathogens, whether through the activity of *PPOs* (considering the potential tolerance development by pathogens to *PPO* products due to their own *PPO* enzymes) or through the production of simple phenols/polyphenols.

Traditional breeding methods are time-consuming, requiring several years for the development of a new variety (Mullins *et al.*, 2006; Werij *et al.*, 2007). To expedite the process, a more efficient solution involves genetic intervention through genome editing, specifically creating *Pot32* knockout lines in commercial cultivars. This approach aims to produce edited potato lines in a shorter timeframe, simultaneously exploring the relationship between PPO activity and resistance against pathogens such as *Rs* and *Pi* in potatoes. If decreasing PPO activity leads to heightened production of antimicrobial compounds and, consequently, increased resistance to pathogens, this approach offers dual advantages.

3.5 miR396

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are eukaryotic endogenous, small (20–24 nt) non-coding, single-stranded RNAs serving as vital post-transcriptional regulators in both plant and animal systems. (Finnegan and Matzke, 2003). Primary miRNAs (pri-miRNAs) in plants are generated through transcription by RNA polymerase II from genomic loci dedicated to miRNA (MIR loci, Lee *et al.*, 2004). Following transcription, the extended stem of the looped pri-miRNAs undergoes processing by RNase III enzymes known as DICER-like 1 (DCL1; Lee *et al.*, 2004; Bologna and Voinnet, 2014). This process involves the formation of hairpin structures (Jones-Rhoades and Bartel, 2004; Gibbings *et al.*, 2009). Following this, mature miRNAs associate with ARGONAUTE (AGO) proteins, forming miRNA/AGO complexes that seek out complementary messenger RNAs (mRNA) for degradation or translational silencing (Tolia and Joshua-Tor, 2007; Mallory *et al.*, 2008; Chen, 2009; Meister, 2013). Interestingly, in animals, approximately 60% of protein-coding genes are regulated by miRNAs but by contrast, only around 1% of plant genes are subject to such a regulation. Still, the effect of miRNA-controlled gene regulation is significant in plants since most targets are transcription factors (Sunkar *et al.*, 2012).

In the plant context, miRNAs play a pivotal role in recognising target mRNAs through highly specific basepairing mechanisms, influencing various processes including development and responses to biotic (bacteria, fungi, oomycetes, etc.) and abiotic stresses (Zhang *et al.*, 2009; Hwang *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2017; Chen, 2012; Li *et al.*, 2012; Bologna and Voinnet, 2014; Kumar, 2014; Luan *et al.*, 2015; Chen *et al.*, 2015; Bonar *et al.*, 2018; Natarajan *et al.*, 2018; Jiang *et al.*, 2018; Kondhare *et al.*, 2018; Chen *et al.*, 2019a). Based on multiple studies, it can be concluded that plant microRNAs exert their role on promoting resistance to bacterial pathogens in the following ways: attenuating plant growth and development, promoting early flowering, signalling of IAA (indole-acetic acid), GA (gibberellic acid) and ABA and inhibiting JA but boosting SA-signalling, inducing the synthesis of antimicrobial compounds, and increasing of copper metabolism and hypersensitive response, turning on PTI, ETI and cell wall building (Subramanian *et al.*, 2008; Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Khraiweh *et al.*, 2012; Pérez-Quintero *et al.*, 2012;

Sunkar *et al.*, 2012; Niu *et al.*, 2016a). The complex and dynamic reprogramming comprising the temporal and intensity of gene regulation during both PTI and ETI in plant immune responses involves the potential involvement of small RNAs, specifically miRNAs (Llave *et al.*, 2002; Brodersen *et al.*, 2008; Bologna and Voinnet, 2014). Moreover, miRNAs, acting as cellular messengers, can be secreted into target cells through vesicles or binding proteins, regulating multiple target genes (Chen *et al.*, 2012b; O'Brien *et al.*, 2018). miRNAs play a direct role in targeting transcripts of major R gene classes, such as NLR and ARLPK (atypical receptor-like pseudokinase) genes crucial for plant defence (Jagadeeswaran *et al.*, 2009; Padmanabhan *et al.*, 2009; Shivaprasad *et al.*, 2012; Boccara *et al.*, 2014; Niu *et al.*, 2016b). In tomatoes and other solanaceous plants, members of the miR482/2118 family play a role in targeting numerous nucleotide binding site-LRR (NBS-LRR) resistance protein genes. The pathogen-encoded RNA silencing suppressor has the capacity to trigger the removal of miR482/2118 in a non-specific manner, thereby alleviating the inhibition on their NBS-LRR gene targets. This regulatory mechanism, as supported by expression profiling in both wild and cultivated tomatoes, ensures that R proteins are expressed at a low level in the absence of pathogen infection but can be rapidly induced upon encountering a pathogen (De Vries *et al.*, 2018). This balance allows for an effective defence strategy in which resistant proteins are poised for swift activation in response to pathogen invasion (Eckardt, 2012).

There are several reports supporting the significant contribution of plant miRNAs to PTI and ETI responses against pathogens (Seo *et al.*, 2013; Deng *et al.*, 2018). Exemplifying their role in plant defence, miR393 regulates immunity against *Pseudomonas syringae* by suppressing auxin signalling (Navarro *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, miR160, miR825, miR398b, and miR773 have been identified as regulators of immunity against bacterial infection in *Arabidopsis* (Fahlgren *et al.*, 2007; Jagadeeswaran *et al.*, 2009; Antony *et al.*, 2010). The regulatory role of miRNAs in potato, especially concerning their impact on gene expression and defence mechanisms, is a noteworthy subject of discussion. miRNAs in potatoes exhibit a significant role in responding to various pathogens and environmental stresses (Zhang *et al.*, 2009; Hwang *et al.*, 2011; Chen *et al.*, 2015; Bonar *et al.*, 2018; Kondhare *et al.*, 2018). miRNAs influence growth, development, and anthocyanin biosynthesis (Zhang *et al.*, 2009; Bonar *et al.*, 2018). Besides established involvement in drought, salt, and cold stresses, (Hwang *et al.*, 2011; Chen *et al.*, 2015), specific miRNAs, such as stu-miR482d-3p and stu-miR397-5P, have been identified as regulators of virus PVA resistance by targeting PR genes (Li *et al.*, 2017). Additionally, miR160 in potato has been found to regulate *Pi* infection and activate SAR by modulating the SA-mediated resistance response (Natarajan *et al.*, 2018). The involvement of miRNAs in potato defence is further emphasised by their role in targeting R genes within the potato genome, as observed in the case of *Pi* miR8788 targeting potato

StABHI to promote late blight disease (Hu *et al.*, 2022). Additionally, sRNA sequencing in potato indicates that the transient expression of miR396 facilitates *Pi* colonisation by targeting the *MULTICYSTATIN* gene (Luo *et al.*, 2023). These findings collectively stress on the multifaceted role of miRNA regulation in orchestrating defence responses and gene expression in the context of potato.

The role of miR396 in various stress conditions, including drought (Liu *et al.*, 2008), salt (Liu *et al.*, 2008), cold (Zhou *et al.*, 2008), and hypoxia stress (Zhang *et al.*, 2008), has been established. In terms of pathogen resistance, miR396 evolutionarily targets the *GROWTH-REGULATING FACTOR* (*GRF*) family of transcription factors across plant species, influencing growth, hyposensitivity response, and water saving pathways (Karlova *et al.*, 2013; Gao *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2015). miR396 overexpression leads to the repression of *GRF* expression (Liu *et al.*, 2009) and the regulation of *GRFs* affects cell division and differentiation during leaf development (Liu *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2011). *GRFs* also have a proposed role in host reprogramming, resulting in an enhanced immune response like increased H₂O₂ accumulation, and callose deposition upon pathogen perception (Soto-Suárez *et al.*, 2017). The overexpression of miR396 in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants resulted in a reduction in stomata density, as evidenced by findings from Liu *et al.* (2009). This observed decrease in stomata density suggests that the up-regulation of *miR396* or the down-regulation of its target, *GRF*, may serve as a mechanism employed by plants to mitigate stomatal density. The reduction in stomata density further led to a decrease in transpiration rate (Wang *et al.*, 2007a), subsequently reducing water loss and promoting an increase in relative water content during periods of drought stress (Liu *et al.*, 2009). However, there were no reports of *GRFs* targeted by miR396 in potato. *MIM396 Arabidopsis* plants, with reduced miR396 activity exhibit enhanced resistance to necrotrophic and hemibiotrophic fungal pathogens through a superactivation of defence responses, suggesting a priming event during pathogen infection (Soto-Suárez *et al.*, 2017). miR396, targeting the hypersensitive response protein, was also downregulated upon *Rs* infection in resistant peanut variety indicative of its negative regulation in plant defences (Zhao *et al.*, 2015). Many of miR396 targets as listed in **Table 1** are interesting candidate genes participating in defence responses in potato.

Table 1. Compiled list of predicted miR396 targets in potato based on Zhang *et al.* (2009) and Zhang *et al.* (2013).

Targeted protein	Target function	Accession ID
Ubiquitin activating enzyme	Transcription factor	TC103286
NBS-LRR disease resistance protein homologue	Disease resistance response	BF460277 , TC98672
Membrane-associated salt-inducible protein	Stress responses	CK716485
Prohibitin/PHB1	Stress responses	TC93512
Multicystatin precursor (MC)	Stress responses	BG600937 , TC109112
Glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase (GPAT)	Metabolism	CK274104 , TC95254
Cysteine protease	Metabolism	TC92741
Zinc metalloproteinase-like	No data	CN464599
DNA methyltransferase	No data	BE340450
Hypothetical protein SBB1	No data	BE922572
Resistance gene-like	No data	TC111603
BT1 (BTB and TAZ domain protein 1) protein binding/transcription regulator	No data	TC93491 , TC93492
Endomembrane protein EMP70	No data	TC99218
MYB transcription factor	Transcription factor	CK270158, CK861831, C108832, TC94134
MYC-type transcription factor	Transcription factor	TC104774
ATP sulphurylase	Metabolism	BG596849.1, BI176927.1
Protein disulfide isomerase	No data	PGSC0003DMT400006756
GRIP and coiled-coil domain-containing protein	No data	PGSC0003DMT400046956
Tospovirus resistance protein A	No data	PGSC0003DMT400016105
DNA binding protein	No data	PGSC0003DMT400084792
Multicystatin	Stress responses	PGSC0003DMT400015250
Multicystatin	Stress responses	PGSC0003DMT400015251
Multicystatin	Stress responses	PGSC0003DMT400069147
Multicystatin	Stress responses	PGSC0003DMT400069145
Multicystatin	Stress responses	PGSC0003DMT400069146
Multicystatin	Stress responses	PGSC0003DMT400069145
Multicystatin	Stress responses	PGSC0003DMT400069146
DNA binding protein	No data	PGSC0003DMT400049891
DNA binding protein	No data	PGSC0003DMT400049895
DNA binding protein	No data	PGSC0003DMT400049896

Furthermore, CRISPR/Cas9 technology has been employed to directly generate miRNA knockout mutants, demonstrating its efficacy for manipulating miRNA function in plants (Zhao *et al.*, 2016a; Zhou *et al.*, 2017). This approach allows for precise modifications, including single-base pair indels in mature miRNA regions or large deletions abolishing miRNA function (Zhou *et al.*, 2017).

It is promising to edit *miR396* to see its potential effect on defence responses in potato upon being subjected to *Rs* and *Pi*.

3.6 Sulphate transporters

While studying various plant susceptibility factors where the mutation could cause resistance against *Rs* and *Pi*, the prospect of limiting sulphur availability to the pathogens also turned up. As it was previously mentioned, *Xanthomonas* switches on plant genes with TAL effectors including sugar and sulphur transporters to feed itself (Garcia-Ruiz *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, knock out of such transporters seemed an obvious choice for increasing plant resistance against pathogens. Sulphur plays a crucial role in plant biology, serving as an essential element involved in various biological processes such as the biosynthesis of sulphur-containing amino acids, cysteine and methionine, conferring resistance against diseases and pests, and participating in the detoxification of reactive oxygen species, xenobiotics, and heavy metals (Leustek *et al.*, 2000; Saito, 2000; Xiang *et al.*, 2001; Takahashi *et al.*, 2011; Álvarez *et al.*, 2012). In the soil and water, sulphur commonly exists in the form of sulphate ions (SO_4^{2-}) (Takahashi *et al.*, 2011). Higher plants have evolved a family of sulphate transporters, known as SULTRs, to mediate the absorption of sulphate from the soil and its distribution throughout the organism (Smith *et al.*, 1995; Yoshimoto *et al.*, 2002). In plants, the *SULTR* gene family is thought to encode integral membrane proteins functioning as secondary active transporters. These proteins facilitate the movement of protons (H^+) along a favourable electrochemical gradient, powering the transport of anions against an unfavourable electrochemical gradient (Smith *et al.*, 1995; Wang *et al.*, 2021). The water-soluble sulphate ion (SO_4^{2-}), is taken up from the soil by a family of proton-coupled and high-affinity sulphate transporters expressed in root hairs and several cellular compartments of the root (**Figure 4A**). The assimilated sulphate is then transported by low-affinity transporters via the vascular system to the shoots and the reproductive organs for further metabolism (**Figure 4A and B**) (Saito, 2000). The end products of this processing are sulphur-containing amino acids (Cysteine, Methionine), glutathione, glucosinolates, sulphated enzymatic cofactors, etc.

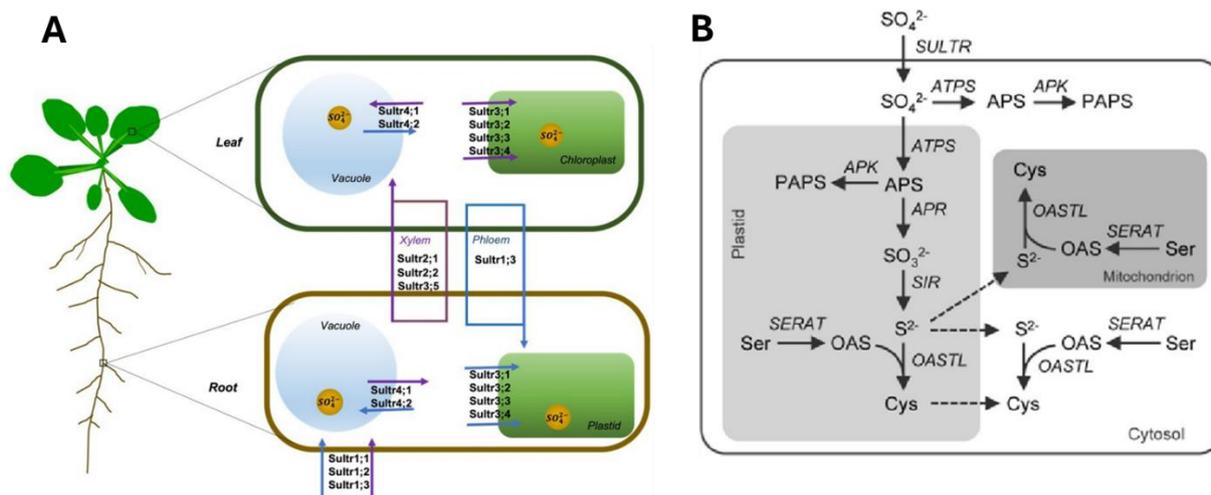


Figure 4. High-affinity sulphate transporters in various cell types of plant roots (A) and general overview of the sulphur metabolism in higher plants (B). (Wang *et al.*, 2022a)

The SULTR family, named for its involvement in sulphate uptake from the soil and internal movement within the plant, comprises various isoforms with diverse functions (Takahashi *et al.*, 2000; Kataoka *et al.*, 2004a). The dynamic functions of SULTRs are influenced by their distinct localisation patterns and substrate affinities, impacting physiological processes such as stomatal regulation, callose deposition, and defence hormone signalling (Zörb *et al.*, 2022). SULTRs are categorised into four subfamilies, exhibiting approximately 60% amino acid sequence similarity. The SULTR1 and SULTR2 subfamilies facilitate sulphate uptake in the root and transport from the root to the shoot (Takahashi *et al.*, 2000; Shibagaki *et al.*, 2002). These transporters have been extensively studied, with the SULTR3 subfamily playing a crucial role in sulphate uptake into chloroplasts, influencing ABA biosynthesis and the stress response (Cao *et al.*, 2013; Chen *et al.*, 2019b). SULTR3 is also the largest sub-group and includes isoforms with functions in phosphate transport and seed phytate accumulation (Zhao *et al.*, 2016b; Yamaji *et al.*, 2017). Individual SULTR3 isoforms localise to the plasma membrane, endoplasmic reticulum, and chloroplast membrane (Ye *et al.*, 2011; Raboy *et al.*, 2014; Ding *et al.*, 2020). Additionally, the SULTR4 subfamily is localised to vacuolar membranes, releasing stored sulphate into the cytosol (Kataoka *et al.*, 2004b).

Research in *A. thaliana* has elucidated the multifaceted roles of SULTR isoforms. Notably, some isoforms contribute to molybdate and phosphate transport, while others are involved in the ABA biosynthetic pathway, seed phytate accumulation, and pathogen susceptibility (Fitzpatrick *et al.*, 2008; Cernadas *et al.*, 2014; Zhao *et al.*, 2016b; Yamaji *et al.*, 2017; Batool *et al.*, 2018). The functionality of group 3 sulphate transporters remains elusive. Specifically, SULTR3;5 has been observed reinforcing the function of SULTR2;1 in facilitating sulphate translocation from roots to shoots, resulting in increased sulphate accumulation in the roots of *sultr3;5* mutants under low sulphur conditions (Kataoka *et al.*, 2004a). Another study indicated elevated sulphate levels

and decreased free cysteine content in *Arabidopsis* seeds of single defective mutants belonging to group 3 sulphate transporters. Despite unaffected total sulphur supply, this points to a reduction in sulphur assimilation and reduction in these mutants (Zuber *et al.*, 2010; Cao *et al.*, 2013). SULTR3;1 is primarily localised in the chloroplast and is characterised by a predicted protein structure encompassing 12 transmembrane helices and a Sulphate Transporter and Anti-Sigma factor antagonist (STAS) domain also comprising the conserved threonine residue Thr-578 in its STAS domain similar to what is required for SULTR1;2 transport (Rouached *et al.*, 2005; Cao *et al.*, 2013). The knockout mutants of group 3 sulphate transporters exhibited diminished chloroplast sulphate emphasising its role in sulphate uptake across the chloroplast envelope membrane (Cao *et al.*, 2013). However, the existence of a backup system for sulphate uptake into plastids is evident due to the redundant functions of all SULTR3s (Chen *et al.*, 2019b).

The synthesis of ABA is intricately linked to Cys availability, as ABSCISIC ALDEHYDE OXIDASE 3 (AAO3), a pivotal enzyme in ABA biosynthesis, relies on Cys as the sulphur donor for its molybdenum cofactor sulphuration catalysed by sulphurase ABA3. Notably, *sultr3;l* exhibited reduced AAO3 activity and reduced ABA levels under normal and salt stress conditions (Cao *et al.*, 2014). In a related study, Cys was identified as a trigger for ABA biosynthesis in *Arabidopsis*, elucidating the drought-sensitive phenotype of Cys-synthesis-depleted mutants and providing insights into the mechanism of sulphate-induced stomatal closure (Batoool *et al.*, 2018). Additionally, *SULTRs*, including *SULTR3;6*, a susceptibility gene (Garcia-Ruiz *et al.*, 2021) are implicated in regulating ABA signalling and influencing stomatal closure, suggesting their intricate involvement in plant-pathogen interactions (Du *et al.*, 2014; Batoool *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, *SULTR3;6* has been identified as a key player in bacterial leaf streak susceptibility in rice, with its transcriptional activation by the Tal2g virulence factor of *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzicola* contributing to disease development therefore qualifying as a major susceptibility gene (Cernadas *et al.*, 2014; Garcia-Ruiz *et al.*, 2021; Scinto-Madonich *et al.*, 2023). Uncovering the role of sulphate transporters, particularly group 3 sulphate transporters might not just be a scientific resource but might also lead to susceptibility genes and associated resistance to pathogens.

4. MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.1. Pathogen strains

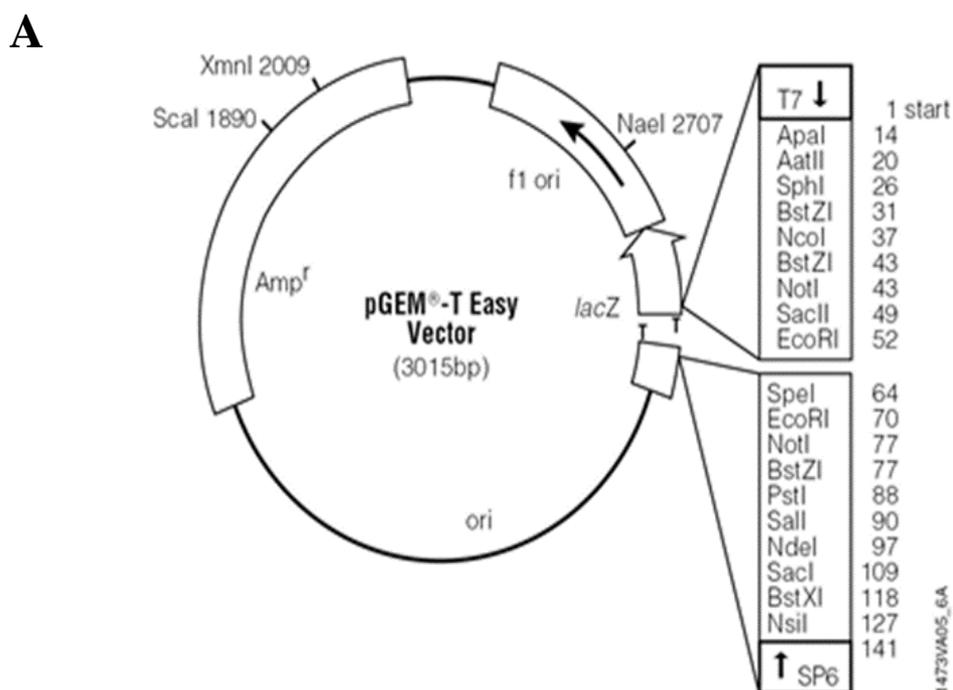
Table 2. Bacterial strains used in the study

Bacterial strain	Genotype
<i>Escherichia coli</i> Top10	F- mcrA (mrr-hsdRMS-mcrBC) 80lacZ M15 lacX74 recA1 ara 139 (ara-leu)7697 galU galK rpsL (StrR) endA1 nupG.
<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> LBA4404	Ach5 (RIF R) Ti pAL4404 (strepr) Octopine

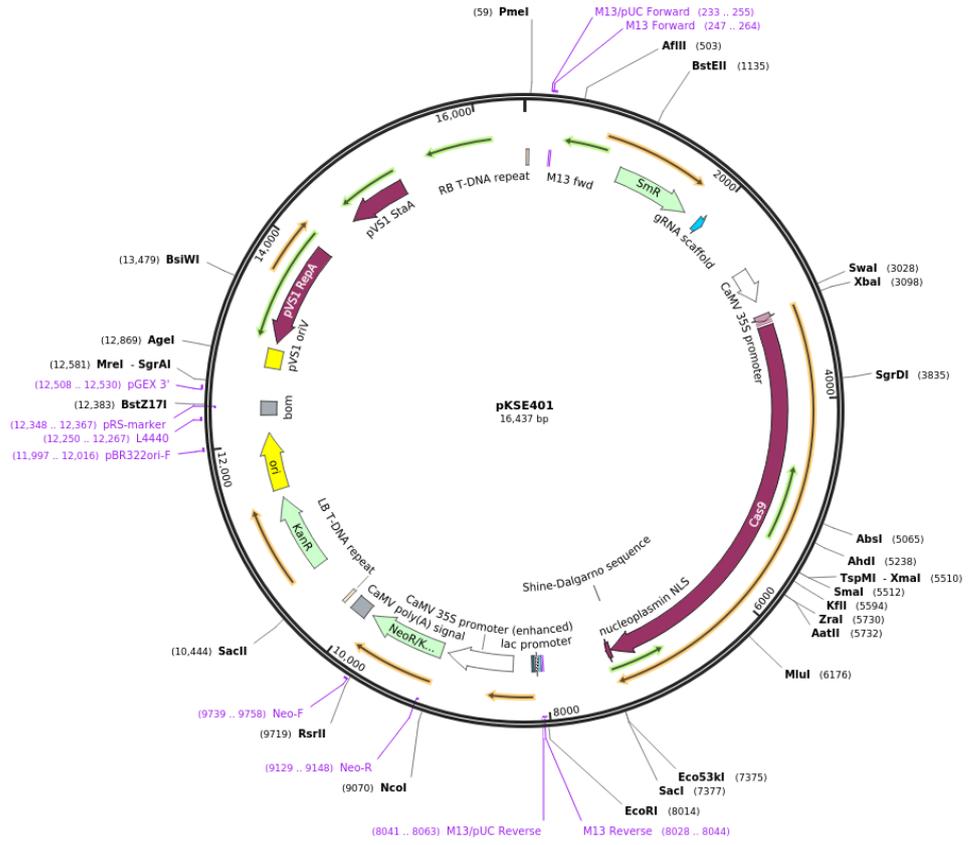
4.2. Vectors

Table 3. Vectors used in the study

Name	Type
pGEM-T Easy	Cloning vector
pKSE401	Binary CRISPR/Cas9 vector for <i>A. tumefaciens</i> mediated transformation
pCBC-DT1T2	Template for making expression cassette



B



C

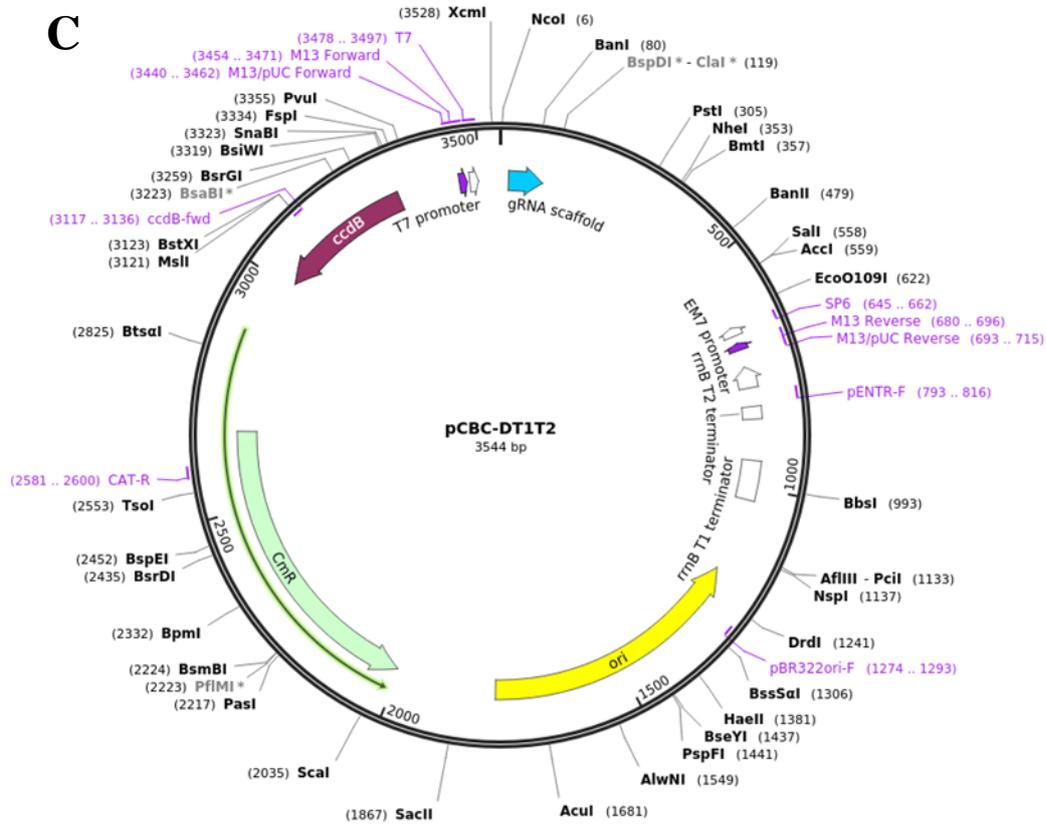


Figure 5. Plasmid map of the vectors used pGEM-T Easy (A) pKSE401 (B) and pCBC-DT1T2 (C)

4.3. Plant material

Table 4. Plant materials used in the study

No.	Name of variety	Origin	Resistance type
1	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L. ‘Désirée’	WUR, Wageningen, The Netherlands	Partially resistant to <i>Pi</i> , susceptible to <i>Rs</i>
2	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L. ‘Balatoni Rózsa’	Potato Research Centre, Keszthely	Moderately susceptible to <i>Pi</i> . No data for <i>Rs</i>
3	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L. ‘Botond’	Potato Research Centre, Keszthely	Moderately resistant to <i>Pi</i> . No data for <i>Rs</i>
4	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L. ‘Hópehely’	Potato Research Centre, Keszthely	Susceptible to <i>Pi</i>
5	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> Col-0 ecotype	Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre	Susceptible to <i>Rs</i>
6	<i>At</i> SULTR3.1 (SULTR3.1 T-DNA insertion line in <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> Col-0 ecotype)	Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre: 4839483; SALK_023190C	No data
7	<i>At</i> SULTR1.2 (SULTR1.2 T-DNA insertion line in <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> Col-0 ecotype)	Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre: 4839483; SALK_122974	No data

Table 5. Potato accessions tested for *Rs* resistance as listed by Jose *et al.* (2023)

No.	Name of Variety	Taxonomy	Accession ID	Reference, source
1	‘Calalo Gaspar’	<i>S. stenotomum</i> ssp. <i>stenotomum</i>	CIP 700670	CIP Global Root & Tubers Base, Martin, (1979)
2	‘Cruza 148’	<i>Solanum</i> hybrid (<i>S. demissum</i>)	CIP 720118, PI 619136	CIP database, Martin, (1979); Jackson (2012)
3	BW-5	<i>Solanum</i> hybrid (<i>S. demissum</i>)	CIP 379695.4	Schmiediche (1983)

4	BW-6	<i>Solanum</i> hybrid (<i>S. phureja</i>)	CIP 381064.3	Schmiediche (1983); Tung <i>et al.</i> (1990a)
5	BW-1.7	<i>Solanum</i> hybrid (<i>S. phureja</i>)	CIP 377831.7	Schmiediche (1983); Montanelli (1995)
6	‘Monona’	<i>S. tuberosum</i>	AV 48	Stevenson <i>et al.</i> (1965); ECPD (2011)
7	‘Ontario’	<i>S. tuberosum</i>	AV 25	Blodgett and Stevenson (1946); Jaworski <i>et al.</i> (1980)
8	‘Kinga’	<i>Solanum</i> hybrid (<i>S. phureja</i>)	CIP 377852.1	Schmiediche (1983); French <i>et al.</i> (1998)
9	MS-42.3	<i>Solanum</i> hybrid (<i>S. phureja</i>)	CIP 800928	CIP (1979); Feng <i>et al.</i> (2003)

4.4. Plant growth conditions

Potato plants were grown under controlled laboratory conditions in 500-mL containers filled with MS medium (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) with vitamins (Duchefa Biochemie, North Holland, Netherlands, M0222). The medium included 2% sucrose and agar 7 g/L. The temperature was maintained at 23°C, and the plants were exposed to a 16-h light period with a light intensity of 100 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$. The plants were initially propagated from either nodal segments or apical stem cuttings. Plants were multiplied (20/genotype) for *Rs* infection from nodal segments. The apical part was then cut and grown on Phyta-tray vessels (P5929-250EA; Sigma-Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) containing MS medium with 0.8% agar. After 7 days, when the plants started rooting, they were transferred to rectangular plates (688102, Greiner Bio-One, Kremsmünster, Austria) with the same MS medium as above (five plantlets/plate) and subjected to infection after 7 days. 1/4th of the media was cut off to allow the aerial part of the plants not to be covered with the media. Additionally, sterile filter paper (MN 615) 0.16 mm thick, were cut according to 3/4 of the media in the plate and put on top to absorb excess moisture. The plates were sealed with 3M micropore tape (Euromedic Trading Ltd, Budapest, Hungary). The propagation and multiplication of the resistant lines, as per literature, listed in **Table 5** for *Rs* resistance analysis and RNA isolation were carried out in Dr. Zsófia Bánfalvi’s laboratory according to Stiekema *et al.* (1988) (Institute of Genetics and Biotechnology, Hungarian University of Agriculture and Life Sciences, Gödöllő, Hungary).

To initiate the growth of *A. thaliana* ecotype Columbia (Col-0; wild-type) and *AtSULTR3;1*, *AtSULTR1;2* mutants, the seeds were first surface sterilised and then subjected to a 48-h stratification process at 4°C. After the stratification, the seeds were planted on Petri dishes containing ½ MS medium (Sigma-Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) with sucrose 10 g/L and a final pH of 5.8. Once germination occurred around the 7th to 10th day, the seedlings were transferred to Jiffy pots and initially kept covered at 21°C under short-day conditions, consisting of 8-h of light and 16-h of darkness, while maintaining high relative humidity for 3 days. After this initial period, the covering was removed, and the seedlings continued to grow under the same conditions. These plants were irrigated with ¼ strength MS (pH=5.6, salts only no vitamins) to support their growth.

For seed production, the germinated seedlings were transplanted into pots filled with soil (Composana Ltd., Halle, Germany) comprising raised bog peat, perlite, minerals, and organic fertilisers, and they were grown under a 16-h light followed by an 8-h dark cycle at 23°C. The plants were cultivated in controlled environments using Conviron (Winnipeg, Canada) chamber retrofitted with Viola L40 led lighting, Panasonic (MLR-352) or SANYO (MLR-351) environmental test chambers fitted with 800W fluorescent lamps, with two different lighting conditions available: a 16-h light followed by an 8-h dark cycle, or an 8-h light followed by a 16-h dark cycle. Both lighting conditions provided a consistent light intensity of 100 µmol m⁻² sec⁻¹. The temperature was maintained at 21°C during the light period and 18°C during the dark period, with a relative humidity of 75%.

4.5. CRISPR constructs

To design a specific guide for the target gene, the gene of interest was initially identified on <http://spuddb.uga.edu/>, and the exons were duly annotated. Subsequently, the CRISPR target was designed within the first three exons of the target gene, using a 20bp-NGG-Sp Cas9, SpCas9-HF1, eSpCas9 1.1 Protospacer Adjacent Motif (PAM) parameters on the <http://crispor.tefor.net/crispor.py> platform. The CRISPOR program also screened the *S. tuberosum*-Phytosome V9 genome, as of December 2012 for potential off-targets. A single target was carefully chosen based on its low off-target score and high specificity. To facilitate testing of the mutant plants, primers were designed on <https://primer3.ut.ee/> to amplify the exon of the selected target.

For PPO mutants, the genomic DNA was isolated from 'Désirée' and 'Balatoni Rózsa' potato plants using the GeneJET Plant Genomic DNA Purification Mini Kit (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA, K0792). Subsequently, specific sections of *PPO* genes with root and tuber specificity (*Pot32*, *33*, and *72*) were amplified from the potato genomic DNA. The amplification was carried out using the general primers PPOallF-R presented in **Supplementary Table 2** which amplify the first half of the three genes. The Phire Plant Direct PCR Master Mix (Thermo

Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA, F160S) was used for amplification. Subsequently, the PCR products were cloned into the vector pGEM-T Easy using the CloneJET PCR Cloning Kit (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA, K1231). The cloned sequences were subjected to sequencing. The obtained sequences were blasted in the Solgenomics database (<https://solgenomics.net/tools/blast/>) to identify the *PPO* genes. Based on the sequence information, a single CRISPR target was designed to target all three PPO genes (*Pot32*, *Pot33* and *Pot72*) simultaneously.

CRISPR constructs for all target genes were created by following a standardised protocol. For single guides, the CRISPR targets were ordered as oligos in 5' to 3' orientation that excluded the NGG motif in both their forward and complementary strands, but included *BsaI* overhangs, like oligo no. 3 and 4 for PPO listed in **Supplementary Table 2**. These oligos, each at a concentration of 50 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, were annealed by incubating them at 65°C for 5 min and slowly cooling them to room temperature before being integrated into the binary vector pKSE401, positioned behind the AtU6-26 promoter and in front of the gRNA scaffold, as originally described by (Xing *et al.*, 2014), employing the components listed in **Table 6** under the conditions listed in **Table 7**. The construct was assembled in *E. coli* and then introduced into the LBA4404 *A. tumefaciens* strain following the method described by Weigel and Glazebrook, (2006). To ensure the presence of the oligo in the construct, the primers U6-26p-F, as published by Xing *et al.* (2014) and listed in **Supplementary Table 2** at no. 5 and the CRISPR-target lower strand, were used in PCR. The final constructs were subjected to sequencing using the pJET1.2-F primer.

For editing requiring two guides, such as miR396, the miR396 sequence was obtained from <https://mirbase.org/hairpin/MI0025984>, and the CRISPR target with NGG PAM was designed on both the leader and passenger strands using CRISPOR. A PCR was conducted using the specific primers numbered from 7 to 10, as detailed in **Supplementary Table 2**, encompassing both target sequences and *BsaI* sites on the pCBC-DT1T2 vector as a template. The PCR product containing both targets, each with an AtU6 individual promoter, was then incorporated into the pKSE401 vector, following the procedures outlined in **Table 6** and **7**.

4.6. Plant transformation

Four-week-old plant leaves were subjected to transformation using LBA4404 having an optical density (OD_{600}) of 0.6-0.8 and carrying the genetic construct. Horizontal incisions were made on the leaf surfaces, which were then floated on the top of the *Agrobacterium* suspension containing liquid MS (Duchefa M0222) medium upside down. After a two-day incubation period in darkness, the leaves were transferred to a kanamycin-selective Callus Induction Medium (CIM; **Table 8**) supplemented with timentin to stop agrobacterial growth for one week and subsequently, they were moved to Shoot Induction Medium (SIM) as specified in **Table 9**, with weekly subculturing to facilitate shoot regeneration. Throughout the CIM and SIM stages, the leaves were

exposed to a 16-h light and 8-h dark cycle at 23°C. The transgenic lines were later transferred to a medium containing MS with vitamins for rooting with kanamycin selection (75 µg/mL) following the methodology proposed by Dietze (1995).

Table 6. Components for building CRSIPR targets into the vector

Components	Amounts (total vol 15 µL)
Annealed oligo (50 µmol/L) / PCR product 200 ng	2 µL
pKSE401	50 ng
Buffer G (10X) (Thermo Scientific)	15 µL
ATP (10 mM)	1 µL
T4 Ligase 5U/µL	0.8 µL
<i>Bsa</i> I (<i>Eco</i> 31I)	0.7 µL

Table 7. Temperature conditions for building CRSIPR targets into the vector

Temperature (°C)	Time (min)
37	2
16	5 } *50 cycles
80	5
4	Infinity

Table 8. Callus Induction Medium

Components	Amounts
MSB5 (Duchefa)	4.4 g/L
Glucose	16 g/L pH: 5.8
Milli-Q water	up to 1 L
NAA (Naphthaleneacetic acid) (5 mg/mL)	1000 µL/L
BAP (6-Benzylaminopurine) (1 mg/mL)	100 µL/L
Timentin (150 mg/mL)	3 mL/L
Kanamycin (50 mg/mL)	1500 µL/L

Table 9. Shoot Induction Medium

Components	Amounts
MSB5 (Duchefa)	4.4 g/L
Sucrose	16 g/L pH: 5.8
Milli-Q water	up to 1 L
NAA (Naphthaleneacetic acid) (0.2 mg/mL)	100 µl/L
Trans-zeatin riboside (2 mg/mL)	1000 µl/L
Gibberellic acid (0.2 mg/mL)	100 µl/L
Timentin (150 mg/mL)	3 mL/L
Kanamycin (50 mg/mL)	1500 µl/L

4.7. Characterisation of mutants

Genomic DNA was isolated from plant samples using the AquaGenomic solution provided by Multitarget Pharmaceutical (Salt Lake City, UT, USA). In this process, 250 µL AquaGenomic solution was added to 30 mg of leaf samples and ground together. Subsequently, 30 µL isopropanol was added, followed by heating at 60°C for 10 minutes. After centrifugation and washing, following the manufacturer's protocol, the DNA was eluted in Tris-EDTA, and its concentration was assessed using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

The presence of the transgene was checked by running a PCR on the genomic DNA with U6 promoter Forward primer (no. 5 in **Supplementary Table 2**) and Target Lower strand (no. 4 for PPO and nos. 11 and 12 for miR396T1 and miR396T2, respectively in **Supplementary Table 2**). The *Agrobacterium* chromosomal *picA* gene was amplified by PCR using primers 13 and 14 to detect *Agrobacterium* contamination (Yusibov *et al.*, 1994). The presence of *zCas9* was checked using primer no. 15 and 16 in **Supplementary Table 2**. The specific exon containing the target sequence was then amplified from the genomic DNA. For the *PPO* gene, the primers 1 and 2 listed in **Supplementary Table 2** were used, while for *miR396*, the primers 17 and 18 targeting the *miR396* gene were employed. Additionally, primers 19 and 20 were used for Chr7, amplifying the segment of the chromosome to which *miR396* belongs (**Supplementary Table 2**). A portion of the amplified PCR product was separated on a gel, and another portion was purified and cloned into the pJET1.2/blunt vector using the CloneJET PCR Cloning Kit following the manufacturer's instructions.

The resulting plasmid was subsequently introduced into competent *E. coli* Top10 cells for replication and plated onto LB media with ampicillin selection. A colony PCR was conducted using pJET1.2 sequencing primers (primers 21 and 22 in **Supplementary Table 2**), and the positive colonies were cultured. Plasmids were extracted from the culture using the GeneJET Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA, K0502) and the concentration was checked using the NanoDrop spectrophotometer. Plasmids corresponding to 450 ng were then sent for sequencing to Macrogen (Amsterdam, The Netherlands), utilising the pJET1.2 forward sequencing primer. The edits around the CRISPR target were subsequently analysed using Notepad++ (<http://notepad-plus.sourceforge.net/>).

For *Arabidopsis*, the genomic DNA was extracted using the GeneJET Plant Genomic DNA Purification Mini Kit. The homozygosity of the mutants *AtSULTR3;1* and *AtSULTR1;2* were tested by running a PCR on their genomic DNA using primers 23 and 24 and primers 26 and 27 (**Supplementary Table 2**) for *AtSULTR3;1* and *AtSULTR1;2*, respectively, which attach to the neighbouring region of the T-DNA insertion in the genes such that they only give the product in the wild type. The database <http://signal.salk.edu/tdnaprimers.2.html> suggested the insertion is at the position chr3 19255485 (Cao *et al.* 2012) for *AtSULTR3;1* and chr1 29329170 for *AtSULTR1;2*. A second PCR was run using primers 23 and 25 or 24 and 25 *AtSULTR3;1* and 25, 26 and 25, 27 for *AtSULTR1;2* as listed in **Supplementary Table 2** that attach to the T-DNA and the gene which gives a product only in the mutant lines.

4.8. Examination

4.8.1. Optimisation of *Ralstonia* infection

In vitro infections were performed on potato plantlets with each genotype involving twenty plantlets placed across four rectangular Petri dishes. The Petri dishes, containing four-six, three-week-old plants, were placed in a vertical position and incubated at a constant 24°C with a 16-h photoperiod at a light intensity of 45-95 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for an additional 10-12 days before inoculation. The *Rs* strain UW551 contained the pDSK-GFPuv plasmid (Wang *et al.*, 2007b), which carries the green fluorescent protein (GFP) reporter gene controlled by the constitutive *psbA* promoter (Jose *et al.*, 2023). The concentration of bacterial suspension was set so that the majority of the control plants were in a wilted state on the 14th day after infection ($5\text{-}7 \times 10^8$ CFU ml⁻¹ (OD₆₀₀ = 0.8)). For inoculations, 350 μL of the transgenic *Rs* strain was delivered to the cut sites at the root tip of each plant. The level of infection was monitored once a day for 2 to 21 days post-inoculation (dpi) for all the genotypes. Images were captured under visible light to track the progression of disease symptoms, and under UV light using the iBright CL1500 Imaging System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) to visualise the spread of GFP-expressing

bacteria within the plants. The total count of wilted plants was determined and the experiment was repeated twice for consistency.

The above experiments and the modification of UW551 strain were conducted by Dr. Zoltán Bozsó (Plant Protection Institute, Centre for Agricultural Research, Hungarian Research Network, Budapest, Hungary).

To infect about six weeks old *Arabidopsis* plants grown in Jiffy pots (23°C in short day conditions, 11-h/13-h light/dark), both control and mutants, 20 plants/genotype were exposed to *Rs* strain GMI1000 with an optical density of 0.2 set at 600 nm ($OD_{600} = 0.2$, ca. 10^8 CFU/mL). Before inoculations, the roots of the plants were cut 1 cm from the bottom of the Jiffy and the plants were immersed for 30 min in the bacterial suspension. After inoculations, the plants were incubated at 27°C, in short day conditions (11-h/13-h light/dark). The progression of the disease was observed every day for 2 to 19 dpi across all genotypes. A disease index was used to categorise the severity into five distinct grades as Phiri *et al.* (2024): Grade 0 indicated the absence of leaf wilting, Grade 1 represented up to 25% of the total leaf area showing wilting, Grade 2 indicated up to 50% leaf wilting, Grade 3 signified up to 75% leaf wilting and Grade 4 was assigned from 76% to complete leaf wilting or when the entire plant succumbed to the infection. Throughout the observation period, photographs were taken, and the total count of wilted plants was recorded. This experiment was repeated once more.

4.8.2. ImageJ

Bacterial quantities were assessed by measuring the GFP fluorescence emitted from all plants of each genotype at every time point, following the methodology outlined by (Shihan *et al.*, 2021). The images were processed by first inverting them, and then the background was removed using default settings. A specific region of interest (ROI), corresponding to each plant in the Petri plate, was defined. The mean grey area within this ROI was determined and subsequently adjusted by subtracting the mean grey area of the ROI from an area devoid of plants. This allowed for the normalisation of the fluorescence measurements.

4.9. Optimisation of *Phytophthora* infection

To optimise *Phytophthora* infection conditions, a table was created (**Supplementary Table 1**) to explore various combinations of explant types and inoculum concentrations. In the case of whole plant infection assays, potato plants were cultivated in pots with peat-containing soil within a glasshouse, maintaining regular ambient light conditions of 12-h of daylight per day with a temperature of 20°C. When the plants reached 8 weeks of age, five plants per genotype were subjected to *Pi* isolate P1217 together with Dr. József Bakonyi (Plant Protection Institute, Centre for Agricultural Research, Hungarian Research Network, Budapest, Hungary).

The *Pi* pathogen was cultivated and rejuvenated on approximately 7 mm thick potato tuber slices ('Hópehely' cultivar). These slices were inoculated on the abaxial side with 0.5 cm diameter mycelial agar plugs obtained from colonies growing at 18–20°C on V8 juice agar, following the method described by (Dhingra and Sinclair, 1985) The infested tuber slices were kept in an environment with 100% relative humidity at 18–20°C for a week, allowing the pathogen to colonise the upper side of the tuber slices. Subsequently, sporangia were washed off in distilled water, and filtered to remove debris, and the inoculum concentration was adjusted to 1.5×10^4 sporangia/mL.

For whole-plant infections, the plants were sprayed with a total of 115 mL of this inoculum suspension upon the release of zoospores. Inoculated plants were maintained at 17°C in nearly 100% relative humidity and complete darkness within a climate chamber for the first 24-h and subsequently, they were placed under a 12-h light/day regime, light intensity of $50 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$.

For tuber assays, tubers measuring approximately 2x3 cm were collected from sixteen-week-old potted plants cultivated in the greenhouse. The infection was carried out based on the Eucablight protocol (Colon *et al.*, 2004). The tubers were washed with tap water, disinfected in 70% ethanol for 45 seconds, and rinsed with sterile distilled water. Slices of about 7 mm thickness were then cut from the disinfected tubers, rinsed in sterile distilled water, and dried in a sterile laminar box. The slices were subsequently inoculated on the abaxial side with 0.5 cm diameter mycelial agar plugs derived from a colony growing at 20°C on V8A agar. The inoculated tubers were placed in plastic containers with moistened paper towels at the bottom to maintain 100% relative humidity and kept in the dark at 20°C for 5 days.

4.10. RNA extraction

To investigate the underlying reasons for the resistance observed in 'Calalo Gaspar' and 'Cruza 148' compared to the susceptible 'Désirée', the following procedure was used: Total RNA was extracted from 150 mg of frozen root tissue from 2-week-old potato plants that were either inoculated with *Rs* or remained uninoculated, according to the method described by (Stiekema *et al.*, 1988). The quality, purity, and integrity of the total RNA samples were assessed using agarose gels, a NanoDrop spectrophotometer, and a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Half volumes of the samples were employed for cDNA synthesis after purifying mRNA with poly-T oligo-attached magnetic beads. The RNA samples were treated with RQ1 RNase-free DNase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) followed by random-primed reverse transcription to generate cDNA using the RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA, K1621) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The success of the DNase treatment and reverse transcription was checked by running a PCR on DNase-treated RNA as well as on cDNA as templates.

4.10.1. RNA-seq

RNA extraction for the resistant lines ‘Calalo Gaspar’ and ‘Cruza 148’, and susceptible ‘Désirée’ was followed by paired-end, non-directional library construction using the NEBNext Ultra RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina from New England Biolabs (Ipswich, MA, USA). After quantification with a Qubit fluorometer (Thermo Fisher), the samples underwent real-time PCR and custom sequencing. All these activities were carried out using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform by Novogene (Nanjing, China).

The bioinformatic analysis comprised several steps: quality control to eliminate adapter sequences, poly-N sequences, and low-quality data using fastp (Chen *et al.*, 2018), resulting in a high number of clean reads (**Supplementary Table 3**); mapping of the data to the reference genome sequence of *S. tuberosum* group Phureja DM1–3 516 R44 (v6.1); Pham *et al.*, 2020) and gene annotation using HISAT2 software (Kim *et al.*, 2015) and StringTie for reference annotation and novel gene prediction (Pertea *et al.*, 2015); quantification of gene expression in FPKM (Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript sequence per Million base pairs sequenced) and correlation analysis; differential expression analysis using DeSeq2 (Love *et al.*, 2014) with a $\log_2(\text{FoldChange})$ threshold of ≥ 1 and p-values adjusted for False Discovery Rate (FDR) according to Benjamini and Hochberg (1995); and analysis of gene ontology (GO) enrichment and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathways for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) using the ClusterProfiler R package (Wu *et al.*, 2021). All these analysis were performed by Novogene. Based on the GO, KEGG, and DEG provided by Novogene, the different lines ‘Calalo Gaspar’ and ‘Cruza 148’, and susceptible ‘Désirée’ were compared.

4.10.2. Validation of the RNA-seq data by real-time quantitative PCR

The cDNA samples derived from the extracted RNA were diluted three-fold, and 0.6 μL of this dilution was used as a template in 10 μL qPCR reactions. RT-qPCR assays for selected genes in silenced lines with primers 28-37 as listed in **Supplementary Table 2** were performed using the GoTaq® 1-Step RT-qPCR System kit (Promega Corporation, Madison, WI, USA, A6101). The standard cycling conditions for the three-step amplification began at 37°C for 15 min, followed by 95°C for 10 min. Subsequently, there were 40 cycles consisting of 95°C for 10 seconds, 60°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C for 30 seconds, with a final extension step at 60°C for 30 seconds.

For normalisation, the expression of the two housekeeping potato genes, β -*TUBULIN* (Yin *et al.*, 2016; accession No. DQ228319.1 in NCBI) and *ELONGATION FACTOR 1 α* (AB061263.1 in NCBI) were used as references. The expression levels of these housekeeping genes were assessed using Ef1qPCR-F-R and BtubF-R primers as listed in **Supplementary Table 2**, primer no. 38-41, with an annealing temperature of 60°C. The transcription level was calculated using the 2⁻

$\Delta\Delta C_t$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001) with efficiency correction, as described by (Pfaffl, 2004).

The qPCR experiments were conducted in triplicate using a 7500 Fast PCR System from Applied Biosystems, located in Waltham, ME, USA. Each reaction mixture consisted of 0.4 μ L of cDNA, 1 μ L of the primer pair (at a concentration of 10 μ M), 5 μ L of Fast SYBR™ Green master mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 4385612), and 3.6 μ L of water, resulting in a total volume of 10 μ L. The temperature profile involved an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 20 seconds, followed by 40 cycles of 5 seconds at 95°C and 30 seconds at 60°C. The expression levels of the target genes were determined using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001), with an efficiency correction step based on the approach outlined by (Pfaffl, 2004). Data analysis was carried out using ANOVA, followed by Tukey's *post-hoc* test.

4.11. miRNA extraction, reverse transcription qPCR assay

The effect of the caused *miR396* gene mutation on the expression of *miR396* itself and on its predicted target genes from the literature were quantified. The studied miRNA sequences included the *stu-miR396* leader strand: UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACUU (Zhang *et al.*, 2009) and the *stu-miR396* passenger strand: UCCAAGAAAGCUGUGGGAAA (own prediction from the potato gene sequence based on sequence alignments with other species). While the studied predicted miR396 target gene sequences were taken from (Zhang *et al.*, 2009, 2013) and (Luo *et al.*, 2023). All of miR396 targets examined were predicted targets of the *miR396* leader strand, with the exception of the Nbs-Irr resistance protein PGSC0003DMG400007999 that was studied due to sequence similarity to the passenger strand, as indicated by BLAST searches.

Potato plants were grown for the analysis in pots in peat-containing soil in a glasshouse under normal spring light conditions (around 12-h of light per day) at around 20°C temperature. Total RNA (including miRNAs) was extracted from leaves (150 mg/sample) of one-month-old plants using the high binding capacity Zymo Direct-zol RNA Miniprep Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. Genotypes included *miR396* mutants ('Botond' miR396/6; 'Botond' miR396/8; 'Botond' miR396/9; 'Désirée' miR396/3; 'Désirée' miR396/4; 'Désirée' miR396/6 and 'Désirée' miR396/10) along with the non-mutant original varieties ('Botond', 'Désirée'). The reverse transcription and qPCR method was carried out based on the publications of Varkonyi-Gasic *et al.* (2007), Yin *et al.* (2021), and Székely *et al.* (2023). Stem-loop primers (**Table 10**) for miRNA reverse transcription have been designed having a complementary region to the last 6 bases of the miRNAs, according to Varkonyi-Gasic *et al.* (2007). Reverse transcription of the microRNAs and messenger RNAs was carried out in the same reaction using stem-loop and oligodT primers as described by Yin *et al.* (2021). A 20 μ L reverse transcription reaction contained 2 μ g total RNA; 1-1 μ L 1 μ M stem loop primer for each of the 4 miRNAs and components of the

RevertAid First Strand cDNA synthesis kit including 1 μ L oligodT, 4 μ L 5 \times reaction buffer, 2 μ L dNTP, 1 μ L RNase inhibitor and 1 μ L reverse transcriptase. The following temperature program was applied: 30 min at 16°C. 60 min at 42°C and 5 min at 70°C.

Table 10. Stem-loop RT primers

Name	Sequence (5'-3')
miR396Lstemloop	GTCGTATCCAGTGCAGGGTCCGAGGTATTCGCACTGGATACGACAAGTTC
miR396Pstemloop	GTCGTATCCAGTGCAGGGTCCGAGGTATTCGCACTGGATACGACTTTCCC

Three-fold diluted cDNA was used as template in qPCRs. The miRNA-specific forward qPCR primers (no. 42 and 43, **Supplementary Table 2**) all contained a non-specific GC-rich 5' end as well the 3' end containing other parts of the miRNA (excluding the last 6 bases). The reverse primer (no. 44, **Supplementary Table 2**) of the miRNA qPCRs was not specific to the miRNAs but to the stem-loop region, as suggested by (Székely *et al.*, 2023). Target gene specific primers (45-64) from **Supplementary Table 2** were designed using Primer-BLAST (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/>). qPCRs were run in triplicates in the CFX96 Touch – Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad, CA, USA) using the PCR BIO SyGreen Blue Mix (PCR Biosystems, London, UK). Reaction efficiencies were calculated using the standard curve method and optimised until reaching $E \geq 1.8$ (80%). Gene expression was normalised for the geometric mean of two housekeeping genes, β -TUBULIN and ELONGATION FACTOR 1 α as it was described earlier (Jose *et al.*, 2023). Expression levels of the studied genes were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001) with an efficiency (E) correction step applied according to (Pfaffl, 2004).

4.12. Browning Assay

The potato roots for browning assay were obtained from four-week-old *in vitro* plants grown from apical cuttings in tubes containing solid MS medium with vitamins (Duchefa Biochemie, M0222) under the same conditions as described in section 4.4. For analysing the browning response of tubers, three-week-old *in vitro* grown potato seedlings with roots were potted in 1L-pots into the soil comprising raised bog peat, perlite, minerals, and organic fertilisers (Composana Ltd.) and incubated with 100% relative humidity for the first 5 days and grown further in an automated greenhouse (Global Glasshouse Ltd., Szentes, Hungary) at a humidity of 60–90% and 12-h photoperiods with illumination provided by Groxpress 600 W E40 lamps at 2050 K colour temperature (Sylvania, Budapest, Hungary). Tubers were harvested from three-month-old potato plants. The browning assay of tubers and roots of PPO mutants ‘Désirée’ Line 14 and 17 and ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ Line 12 and 25 including the controls ‘Désirée’ and ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ was

performed on the entire root system of 5 *in-vitro* grown plants in tubes per genotype. Three potato tuber slices/genotype (randomly selected from the harvest of 5 plants per genotype), each 5 mm in thickness were used for the experiment. A 100- μ L volume of a substrate solution, which contained 0.01 M disodium tyrosine, was carefully applied to the test samples. The samples were then allowed to incubate in the dark at 30°C for a period of 1 to 2 h, following the procedure outlined by Busch, (1999). The tubers and roots were then photographed to record differences.

The browning was quantified by designating one ROI per tuber (with three ROIs per genotype) and creating a histogram using ImageJ. The ROI remained constant across genotypes, with values ranging from 1 to 255, where 255 represented the lightest and 1 indicated the darkest colour intensity. In the case of roots, the ROI was established for one complete set of roots per plant, and this was kept consistent across roots of other genotypes. The resulting histogram was plotted using the same intensity scale. Additionally, the reduction in observed browning was measured by subtracting the ROI value from 255 (representing darkness/browning) and dividing the outcome by 255 to express the reduction as a percentage.

4.13. PPO enzyme activity measurement

Triplicate samples of potato roots (four-week-old 10 *in vitro* plants) and tuber samples (harvested from 3 plants/genotype) of PPO mutants ('Désirée' Line 14 and 17, 'Balatoni Rózsa' Line 12 and 25) together with control ('Désirée' and 'Balatoni Rózsa'), each weighing 0.1 g, were collected from every genotype. Enzyme activity measurements were conducted according to the protocol detailed in González *et al.* (2020). For tuber samples, the extraction buffer included 1% Triton X-100, while for root samples, it contained 0.01% SDS. Statistical analyses, such as ANOVA and Student's *t*-test, were employed to determine the significance levels.

4.14. Metabolic screening by targeted ultra-performance liquid chromatography – tandem mass spectrometry

For analysis of differential metabolic regulation among the *Rs* resistant and susceptible lines, one gram of leaf and root tissues was obtained from the two *Rs*-resistant cultivars, namely 'Calalo Gaspar' and 'Cruza 148', as well as from the *Rs*-susceptible 'Désirée', at two time points: 0 dpi and 6 dpi. Additionally, 0.1g samples of leaf and root tissues from four replicates were collected from both 'Désirée' and 'Balatoni Rózsa' genotypes, including control and transgenic lines grown *in vitro* for the PPO experiment. The samples were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until homogenisation with liquid nitrogen using a mortar and pestle. Portions of 0.1 g homogenized frozen fresh weight (FW) plant material were transferred to 1.5-mL safety Eppendorf tubes and stored at -80°C until extraction. High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)-grade chemicals and ultra-performance liquid chromatography-mass

spectrometry (UPLC-MS)-grade acetonitrile from VWR (Radnor, PA, USA) were used for the extraction and elution steps. Non-labelled reference materials were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich (Darmstadt, Germany).

The measurement for metabolic analysis was conducted using UPLC-MS/MS, following a method previously published (Cseh *et al.*, 2024) by Kamirán Áron Hamow (Agricultural Institute, Centre for Agricultural Research, Hungarian Research Network. Martonvásár, Hungary). This method was developed based on previous work, with an expansion of its scope by the number of components surveyed.

The ClustVis web tool, accessible at <https://biit.cs.ut.ee/clustvis/>, was utilised for several analytical tasks, including Principal Component Analysis (PCA), while box plots for the *Rs* resistant lines ('Calalo Gaspar' and 'Cruza 148') and 'Désirée' were generated using BoxPlotR accessible at <http://shiny.chemgrid.org/boxplotr/>. The 90% confidence interval of means was also added. The same tools were used to visualise the variations in the metabolic profiles between the *PPO*-edited lines and the control. Student's *t*-test, were employed to determine the significance levels.

4.15. Suberisation study

Suberisation assessment was conducted on seven-day-old seedlings from the mutants *AtSULTR3;1*, *AtSULTR1;2* and Col-0, which had been cultivated on solid half-strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) plates (Sigma) without the inclusion of sucrose. These seedlings were vertically grown in growth chambers maintained at 22°C, under continuous illumination at an intensity of 100 µE. To visualise suberin on the root surface *in vivo*, a staining procedure was performed using Fluorol Yellow, following the protocol described by Lux *et al.* (2005). The roots were immersed in a freshly prepared solution containing 0.01% (w/v) Fluorol Yellow 088 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc., Dallas, Texas, USA, CAS:81-37-8) dissolved in lactic acid at 70°C, and were incubated for 1-h before examination under a microscope.

4.16. Confocal microscopy

Roots from both non-infected and *Rs*-infected potato plants of cultivars 'Calalo Gaspar', 'Cruza 148', and 'Désirée' were harvested at 6 dpi (n=5 for each treatment and cultivar). For *A. thaliana-Rs* resistance analysis, root and shoot samples were taken from the infected Col-0 ecotype and *AtSULTR3;1* at 7 dpi and from uninfected plants. A 10-mm segment was carefully excised from the middle region of each root, located approximately 5 cm from the root tip. Shoots slices were cut from the central axis. The root and shoot segments were fixed in a solution containing 60 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) and 4% formaldehyde. After fixation, they underwent a series of washing steps, dehydration in various ethanol solutions, and gradual infiltration with LR White

resin (Agar Scientific Ltd., Stansted, UK). The resin was solidified through polymerisation at 55°C for 48-h. The experiment was done with the help of Dr. Attila Fábián. Subsequently, 1-µm thick cross sections were sliced from the resin blocks using an Ultracut-E microtome (Reichert-Jung, Heidelberg, Germany). The sections were stained with safranin O (for cell walls of ‘Calalo Gaspar’, ‘Cruza 148’, and ‘Désirée’), Calcofluor White (for cell walls of Col-0 ecotype and *AtSULTR3;1*) and Fast Green FCF (as a counterstain), employing reagents from Searle Diagnostic (High Wycombe, UK) and Sigma-Aldrich, respectively. The stained sections were then mounted in 50% glycerol and visualised using a TCS SP8 confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica Microsystems GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany). The excitation and detection parameters were set as follows: Safranin O was excited at 514 nm, with signals detected in the range of 600 to 720 nm, Calcofluor White was excited at 405 nm and detected at 410-500 nm, while Fast Green FCF was excited at 633 nm, with signals detected in the range of 640 to 780 nm. Microscopic images were captured using the Leica Advanced Fluorescence software v3.1.5.16308 (Leica Microsystems) by Dr. Attila Fábián without any further image processing.

The confocal laser-scanning microscopy images were captured using a Leica SP8 microscope with Leica Application Suite X (LAS X) program v3.1.5.16308. The specific excitation and detection settings were as follows: fluorol yellow was excited at 488 nm, and the detection range was set to 500–530 nm (as indicated by Ursache *et al.*, 2021). To quantify the suberisation in the roots of 7-day-old *AtSULTR3;1* and Col-0 seedlings, the relative fluorescence intensity of fluorol yellow dye was measured on the acquired pictures using the LAS X software. Relative fluorescence intensities were measured on 20 micrographs per genotype and treatment, using 1 ROI per micrograph.

5. RESULTS AND THEIR DISCUSSION

5.1. Molecular analysis of *Rs*-resistant potato cultivars

5.1.1. Identification of *Rs*-resistant accessions

Five cultivars and four breeding lines known to possess *Rs* resistance in the field (**Table 5**) were initially chosen and propagated for testing their resistance to *Rs* in an *in vitro* inoculation bioassay. To perform the bioassay, a highly virulent *Rs* strain, UW551 (R3B2, PIIB-1), transformed with a *GFP* reporter gene, was employed to inoculate *in vitro* potato plants. After conducting an initial screening of the nine accessions, along with the *Rs*-susceptible commercial cultivar ‘*Désirée*’ (DES) used as a control, the four top-performing accessions were ‘*Calalo Gaspar*’ (CG), ‘*Cruza 148*’ (CR), BW-5, and ‘*Monona*’. These four accessions were subjected to a repeated comparative bioassay. Among them, CG and CR exhibited remarkable resistance, with a 100% survival rate (**Figure 6A and B**) at 15- and 21-days post-inoculation (dpi) compared to only 58% and 32% survival of the susceptible control DES at 15 dpi and 21 dpi, respectively (**Figure 6A and B**). The *Rs*-resistant cultivars CG and CR remained green with minimal bacterial penetration, while the susceptible control wilted and the *Rs* bacteria spread throughout the plants (**Figure 6C**). The uninfected control plants showed vigorous growth (not shown).

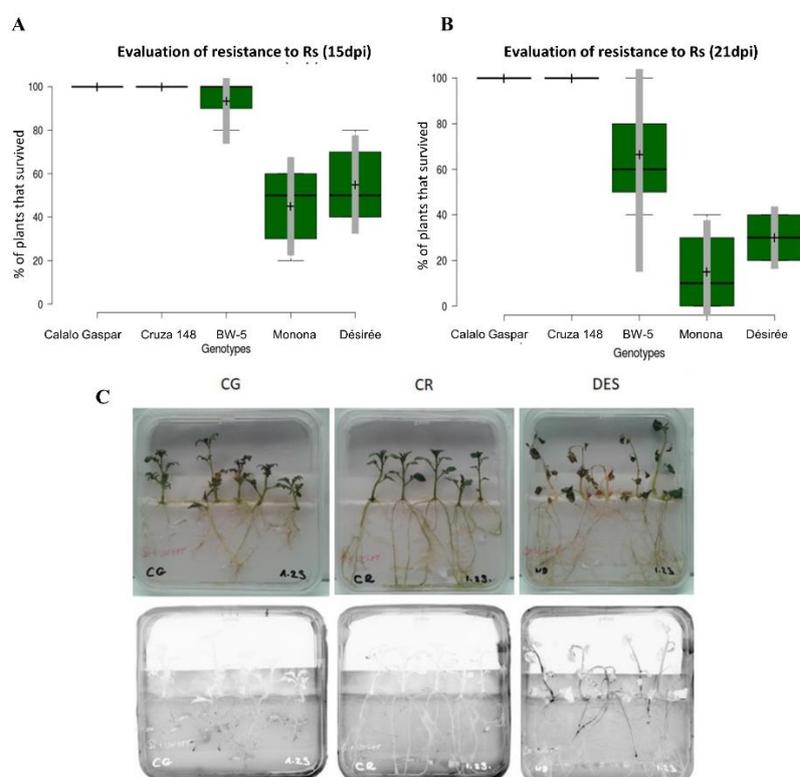


Figure 6. Survival of four selected potato accessions in an *in vitro* *Rs* inoculation assay at 15 dpi (A) and 21 dpi (B). Visual evaluation of resistance to *Rs* infection (21 dpi) in the *in vitro* inoculation bioassay under visible light for the observation of wilting (upper row) and UV light for the detection of GFP-expressing *Rs* bacteria (lower row). CG, ‘*Calalo Gaspar*’; CR, ‘*Cruza 148*’; DES, ‘*Désirée*’(C) (Jose *et al.*, 2023).

Among the resistant genotypes, CG is a traditional diploid landrace originating from Peru, belonging to the species *S. stenotomum*. This species is considered the ancestor of cultivated potatoes and is cross-compatible with *S. tuberosum* cultivars (Jackson *et al.*, 1978; Gottschalk, 1984). Its *Rs* resistance was transferred to *S. tuberosum* through breeding (Martin and French, 1985) and somatic hybridisation (Fock *et al.*, 2001). CR is categorised as a ‘tuberosum type’ and originates from Toluca, Mexico. It was the first cultivated potato to exhibit tolerance to bacterial wilt (Jackson *et al.*, 1979). Subsequently, it has been routinely employed as a moderately *Rs*-resistant cultivar in screening breeding lines due to its consistently low wilt percentage in standardised field experiments (Priou *et al.*, 2001). Our *in vitro* inoculation tests corroborated these prior findings for these two cultivars, which were thus selected for further molecular analyses to unravel the cause for the displayed resistance.

5.1.2. Transcriptome analysis of the *Rs*-resistant and susceptible cultivars

Co-expression and differential expression of potato genes

We conducted a transcriptome analysis to examine the gene expression patterns in the *Rs*-resistant cultivars CG and CR, as well as the *Rs*-susceptible cultivar DES, during the early stages of infection. Total RNA was isolated from the roots of *in vitro* plants, both non-infected and *Rs*-inoculated at 2 dpi. In total, we evaluated 16 samples, consisting of three biological replicates for both CG and DES, and two biological replicates for CR. The RNA isolation and the sequencing process yielded high-quality RNA with good RNA integrity numbers (RIN) and a high frequency of clean (ranging from 95.8% to 97.6%) and uniquely mapped reads (85.4% to 88.8%). The error rates across all samples remained below 0.03% (**Supplementary Table 3**).

The co-expression Venn diagrams revealed that approximately 15,000 genes were commonly expressed in the non-infected roots of all cultivars, with around 600-700 uniquely expressed genes each case (**Figure 7A and B**). The *Rs* infection did not significantly alter these proportions. However, the impact of *Rs* infection on each cultivar’s transcriptome varied considerably (comparing each infected to its own control), with only 580 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) commonly identified, while 2,142, 1,242, and 616 unique DEGs were observed in CG, CR, and DES, respectively (**Figure 7C**). In total, the number of DEGs influenced by *Rs* infection was 4,011 (1,988 upregulated and 2,023 downregulated) in CG, 2,766 (1,443 upregulated and 1,323 downregulated) in CR, and 2,043 (1,163 upregulated and 880 downregulated) in DES (**Figure 7 D-F**).

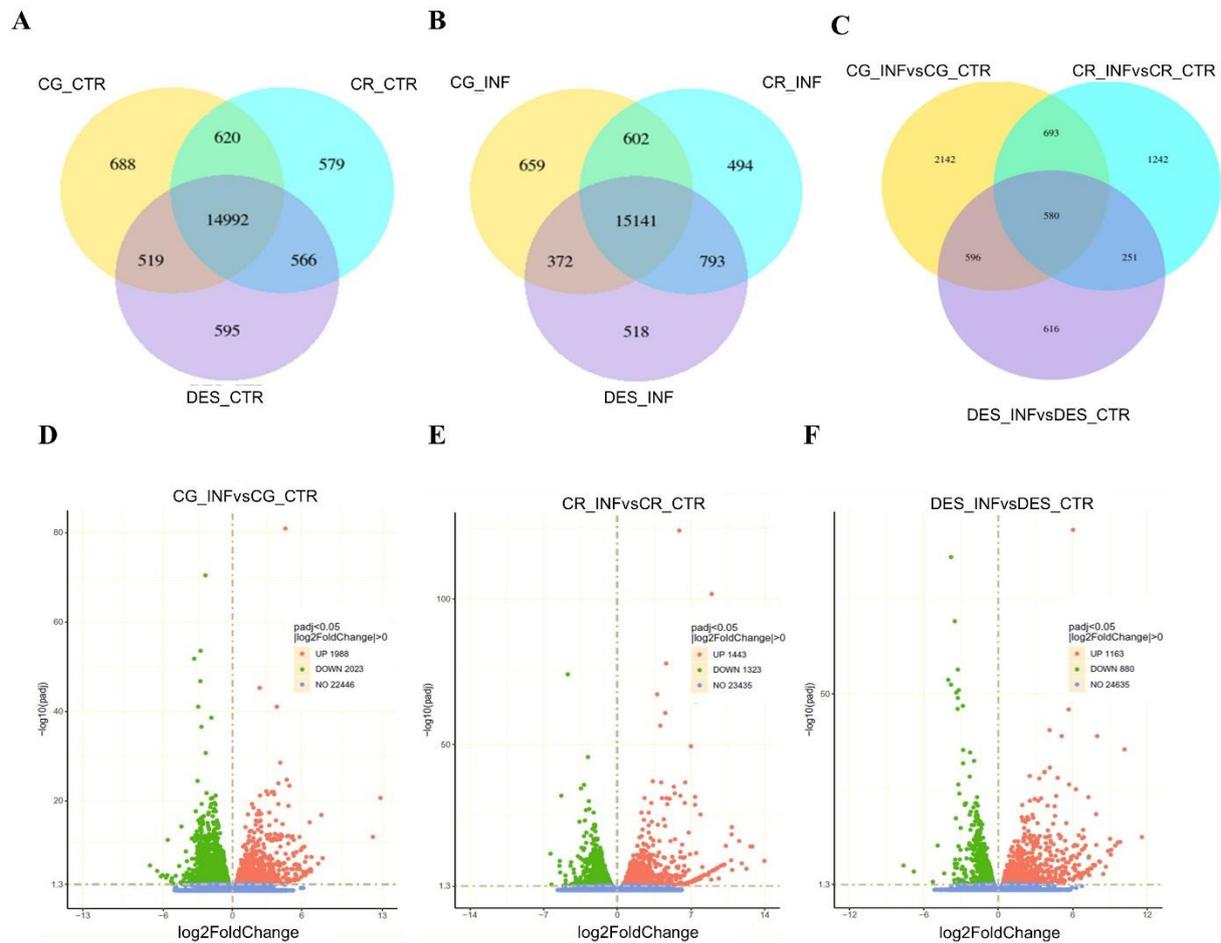


Figure 7. Number and distribution of co-expressed (A, B) and differentially expressed (C-F) genes in the roots of ‘Calalo Gaspar’ (CG), ‘Cruza 148’ (CR), and ‘Désirée’ (DES). Co-expression of genes in non-infected control (CTR) roots (A). Co-expression of genes in *Rs*-infected (INF) roots at 2 dpi (B). Differentially expressed genes upon *Rs* infection at 2 dpi (C). Volcano plots show the distribution of significantly ($padj < 0.05$) upregulated (red) and downregulated (green) genes and those with unchanged expression (blue) in the roots of CG (D), CR (E), and DES (F).

Gene regulations and pathways contributing to *Rs* resistance

Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis (**Figure 8**) uncovered conspicuous expression patterns in response to *Rs* infection in the potato cultivars. Ribosome-related genes and those associated with ribonucleoprotein complexes were upregulated in all three cultivars. Further, a substantial number of genes linked to oxidative stress responses were downregulated in the CG cultivar. In contrast, both CR and DES exhibited induction of cell wall and chitin metabolic and catabolic processes upon *Rs* infection. However, CR uniquely displayed downregulation of carbohydrate metabolism.

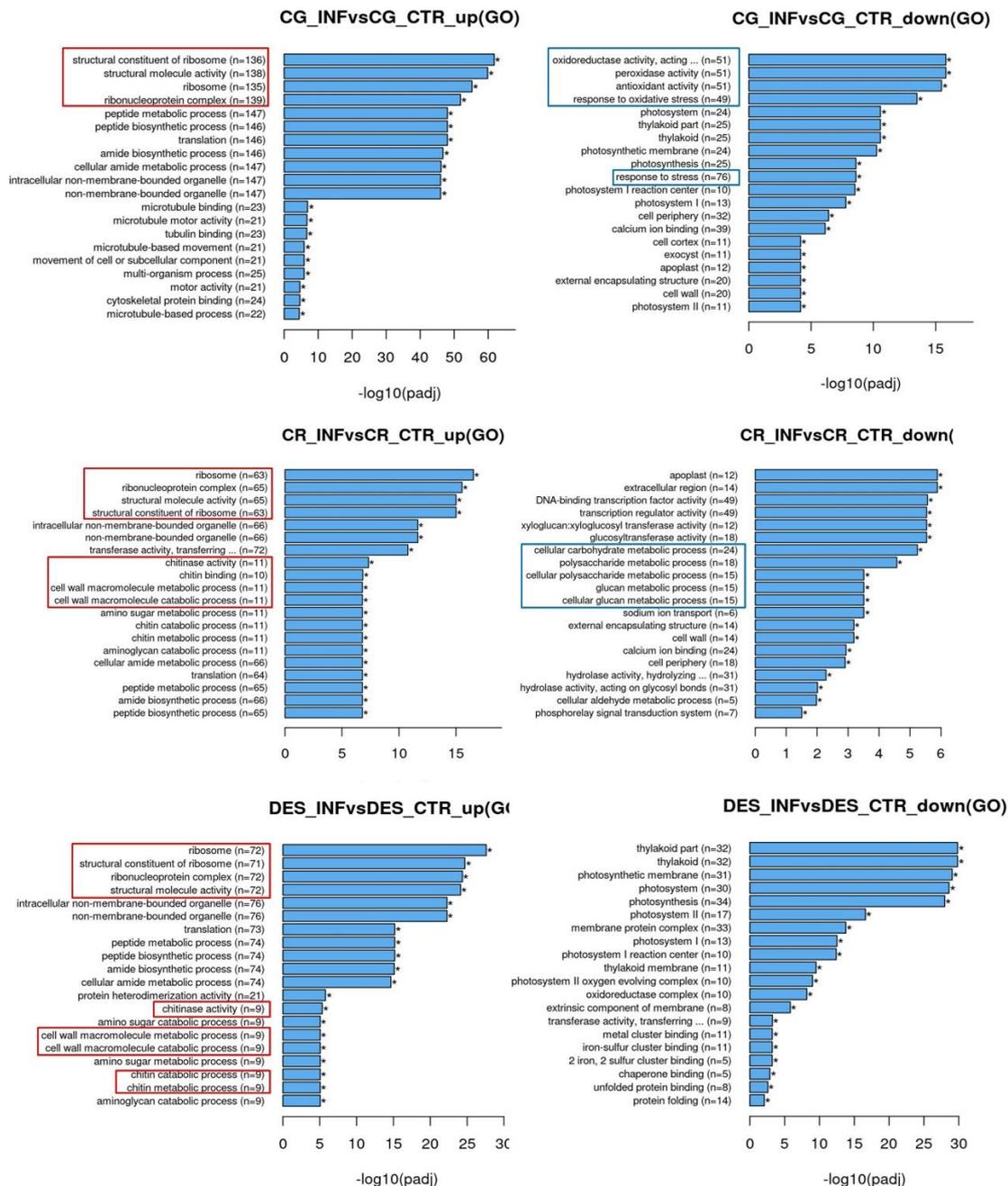


Figure 8. Upregulated and downregulated GOs upon *Rs* infection (2 dpi) in the roots of ‘Calalo Gaspar’ (CG), ‘Cruza 148’ (CR), and ‘Désirée’ (DES). Asterisks indicate that all enrichments are significant. Categories with enrichments specific to each cultivar are boxed (Jose *et al.*, 2023).

KEGG pathway analysis (**Figure 9**) reinforced some aspects of GO enrichment findings. Specifically, the phenylpropanoid and plant-pathogen interaction pathways were downregulated in CG, while in CR the phenylpropanoid pathway was upregulated, and the plant-pathogen interaction pathway was similarly downregulated. Further examination of the downregulated phenylpropanoid biosynthesis genes in CG revealed that most of these genes (45 out of 62) were peroxidases, while only 17 genes, including *PAL* (*PHENYLALANINE AMMONIA-LYASE*), were involved in multiple enzymatic steps of phenylpropanoid biosynthesis. In CR, 37 upregulated

genes fell into the same category, with 27 encoding peroxidases and 10 encoding different synthesis enzymes.

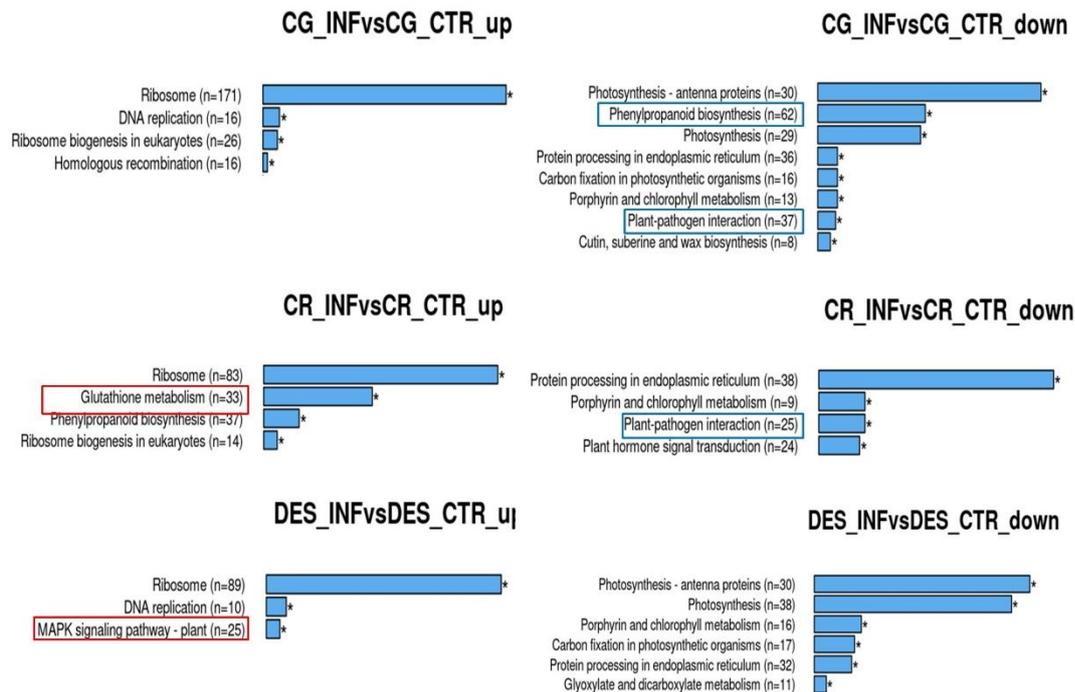


Figure 9. KEGG pathway analysis upon *Rs* infection (2 dpi) in the roots of ‘Calalo Gaspar’ (CG), ‘Cruza 148’ (CR), and ‘Désirée’ (DES). Asterisks indicate that all enrichments are significant. Pathways with enrichments specific to each cultivar are boxed (Jose *et al.*, 2023).

Notably, CR displayed increased levels of lignin-forming anionic peroxidases and suberisation-associated anionic peroxidases, in line with the heightened intensity of cell wall metabolic and catabolic processes observed in the GO analysis too. A distinctive feature was the upregulation of glutathione metabolism in CR, involving genes such as *GLUTATHIONE S-TRANSFERASE*, *γ-GLUTAMYL-CYSTEINE SYNTHETASE*, and *ASCORBATE PEROXIDASE*. Moreover, the endochitinase gene *ChiB* and *PRI* (*PATHOGENESIS-RELATED PROTEIN 1*) were highly activated in all three cultivars. In DES, the mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase signalling pathway was activated. However, several genes of this pathway were downregulated in the *Rs*-resistant cultivars, especially in CG. Some specific genes, such as *MEKK1* (*MAP KINASE KINASE KINASE A*) and *MAPK9* (*MAP KINASE 9*), were uniquely downregulated in CG, while *MEKK7* was repressed in CR only, and *MEKK EDR1* (*ENHANCED DISEASE RESISTANCE 1*) was downregulated in both *Rs*-resistant cultivars (Jose *et al.*, 2023). This analysis suggests that the response to *Rs* infection varies between different potato cultivars, with distinct patterns of gene expression and pathway activation, reflecting their varying levels of resistance. Peng *et al.* (2021) reported an upregulation of glutathione metabolism in eggplant roots and stems upon *Rs* infection. An increase in *GLUTATHIONE S-TRANSFERASE* expression was also observed in *S. commersonii*, in both *Rs*-resistant and *Rs*-susceptible accessions (Zuluaga *et al.*, 2015), while it

was induced more than 10-fold in a *Rs*-resistant tomato cultivar compared to a susceptible cultivar (Ishihara *et al.*, 2012). Transcriptome analysis of *Rs*-resistant tobacco seedling roots suggested that glutathione and flavonoids are likely the main substances conferring early resistance to *Rs* infection (Gao *et al.*, 2019). This hypothesis was further supported by Li *et al.* (2021), who demonstrated that glutathione metabolism and phenylpropanoid pathways are the primary resistance pathways to *Rs* infection in tobacco. DEGs related to glutathione metabolism were also identified in the stems of a highly *Rs*-resistant tobacco variety (Pan *et al.*, 2021). Glutathione serves as the most abundant antioxidant in cells and plays a crucial role in protecting cell membranes and biomolecules from damage caused by ROS (Dorion *et al.*, 2021). Thus, it is likely to contribute to the *Rs* resistance of the CR cultivar. Apart from functional enrichment analysis, (GO, KEGG) we also manually analysed the DEG tables and based on literature evidence, we highlighted genes which might have a role in the resistance against *Rs*. The research also highlighted other pathways influencing resistance to *Rs* infection. In particular, WRKY transcription factors, which play a pivotal role in plant resistance to phytopathogens, were downregulated in CG and CR (Jose *et al.*, 2023). However, the role of WRKYs can be complex and context-dependent, with some acting as positive regulators of immunity while others as negative regulators. Additionally, the MAPK signalling pathway was activated in the *Rs*-susceptible DES, suggesting that modulating MAPK activity may be a strategy to reduce losses caused by *Rs*.

Validation of transcriptome data

To confirm the findings from the RNA-seq data, we conducted RT-qPCR experiments with five randomly selected genes (three upregulated and two downregulated in each cultivar) in the three potato cultivars. The expression trends and rankings of these tested genes were consistent between the RNA-seq and RT-qPCR results, yielding a high correlation coefficient ($R^2 = 0.9102$), affirming the reliability of the transcriptome data (**Figure 10 and Supplementary Table 4**).

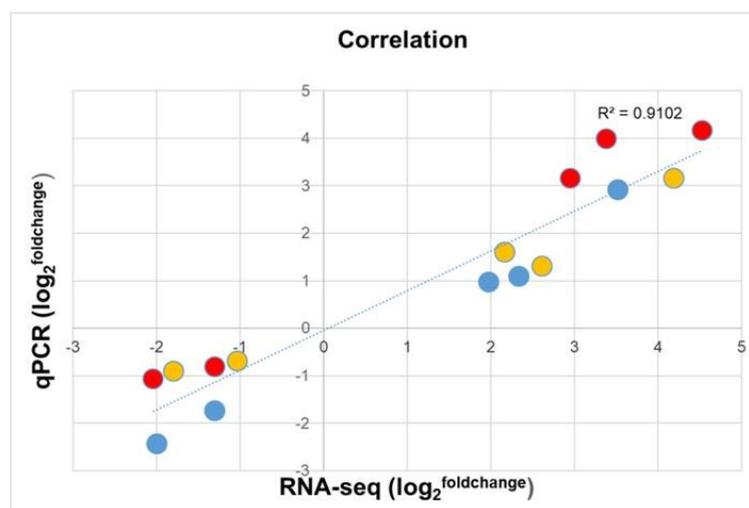


Figure 10. Differential expression of selected genes in the roots of non-infected and *Rs*-infected ‘Calalo Gaspar’ (CG), ‘Cruza 148’ (CR), and ‘Désirée’ (DES). The average fold change of biological replicates in expression levels detected by RNA-seq are compared to the fold change of the same biological replicates detected by RT-qPCR and are plotted on the x- and y-axis, respectively. Expression of *AGMATINE HYDROXYCINNAMOYLTRANSFERASE 1* (Soltu.DM.11G024290.1), *PATHOGENESIS-RELATED PROTEIN, STH-2* (Soltu.DM. 09G027710.1), *WOUND-INDUCED PROTEIN, WIN1* (Soltu.DM. 01G036460.1), *ABSCISIC ACID AND ENVIRONMENTAL STRESS-INDUCIBLE PROTEIN, TAS14* (Soltu.DM. 02G024670.1) and *L-ASCORBATE PEROXIDASE 2* (Soltu.DM. 09G006560.1) in CG (blue), CR (red) and DES (yellow) (Jose *et al.*, 2023).

5.1.3. Metabolomic analysis of *Rs*-resistant and susceptible cultivars

Plants have long been known to produce a wide range of secondary metabolites, and it is established that plants with higher concentrations of these secondary metabolites may exhibit greater resistance to various biotic and abiotic stresses. Many of these defence compounds are phenolics and flavonoids produced via the phenylpropanoid pathway. Furthermore, plant hormones, particularly ethylene (ET), JA, SA, and ABA, play critical roles in orchestrating responses to stress in conjunction with growth-promoting compounds, IAA (Mierziak *et al.*, 2014; Verma *et al.*, 2016; Zaynab *et al.*, 2018; Yadav *et al.*, 2020).

To investigate the significance of these compounds, we conducted a comprehensive study in three potato cultivars (CG, CR, and DES) by quantifying 30 specific metabolites mainly from the phenylpropanoid pathway and the plant hormones ABA, SA, JA, and IAA. We collected samples

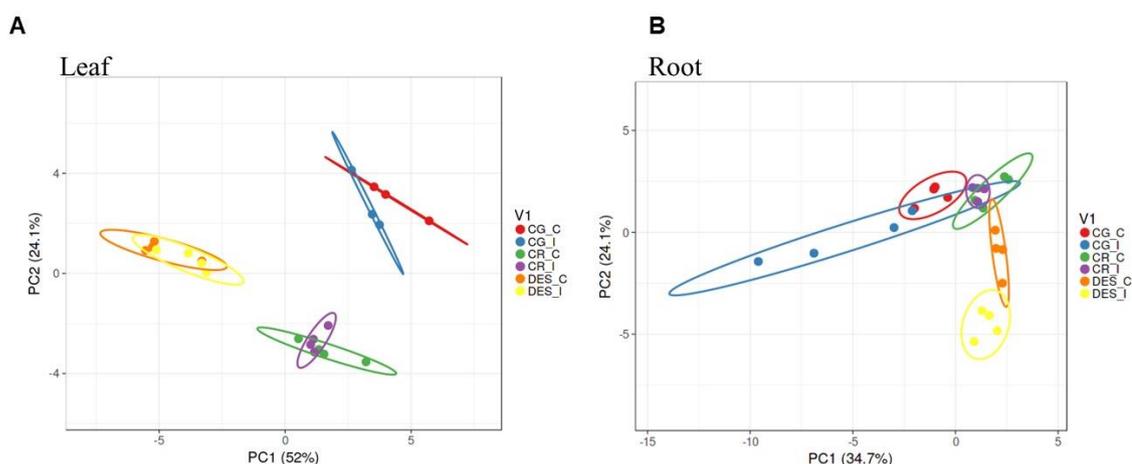


Figure 11. Principal component analysis of differences in the concentration of secondary metabolites between non-infected and *Rs*-infected ‘Calalo Gaspar’ (CG), ‘Cruza 148’ (CR), and ‘Désirée’ (DES) leaves (A) and roots (B) at 6 dpi. The data were obtained from four biological replicates of the roots of each cultivar and leaves of CG and DES and three biological replicates from the leaves of CR. Each biological replicate contained pooled samples of five plants.

from roots and leaves of both non-infected and *Rs*-infected potato plants at 6 dpi and subjected them to analysis using UPLC-MS/MS.

To better understand these metabolic variations, we performed PCA analyses and the results revealed that the profiles of these compounds could effectively distinguish samples according to the cultivar and the infected status (**Figure 11**). In general, *Rs* infection led to more characteristic changes in the metabolite patterns in the roots than in the leaves. Also, these changes were more pronounced in CG and DES compared to CR, where the PCA showed no significant difference between non-infected and *Rs*-infected CR roots (**Figure 11B**).

Taking a closer, component-specific look at the metabolite differences (**Figure 12, Supplementary Table 5 and 6**), based on evident observable changes, we found that while the concentration of the phenolic acid, chlorogenic acid was higher in the *Rs*-resistant cultivars than in DES, it showed a similar tendency to increase in the roots of each cultivar following *Rs* infection. Although the derivatives of chlorogenic acid only showed a significant increase in CG roots (Jose *et al.*, 2023). The increase in the concentrations of chlorogenic acid derivatives and quercetin derivatives was a distinctive characteristic of CG. Chlorogenic acids are known for their abundance in potato tubers and other plant organs and play vital roles in antimicrobial activity, antioxidant activity, and the synthesis of suberin and lignin, crucial components in fortifying cell walls against pathogen attacks (Kabir *et al.*, 2014; Valiñas *et al.*, 2015; Yang *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). It is worth noting that the regulation of the synthesis of these metabolites can differ among different plant species and their responses to stress. For example, studies in other species have shown variations in the accumulation of flavonoids in response to stress, with different effects on resistant and susceptible genotypes (Li *et al.*, 2021; reviewed by Wang *et al.*, 2022b).

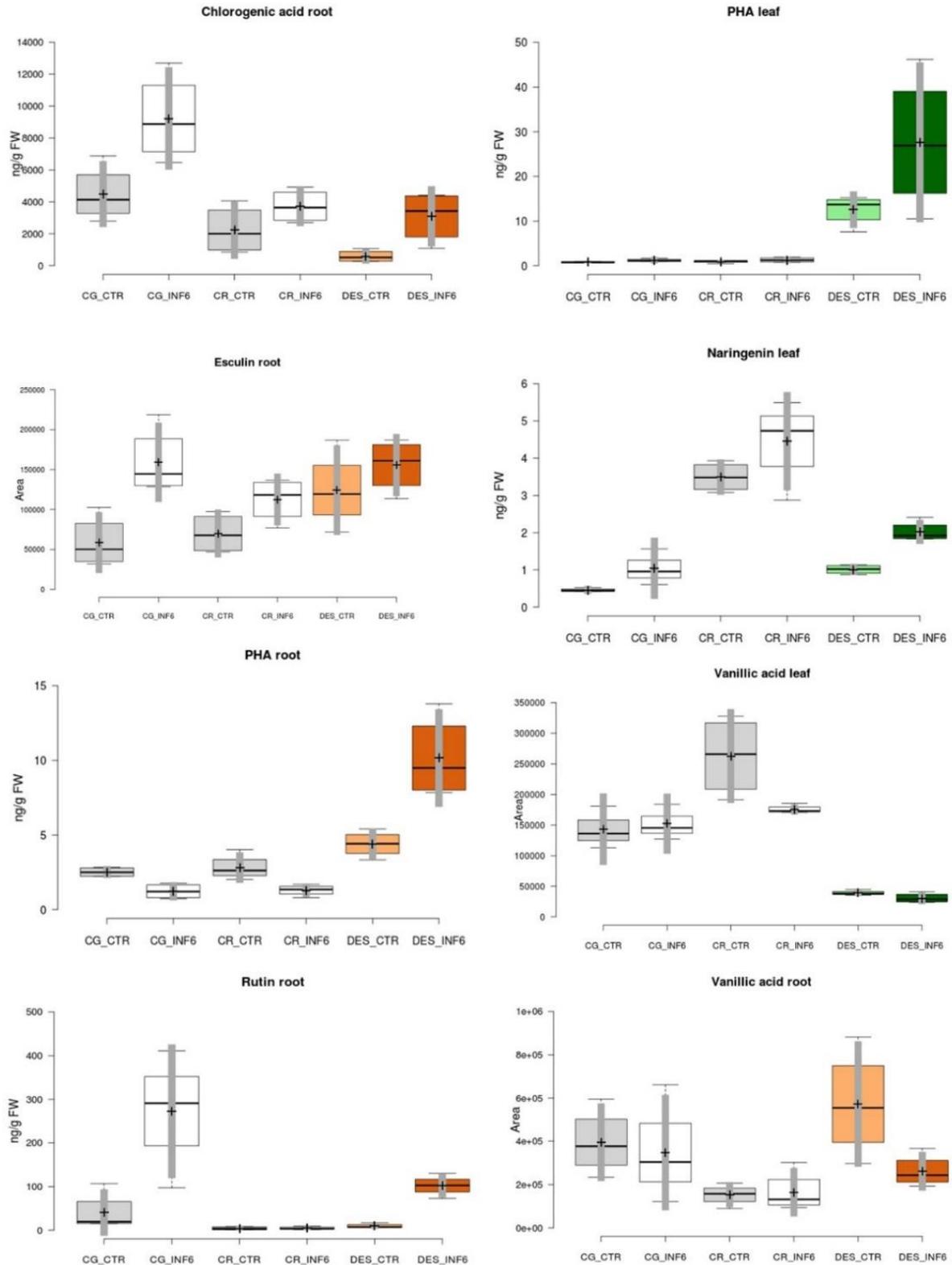


Figure 12. Concentration differences of five selected secondary metabolites between non-infected and *Rs*-infected ‘Calalo Gaspar’, ‘Cruza 148’, and ‘Désirée’ roots (brown) and leaves (green) at 6 dpi. CG_CTRL, ‘Calalo Gaspar’ control (grey); CG_INF6, ‘Calalo Gaspar’ infected (white); CR_CTRL, ‘Cruza 148’ control (grey); CR_INF6, ‘Cruza 148’ infected (white); DES_CTRL, ‘Désirée’ control; DES_INF6, ‘Désirée’ infected.

The concentration of the antibacterial compound esculin also increased in the roots of all the cultivars upon infection. Dihydrophaseic acid (PHA) in DES roots showed a different pattern

than in CG and CR roots, where it increased upon infection, whereas it decreased in the resistant lines. Comparing the controls of the genotypes, PHA was in lower basal amounts in the leaves of the resistant cultivars indicative of its inverse relation to resistance. Increased level of phaseic acid, particularly in the leaves of DES, probably contributing to stomatal closure (Kriedemann *et al.*, 1975), was also observed and could be a part of the basal defence. This is also in line with the increased amount of ABA found especially in DES (decreased in CR, unchanged in CG: **Figure 13**). Drought-stress protective pathways were also activated in the sensitive peanut genotype during *Rs* infection, possibly as response to water shortage (blocking of xylem elements) and wilting caused by the bacteria (Zhao *et al.*, 2015).

In leaves, naringenin, a flavonoid, increased in amount upon infection in all the cultivars, but particularly in CR. CG had a characteristic increase in the concentration of flavanols (quercetin and its derivatives, rutin, kaempferol-3-*O*-rutinoside, isorhamnetin-3-*O*-rutinoside) upon infection in the roots, indicating that flavanols might be the major contributors to the resistance response in CG (**Supplementary Table 5**) Flavonoids have both antioxidant and antipathogenic properties and are stress generated metabolites (Blount *et al.*, 1992; Dai *et al.*, 1996; Mierziak *et al.*, 2014) which can significantly contribute to resistance (Li *et al.*, 2021). Vanillic acid, a derivate of vanillin with antioxidant and antibacterial effects (Maisch *et al.*, 2022), was reduced in amount upon *Rs* infection in CR leaves, however, it remained unchanged in CG and DES leaves, whereas in the roots, a strong reduction of vanillic acid level was observed in DES. In contrast, the vanillic acid concentration was elevated in CG and CR. Since the primary infection site of *Rs* is the root, the root metabolome might have pivotal importance in resisting the pathogen (Qian *et al.*, 2020; Maisch *et al.*, 2022).

Upon the quantitative analysis of selected plant hormones, it was observed that *Rs* infection led to an increase in SA levels in the roots of each cultivar indicating that SA might be a part of the basal defence response to *Rs*, as suggested by Lowe-Power *et al.* (2016). The IAA level was high in CR roots, but it only increased slightly by *Rs* infection in CG and DES. The basal JA amount was higher in DES leaves than in CG and CR leaves and decreased in each genotype upon *Rs* infection (**Figure 13**).

Numerous recent studies have identified metabolic and signalling pathways involved in defence against *Rs* in various plant species (Lowe-Power *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2019; Pan *et al.*, 2021). For example, DEGs related to ABA, JA, IAA, and ET signalling cascades were identified in *Arabidopsis* roots at 4 dpi (Zhao *et al.*, 2019). In tomato, the JA- and ET-mediated signalling pathways were found to be associated with *Rs* resistance when elicitors were infiltrated together with bacteria into the leaves (Kawamura *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, Baichoo and Fakim

(2017) observed the expression of marker genes associated with JA, SA, and ET signalling pathways in different tomato species.

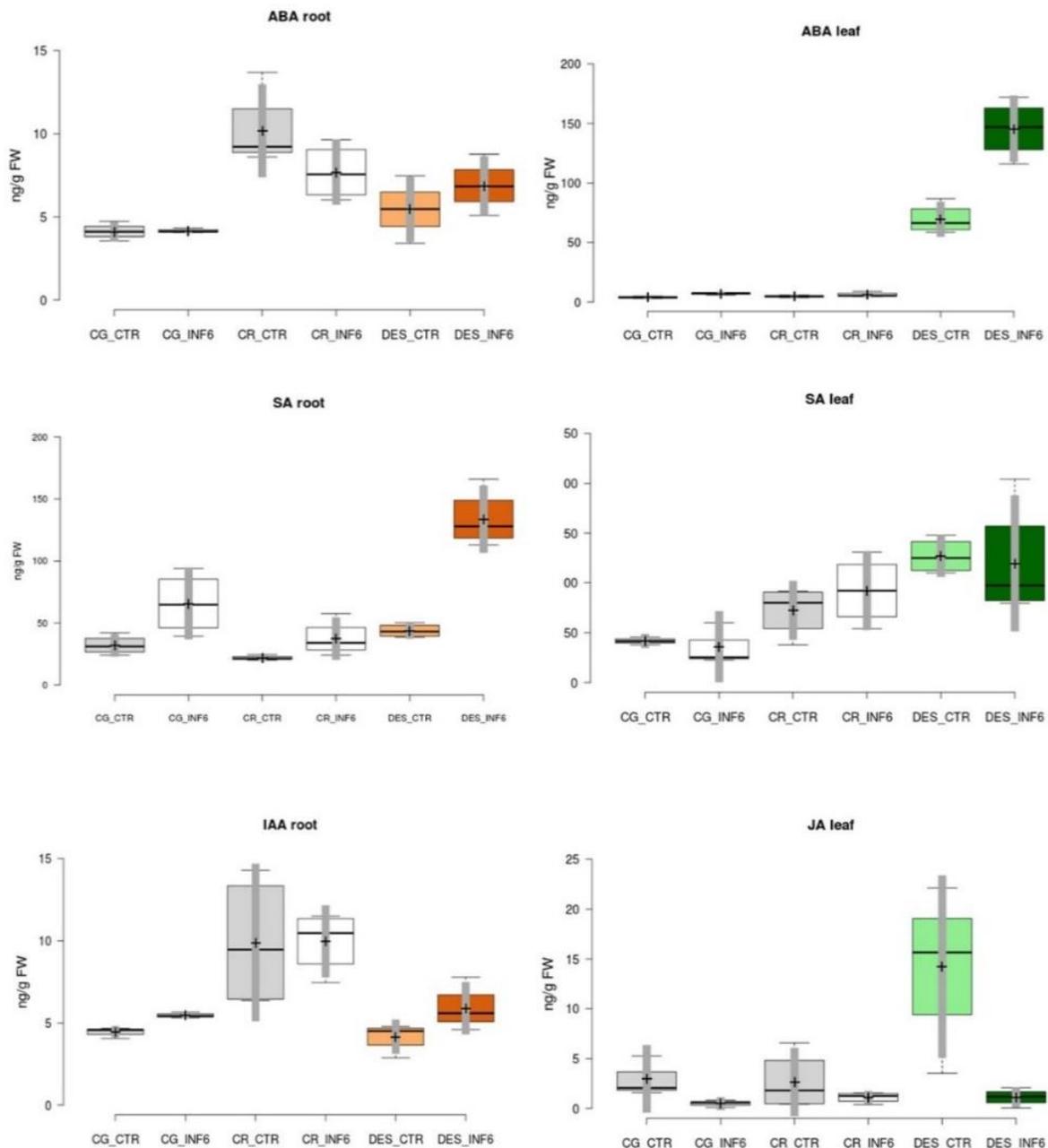


Figure 13. Concentration differences of the ABA, SA, JA, and IAA hormone levels between the non-infected and *Rs*-infected ‘Calalo Gaspar’, ‘Cruza 148’, and ‘Désirée’ roots (brown) and leaves (green) at 6 dpi. CG_CTRL, ‘Calalo Gaspar’ control (grey); CG_INF6, ‘Calalo Gaspar’ infected (white); CR_CTRL, ‘Cruza 148’ control (grey); CG_INF6, ‘Cruza 148’ infected (white); DES_CTRL, ‘Désirée’ control; DES_INF6, ‘Désirée’ infected.

They concluded that SA and ET signalling plays a significant role in defence against *Rs*, while JA signalling does not. In addition, French *et al.* (2018) proposed that roots contribute to *Rs* resistance through genome-wide transcriptomic changes, leading to the activation of defence genes and alteration of IAA pathways. In our *in vitro* experiment, the expression of thousands of genes was altered at 2 dpi in roots, but no significant GO terms related to plant hormone signalling

pathways were identified. Nevertheless, we detected changes in the concentration of four plant hormones (ABA, SA, JA, and IAA) at 6 dpi in the infected roots of three cultivars. It is worth noting that there is no consensus on the role of plant hormones in defence against *Rs*. For instance, the JA-insensitive *Arabidopsis* mutant *jar1-1* is susceptible to *Rs* infection, but the loss-of-function JA receptor mutation *coi1-1* enhances plant defence against *Rs* (Hirsch *et al.*, 2002; Hernández-Blanco *et al.*, 2007). Similarly, though SA-deficient *Arabidopsis* transgenic plants do not show significant differences in wilt symptom development, an overexpression of *NahG* (SA hydroxylase) restores susceptibility to *Rs* in the *Rs*-resistant *wat1* mutant (Denancé *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, increased concentrations of ABA, SA, JA, and IAA alone may not be sufficient to prevent *Rs*-induced wilting in DES plants. We have to reiterate that the level of SA increased in roots of all of the tested cultivars during the infection, but the level of JA (present in very low amounts, data not shown) and ABA only increased in the susceptible DES. Thus, similar to tomato (Baichoo and Fakim, 2017), JA may be dispensable for *Rs* resistance in potato.

5.1.4. Lignification of root cell walls influences *Rs* resistance

The GO analysis of transcriptome data (**Figure 8**) revealed that *Rs* infection led to an increase in cell wall metabolic processes in the roots of CR and DES. The metabolomic analysis also pointed to the possibility of cell wall reinforcement as a point of difference between the cultivars owing to chlorogenic acid among others. Therefore, we employed confocal microscopy to further investigate the reinforcement of the cell wall in *Rs*-infected roots compared to non-infected roots. In this analysis, root cross-sections were stained with safranin to visualise the level of lignification (**Figure 14**).

In all three cultivars (CG, CR, and DES), the central parts of the roots (the stele), and primarily the xylem, exhibited lignification even in the absence of *Rs* infection (**Figures 14A-C**). However, the area and intensity of the red staining (indicating lignin) were the lowest in DES (**Figure 14C**). In addition to the central stele, the innermost layer of the cortex in the *Rs*-resistant CG also displayed some lignin (**Figure 14A**). The presence of *Rs* infection did not alter the extent of lignification in CG (**Figure 14D**). However, it significantly increased lignification throughout the stele in CR (**Figure 14E**), and even more dramatically in the xylem of DES (**Figure 14F**). Also, a large quantity of *Rs* bacteria was detected in DES (**Figure 14F**). This suggests that the basal level of lignification in DES may not have been sufficient to prevent *Rs* invasion.

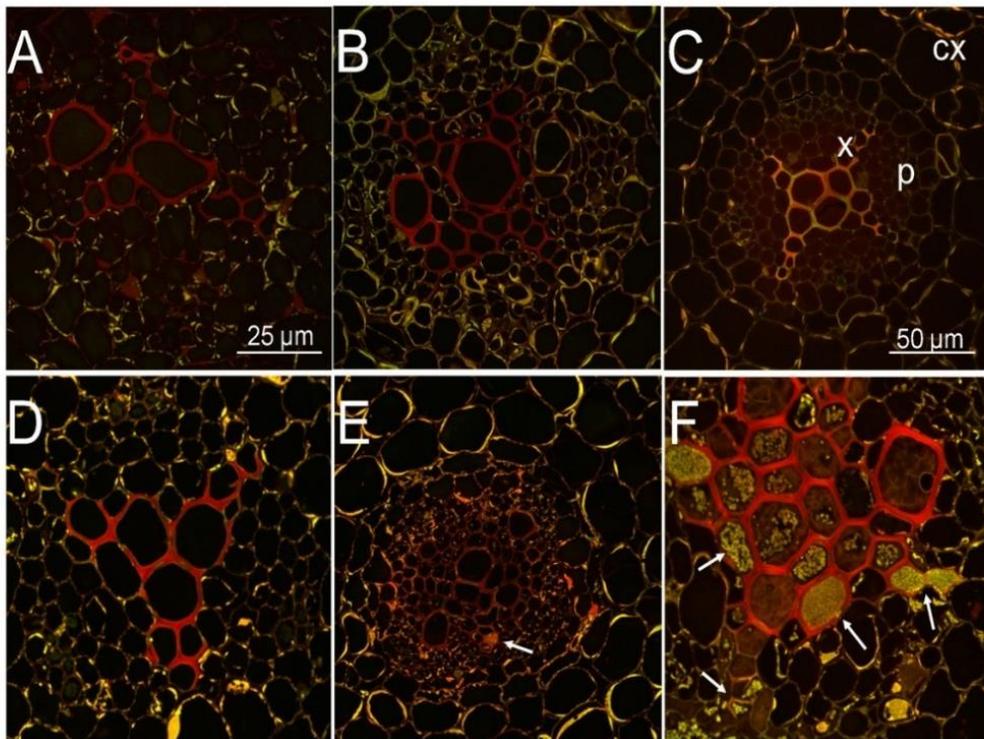


Figure 14. Confocal microscopy images of potato root cross-sections from non-infected control (A-C) and *Rs*-infected (D-F) plants at 6 dpi. Samples from 3-week-old, *in vitro* plants were stained with safranin for lignin and Fast Green for contrast. ‘Calalo Gaspar’ control (A), ‘Cruza 148’ control (B), ‘Désirée’ control (C), ‘Calalo Gaspar’ infected (D), ‘Cruza 148’ infected (E), ‘Désirée’ infected (F). cx, cortex; p; parenchyma; x, xylem; arrows, *Rs* bacteria (Jose *et al.*, 2023).

Lignin, a crucial secondary metabolite, is synthesised within the phenylalanine/tyrosine metabolic pathway in plant cells. The biosynthesis pathway of lignin in higher plants initiates with PAL and terminates with peroxidase (POD) and laccase. Accordingly, the expression of two *PAL* transcript variants and multiple *PODs* was significantly upregulated in CR roots upon *Rs* infection (Jose *et al.*, 2023). Lignin plays a pivotal role in plant response to various biotic and abiotic stresses, with regulation involving MYB transcription factors and microRNAs (reviewed by Cesarino, 2019). In this study, a substantial number of *MYB* DEGs, ranging from 30 to 55, were identified in each cultivar. Notably, in CG, which maintained undisturbed lignification, the majority of *MYBs* (40 out of 55 or 73%) exhibited a slight downregulation. In contrast, CR and DES displayed a characteristic increase in the number of upregulated *MYBs* to balance the distribution (Jose *et al.*, 2023).

The cell wall serves as the initial physical defence layer of plants against pathogens. Studies on *Arabidopsis* mutants with impaired cell wall-cellulose synthesis have shown that alterations in primary and secondary cell wall formation can confer resistance against vascular pathogens, including *Rs* (Hernández-Blanco *et al.*, 2007; Denancé *et al.*, 2013; Kesten *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, our study could also highlight differences in cell wall fortification as a resistance response to *Rs* infection which differed between the resistant cultivars as also mentioned by Nakaho *et al.* (2000). It is worth noting that the resistant CR demonstrated a self-protective mechanism against bacterial

invasion through cell wall reinforcement. On the other hand, CG exhibited primarily a metabolic response (as discussed in the previous chapter). Nonetheless, both strategies appear to be viable in countering the pathogen.

5.2. Candidate susceptibility genes that could contribute to pathogen resistance in potato

Based on the transcriptomic data and simultaneous analysis of relevant literature, we screened for candidate susceptibility genes from the DEGs that were downregulated among the resistant lines contrary to susceptible DES and could be potentially used for CRISPR/Cas9 editing to confer resistance against the pathogens *Rs* and *Pi* as listed in **Table 11**. We identified candidate susceptibility genes including genes from **Table 11** the editing of which might confer resistance to *Rs* and might even contribute to broad-spectrum resistance, including defence against the hemibiotrophic pathogen *Pi*. The candidate genes range from *WRKY* transcription factors to genes involved in cell wall building and ion transporters that can facilitate infection (**Table 11**). The three candidates from this combined analysis, namely *POLYPHENOL OXIDASE* (*Pot32*, literature), *stu-miR396* (literature) and *SULPHATE TRANSPORTER 3;1* (transcriptome data) is described in detail in the upcoming sections.

Table 11. List of candidate susceptibility genes selected from transcriptome data and literature analysis for CRISPR/Cas based genome editing

S. No.	Target gene	Gene id	Gene_chr	Gene start	Gene end	Gene strand	Cultivar	No. of generated trg. lines	No. of confirmed, sequenced CRISPR genome-edited lines	No. of lines tested for Rs resistance	No. of lines showing effect (tolerance/susceptibility)	Additional comments
	Genes discussed in detail											
1	Sulphate transporter 3.1	AT3G51895.1	chr03	19251287	19255922	+	Arabidopsis thaliana (Col)	0	0	1 T-DNA insertion mutant: SALK_023190C	1	The potato homologue was there in our own transcriptome data, in resistant varieties, supported by literature too. Very strong Rs resistance found in all tests.
	Ongoing work											
2	Sulphate transporter 3.1	Soltu.DM.06G034550.1 Soltu.DM.09G024940. Soltu.DM.09G020160.1 in SPUD DB	chr09	60833361	60838774	-	Désirée	none	none	no data	no data	Resistance validated in Arabidopsis; Construct designed for potato, transformed
3	Probable WRKY transcription factor 71 in potato, the Arabidopsis homologue is WRKY28	Soltu.DM.02G014150.1; AT4G18170.1 (TAIR)	chr02	28805293	28806931	-	Arabidopsis thaliana (Columbia)	20	5 OX lines	no data	no data	The gene was there in our own transcriptome data, in resistant varieties. Arabidopsis homologue overexpressed in Arabidopsis; resistance to be validated
4	Serine/threonine-protein phosphatase PP1 StTOPP6	Soltu.DM.06G014600.1	chr06	40053020	40059222	-	no data	none	none	no data	no data	Construct being designed for editing in potato
5	WRKY transcription factor 22	Soltu.DM.01G034200	chr01	73800897	73802758	+	Balatoni Rózsa	none	none	no data	no data	Construct designed for potato for editing, transformed
	Completed work											
6	DMR6-LIKE OXYGENASE 1	Soltu.DM.03G030400	chr03	54868368	54891227	+	Botond	10	4	4	2	The gene was there in our own transcriptome data, in resistant varieties, supported by literature too. Delayed symptom development has been observed in first tests, in 2 tested lines out of the 4
7	WAT1-related protein	Soltu.DM.03G000570.1	chr03	617947	622736	+	Balatoni Rózsa	3	0	None	None	The gene was there in our own transcriptome data, in resistant varieties, supported by literature too. Regenerants, bot no mutants. Too AT-rich first exon, Cas9 target could not have been designed, Cas12 would have been the solution. It was our first attempt with Cas12, but we failed.

5.3. Studying the effect of *PPO* knockout in tetraploid potato on resistance to *Rs* and *Pi*

5.3.1. Generation of *PPO* mutant lines

The process of potato transformation including the vector construct with the CRISPR targets of the *Pot32 PPO* gene is presented in **Figure 15**. The pKSE401 vector harbouring the editing construct was mobilised into *A. tumefaciens* (LBA4404) and its uptake was confirmed with colony PCR. The *Agrobacterium* harbouring the *Pot32*-editing construct was used for leaf transformation of the potato cultivars ‘Désirée’ (DES) and ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ (BR).

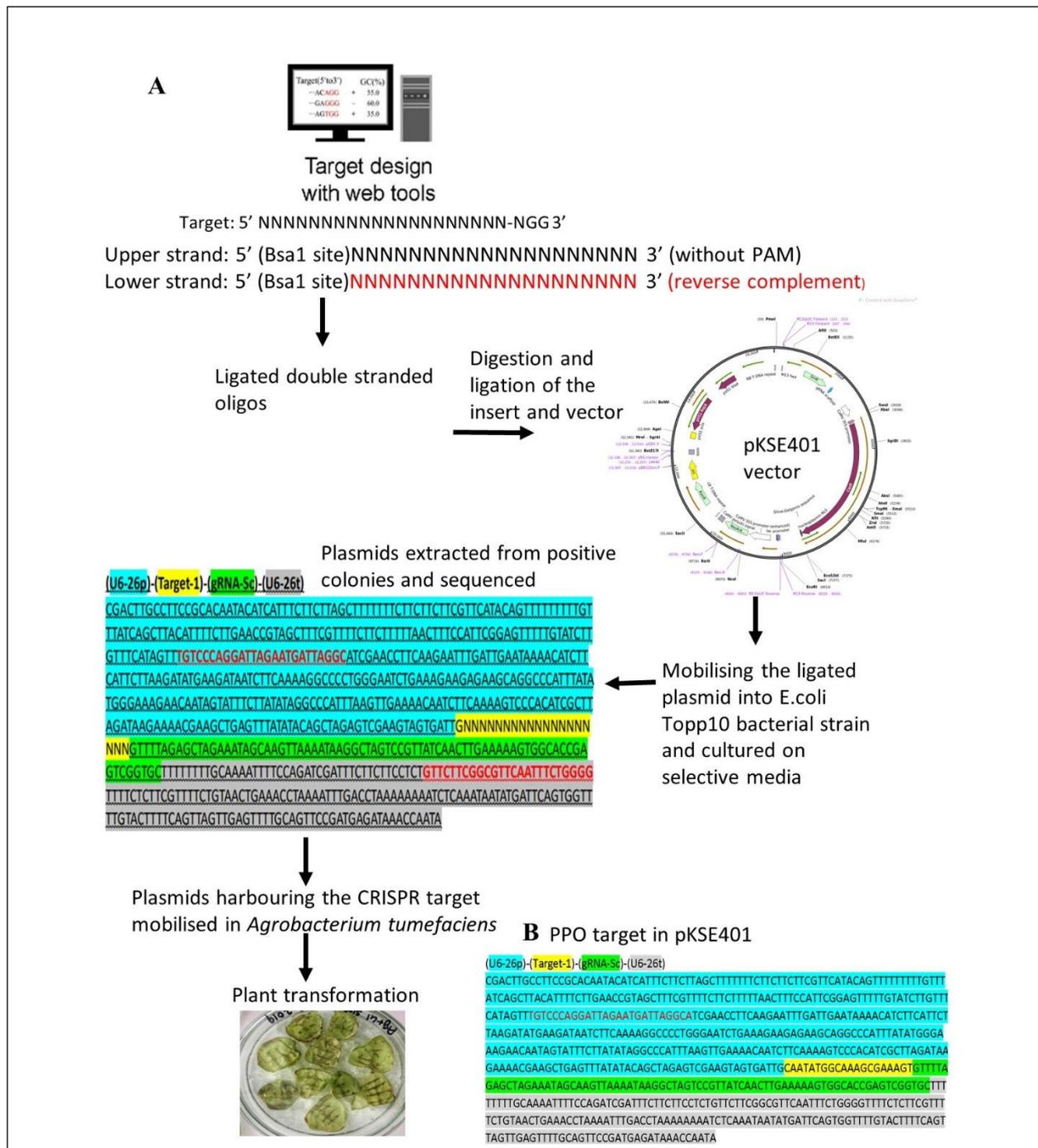


Figure 15. Systematic building CRISPR/Cas constructs for plant transformation (A). The CRISPR target for the *PPO* gene was designed and assembled into the pKSE401 vector highlighted in yellow (B).

Among the 20 transformed plant lines/genotype generated, two DES lines (referred to as D14 and D17) and two lines from BR (referred to as BR12 and BR25) were selected for further examination to understand the effect of *PPO* knockout across genotypes. All four of these lines carried the sgRNA-coding oligo (**Supplementary Figure 1**) and were devoid of *Agrobacterium* contamination (**Supplementary Figure 2**). Additionally, they contained various mutations at the target site within the *Pot32 PPO* gene (**Supplementary Figure 3**). D14 and D17 only had mutations in two of four alleles, BR12 had monoallelic mutation for this gene, while BR25 had mutations in three alleles of *Pot32* contrary to other lines (**Supplementary Figure 3**). These plants also exhibited a few mutations in other *PPO* genes, such as *Pot33* and *Pot72*. Especially, BR25 showed distinct mutations (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Phenotypically, all edited lines maintained the cultivar-specific morphological characteristics, however, displayed a slightly smaller plant height compared to the controls. An exception to this trend was observed in BR25, which exhibited rapid growth, attaining a tall plant height.

5.3.2. Reduced browning and PPO activity in *PPO*-knockout mutants

All four examined lines, particularly D17 and BR25, displayed significantly reduced browning in their tubers compared to the respective controls (**Figure 16A,B** and **Supplementary Table 7**), indicating a decrease in PPO activity. D14 and D17 had 10.9% and 33.8% reduction, respectively, in browning compared to the control, while BR12 and BR25 had 10.9% and 13.2% reductions, respectively, related to their control. Three of the mutant lines (D14 and D17 and BR25) also exhibited reduced (7.6 %, 11.5 % and 8.6%) browning in their roots when compared to their unedited controls (**Figure 16A,B** and **Supplementary Table 7**). However, BR12 did not show such kind of decrease.

Reduced PPO enzymatic activity was observed in the tubers of all edited lines except BR12. BR25 displayed the most significant difference, indicated by a *p*-value of 0.0005 (**Figure 16B**). Measurement of PPO enzymatic activity confirmed the reduced PPO activity in the roots of D14 and D17 in comparison to the control, and similar results were observed for BR25 and BR12 (**Figure 17B**).

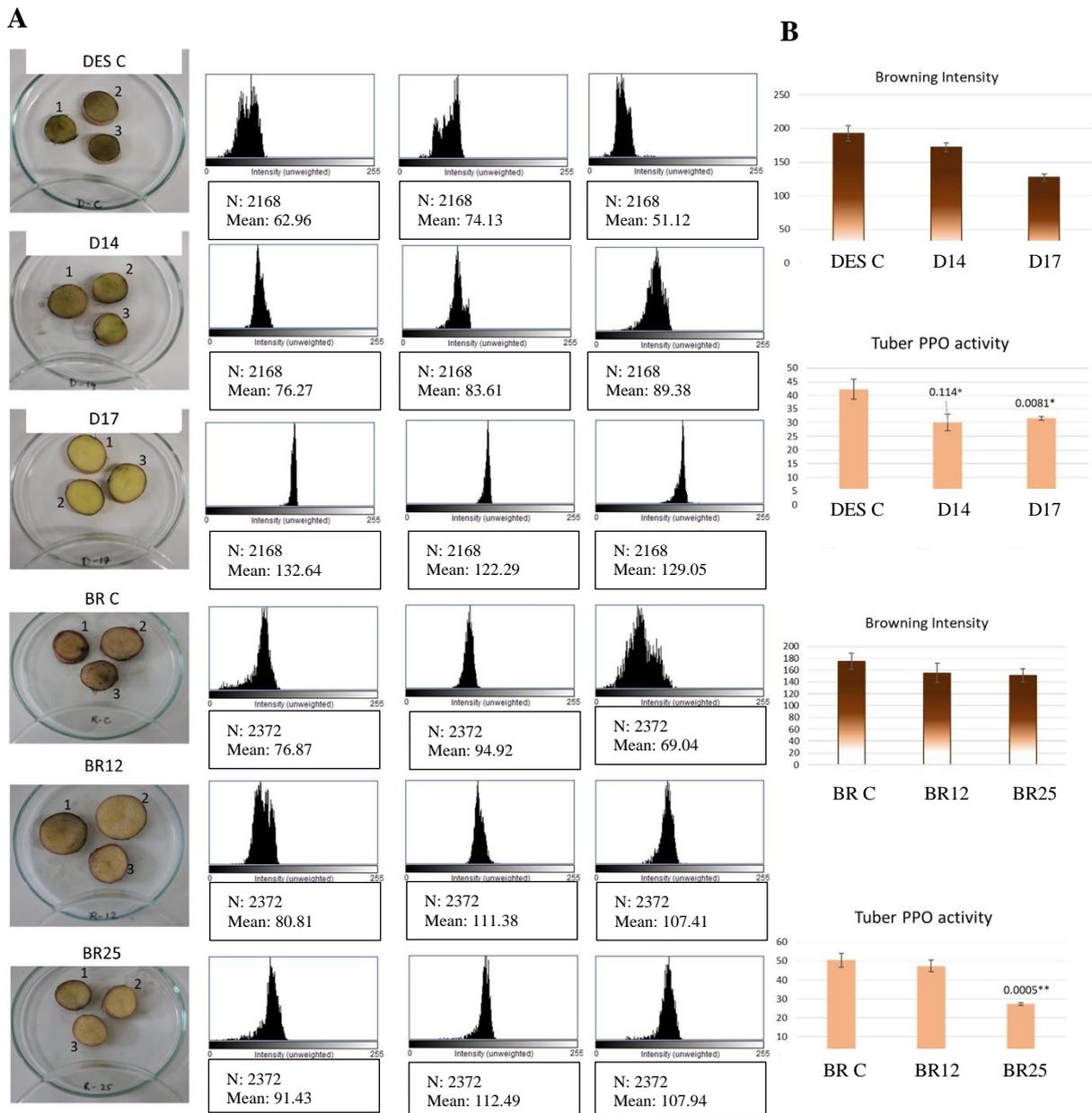


Figure 16. Quantification of browning assay done on tubers of control and *PPO* mutants with substrate solution containing 0.01M disodium tyrosine and *PPO* enzyme activity in tubers against 15 mM 4-methylcatechol. Browning as observed on the tuber slices (Column 1) of 'Désirée' control (DES C) and *PPO*-mutants 'Désirée' Line14 and 17 (D14, D17), 'Balatoni Rózsa' control (BR C) and *PPO*-mutants, 'Balatoni Rózsa' Line12 and 25 (BR 12 and BR25), with the histogram of the three slices (Cloumn 2-4; left-right) depicting the degree of browning (A). *PPO* browning intensity and enzyme activity against 15 mM 4-methylcatechol of potato tubers of 'Désirée' control (DES C) and *PPO*-mutants 'Désirée' Line14 and 17 (D14, D17), 'Balatoni Rózsa' control (BR C) and *PPO*-mutants, 'Balatoni Rózsa' Line12 and 25 (BR 12 and BR25) (B). * indicates the level of significance of p-value<0.05

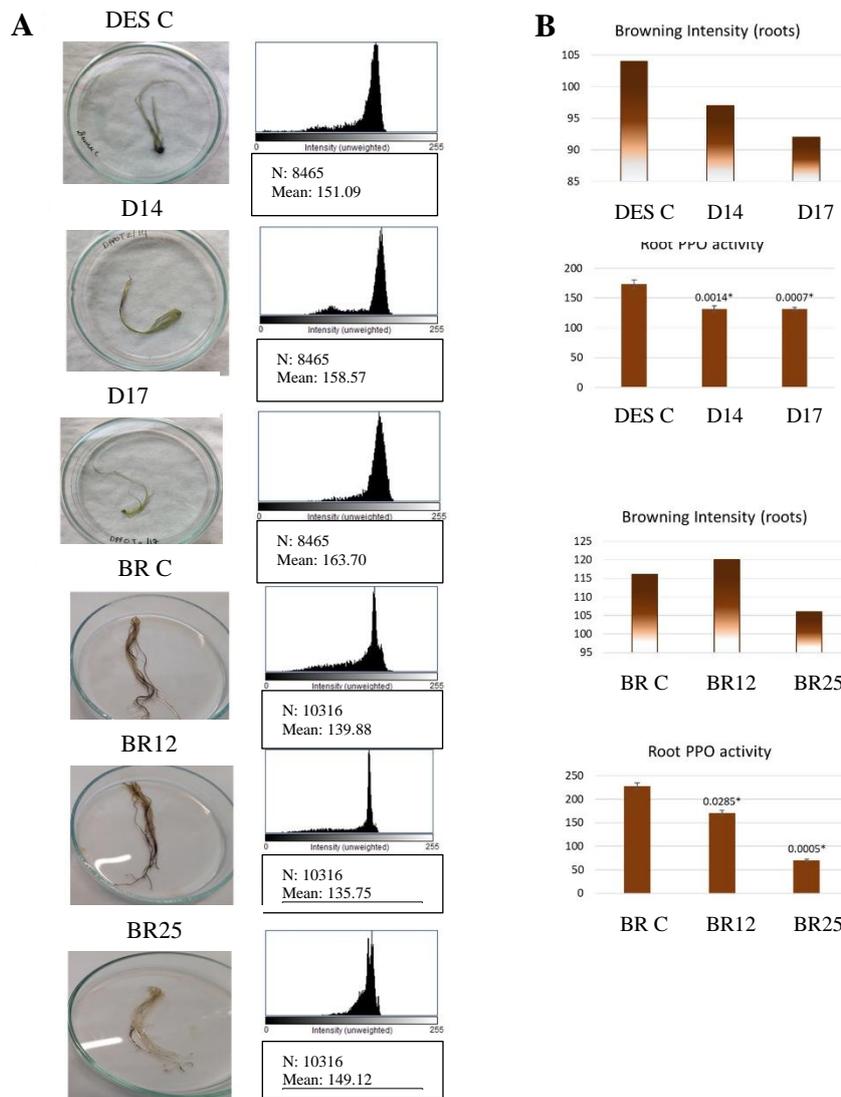


Figure 17. Quantification of browning assay done on roots of control and *PPO* mutants with substrate solution containing 0.01M disodium tyrosine and PPO enzyme activity in tubers against 15 mM 4-methylcatechol. Browning as observed on whole roots (top-bottom) of 'Désirée' control (DES C) and *PPO*-mutants 'Désirée' Line14 and 17 (D14 and D17), 'Balatoni Rózsa' control (BR C) and *PPO*-mutants, 'Balatoni Rózsa' Line12 and 25 (BR 12 and BR25, with the plotted histogram depicting the degree of browning (A) PPO enzyme activity against 15 mM 4-methylcatechol and quantified browning intensity of potato roots of 'Désirée' control (DES C) and *PPO*-mutants 'Désirée' Line14 and 17 (D14 and D17), 'Balatoni Rózsa' control (BR C) and *PPO*-mutants, 'Balatoni Rózsa' Line12 and 25 (BR 12 and BR25) (B). * indicates the level of significance of p-value <0.05

One of the collateral advantage of this study with *PPO* was the enhancement of the commercial quality of potatoes by reducing browning, which was successfully achieved by disrupting *PPO* genes. While this approach was previously employed by various groups to decrease *PPO* activity in potatoes using methods like RNA interference or CRISPR-related techniques (Bachem *et al.*, 1994; Llorente *et al.*, 2010, 2011; Chi *et al.*, 2014; González *et al.*, 2020) our dual-genotype approach provides a more comprehensive understanding of the role of *PPO* in potatoes and extends the applicability of this knowledge to the Hungarian cultivar, BR.

5.3.3. Metabolomic analysis of edited PPO lines

Our objective was the detection of the metabolic changes related to the introduced *PPO* mutations. Previously, it was demonstrated that downregulation of *PPO* genes by RNAi leads to diverse metabolic alterations in potato tissues (Araji *et al.*, 2014; Llorente *et al.*, 2014; Shepherd *et al.*, 2015). These studies delineated a redirection of the metabolic pathway and demonstrated elevated levels of specific metabolites such as chlorogenic acid, fraxin, naringenin, phaseic acid and taxifolin. Surprisingly, however, the levels of well-known *PPO* substrates, including caffeic acid, did not exhibit a significant increase in amount in any of our *PPO* mutants (**Supplementary Figures 4ABC**). Nevertheless, our UPLC-MS/MS measurement revealed variations in the concentrations of 26 diverse phenolic compounds between the control and *PPO*-edited potato plants (**Supplementary Tables 8**). The PCA analysis resulted in detection of a marked divergence in the root metabolome for most *PPO* mutants (D14, D17, and BR25; **Figure 18C and D**). Intriguingly, this contrast in metabolomic profiles was not observed in the leaf metabolome, except for BR25 (**Figure 18A and B**), which might be explained with the selection of tuber-specific *PPO* genes for targeted mutagenesis.

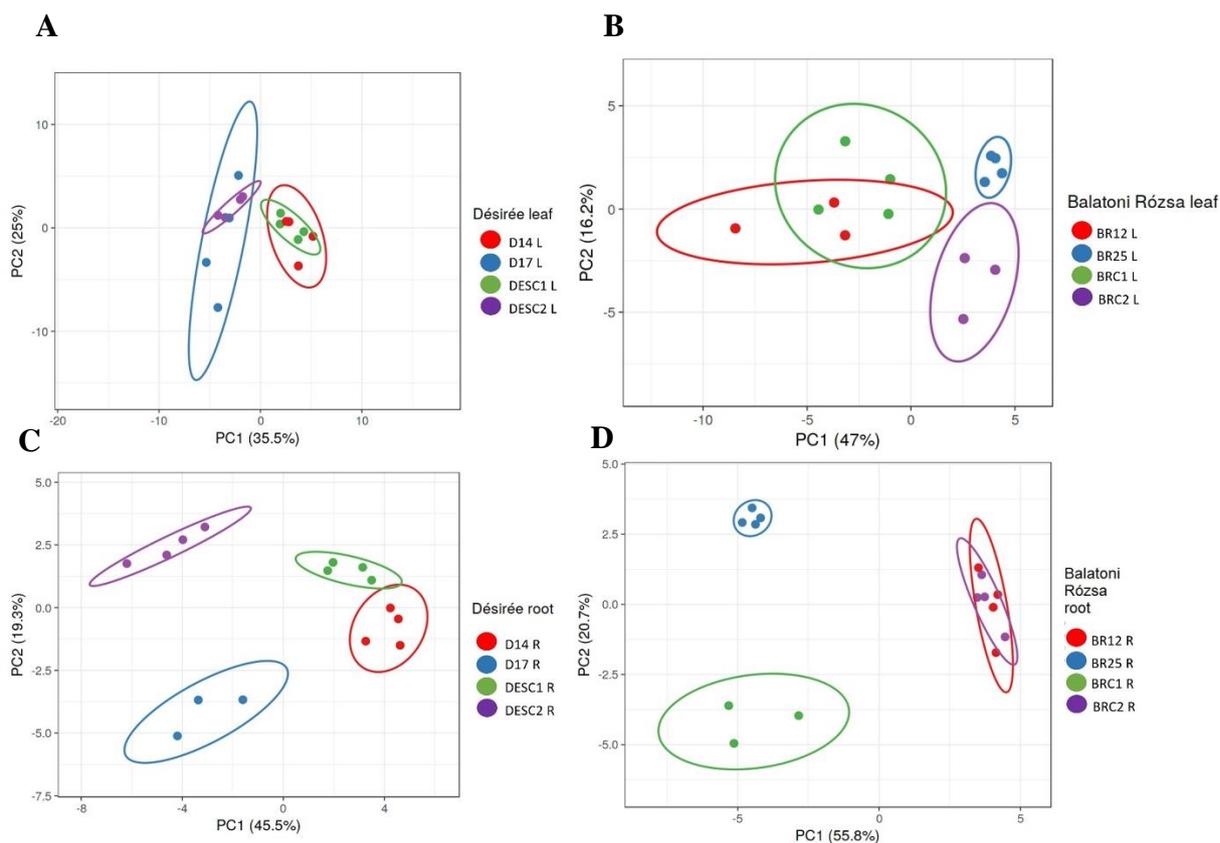


Figure 18. Principal component analysis of 26 metabolites. In leaves (A) and roots (C) of ‘Désirée’ control DESC1 and DESC2 (4 technical replicates each) and *PPO* mutants D14 and D17 (4 replicates each), and in leaves (B) and roots (D) of ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ control BRC1 and BRC2 (4 technical replicates of each) and *PPO* mutants BR12 and BR25 (4 replicates each).

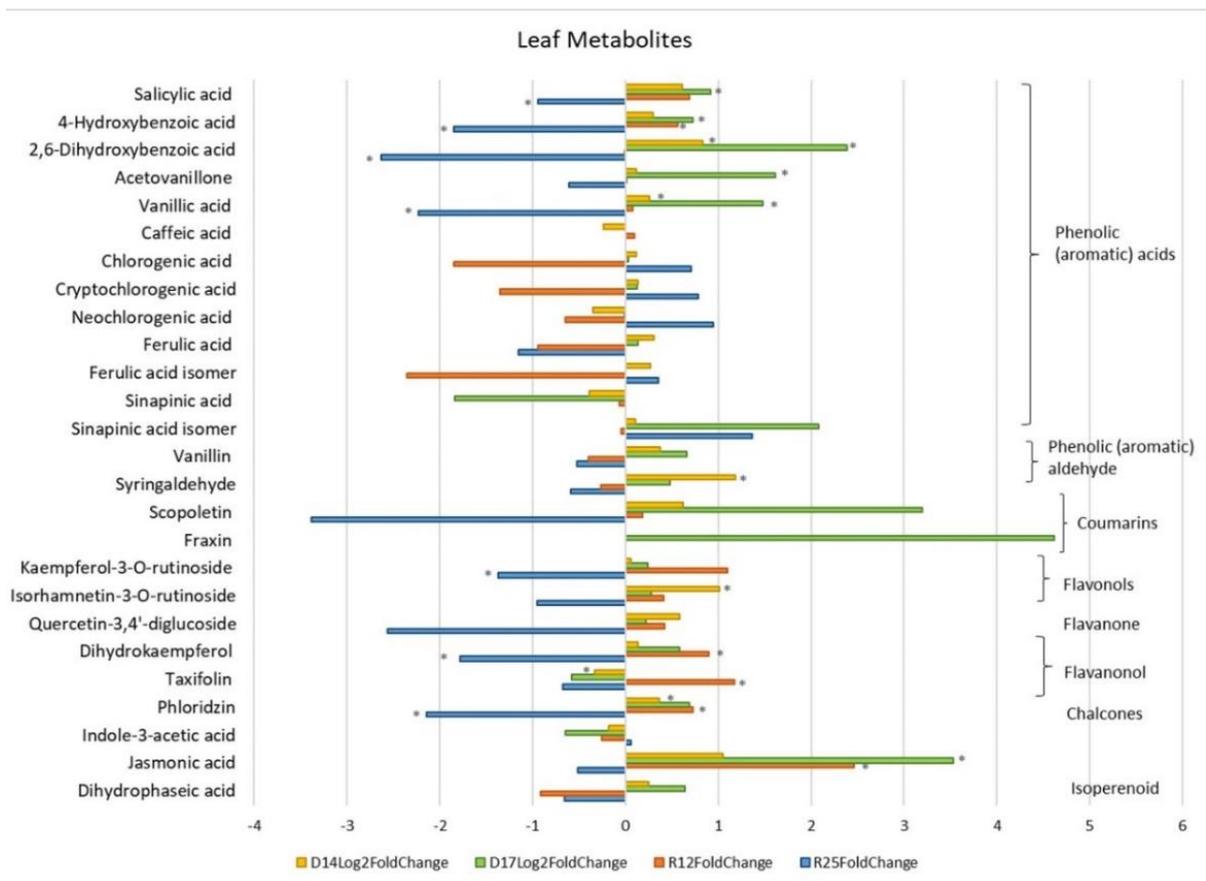


Figure 19. Differential regulation of 26 metabolites calculated by the Log2Fold change with respect to the control in the leaves of the mutant lines ‘Désirée’ Line 14 (D14), ‘Désirée’ Line 17 (D17), ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ Line 12 (R12) and ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ Line 25 (R25). * indicates significant changes at $p \leq 0.05$

We also assessed the impact of *PPO* gene knockout on the phenolic metabolome across different genotypes (**Figure 19, 20 and Supplementary Figures 4ABC**). The root and leaf metabolome highlighted certain metabolites that changed similarly in three (D14, D17 and BR12) of four edited lines plausibly accounting to *PPO* knockout which involved increase of flavonols (isorhamnetin-3-O-rutinoside and quercetin-3,4'-diglucoside). However, roots and leaves of BR25 specifically had significantly reduced amounts of flavonoids including naringenin, and taxifolin (**Figure 19 and 20**). In line with PCA results, leaves of BR25 exhibited diminished levels of certain metabolites (e.g., dihydrokaempferol, 2,6-dihydroxybenzoic acid, and phloridzin) compared to its control, a trend not observed in other mutants. (**Supplementary Figure 4C**). Phaseic acid levels were elevated in roots of D14 and D17, BR25 while, vanillic acid and indole-3-acetic acid showed lower levels in D17 and BR25 (**Figure 20**). The genotype specific differences upon *PPO* knockout was observed in flavonoids like naringenin, dihydrokaempferol and taxifolin, recognised as a *PPO* substrate in walnut (Panis and Rompel, 2020), which increased in the roots of D14 and D17 and decreased in BR12 and BR25 relative to their controls. Dihydrophaseic acid also characteristically increased in the roots and leaves of edited DES lines and decreased in BR12 and BR25 (**Figure 19 and 20**). Notably, the root metabolomes of the two potato cultivars exhibited

marked distinctions, emphasising the impact of *PPO* knockout. It is worth noting that BR12 did not exhibit significant differences from its control.

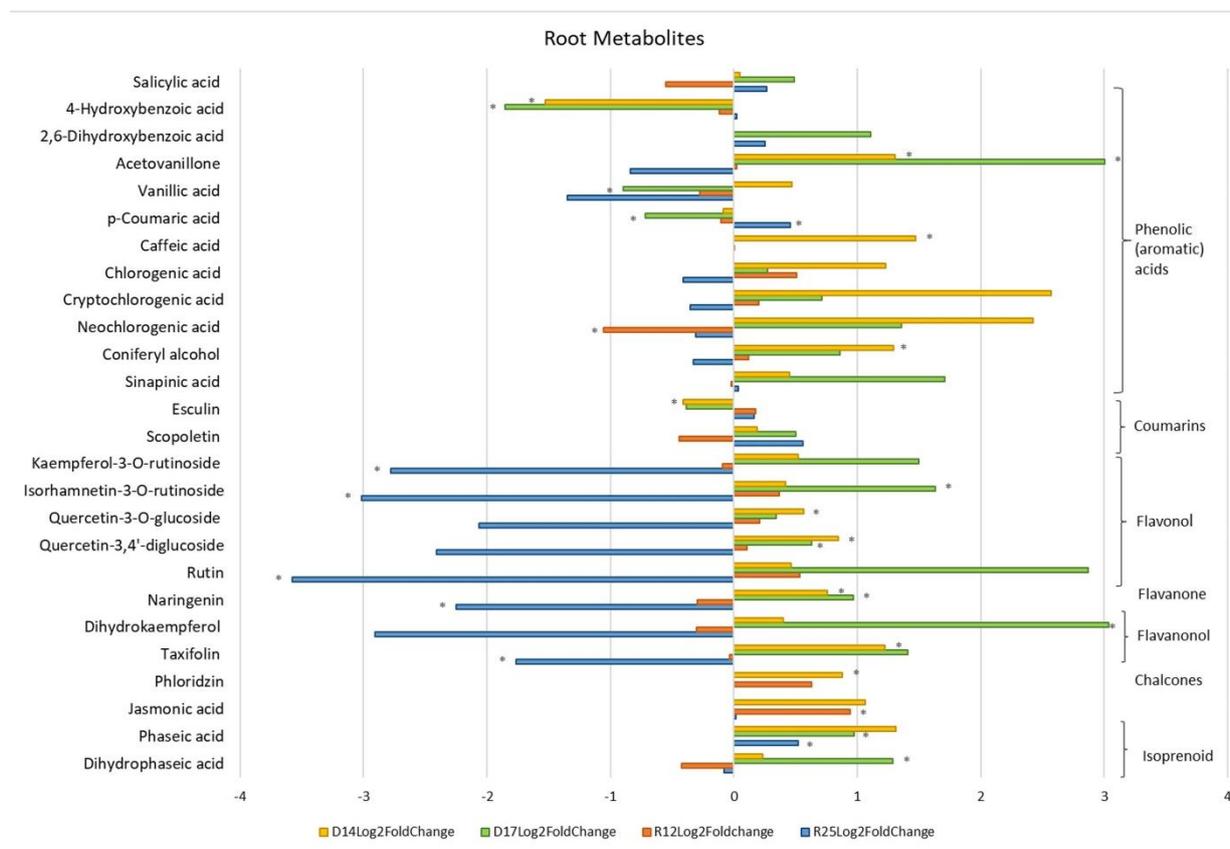


Figure 20. Differential regulation of 26 metabolites calculated by the Log2Fold change with respect to the control in the roots of the mutant lines ‘*Désirée*’ Line 14 (D14), ‘*Désirée*’ Line 17 (D17), ‘*Balatoni Rózsa*’ Line 12 (R12) and ‘*Balatoni Rózsa*’ Line 25 (R25). * indicates significant changes at $p \leq 0.05$

The impact of *PPO* silencing on hormonal levels was not previously documented. Various *PPO* genes exhibit responses to stress-related hormone signalling, albeit with variations across species and within *PPO* gene families (Constabel and Ryan, 1998). As reviewed by Taranto *et al.* (2017), these genes were induced by SA, JA, systemin, and, in certain species, by GAs (Taneja and Sachar, 1974; Stewart *et al.*, 2001). While Araji *et al.* (2014) observed necrotic lesions on *PPO*-silenced walnut leaves and suggested a role for SA in programmed cell death induction, our findings did not align with this hypothesis, as significant elevated SA levels were not detected. Nevertheless, our study underscores the occurrence of regulatory changes due to *PPO* silencing. Remarkably, we observed heightened levels of JA predominantly in the DES mutants and various forms of GAs in BR *PPO*-knockout plants. JA is recognised for enhancing secondary metabolism, whereas GAs were reported to inhibit flavonoid biosynthesis (Hinderer *et al.*, 1984). In line with this, the increased metabolite production was predominantly observed in the DES lines following *PPO* knockout. However, when shoot tip samples were analysed, both BR lines exhibited elevated

levels of GA8, and GA20 was increased only in BR25, suggesting a genotypic differential response (**Supplementary Figure 5**). This differential response may have contributed to the observed rapid growth phenotype in BR25. Our hypothesis posits that plants, possibly through redox regulation, could sense the effects of *PPO* knockout, prompting a negative feedback regulation. This regulatory mechanism, in turn, instigates the synthesis of JA and GA hormones, thereby activating alternative defence mechanisms against pathogens in the absence of PPOs. Elevated levels of phaseic acid, a degradation product of ABA, was observed across most mutants. While literature on phaseic acid's role in *Rs* resistance is limited, as one of the catabolic product of ABA alongside dihydrophaseic acid (Ye *et al.*, 2012), (its elevated levels in the susceptible DES mutants) coupled with extremely low amounts of ABA (could not be quantified) across genotypes, align with literature in mediating *Rs* basal response.

Comparisons with our previous studies on the *Rs*-resistant lines CG and CR and the susceptible DES, revealed insightful patterns. Dihydrophaseic acid exhibited an inverse relationship with resistance in roots of resistant lines contrary to increased amounts in D14 and D17 *PPO* mutants, and rutin, associated with *Rs* resistance, showed a decrease in the leaves of *PPO* mutants BR25 and D17 contrary to CG. These findings highlight the intricate interplay of these metabolites in defence mechanisms against *Rs*.

5.3.4. Increased susceptibility of *PPO* mutants toward *Rs* infection

While monitoring the GFP-tagged *Rs* strain UW551, we observed that the *PPO*-edited D14 and D17 displayed higher susceptibility to *Rs* compared to the unedited DES control. This augmented susceptibility was manifested by the increased number of wilted plants and an earlier spread of the bacteria to the shoots (**Figure 21, Supplementary Table 9 and Supplementary Figure 6**). Similarly, BR25 exhibited enhanced susceptibility compared to the BR control. In this case, the plants wilted and succumbed to the rapidly spreading *Rs* infection at an earlier stage (about one week) than the DES control (**Figure 22 and Supplementary Figure 7**). Conversely, no significant disparities in symptom intensity or timing were noted in BR12 in comparison to its control (**Figure 22**).

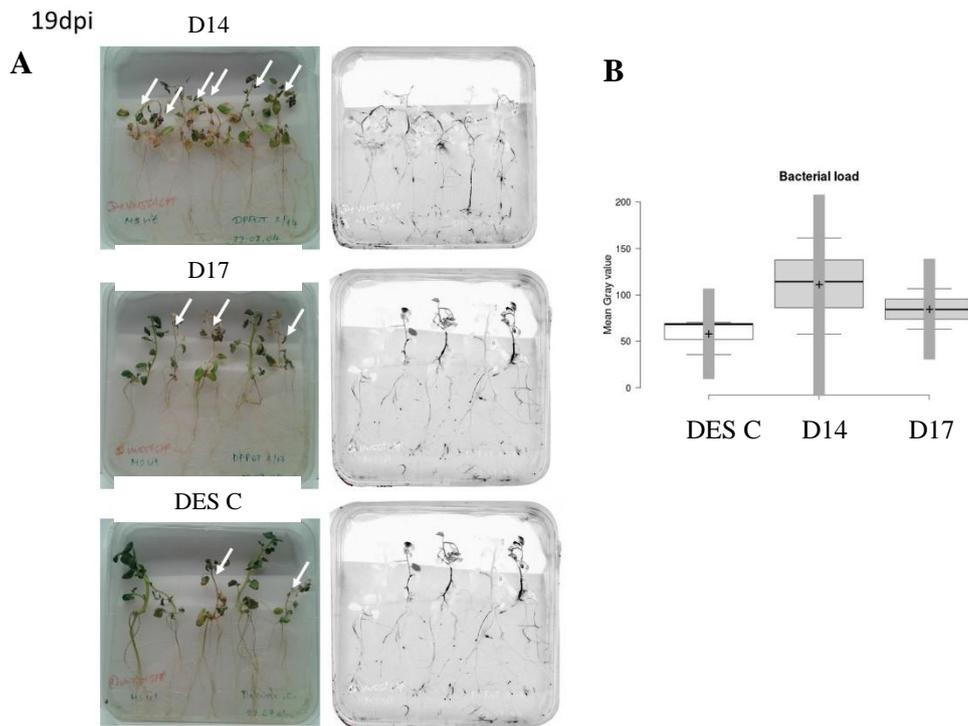


Figure 21. Visual evaluation of ‘Désirée’ and its *PPO* mutants in response to *Rs* infection and bacterial spreading (19 dpi) in the *in vitro* inoculation bioassay under visible light for the observation of wilting (1st column) and UV light for the detection of *GFP*-expressing *Rs* bacteria (2nd column). Arrows point to the wilted plants. (Z. Bozsó, NÖVI) (A). The spreading of *GFP*-expressing UW551 *Rs* strain was quantified by fluorescence on inverted colour images as the Region of Interest (ROI). The plots were created with the mean fluorescence intensity values obtained upon analysis using the ImageJ software (B).

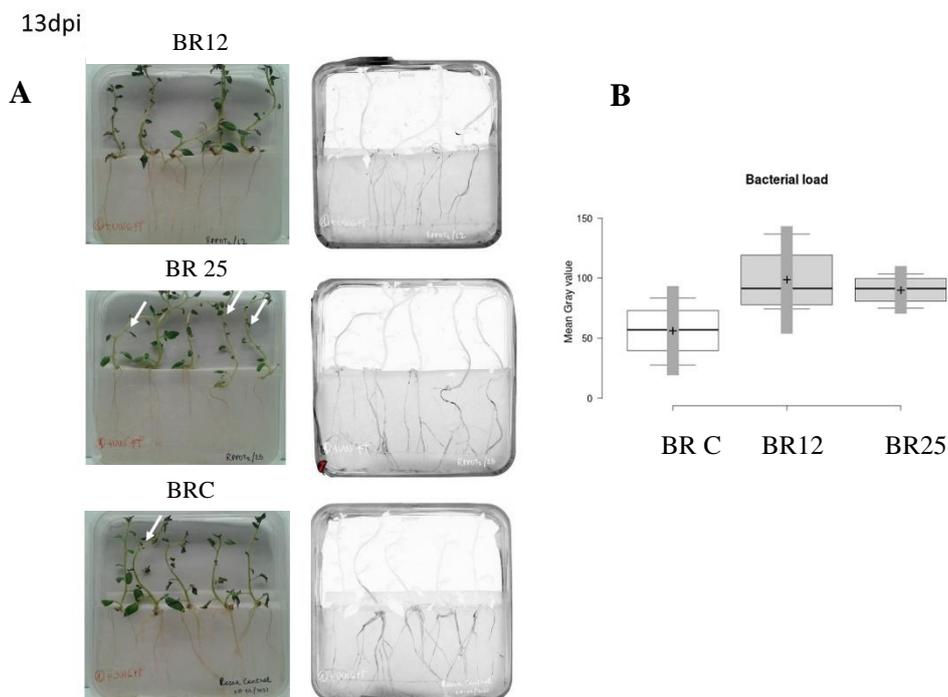


Figure 22. Visual evaluation of ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ and its *PPO* mutants in response to *Rs* infection and bacterial spreading (13 dpi) in the *in vitro* inoculation bioassay under visible light for the observation of wilting (1st column) and UV light for the detection of *GFP*-expressing *Rs* bacteria (2nd column). Arrows point to the wilted plants. (Z. Bozsó, NÖVI) (A). The spreading of *GFP*-expressing UW551 *Rs* strain was quantified by fluorescence on inverted colour images as the Region of Interest (ROI). The plots were created with the mean fluorescence intensity values obtained upon analysis using the ImageJ software (B).

As symptoms appeared earlier in BR compared to DES, the latter were evaluated at 19 dpi, and the former genotypes were assessed at 13 dpi. In addition to offering representative images, we conducted a quantitative assessment of disease progression by counting the number of wilted plants (**Supplementary Table 9**), which further substantiated the susceptibility of D14, D17, and BR25, in comparison to their respective controls. D14, D17 mutants had a wilting percentage of 87% and 60%, respectively, surpassing the control's 40%. Similarly, BR25 displayed increased susceptibility, with wilting percentages of 73% compared to control's 13%. It is noteworthy that repeating the experiment consistently yielded the same results.

Higher quantity of Rs in PPO mutants than control lines

We quantified bacterial growth by assessing the fluorescence emitted by *GFP*-tagged bacteria in UV-images, and these measurements revealed elevated fluorescence in 3 plates comprising 5 plants/genotype in all of the *PPO*-edited lines compared to their respective control lines (**Figure 21B and 22B**). The levels were significant with a *p* value of 0.03 in both DES mutants (**Supplementary Table 9**). It emphasises the pivotal role of PPOs in plant defence mechanisms against the *Rs* pathogens.

A special focus of our investigation was to develop strategies for fortifying plants against *PPO*-expressing pathogens. Initially, we hypothesised that *Rs*, armed with its own PPO enzyme (Hernández-Romero *et al.*, 2005), might endure the quinones generated by PPOs but could prove susceptible to specific antimicrobial compounds (e.g., phloridzin, naringenin, taxifolin, *p*-coumaric acid) produced in higher quantities in the absence of PPOs. Surprisingly, our findings diverged from this hypothesis. Instead, it became evident that PPO activity in potatoes serves as a protective mechanism against *Rs*, akin to the observed protection against *Pseudomonas* bacteria (Li and Steffens, 2002).

In elucidating the heightened susceptibility observed in *PPO* mutants to *Rs*, we noted a significant decrease in the concentration of vanillic acid, a potent phenolic acid, in two mutants, one from each potato cultivar (D17 and BR25). As discussed earlier, vanillic acid possesses robust antibacterial, antioxidative, and antibiofilm properties (Maisch *et al.*, 2022). Interestingly, in our work (Jose *et al.*, 2023), the levels of vanillic acid only decreased in the susceptible DES roots during *Rs* infection. The diminished levels of vanillic acid in *PPO* mutant D17 and BR25 may have contributed to their increased susceptibility. In contrast, other metabolites were produced in higher quantities in some edited lines, including taxifolin, phloridzin, naringenin, and dihydrophaseic acid in the edited DES lines, and 4-hydroxybenzoic acid and *p*-coumaric acid in BR25. Although these compounds have demonstrated potential as effective antimicrobial agents (Reen *et al.*, 2018), the susceptibility of our mutants to *Rs* persisted. This paradoxical outcome

could be attributed to the loss of PPO activity, emphasising the significance of PPO as a more effective defence mechanism against *Rs*. Metabolite regulations appear to be intricately linked to the extent of mutation in the *PPO* gene. BR12, a monoallelic mutant, exhibited the least changes, while D14 and D17, each possessing two intact alleles, showed an increased production of metabolites, potentially as a compensatory response to the loss of PPO function. In contrast, BR25, with three out of four alleles definitively mutated, encountered challenges in metabolite regulation.

This discovery has spurred a fundamental inquiry at the core of our investigation, i.e., what holds greater significance as a defence mechanism against pathogens: PPOs or simple (poly)phenols? Our research affirms the pivotal role of PPOs as a potent resistance mechanism against *Rs*. As highlighted earlier, while the accumulation of polyphenolic compounds may contribute to the defence response by potentially serving as precursors for essential compounds, their effectiveness appears contingent on several factors. These factors include their spatial and temporal regulation, as well as their collaborative effects with other enzymes like PPO in achieving a robust and comprehensive resistance.

PPOs likely fulfil this role by generating cytotoxic quinones that have the capacity to bind to proteins and amino acids, thereby denying pathogens essential resources (Felton *et al.*, 1992). Additionally, PPOs are actively involved in lignification and the formation of cell walls (Cao *et al.*, 2020; Bai *et al.*, 2023). As highlighted in our previous work, lignification has already been recognised for its importance in providing resistance against *Rs* (Jose *et al.*, 2023). Consequently, the significance of PPOs cannot be underestimated, and the intricacies of resistance through polyphenols cannot be disregarded. Our results suggest that the loss of PPO activity might have outweighed potential advantages arising from increased production of antimicrobial phenolic compounds and the biotic stress hormone JA in our edited lines. Additionally, elevating JA levels as a strategy to counter *Rs* infection may prove ineffective, given its known increase in susceptible genotypes at post-infection. Resistance to *Rs* in host species has been associated with elevated SA, chlorogenic acid, phenylpropanoid pathway components, antioxidants, and glutathione metabolism (Cao *et al.*, 2020; Chen *et al.*, 2022; Jose *et al.*, 2023). In the complex landscape of plant defence mechanisms, the role of PPOs stands as important and should not be underestimated.

5.3.5. *PPO* mutation does not affect the resistance to *Pi* infection

The response of whole plants as well as potato tubers to *Pi* varied. In the whole plant assay, the BR displayed delayed symptom development compared to DES (**Figure 23A**). At 2 dpi, BR plants remained largely unaffected, whereas leaf lesions had already appeared on DES. However, by 4 dpi, both cultivars showed signs of damage, and nearly all plants from all genotypes succumbed to the infection by 7 dpi. However, the *PPO*-knockout plants did not exhibit significant differences from the respective controls at any of the observed time points.

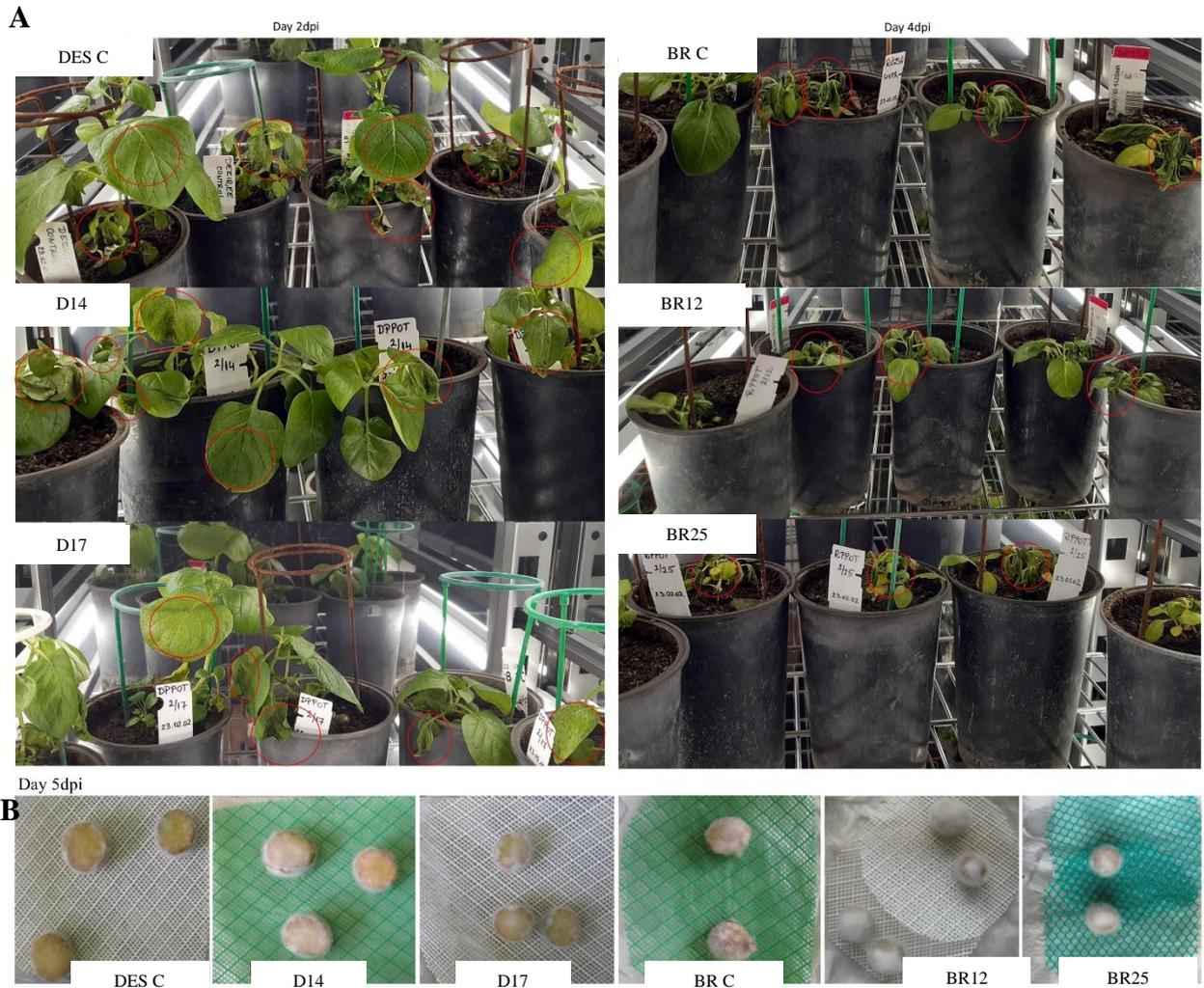


Figure 23. Disease symptoms of whole potato plants (A) and tubers (B) of ‘Désirée’ (DES C) and ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ (BR C) controls and *PPO* mutants in a *Pi* inoculation test. Timing in the test: potato tuber slices, 5 dpi; whole plants 2, and 4 dpi.

In the tuber infection tests, *Pi* colonised the slices with the mycelia emerging on the upper side of the slices as early as 2 dpi. By 5 dpi, the mycelium uniformly covered the entire surface of all tuber slices in both cultivars. Although the mycelium mat on BR appeared slightly denser than on DES, once again, the *PPO* mutants did not exhibit significant distinctions from their respective controls (**Figure 23B** and **Supplementary Table 10**). The pathogen prolifically generated sporangia on all tuber slices. Contrary to literature suggesting increased *Pi* resistance attributed to *PPO* knockout (Llorente *et al.*, 2014), our findings indicate no discernible effect of the knockout on the resistance response.

5.4. The effect of *mir396* knockout in tetraploid potato on resistance to *Rs* and *Pi*

5.4.1. Generation of *mir396* mutant lines

The two-target genome editing vector was generated using the protocol of Xing *et al.* (2014) (**Figure 15A**) the use of which resulted in the generation of 10 CRISPR/Cas9-edited mutant plant lines each in two commercial cultivars ‘Désirée’ (DES) and ‘Botond’ (Bt). The mutations at

the two target sites obtained by CRISPR/Cas9 editing were identified in the Bt mutant lines 6, 7, 8, and 9 with a comparison to the unedited control (**Supplementary Figure 8A**). The edited Bt lines were complete mutants and had uniform mutations across the two targets. Analysis of mutations at the two target sites of the edited DES lines 3, 6, and 10 with a comparison to the unedited control (**Supplementary Figure 8B**) indicates that in Line 3 the entire region between the two targets was deleted in some of the alleles. In line 10, the deletion was prominent around the first target, whereas in Line 6, there was least mutation and was predominantly around the second target.

5.4.2. Evaluating the expression of predicted target genes of miR396 in the control and *mir396* mutant lines

To evaluate the impact of *miR396* knockout, we conducted selected gene expression studies focusing on predicted miR396 targets listed in **Supplementary Table 11A** using primers listed in **Supplementary Table 11B**. (based on Zhang *et al.*, 2009, 2013). Across all edited lines, a consistent reduction in the expression of both *miR396* leader and passenger strands was observed (**Figure 24**). Contrary to the anticipated increased accumulation of target genes due to the absence of miR396 inhibition, most potential targets were downregulated in the mutant lines. Though deviating, the equal number of positive and negative miRNA-target regulations was reported previously (Lopez-Gomollon *et al.*, 2012). It is noteworthy that previous studies have emphasised the importance of considering sample characteristics when examining miRNA targets and mRNA expression profiles. Sample sizes, ranging from single cells to entire organisms, can yield significantly different results. The inverse or negative relationship can manifest temporally, where miRNAs and their targets are expressed in the same cells but at different times, or spatially, where they are expressed simultaneously but in different cells, contrasting regulations have also been observed (Voinnet, 2009; Lopez-Gomollon *et al.*, 2012). Accounting to the mixed samples comprising multiple cells, positive correlation usually indicates mutual exclusion (Kawashima *et al.*, 2009). However, some of our results confirm to the expectation that removal of the miRNA will increase the level of target mRNA. The expression of the LRR receptor-like serine/threonine-protein kinase (Soltu.DM.02G002890.1/ PGSC0003DMT400054175), multicystatin147 (Soltu.DM.06G028940.5/ PGSC0003DMT400069147) and in some lines, the potassium transporter (Soltu.DM.06G013620.1/ PGSC0003DMT400006057) was found in abundance in the edited lines relative to the control (**Figure 24**).

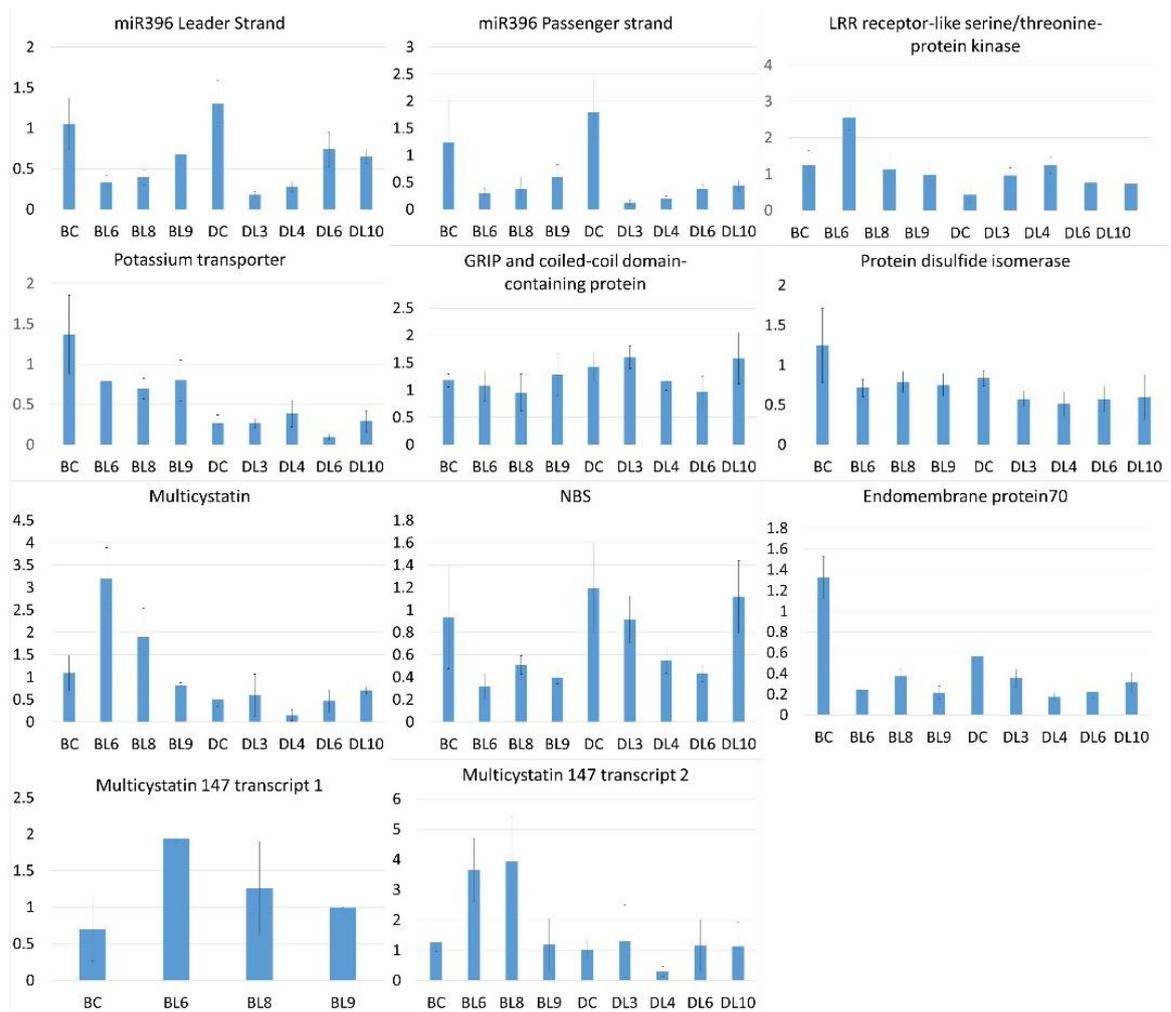


Figure 24. The relative expression of the *miR396* gene and its predicted targets in the *miR396*-edited lines of ‘Botond’ (BL6, BL8, and BL9) and ‘Désirée’ (DL3, DL4, DL6, and DL10) along with the respective controls (BC and DC).

5.4.3. Delayed symptom development of some *miR396* mutants toward *Rs* infection

Upon infecting the *miR396*-edited *in vitro* Bt Lines 6, 7, 8, and 9 and the control with the virulent *Rs* strain UW551, the edited Bt Line 8 and 9 showed a delayed symptom development in both repetitions of the experiment with reduced bacterial load (**Figure 25 and Supplementary Table 12A and B**), but eventually all plants succumbed to the infection. The display of resistance response was not prominent among the other edited lines despite sharing conserved mutations among the Bt lines. Among the DES lines, Line 3 and Line 10 showed delayed symptom development contrary to Line 6 relative to the control. As mentioned above, the CRISPR mutation varied among the lines with larger deletion in target 1 in Line 3 and 10 with significant deletion around target 2 in Line 6 (**Supplementary Figure 8B and 9**).

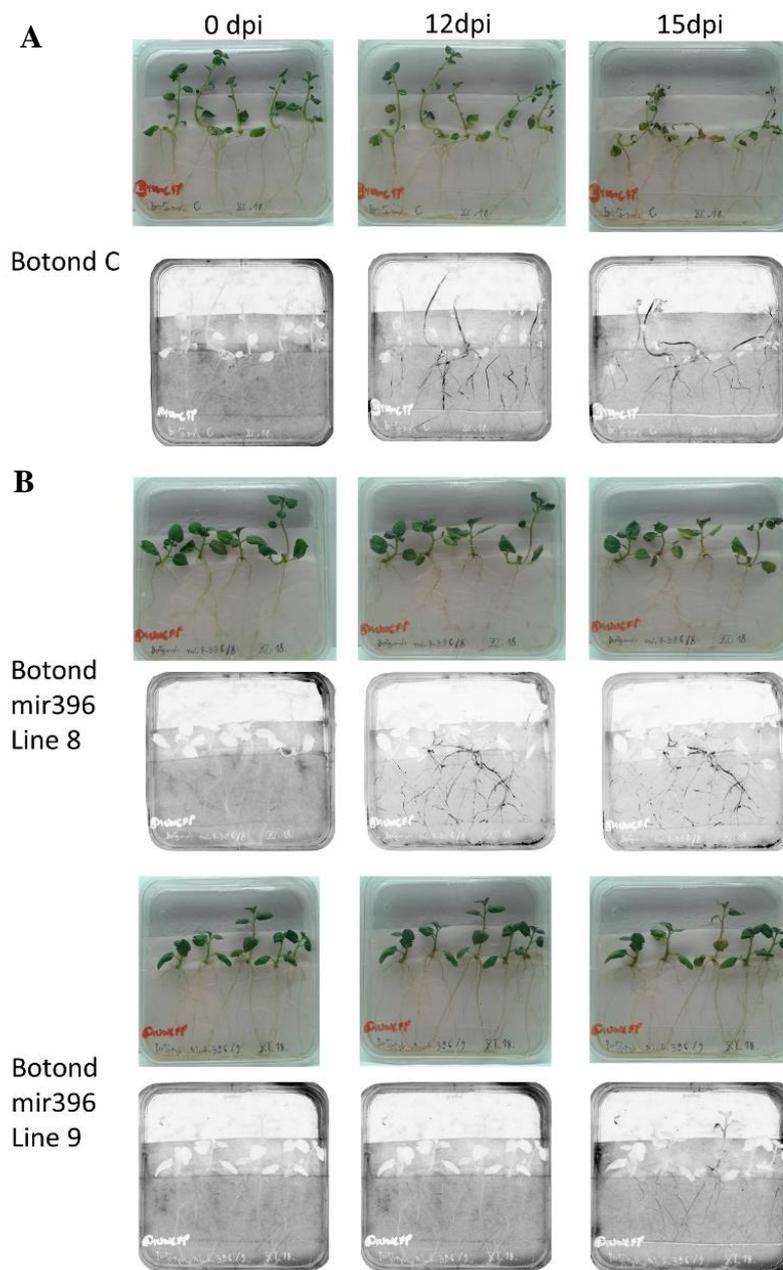


Figure 25. Visual evaluation of response to *Rs* infection (0, 12, and 15 dpi) in the *in vitro* inoculation bioassay under visible light for the observation of wilting (upper row) and UV light for the detection of *GFP*-expressing *Rs* bacteria (lower row). ‘Botond’ control (A) and ‘Botond’ *mir396* mutants, Line 8 and Line 9 (B). (Z. Bozsó, NÓVI)

As highlighted by (Zhao *et al.*, 2015), transcriptome analysis of resistant and susceptible peanut varieties exposed to *Rs* infection revealed a downregulation of miR396 in the resistant variety. The study further identified predicted targets of miR396, including a hypersensitive response factor associated with SA-mediated resistance response against (hemi)biotrophic pathogens (Grant and Lamb, 2006; Radojčić *et al.*, 2018), such as *Rs*. Consequently, an augmented resistance was anticipated in the *mir396* mutant plants. Surprisingly, the delayed resistance was only observed in Bt Line 8 and 9, while the DES mutants, specifically Line 3 and 10 exhibiting larger deletions at the CRISPR target site, displayed enhanced resistance (**Figure 25 and Supplementary Figure 8B and 9**).

5.4.4. Increased susceptibility of *miR396* mutants toward *Pi* infection

The ‘Botond’ lines, subjected to gene editing and cultivated in a controlled greenhouse environment, displayed a markedly heightened susceptibility and swift progression of disease symptoms in the comprehensive plant-*Pi* assay, standing in stark contrast to the unaffected ‘Botond’ control group (**Figure 26**). While the control group remained unscathed even at 8 dpi, the mutant lines exhibited conspicuous leaf lesions (**Figure 26**). In the context of tuber assays, the increased susceptibility of ‘Botond’ edited lines could not be conclusively confirmed upon repetitions as it showed no significant difference in colonisation by the mycelial mat of *Pi* compared to those from the ‘Botond’ control group. This could be attributed to the fact that the amount of *miR396* was not quantified in the tubers prior edition and possibly has little to no effect even upon edition towards *Pi*. However, these collective observations based on whole plant assays strongly suggest a pivotal role of the *miR396* gene in regulating the defence response against *Pi*.

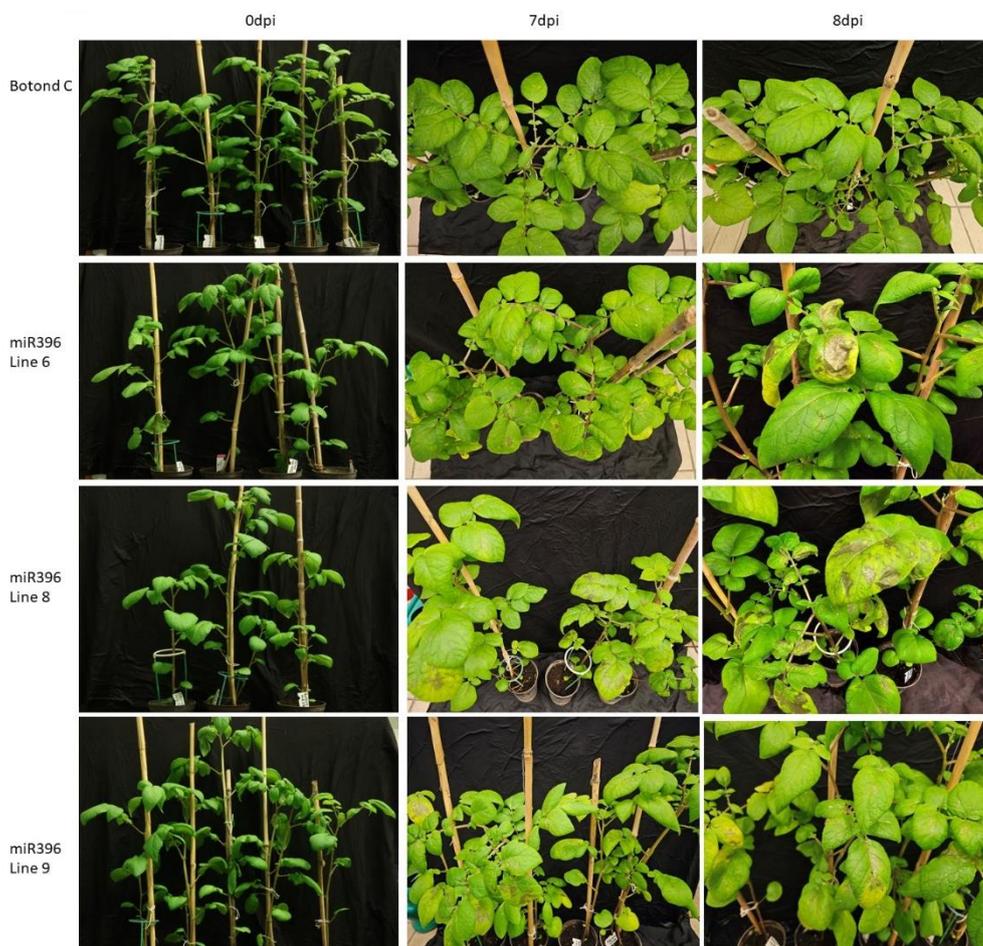


Figure 26. Visual evaluation of response to *Pi* infection (0, 7, and 8 dpi) in the whole plant bioassay for the observation of necrotic spots in ‘Botond’ control and Botond Lines 6, 8, and 9.

Several studies have identified miRNAs as negative regulators of immunity against bacterial infection in *Arabidopsis* (Fahlgren *et al.*, 2007; Jagadeeswaran *et al.*, 2009; Antony *et al.*, 2010). In the realm of tomato defence mechanisms, *miR482* was identified as a key player,

orchestrating host defence by targeting transcripts encoding coiled-coil-nucleotide-binding leucine-rich-repeat (CC-NB-LRR) proteins. This targeting triggers a cascade of events, leading to the generation of secondary small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) via RNA-dependent RNA polymerase 6 (RDR6). These secondary siRNAs, in turn, target additional mRNAs associated with defence-related genes, amplifying the plant's defence response (Shivaprasad *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, in tobacco, the regulatory roles of miR6019 and miR6020 were highlighted, as they target the immune receptor gene *N*, known for conferring resistance against the tobacco mosaic virus. This dual targeting mechanism by specific miRNAs further emphasises the complexity and versatility of miRNA-mediated regulation in plant immunity (Li *et al.*, 2012).

Recent evidence underscores the role of miR396 in the context of pathogen infections. A significant decrease in *miR396* expression was observed in wheat lines JD8 (susceptible) and JD8-Pm30 (resistant) infected with *Blumeria graminis* f. sp. *tritici*, emphasising its potential role in responding to this pathogen (Xin *et al.*, 2010). Similarly, the wheat accession Shan 4445 (susceptible) exhibited reduced *miR396* expression when confronted with *Blumeria graminis*, it being a biotrophic pathogen, suggesting a conserved mechanism in wheat-pathogen interactions (Wu *et al.*, 2015). Considering that *Rs* is also a (hemi)biotrophic pathogen, it is noteworthy that the effector RipAK of strain GMI1000 inhibits the hypersensitive response (Sun *et al.*, 2017), characteristic of the defence response towards biotrophic pathogens (Grant and Lamb, 2006)

Previous studies have asserted that the heightened expression of miR396a in tobacco leads to increased susceptibility to *P. nicotianae* infection (Chen *et al.*, 2015). More recently, miR396 was found to modulate defence responses against both hemibiotrophic and necrotrophic fungal pathogens in *Arabidopsis* (Soto-Suárez *et al.*, 2017). *Arabidopsis* plants with diminished miR396 activity, referred to as MIM396 plants, exhibited heightened resistance against both hemibiotrophic (*F. oxysporum* f. sp. *conglutinans*, *C. higginsianum*) and necrotrophic fungal (*P. cucumerina*, *B. cinerea*) pathogens. This enhanced resistance was characterised by a superactivation of defence responses, indicating a preparatory response triggered during pathogen infection (Soto-Suárez *et al.*, 2017). Contrary to these findings, our results do not align with the argument, as the knockout of *miR396* resulted in increased susceptibility to *Pi* infection. Differing and even antagonistic defence responses are known to exist for different types of pathogens (Glazebrook, 2005; Liao *et al.*, 2022), whether they are biotrophic or hemibiotrophic. In our study, we observed a positive effect of *miR396* knockout towards the (hemi)biotrophic *Rs* and an opposite result of increased susceptibility towards *Pi* inoculations. The differential regulation of the miR396 target genes, specifically the NBS-LRR receptor-like serine/threonine-protein kinase and multicystatin, might have directed the resistance response differently for both pathogens.

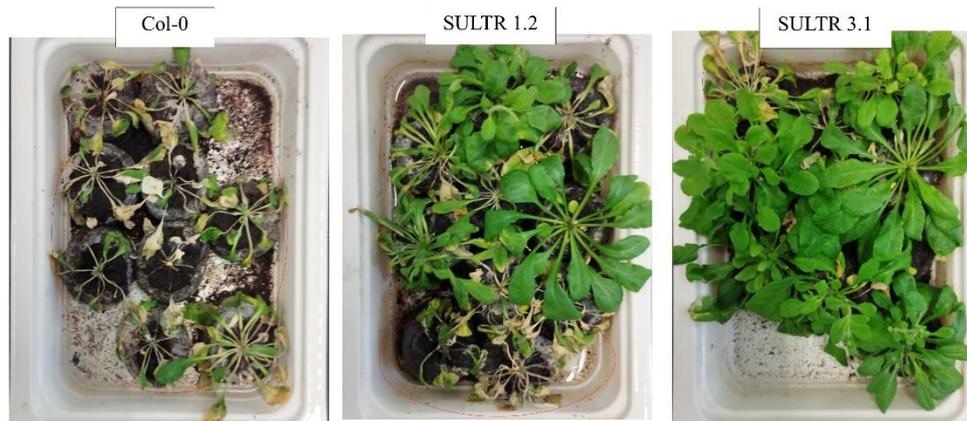
LRR receptors are often recognised as negative regulators of plant resistance to pathogens, with *Clavata* and *Erecta* being prominent examples (Dievart and Clark, 2004). Conversely, cysteine proteases, including caspases and papain-like proteases, are secreted by both potato and tomato during the early stages of *Pi* infection and are implicated in inducing programmed plant cell death – an effective defence against the early, biotrophic phase of *Pi* – or causing proteolytic damage to the hyphae (Avrova *et al.*, 1999; Kaschani *et al.*, 2010; Fernández *et al.*, 2012). In response, *Pi* secretes cystatin-like protease inhibitors (Tian *et al.*, 2007; Song *et al.*, 2009). The leaves pre-treated with protease inhibitors exhibit higher disease development compared to controls (Fernández *et al.*, 2012). Multicystatins, identified as potato cysteine proteases (Green *et al.*, 2013), further support the negative role of multicystatins in resistance against *Pi*, as indicated by the decreasing expression of multicystatin genes (Soltu.DM.06G028940 and Soltu.DM.06G028910) in the SPUD database for resistant potato cultivars after *Pi* infection and increased expression in our more susceptible edited lines. Nevertheless, the increased susceptibility of our *miR396* mutants with elevated multicystatin expression represents a novel finding as typically, protease inhibitors, including multicystatins, are considered to have a protective effect against pathogens by reducing the digestibility of the plant (Green *et al.*, 2013).

5.5. The *Arabidopsis thaliana* sulphate transporters and resistance response to *Rs*

5.5.1. *A. thaliana* mutant lines *AtSultr1;2* and *AtSultr3;1* display increased resistance to *Rs*

The *AtSultr3;1* sulphate transporter mutant plants showcased a notable increase in resistance to *Rs* (GMI1000) when compared to the Col-0 (Columbia ecotype) control. In parallel, the *AtSultr1;2* mutant also underwent *Rs* infection and also revealed enhanced resistance relative to the Col-0 control, but less compared to *AtSultr3;1*. The elevated resistance manifested through a significantly diminished incidence of wilted plants resulting in lower disease index and mortality rate (**Supplementary Table 13**). At 19 dpi, the *AtSultr3;1* mutants remained in a healthy state, while the Col-0 plants succumbed to the rapidly spreading *Rs* infection at an earlier stage with a higher disease index and mortality rate (**Figure 27**). Importantly, this consistent pattern was observed across multiple experimental repetitions.

A 19 dpi



B

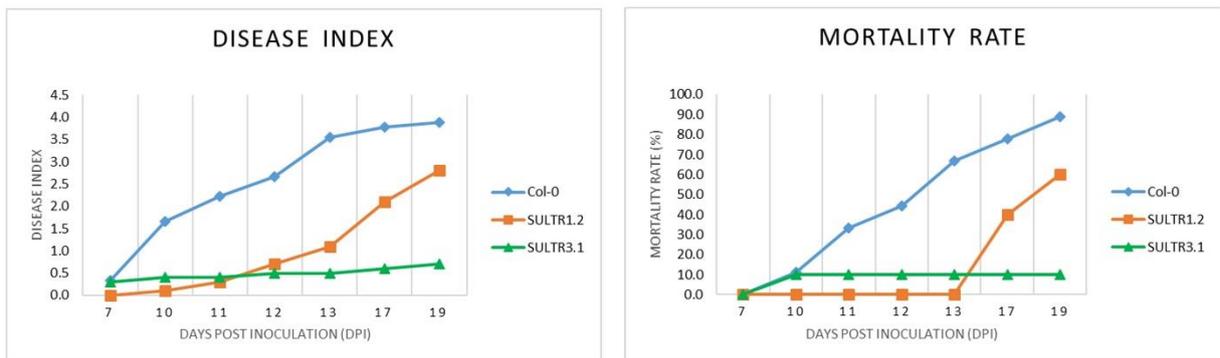


Figure 27. Visual evaluation of response to *Rs* infection at 19 dpi Jiffy soil inoculation for the observation of wilting in *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 ecotype and sulphate transporter mutant lines in *Arabidopsis* Col-0 background *SULTR1;2* and *SULTR3;1*. Images captured by Z. Bozsó. (A). Disease index and mortality rate calculated based on the no. of wilted plants and the severity of wilting among the genotypes (B).

5.5.2. Greater suberisation of the roots of *AtSultr* mutants contributes to *Rs* resistance

Confocal microscopy analysis of roots stained with Fluorol Yellow in the *AtSultr1;2* and *AtSultr3;1* mutants and the control Col-0 ecotype revealed an elevated level of suberisation in the two mutants, particularly in the vicinity of the vascular bundles. Longitudinal observations of the roots using fluorescence microscopy depicted an increased fluorescence intensity in the endodermal region of both mutants compared to the control Col-0, providing clear evidence of enhanced suberisation (**Figure 28 and Supplementary Table 14**).

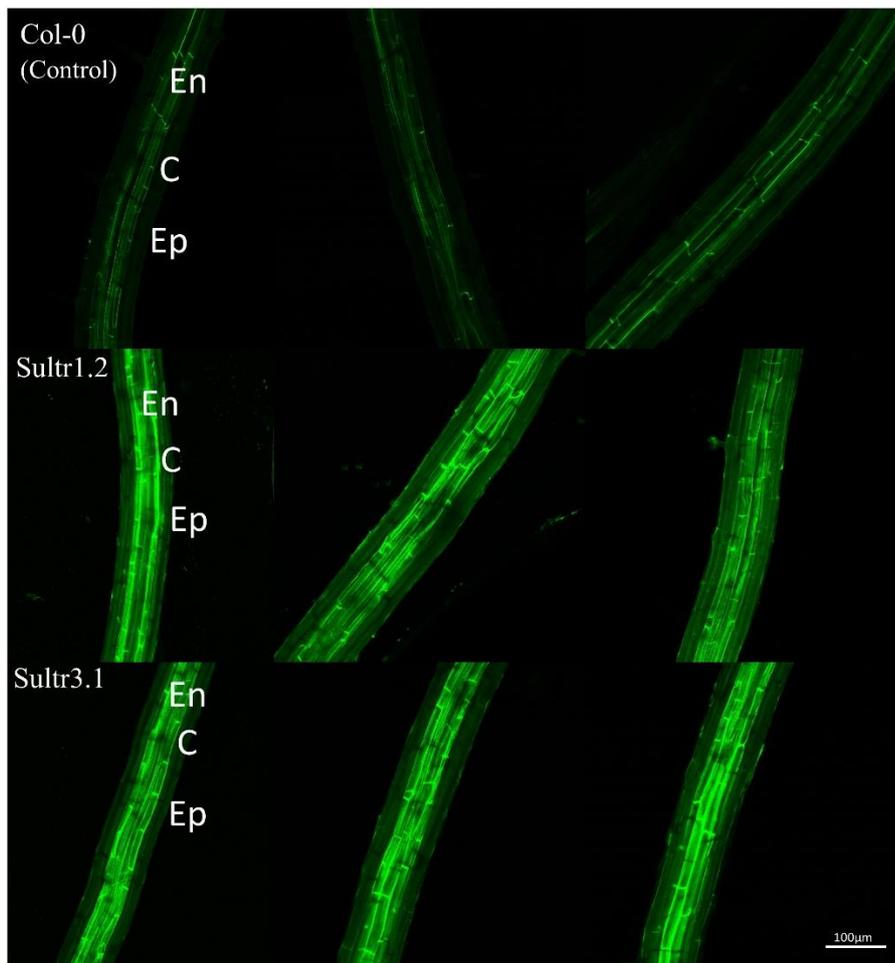


Figure 28. Confocal microscopy images to observe the level of suberisation in 7-day old roots of Col-0 ecotype (control) and the two sulphate transporter mutants (*AtSultr1;2* and *AtSultr3;1*). More intense Fluorol Yellow fluorescence is indicative of increased suberisation, particularly in the endodermis (En). C, cortex; Ep, epidermis

The cell wall, acting as both a structural support and a protective barrier, prevents water loss and pathogen entry. Suberin, a heteropolymer produced in response to various stresses, including biotic and abiotic factors, is also influenced by nutrient deficiencies, such as sulphur deficiency (Barberon *et al.*, 2016). The suberisation of the root endodermis, at the casparian strip, serves as a critical checkpoint for nutrient uptake. This structural alteration prompts a transition from an apoplastic route to a symplastic one, necessitating active uptake of nutrients by the plant for subsequent transport to the shoots. In the context of the root, the suberised endodermis serves as a protective layer, separating the stele from the rest of the root. This barrier acts as a defence mechanism against nematodes and protects the xylem from pathogen invasion, ensuring the overall health of the plant (Holbein *et al.*, 2019; Kashyap *et al.*, 2021).

The role of suberin varies among plant species. In potatoes, the aromatic domain of suberin was observed to contribute to resistance against pathogen penetration (Lulai and Corsini, 1998). The suberised endodermis functions as a protective barrier, hindering pathogens from infiltrating vascular tissues and spreading throughout the plant (Ranathunge *et al.*, 2008; Holbein *et al.*, 2019; Kashyap *et al.*, 2021). Notably, soybean shows a correlation between suberin extent and resistance

to fungi, with higher suberin content associated with delayed fungal hyphae growth, suggesting a potential mechanism for enhanced resistance (Ranathunge *et al.*, 2008). Considering *Rs* is a vascular pathogen requiring a clear path for infection, the consolidated endodermis in sulphate transporter mutants could obstruct its progression. However, the cause for resistance still needs to be explored further.

5.5.3. Structural differences via confocal microscopy

At 7 dpi, root sections from both the *AtSultr3;1* mutant and the Col-0 control exhibited colonisation by *Rs*. The pathogen was observed degrading the cell wall and advancing toward the xylem (**Figure 29**). Images of the controls and the *AtSultr3;1* mutant revealed distinctive features, with the mutant having a limited presence of *Rs* in the cortex, while in the Col-0 control colonisation extended across the cortex and into the xylem. However, these differences and their variation were not overly pronounced. Conversely, the shoot sections revealed more characteristic distinctions between the genotypes. *Rs* bacteria were not visible in the pith of the shoot cross-sections of the *AtSultr3;1* mutant, whereas they completely colonised the xylem in the Col-0 control (**Figure 30**). This stark contrast in *Rs* colonisation supports the resistance displayed by the *AtSultr3;1* mutant. Previous reports on *Arabidopsis* have documented cell wall reprogramming as a response to *Rs* infection (Zhao *et al.*, 2019), providing additional support for the observed resistance in the mutant lines. These findings underscore the importance of cell wall dynamics in plant defence mechanisms against pathogenic invaders.

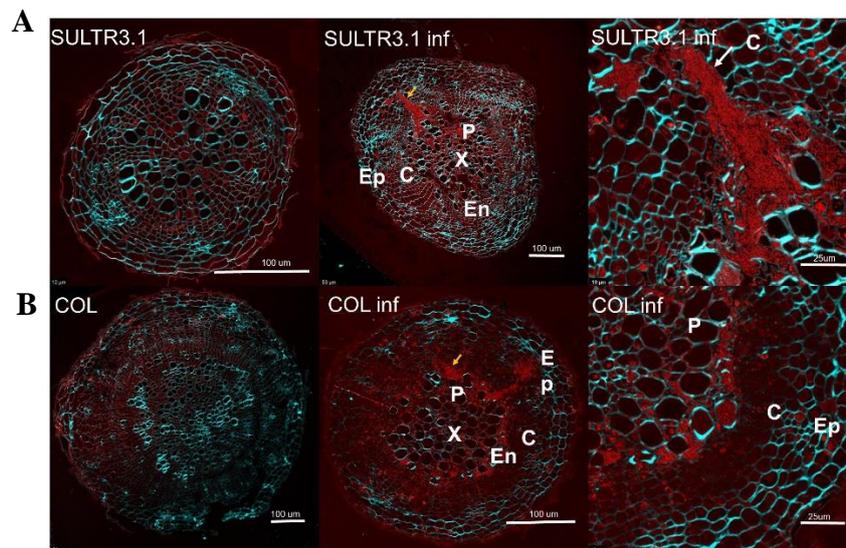


Figure 29. Confocal microscopy images of *A. thaliana* root cross-sections from non-infected (left panels) and *Rs*-infected plants (two right panels) of the *AtSultr3;1* mutant (A) and Columbia (COL) control (B) with a magnified sector (rightmost panels). Samples from 4-week-old, *in vitro* plants were stained at 7 dpi with Calcofluor white for cell walls and Fast Green for contrast. Ep, epidermis; C, cortex; En, endodermis; P, phloem; X, xylem; arrows, *Rs* bacteria

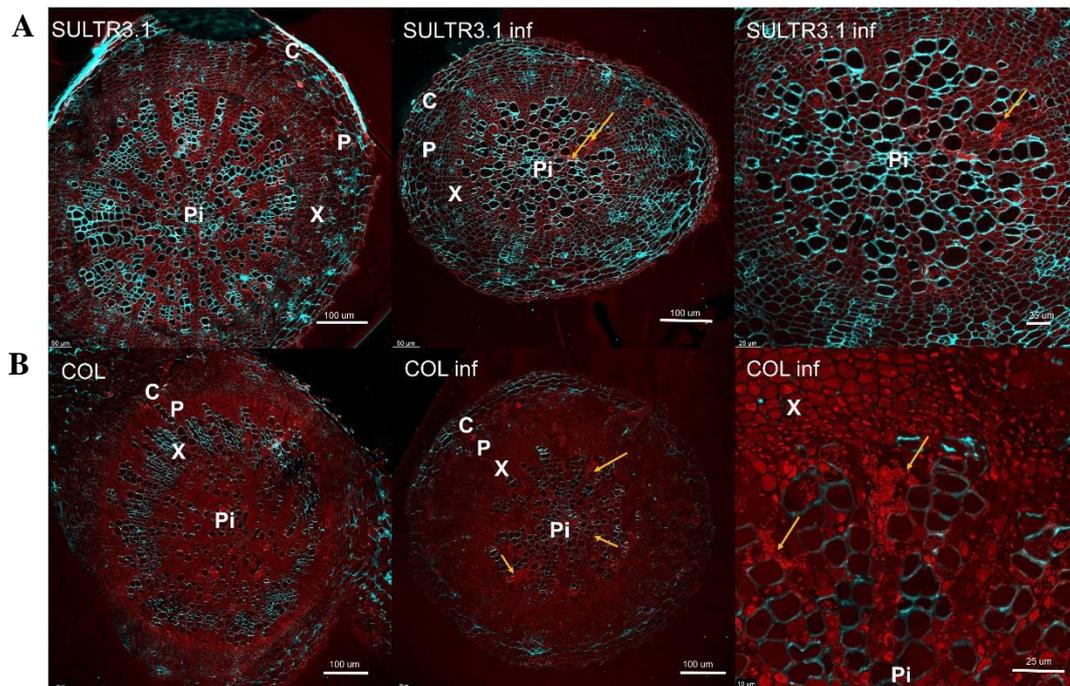


Figure 30. Confocal microscopy images of *A. thaliana* shoot cross-sections from non-infected (left panels) and *Rs*-infected plants (two right panels) of the *AtSultr3;1* mutant (A) and Columbia (COL) control (B) with a magnified sector (rightmost panels). Samples from 4-week-old, *in vitro* plants were stained at 7 dpi with Calcofluor white for cell walls and Fast Green for contrast. C, cortex; P, phloem; X, xylem; Pi, pith; arrows, *Rs* bacteria

5.5.4. The potential role of sulphate transporters (SULTR) in pathogen resistance

In plants, the sulfate ion (SO_4^{2-}), is absorbed from the soil through a group of proton-linked and highly efficient sulfate transporters present in root hairs and various cellular regions of the root system. Initially, sulphate is imported from the soil into the root symplast, traverses the root, and reaches the central stele. Subsequently, it is further imported into the xylem, where it moves up the shoot, eventually being released into leaf cells. The final destination is the chloroplast, the primary site for sulphur reduction. Simultaneously, sulphate undergoes transportation across the tonoplast into the vacuole (Saito, 2000).

Of the two *SULTR* genes studied here, *SULTR1;2* is active in the external root cell layers (epidermis, cortex) whereas *SULTR3;1* is expressed in plastids and chloroplasts, primarily in the shoots. A related sulphate transporter *SULTR3;6* was formerly established as a susceptibility gene in rice for *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. *oryzicola* causing the bacterial leaf streak (Cernadas *et al.*, 2014) by affecting ABA signalling, stomatal regulation, and promoting nutrients and water export into the apoplast (Scinto-Madonich *et al.*, 2023). It can be concluded from our data that the interaction between *Rs* effectors and *SULTR3;1* increases the susceptibility of potato to the bacterial pathogen. Thus, the question arises of how the *SULTR3;1* mutation (and potentially its targeted editing) would confer *Rs* resistance.

The above work on rice and *X. oryzae* can provide some clues and may be applied to our case, too. Cernadas *et al.* (2014) established that a type 3 bacterial transcription activator-like (TAL) effector (Tal2g) can induce the expression of *SULTR3;6* in rice. Pathogenic fungi are also

known to influence the expression of other sulphate transporter genes in several hosts (Petre *et al.*, 2012; Fu *et al.*, 2016). Why would bacteria and other plant pathogens need to interfere with plant sulphur metabolism? The answer is that (hemi)biotrophic pathogens (including oomycetes species) have lost the capacity of some stages of sulphur assimilation during their evolution and adaptation to their host(s) (Wang *et al.*, 2022a). As such, in their initial phase of interaction, these pathogens must rely heavily on the host metabolism to get access to and synthesise the vital sulphur-containing compounds (e.g., xanthan gum and other exopolymers) required for their virulence. Therefore, pathogens and hosts can really compete for sulphur sources and in fact sulphur deprivation is indicative of pathogen attack for plants (Criollo-Arteaga *et al.*, 2021; Kies and Hammer, 2022). This notion is also supported by the fact that the lack of sulphur led to SA-mediated defence responses such as induction of *PR1* and similar genes as well as to resistance against (hemi)biotrophic bacteria but not to necrotrophic fungi (Criollo-Arteaga *et al.*, 2021).

It is conceivable that inactivation or mutagenesis of these target genes participating in sulphur assimilation and/or metabolism will render the host more resistant to the pathogen. The proof of this concept was already delivered by Xu, *et al.* (2021): the targeted modification of the TAL effector-binding element in the rice *SULTR3;6* gene promoter effectively abolished binding the effector and the lower *SULTR3;6* expression was associated with *Xanthomonas* resistance as demonstrated with significantly diminished symptoms and bacterial accumulation.

Since *Rs* bacteria are known to produce active TAL effectors (de Lange *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2013; Schandry *et al.*, 2016), we propose that some of these effectors may affect the expression of at least some of the 30 potato *SULTR* genes that can be identified in the genome (data not shown). This can be verified by testing if potato *SULTR* gene promoters contain characterised TAL effector-binding elements (including a canonical 17-bp sequence: (Wu *et al.*, 2019; Gallas *et al.*, 2023) or their homologues. If yes, this may fund the basis for their use as susceptibility genes. Alternatively, other types of effectors may also target and induce these *SULTR* genes.

Studies have also highlighted the pivotal role of the corky biosynthetic pathway in the resistance response of peanut plants to late leaf spot (Mahatma *et al.*, 2021). Similarly, in tomato plants, the induced formation of a lignin-corky vascular coating impeded the colonisation of *Rs* in resistant roots, showing its effectiveness in preventing pathogen invasion (Kashyap *et al.*, 2021). While the evidence supporting the direct involvement of suberin in defence against *Rs* in other plant interactions is currently limited (Shi *et al.*, 2023), its importance as a critical component of the cell wall has been emphasised. Recognising the multifaceted nature of plant defence mechanisms, the interplay of various components, including corky biosynthesis and the induction of specific coatings, contributes to the overall resilience of plants against pathogenic challenges.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Having recognised the critical need for resistance in potatoes against economically significant diseases, our research focused on unravelling molecular mechanisms through genome editing. Our successful exploration has not only deepened our understanding but has also contributed to fortifying defence responses. Our investigation centered on two formidable pathogens, *Ralstonia solanacearum* (*Rs*) and *Phytophthora infestans* (*Pi*), both known for wreaking havoc on crops, particularly potato.

Initially, we assessed the resistance response of 'Calalo Gaspar' (CG) and 'Cruza 148' (CR), along with other cultivars resilient to *Rs* infections. Transcriptome analysis identified differently regulated genes and pathways associated with resistance/susceptibility in CG, CR, and the susceptible 'Désirée' (DES). CG downregulated genes linked to oxidative stress, while CR and DES induced cell wall and chitin metabolic processes. Metabolomic analysis revealed higher chlorogenic acid levels in resistant cultivars, particularly CG, with unique concentrations of chlorogenic acid and quercetin derivatives. Significant phenolic concentration changes occurred in CG and DES roots, while CR showed minor influence. DES exhibited the least lignification before infection, with varied lignification post-infection in CG and CR. Despite increased lignification in DES, *Rs* bacteria persisted, indicating insufficient basal lignification. Overall, our analysis unveiled significant metabolic and transcriptomic differences among potato cultivars to *Rs* infection, highlighting the roles of the phenylpropanoid pathway, glutathione metabolism, and lignification in resistance. This data not only characterises cultivars but also offers insights for future research, contributing to identifying susceptibility genes for targeted interventions.

Based on strong supportive literature of polyphenol oxidases (PPO) and microRNA396 (miR396) being involved in *Rs* and *Pi* resistance, we knocked out the tuber and root-specific *PPO* gene (in DES and 'Balatoni Rózsa' (BR) genotype) and *miR396* gene (in 'Botond' (Bt) and DES genotype) using modular CRISPR/Cas9 systems.

In our study of the *PPO* gene, analysis was done on CRISPR edited two lines per genotype, confirming successful varying edits with varied outcomes: reduced enzyme activity and browning of tubers and roots in edited lines compared to controls. BR12 exhibited the least impact on enzyme activity reduction and browning which aligned with it only targeting one allele of the *Pot32* gene contrary to other lines. To understand metabolic changes from *PPO* knockout, we conducted comprehensive metabolomic analysis on roots and leaves. The goal was to enhance antimicrobial compound production for resistance. UPLC-MS/MS analysis revealed variations in 26 phenolic compounds between control and *PPO*-edited potatoes. Principal component analysis showed distinct differences in root metabolome, notably in D14, D17, and BR25. Noteworthy metabolites

like phaseic acid and indole-3-acetic acid varied across mutants. *PPO*-knockout plants displayed higher levels of jasmonic acid in DES and various GA forms in BR mutants. Flavanols' role in *Rs* resistance was strengthened by their increase in three of four *PPO* mutants, contributing to basal *Rs* infection responses. The degree of metabolic regulation in mutants corresponded to alleles mutated in the *Pot32* gene.

When subjected to *Rs*, *PPO* mutants surprisingly exhibited increased susceptibility despite increased antimicrobial metabolites. D14 and D17 showed wilting percentages of 87% and 60%, respectively, surpassing the control's 40%. BR25 also displayed increased susceptibility with a wilting percentage of 73% compared to the control's 13%, highlighting PPOs' crucial role in resistance. PPOs, involved in lignification and cell wall formation, significantly contribute to *Rs* resistance, aligning with previous research. However, against *Pi*, *PPO*-knockout plants did not differ significantly from original cultivars at any time point, challenging previous reports suggesting *PPO* silencing enhances *Pi* resistance and emphasizing PPOs' complex roles in plant defence mechanisms.

For our studies with miR396, we generated mutant lines in Bt (6,7,8, and 9) and DES (3,6, and 10) genotypes, confirming mutations at the CRISPR target site through sequencing. The expression of *miR396* and its predicted targets was assessed in the edited lines compared to controls by RT-qPCRs. In all of the edited lines, there was reduced expression of both *miR396* leader and passenger strands. Surprisingly, despite the anticipated increase in the accumulation of target genes' mRNA due to the lack of miR396 inhibition, most targets were downregulated in the mutant lines. Noteworthy, exceptions included the upregulation of the NBS-LRR disease resistance gene and multicystatin in the edited lines. Given the established literature suggesting miR396's potential negative regulation of resistance to *Rs* and *Pi*, we conducted infection assays with both pathogens on the mutant lines. Bt Line 8, 9 and DES Lines 3 and 10 exhibited delayed symptom development when subjected to *Rs*. Conversely, when Bt edited lines were exposed to *Pi*, these lines showed increased susceptibility relative to control. The differential regulation of miR396 target genes, specifically the NBS-LRR disease resistance gene and multicystatin, may have influenced the distinct resistance responses observed against *Rs* and *Pi* in these mutant lines which is a novel finding and an interesting aspect to explore further. Here, we also noticed that the degree of mutations was proportional to the susceptibility of the line to *Pi*.

In our ongoing search for susceptibility gene candidates, the transcriptomic analysis of resistant potato lines highlighted sulphate transporters as a promising avenue. To investigate further, we obtained *Arabidopsis thaliana* mutant lines for the sulphate transporter genes *AtSULTR3;1* and *AtSULTR1;2*. Subsequently, one-month-old plants were subjected to *Rs* infection alongside the Columbia (Col-0) control. Remarkably, the *AtSultr3;1* and *Atsultr1;2* mutant lines

exhibited a pronounced increase in resistance to *Rs* compared to the Col-0 control. In-depth analysis, including the study of suberisation levels, revealed a significant increase of suberin along the cortex of the mutants, suggesting a potential contributing factor to the observed resistance. To unravel the basis of the heightened resistance in the *AtSultr3;1* mutant line, we conducted cell wall staining with calcofluor and fast green staining on infected and uninfected root and shoot sections. The analysis revealed thicker cell walls in the mutant relative to the Col-0 control. Although *Rs* managed to degrade cell walls, progressing into the phloem in the roots of both genotypes, the shoot sections of *Atsultr3;1* exhibited visibly thicker cell walls even closer to the pith, providing a stronger obstruction to *Rs* invasion than the control. It became evident that in the *Atsultr3;1* mutant, the spread of bacteria was significantly impeded. Having such a strong backbone for resistance with the sulphate transporters, further exploration into the total sulphur content, glutathione and cysteine amounts along with other sulphur containing compounds will throw light on the resistance mechanisms. We are also generating these mutants in potato to harness the benefit of resistance offered by edited sulphate transporters.

Our study has uncovered some novel findings, elucidated vital concepts regarding *Rs* and *Pi* resistance and requires further research to come forth with ultimate resistance utilising CRISPR/Cas knockout of susceptibility genes.

7. NEW SCIENTIFIC RESULTS

- We characterised and identified the common and different defence responses between the two known *Rs* resistant varieties CG and CR including glutathione metabolism, phenylpropanoid pathways and lignification.
- We have generated several transgenic lines, namely, *PPO* knockout lines of 'Désirée' and 'Balatoni Rózsa', and *miR396* knockout lines of 'Désirée' and 'Botond'.
- We established that PPO is positively related to resistance to *Rs* and that the loss of PPO activity increases the susceptibility of plants despite increase of beneficial metabolites. We could not support the claim of *PPO* mutants being more resistant to *Pi*.
- We established that *miR396* mutant plants are delayed in symptom development to *Rs* and increased in susceptibility to *Pi* and that miR396 targets, the *MULTICYSTATIN147* and an *NBS-LRR* gene, have a role in these responses.
- We found *Rs* resistance in *SULTR* mutants in *Arabidopsis* making them good susceptibility gene candidates with increased suberisation along the root cortex and thick cell walls.

8. SUMMARY

In our study, we focused on understanding and inducing resistance mechanisms against the pathogens *Ralstonia solanacearum* (*Rs*) and *Phytophthora infestans* (*Pi*) in potato. Our approach was to uncover plant susceptibility genes and edit these genes via CRISPR/Cas9 approach. Firstly, we worked with *Rs* resistant genotypes 'CG', 'CR', and susceptible 'Désirée' (DES). Through transcriptome and metabolomics data analysis, we identified differences in resistance response mechanisms among these genotypes. Metabolites like chlorogenic acid were found to positively regulate resistance, and hormonal regulation, particularly an increase in salicylic acid, was observed in all genotypes. Basal lignification, phenylpropanoid pathway, and glutathione metabolism were highlighted as important in resistant genotypes. Transcriptome data helped identify differentially regulated genes in resistant genotypes compared to susceptible DES, which could be targeted for editing using CRISPR/Cas system.

Based on literature and transcriptome data, we selected candidate genes for editing, including polyphenol oxidase (*PPO*), MicroRNA *miR396*, and sulphate transporters *AtSultr3;1* and *AtSultr1;2*. Mutant lines with edited *PPO* genes showed reduced browning in tubers and roots but increased susceptibility to *Rs*. Even though several basal response remained intact and an increase of antimicrobial compounds was observed, the loss of PPO could not be compensated.

The *miR396* edited lines generated via targeted mutagenesis employing two target strategies exhibited delayed symptom development against *Rs* but increased susceptibility to *Pi*. Interestingly, in edited lines of DES, 3,6 and 10, the delayed symptom development was observed in Line 3 and Line 10 both of which had larger deletions at the first target site, contrary to line 6 which had smaller deletions and only at the second target site indicative of the effect of mutations on certain targets. In order to explain the effect of *miR396*, we evaluated the expression of its predicted targets in the edited lines and interestingly, found an *LRR RECEPTOR-LIKE SERINE/THREONINE PROTEIN KINASE* to increase in expression in all the edited lines and *MULTICYSTATIN 147* also showed an increase in expression especially in the edited 'Botond' lines compared to the control. The transcriptional increase of these genes is probably not effective enough against *Pi* but overall, we demonstrated that *miR396* is involved in regulating defence response towards *Rs* and *Pi*. It's a promising aspect and a deeper look into the transcriptomic differences in the future will certainly highlight the mechanism involved in the observed differing response to *Rs* and *Pi*.

From transcriptomic data, we identified *SULTR3;1* as a potential susceptibility gene candidate. From literature, sulphate transporters (SULTRs) appeared promising towards contributing to resistance. Although very little is known about the group 3 sulphate transporters.

Tests on Arabidopsis mutants showed increased resistance to *Rs* in SULTR mutants, suggesting a promising approach for developing resistance. Further analysis revealed increased suberisation of cell walls in mutants. We also carried out sectioning and staining for the roots and stems of *AtSULTR3;1* mutant plants and observed that the stem offers more resistance to *Rs* with lesser *Rs* found in the pith of the mutant. The mutant also had thick cell walls. This opens up new discussion on *SULTR3;1* being a susceptibility gene, which may have a wide application in the future.

Overall, our research provided insights into resistance mechanisms employed against *Rs* and *Pi* in potato, identified candidate susceptibility genes for editing, and opened up avenues to induce resistance via targeted mutagenesis.

9. APPENDICES

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A2: SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES AND TABLES

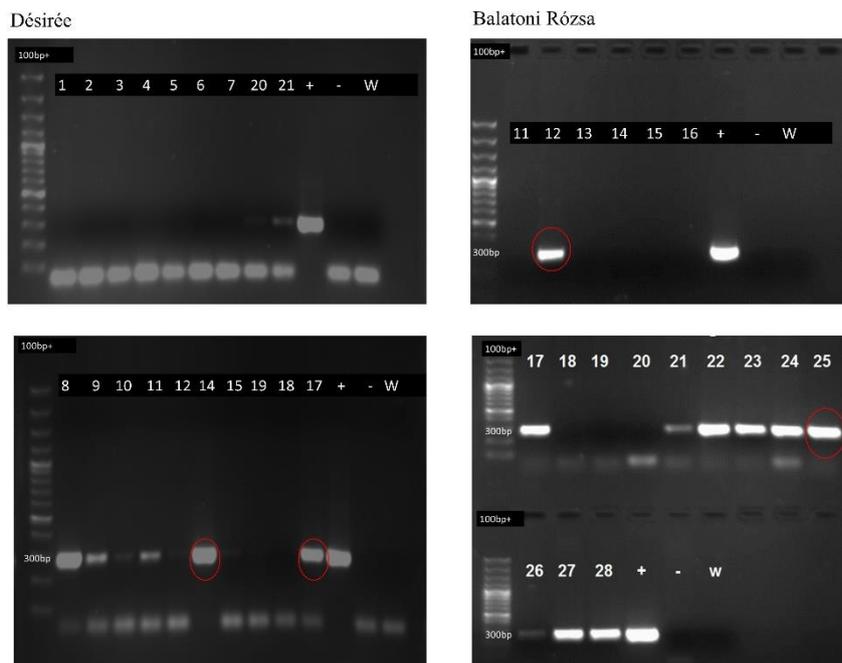


Figure 1. Evaluating the presence of sgRNA-coding transgene on regenerated *PPO* mutant lines ('Désirée' and 'Balatoni Rózsa' genotypes), checked with u6Forward and target lower strand giving a 300-bp product. '+' is positive control, '-' is negative template control and 'W' is water control. The red circles highlight the lines studied in detail from both the genotypes.

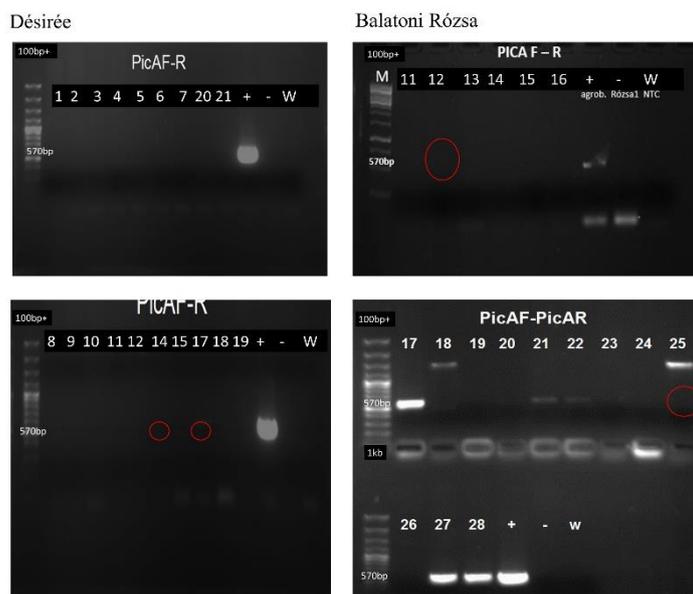


Figure 2. Checking the presence of *Agrobacterium* contamination in the regenerated *PPO* mutant lines ('Désirée' and 'Balatoni Rózsa' genotypes), checked with picaF-R primers giving a 570-bp product. '+' is positive control, '-' is negative template control and 'W' is water control. The red circles highlight the lines studied in detail from both genotypes.

Désirée Control

Pot32:
DE5C/3
DE5C/5
DE5C/6
DE5C/10
DE5C/14
DE5C/17
DE5C/19
DE5C/20
DE5C/18
PFOtarget2

Pot33:
DE5C/7
DE5C/9
DE5C/11
DE5C/18
DE5C/18
PFOtarget2

Pot72:
DE5C/4
DE5C/12
DE5C/1
DE5C/13
PFOtarget2

Désirée Line 14

Pot32:
DPFOT2/14/5
DPFOT2/14/9
DPFOT2/14/14
DPFOT2/14/4
DPFOT2/14/1
DPFOT2/14/15
DPFOT2/14/18
DPFOT2/14/12
PFOtarget2

Pot33:
DPFOT2/14/2
DPFOT2/14/10
PFOtarget2

Pot72:
DPFOT2/14/13
DPFOT2/14/8
DPFOT2/14/11
DPFOT2/14/3
DPFOT2/14/6
DPFOT2/14/20
DPFOT2/14/17
DPFOT2/14/7
DPFOT2/14/19
DPFOT2/14/16
PFOtarget2

Désirée Line 17

Pot32:
DPFOT2/17/2
DPFOT2/17/1
DPFOT2/17/14
DPFOT2/17/6
DPFOT2/17/9
DPFOT2/17/16
DPFOT2/17/12
DPFOT2/17/4
DPFOT2/17/13
PFOtarget2

Pot33:
DPFOT2/17/5
PFOtarget2

Pot72:
DPFOT2/17/7
DPFOT2/17/15
DPFOT2/17/10
DPFOT2/17/3
DPFOT2/17/11
PFOtarget2

Balatoni Rózsa Control

Pot32:
BRO2SAC1
BRO2SAC3
BRO2SAC4
BRO2SAC5
BRO2SAC7
BRO2SAC9
BRO2SAC15
BRO2SAC12
BRO2SAC23
BRO2SAC29
BRO2SAC33
BRO2SAC35
BRO2SAC36
PFOtarget2

Pot33:
BRO2SAC2
BRO2SAC13
BRO2SAC31
BRO2SAC6
BRO2SAC8
BRO2SAC12
BRO2SAC17
BRO2SAC28
PFOtarget2

Pot72:
BRO2SAC14
BRO2SAC25
BRO2SAC39
BRO2SAC21
BRO2SAC27
BRO2SAC19
BRO2SAC38
BRO2SAC30
PFOtarget2

Balatoni Rózsa Line 12

Pot32:
BRO2SAC12/18
BRO2SAC12/22
BRO2SAC12/4
BRO2SAC12/11
BRO2SAC12/7
BRO2SAC12/20
BRO2SAC12/29
BRO2SAC12/10
BRO2SAC12/5
BRO2SAC12/12
BRO2SAC12/13
BRO2SAC12/10
BRO2SAC12/15
BRO2SAC12/3
BRO2SAC12/17
BRO2SAC12/19
PFOtarget2

Pot33:
BRO2SAC12/8
BRO2SAC12/27
PFOtarget2

Pot72:
BRO2SAC12/2
BRO2SAC12/26
BRO2SAC12/24
BRO2SAC12/6
BRO2SAC12/23
BRO2SAC12/21
BRO2SAC12/28
BRO2SAC12/9
BRO2SAC12/14
PFOtarget2

Balatoni Rózsa Line 25

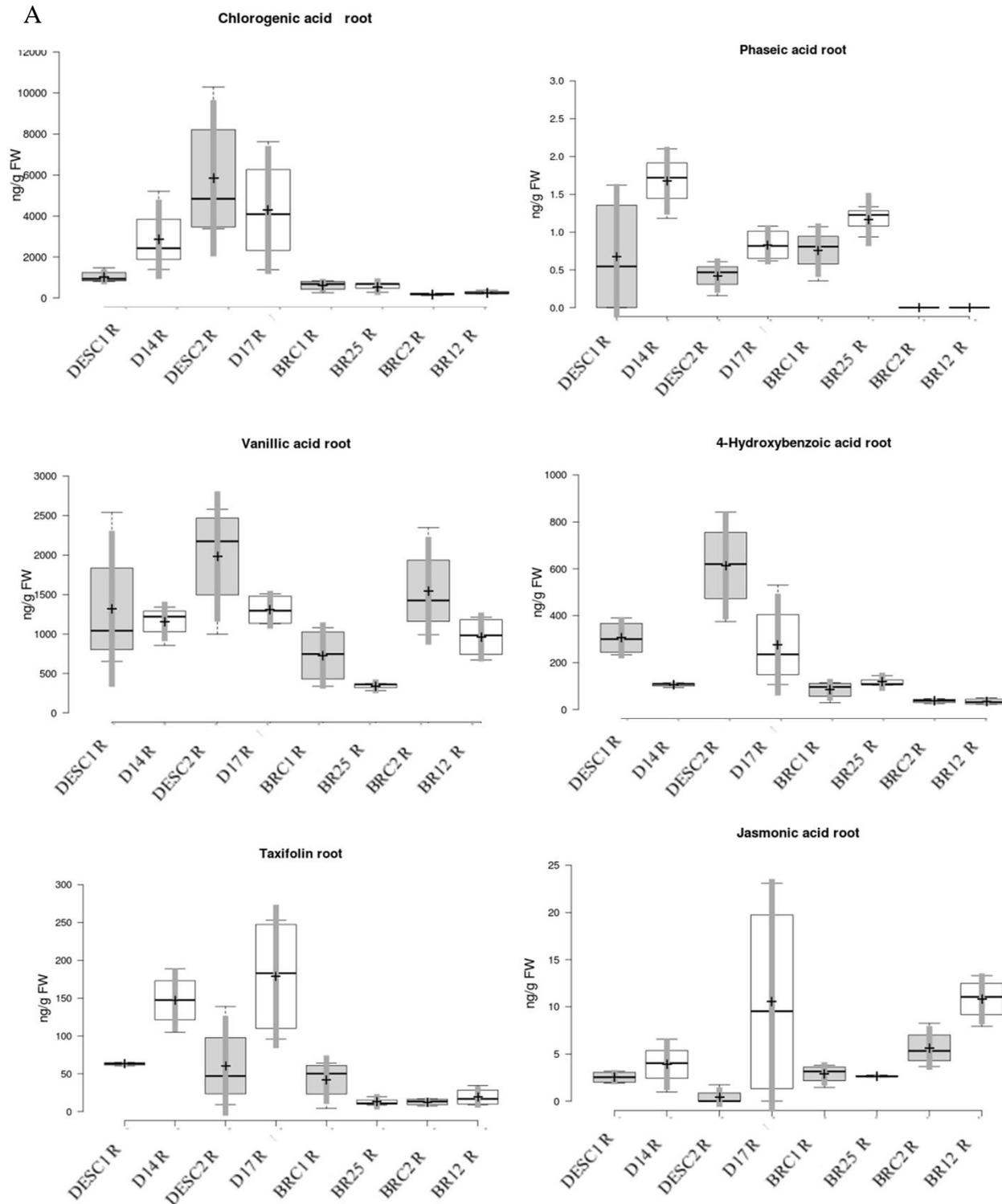
Pot32:
BRO2SAC12/25/6
BRO2SAC12/25/18
BRO2SAC12/25/14
BRO2SAC12/25/10
BRO2SAC12/25/9
BRO2SAC12/25/1
BRO2SAC12/25/12
BRO2SAC12/25/19
BRO2SAC12/25/8
BRO2SAC12/25/16
PFOtarget2

Pot33:
BRO2SAC12/25/2
BRO2SAC12/25/7
BRO2SAC12/25/13
PFOtarget2

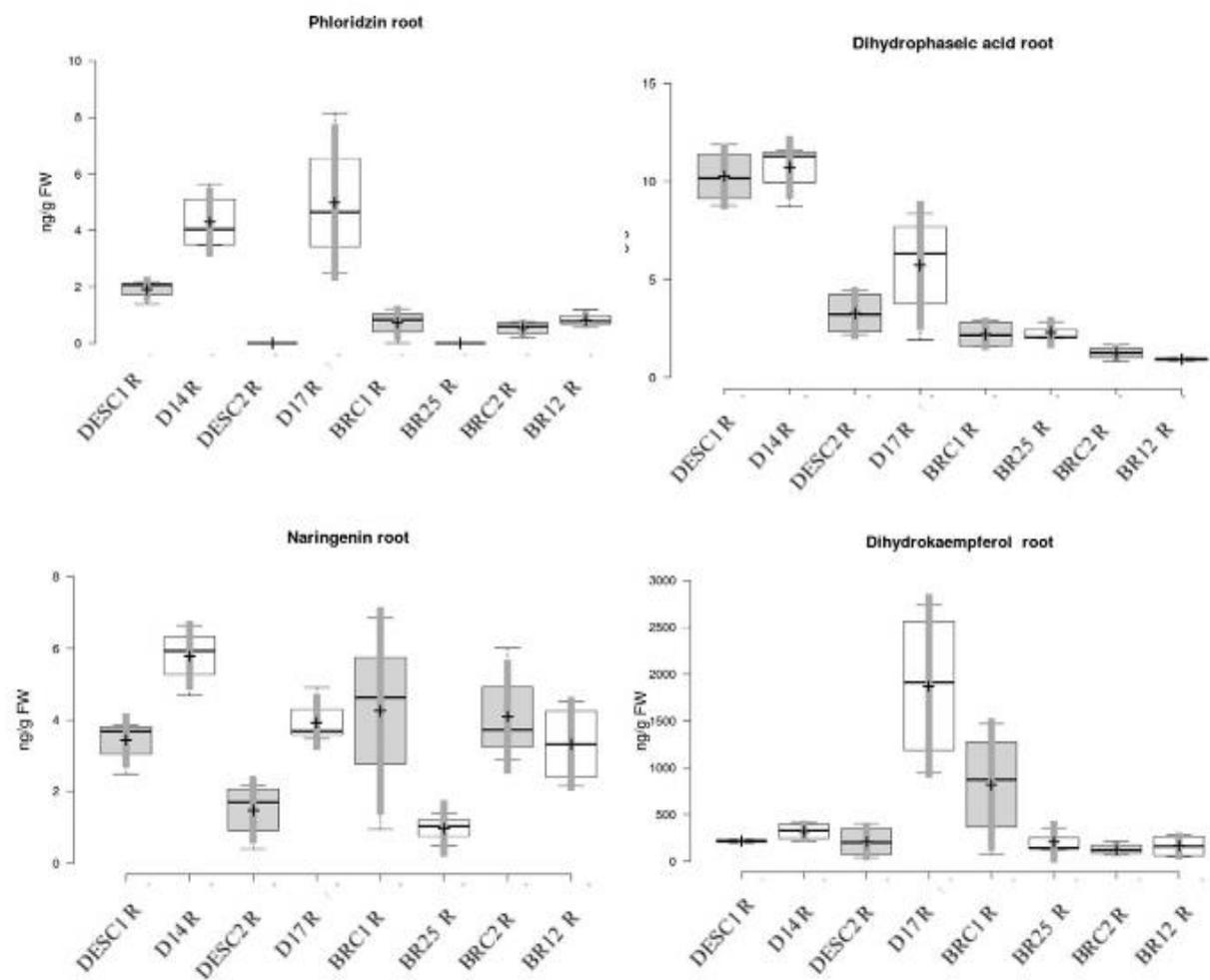
Pot72:
BRO2SAC12/25/11
BRO2SAC12/25/17
BRO2SAC12/25/5
BRO2SAC12/25/3
PFOtarget2

Figure 3. Sequences of Pot 32, Pot33 and Pot 72 PPO genes using PPOAllF-R primers listed in Supplementary Table 1 with the highlighted (red) CRISPR target region showing mutants. 'Désirée' control and mutant lines 14 and 17 (top); 'Balatoni Rózsa control and mutant lines 12 and 25 (bottom). The different colours of sequences indicate the four alleles.

A



B



C

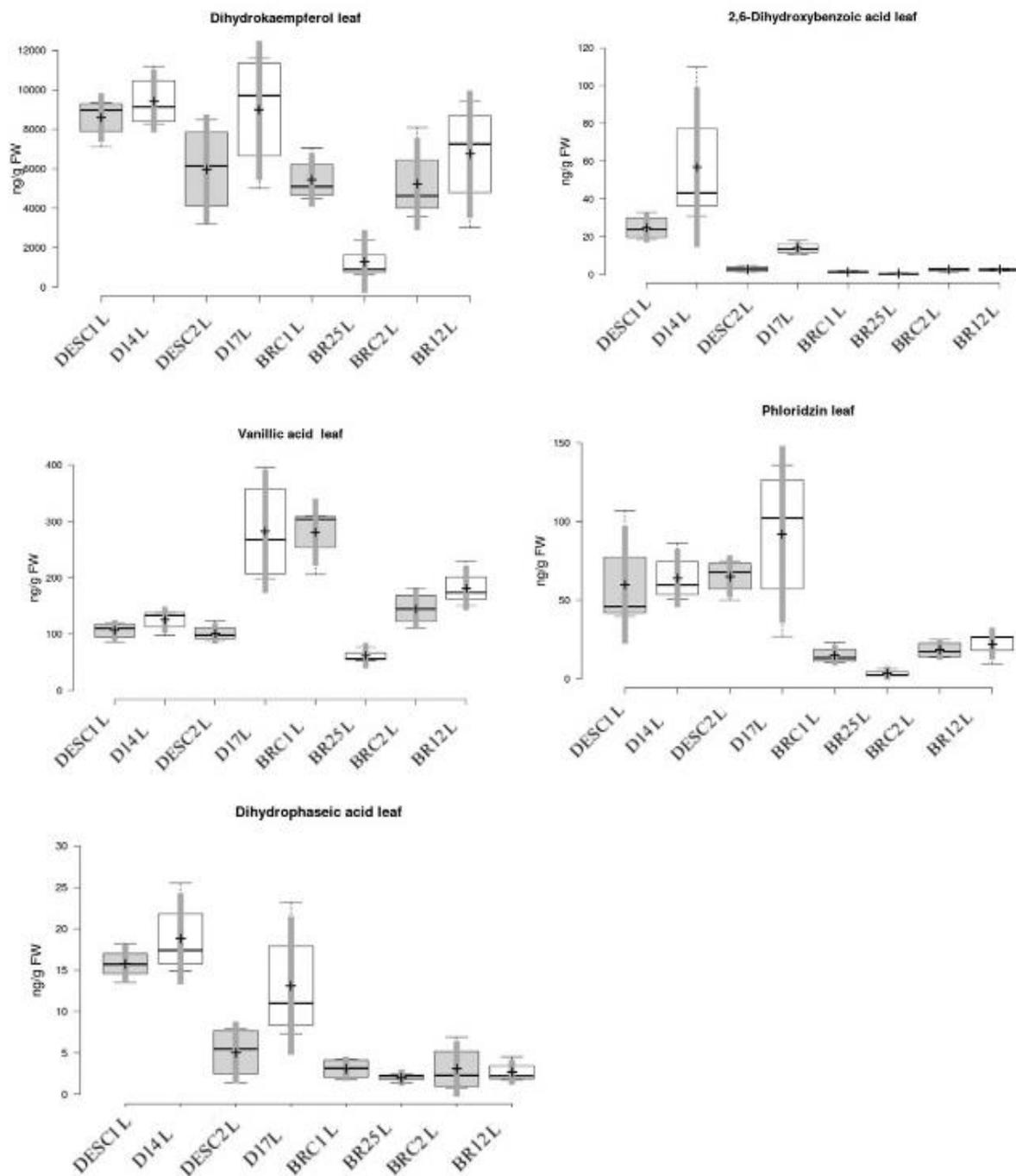


Figure 4. Boxplots of selected secondary metabolites showing concentration differences in the *PPO* mutants (D14 and D17) in comparison to 'Désirée' control (DES C) and *PPO* mutants (BR12 and BR25) along with the control BR C the root (R) metabolites (AB) and leaf (L) metabolites (C)

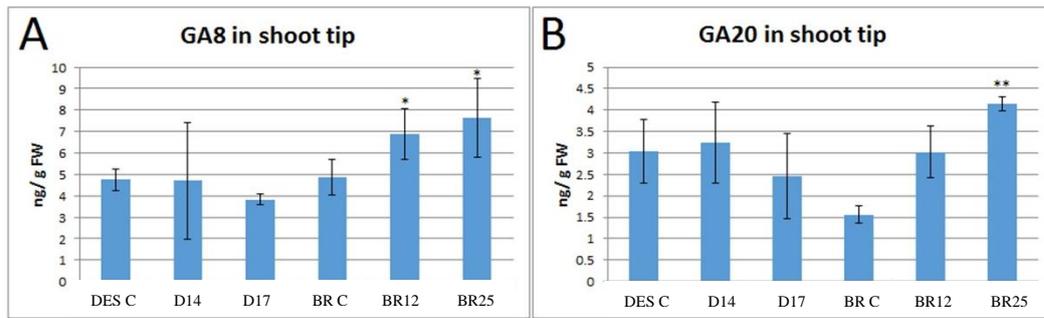


Figure 5. Gibberellic acid measurement in the shoot tips of the *PPO* mutant lines ‘Désirée’ (D14,D17), ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ (R12, R25) along with the respective controls (DES C and BR C)

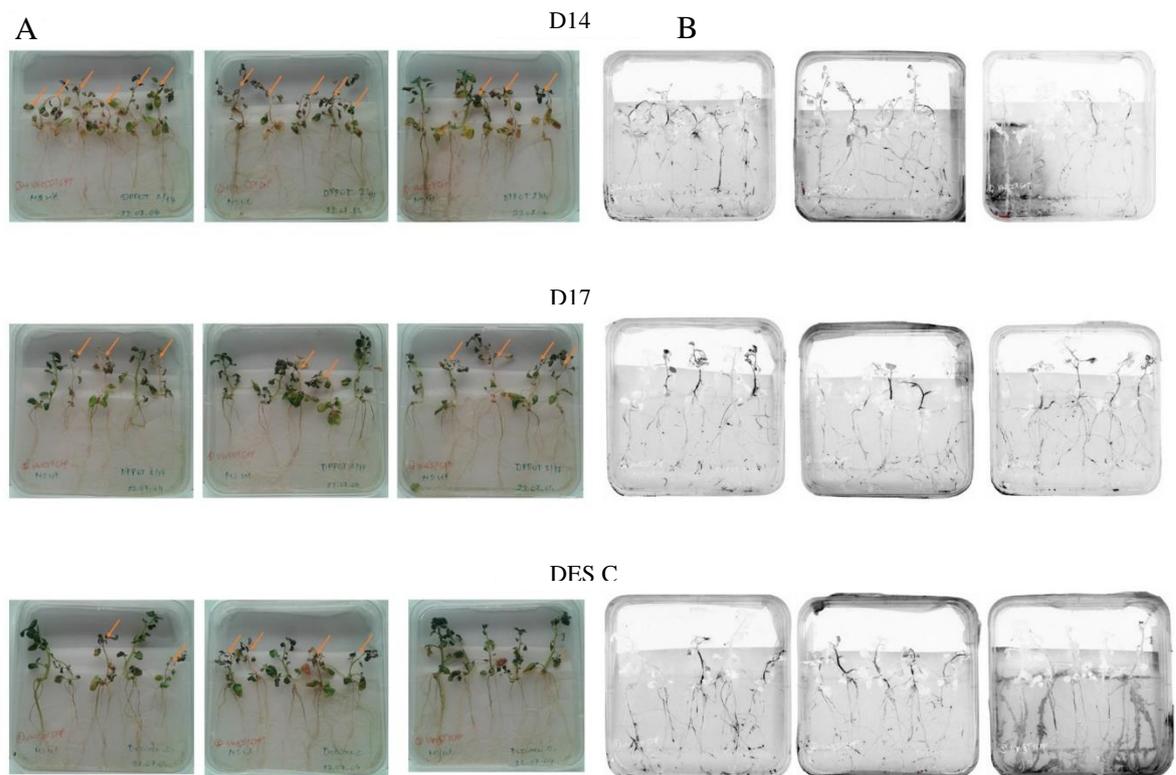


Figure 6. Visual evaluation of ‘Désirée’ (DES C) and its *PPO* mutants (D14 and D17) in response to *Rs* infection and bacterial spreading (19 dpi) in the *in vitro* inoculation bioassay under visible light for the observation of wilting (A) and UV light for the detection of *GFP*-expressing *Rs* bacteria (B). Arrows point to the wilted plants (Z. Bozsó, NÖVI).

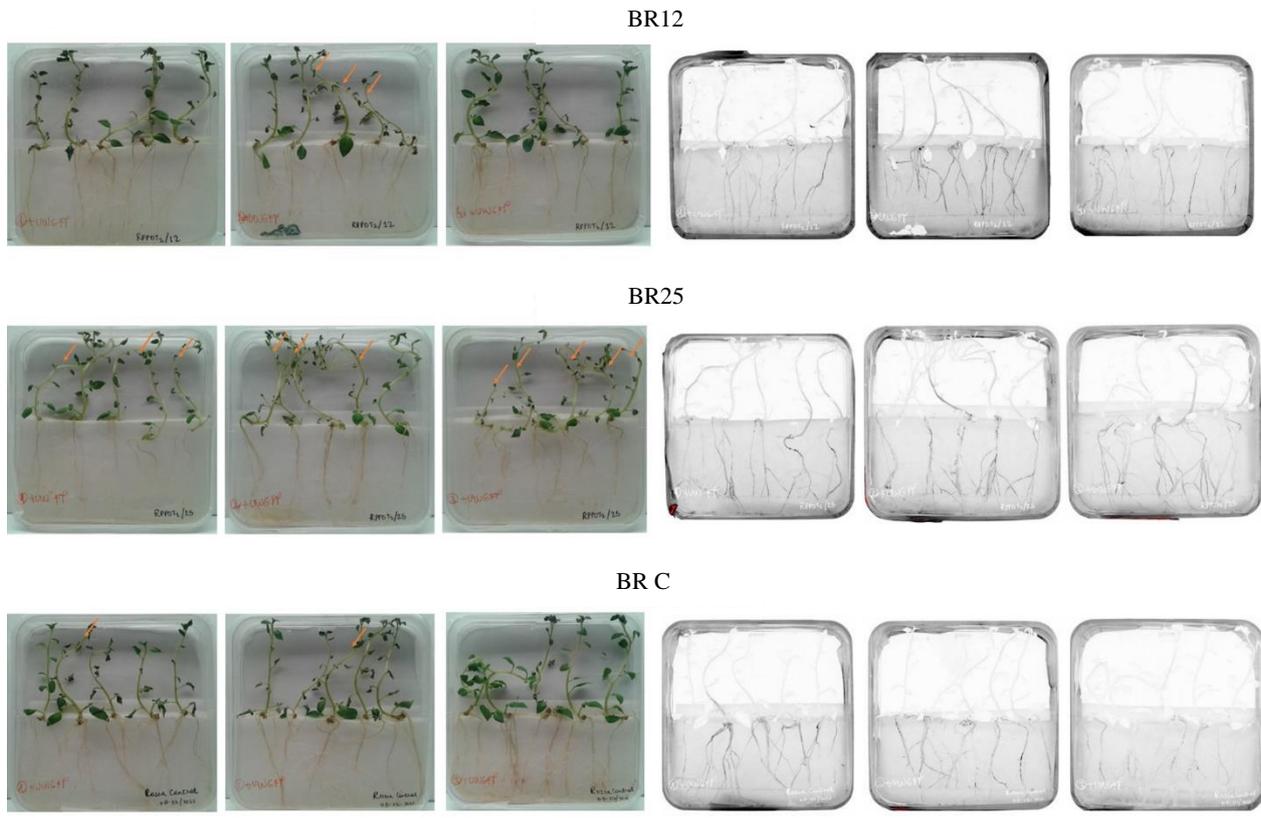


Figure 7. Visual evaluation of 'Balatoni Rózsa' (BR C) and its *PPO* mutants (BR12 and BR25) in response to *Rs* infection and bacterial spreading (13 dpi) in the *in vitro* inoculation bioassay under visible light for the observation of wilting (A) and UV light for the detection of *GFP*-expressing *Rs* bacteria (B). Arrows point to the wilted plants (Z. Bozsó, NÖVI).

A

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Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGGCTTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGGCTTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
Ecn11      CTTTCCACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
miR396_T1  CACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
          CACAGCTTTCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA

Ecn11      TTAGAGATCAAAATTTAGCAGAGAAAGTTCAAGAACTTGTGAAAAGCATGCTAGG
miR396_T2  GAGAGATTCAGAAAGCTGTGG

miR396_6   CTTTCCACAG--TCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
miR396_largeL1 CCAAGCTTCCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA

miR396_6   TTAGAGATCAAAATTTAGCAGAGAAAGTTCAAGAACTTGTGAAAAGCATGCTAGG
miR396_target2 CCAAGCTTCCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA

miR396_9   CTTTCCACAG--TCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
miR396_target1 CCAAGCTTCCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA

miR396_8   TTAGAGATCAAAATTTAGCAGAGAAAGTTCAAGAACTTGTGAAAAGCATGCTAGG
miR396_target2 CCAAGCTTCCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA

miR396_9   TTAGAGATCAAAATTTAGCAGAGAAAGTTCAAGAACTTGTGAAAAGCATGCTAGG
miR396_target2 CCAAGCTTCCTGGACTTCAGTCTCAAAAATTTTCATCCAAAATATCAA
  
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B

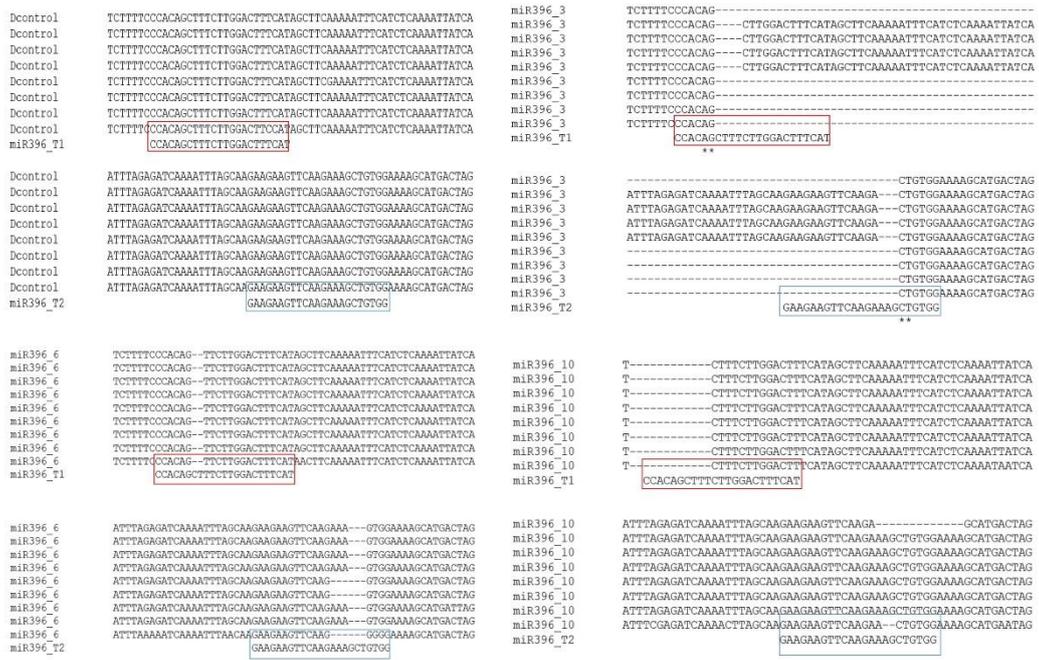


Figure 8. Sequences of region around *miR396* target sites using Chr7*miR396F-R* primers listed in Supplementary Table 1 with the highlighted CRISPR target region. Red box highlights target 1 and blue box highlights target 2, for 'Botond' control and mutant lines *miR396_line* 6, 7, 8 and 9 (A) and for 'Desirée' control and mutant lines *miR396_line* 3, 6 and 10 (B)

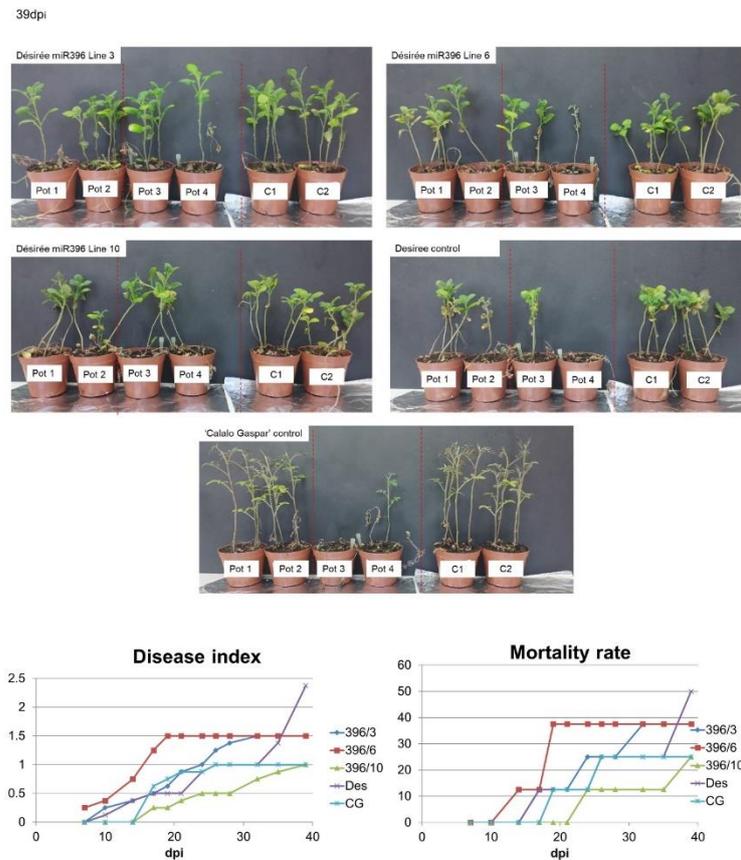


Figure 9. Disease symptoms of whole potato plants of 'Desirée' control and *miR396* mutants in an *Rs* inoculation test (OD=0.8 10 ml/plant). Timing in the test: 39 dpi showing the delayed symptom development of Line 3 and Line 10 compared to the control. The plot of disease index and mortality rate of the progression of infection.

Supplementary Table 1. Compilation of different ways of conducting and evaluating *Phytophthora infestans* infection assay with potato explants

Reference	Potato genotype(s)	Potato explant(s)	Pi race/genotype	Inoculum preparation	Inoculation conditions	Evaluation
Huang <i>et al.</i> 2005	Differential set (12 clones) F1 seeds from SH83-92-488 (SH) × RH89-039-16 (RH)	Detached leaf: from 6-8-week GH plants	7 isolates (known races); GER8601 (race 1), 99018 (race 1.4), 91001 (race 7), 89148-27 (race 3a.3b.7), 89148-09 (race 0), H30P04 (race 3a.7), and IPO-0 (race 3b)	5x10 ⁴ zoospores/mL	3rd-5th full leaf, 10 µl inoculum on the abaxial side. The trays were then covered and incubated at a 16-h/8-h day/night photoperiod at 16°C.	6-8 dpi, class 1-5, compatible interactions were scored as class 1 (spreading lesion with massive sporulation). The observation unit was compound leaf (with five leaflets) in vitro: 6-8 dpi, class 1-5, the unit of observation was a jar with five plantlets; disease index, t-test
		Plantlets with 3-4 fully developed leaves		2.5 × 10 ⁴ spores/mL	3 largest leaves, 10 µl of a zoospore suspension on adaxial side, kept at 16°C	
Bjor, 1987	cv. Troll and cv. Kerr's Pink, and two lines, CT-78-4-9 and N-80-31-34	Tubers	Mixture of races with different virulence genes	50000 sporangia/mL and held at 12°C for 2- 3 hs	The resultant mix was sprayed by a spray gun onto the tubers at a rate equivalent to 1 mL per tuber. Kept at about 15°C.	After 2 weeks score based on % of the surface with symptoms; score 5 for more than 50% of the surface with symptoms
Brylińska and Śliwka, 2018	Not specified	Tubers of susceptible and resistant standard cultivars			Two replicates of between three and ten double slices, each 10 mm thick. A drop of 30 µl of the inoculum between the double slices, are placed at 16°C in the dark and covered with glass	
		detached leaflet test: 3-5 fully-expanded lateral leaflets or 1-2 leaves are collected from the middle part of potato plants from 6-week-old plants		50 sporangia/µL	Leaflet is placed on wet paper the abaxial side up; Leaves were sprayed with the suspension. Placed at 16°C in the dark with high humidity >80RH. The next day leaves are turned over with constant light of about 1600 lx	Six days after incubation; 6 lateral leaflets are scored per leaf, each leaflet separately. Scoring is performed on a 1-9 scale where 9 means no disease symptoms. Scores 8-7: weak sporulation, 6-3: intense sporulation, 1-2: very intense sporulation.

Cohen, Gisi and Mosinger, 1991	Bintje	Whole plants	Isolate \$49 (Sandoz collection)	500 sporangia/mL	Adaxial leaf surfaces: sprayed (about 10 mL per plant) kept in the dark at 100% RH for 24 h and then transferred to a 15 °C chamber (80-90% RH) illuminated with cool white fluorescent light (70 $\mu\text{Em}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, 16 h light per day).	After 5 days, lesions on leaves 4-11 of each plant were recorded. The total leaf area blighted per plant was calculated
Dorrance and Inglis, 1997	Bzura Brador Brodick A84118-3 Alpha FR Elba COO83008-1 White Rose Kennebec Russet Burbank Ranger Russet Shepody Red LaSoda NorchipRusset Norkotah	GH whole plants	Isolate 95WWA with virulence genes 1,2,4,5,7	atomised with a suspension of 8,000 sporangia/mL	after spraying, placed in a mist chamber for approximately 40 h; ratings were taken periodically for 1 to 2 weeks	1-2 weeks until the most susceptible plant died estimate the percentage of the plant
		Leaf discs: (15-mm-diameter)		4,000 sporangia/mL for detached leaf	Inoculations with 40 μL at or near flowering; abaxial surface up in moist chambers, incubated for 7 days at 20°C under 12 h	blighted, where 9 = no blight and 1 =100% blighted
		detached leaves: two top fully expanded leaves				
Dorrance and Inglis, 1998	20 cultivars and adv selections	Tuber slice: seven-mm-thick sections from the middle of a tuber Whole tuber: three tubers per cultivar	One isolate, 95WWA	8×10^4 /mL	The tuber slice on top of two moistened filter papers in a plastic Petri dish, and a 5-mm center of the tuber slice; incubated at 20°C in dark for 7 days colonised agar plug in the center of the tuber slice; incubated at 20°C in dark for 7 days; inoculum atomised onto each tuber; approximately 20 mL of the sporangial suspension was used for every 30 tubers; high RH; 7 days at 20°C	The percent colonisation of a tuber slice calculated which is the percent surface with symptoms of a whole tuber
Flier, Van Den Bosch and Turkensteen, 2003	Bintje, Asarte and 8 others		Five isolates (IPO98014F95573, IPO655-2A and IPO428-2); IPO82001 serves as a reference isolate	1.0×10^4 sporangia/mL	When sporulating mycelium was present, small tufts of mycelium were placed in a 10- μL drop of water on the lower epidermis of leaflets; incubated for 7 days in a climate chamber at 15°C with a 16 h light period	Lesions were measured between 3-5 dpi. The length and width of each lesion were measured, and the average diameter, lesion area, and lesion growth rate were calculated. Sporulation was visually assessed using a 0-4 rating scale (0 = no sporulation to 4 = dense sporulation).
Gigot, Gundersen and Inglis, 2009	Russet Burbank	Tubers	'MV04-28', and 'MV110 B'	agar plugs (5 mm in diameter) 1×10^3 sporangia/mL	Rye agar plugs 5 mm diameter placed in each wound; moist towels for 6 days at 16°C then incubated in the dark in growth chambers set at 10°C for 15 days of incubation	Examined the number of lenticels and the number of eyes with <i>Pi</i> sporulation; the percentage of the whole tuber surface with late blight symptoms were assessed
Zoteyeva <i>et al.</i> , 2016		Cut tuber		15000 zoospores/ ml.	tuber surfaces of 7 mm diameter were inoculated with a 20 mL drop of inoculum	

Supplementary Table 2. List of primers used in the study

S no.	Primer name	Sequence (5'-3')	Tm °C	Product size (bp)	Gene name and ID
1	PPOallF	AAATGTTCTTCTGGCTTAGG	54	1000bp	Polyphenol oxidase: Pot32 (U22921), Pot33 (U22922) and POT72 (U22923)
2	PPOallR	ACTCGGAGTTCAACCAATC			
3	PPO US	ATTG CAATATGGCAAAGCGAAAGT			
4	PPO LS	AAAC ACTTTTCGCTTTGCCATATTG			
5	U6-26p-F	TGTCCCAGGATTAGAATGATTAGGC	60		
6	U6-26t-R	CCCCAGAAATTGAACGCCGAAGAAC	60		
7	miR396T1-F0	TGATGAAAGTCCAAGAAAGCTGGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAG C			
8	miR396T2-R0	AACCAGCTTTCTTGAACTTCTTCCAATCTCTTAGTCGACTCTA C			
9	miR396T1-F1	ATATATGGTCTCGATTGATGAAAGTCCAAGAAAGCTGGTT			-
10	miR396T2-R1	ATTATTGGTCTCGAAACCAGCTTTCTTGAACTTCTTCAA			
11	miR396t1LS	AAACCAGCTTTCTTGGACTTTCAT	60	286	
12	miR396t2LS	AAACCAGCTTTCTTGAACTTCTTC	60	860	
13	PicAF	ATGCGCATGAGGCTCGTCTTCGAG	64	571	PicA (Yusibov et al., 1994)
14	PicAR	GACGCAACGCATCCTCGATCAGCT			
15	zCas9F	GACACGGCAGATCACTAAGC	66	300	
16	zCas9R	GCGATCATCTTCCTCACATC			
17	Stu396F:	TTCCACAGCTTTCTTGAACTTC	64	105	MicroRNA396 on Chromosome 7 (MI0025984)
18	Stu396R:	TTTCCCACAGCTTTCTTGGAC			
19	Chr7mir396F	TTTTCAGACGAAAGGGCATCT	61	459	

20	Chr7mir396R	GTTTTACGCTGGTGTGATCG			
21	pJET1.2 forward sequencing primer	CGACTCACTATAGGGAGAGCGGC	60		
22	pJET1.2 reverse sequencing primer	AAGAACATCGATTTTCCATGGCAG	60		
23	SULTR3.1F	CTGGCTTTTGTGTCCTCTCTG	60	1197	Sulphate transporter 3.1 (AT3G51895.2)
24	SULTR3.1R	AATTCCAAGAGAGGCTTCGAG			
25	pROK LBb1.3F	ATTTTGCCGATTTCCGAAC	60		
26	SULTR1.2F	CACCTTCCAACATCAATGGC	60	1168	Sulphate transporter 1.2 (AT1G78000)
27	SULTR1.2R	TTTAAATTGGCGTTGATCGAC			
28	AgH F	GGGCGAATAGGTGAAGATGA	60		Agmatine Hydroxycinnamoyltransferase 1 (Soltu.DM.11G024290.1)
29	AgH R	CGTGTGACTTGGACTTGGATT			
30	PR2 F	CGACCACAATTTCCCCTACA	60	162	Pathogenesis-Related Protein Sth-2 (Soltu.DM.09G027710.1)
31	PR2 R	TTGGACCACCTTCAACAAAG			
32	WIN F	ATCAACCCCAACTCCATCTG	60	170	Wound-Induced Protein Win1 (Soltu.DM.01G036460.1)
33	WIN R	CACAGAAAGCAGTCCAACCA			
34	ABs F	CGGTATGGGTATGGGTACTGG	60	153	Abscisic Acid And Environmental Stress-Inducible Protein Tas14 (Soltu.DM.02G024670.1)
35	ABs R	CCTCCTCCTGGCATCTTCTG			
36	AscP F	GGAGTAGTTGCTGTTGAAGTTACG	60	192	L-Ascorbate Peroxidase 2 (Soltu.DM.09G006560.1)
37	AscP R	CAGAGTGTGACCACAGATAAAG			
38	Elf 1a F	AAACGGATATGCTCCAGTGC	60	87	Elongation factor 1 alpha (AB061263.1)
39	Elf 1a R	GAACGCCTGTCAATCTTGGT			
40	B- tub F	TTGGACAGTCTGGTGTCTGG	60	108	Beta-tubulin (DQ228319.1)
41	B- tub R	CACAATTCTCCGCTTCTTTACG			
42	stu-miR396 LS	GCGGCGGTTCCACAGCTTTCTT	62	67	

43	stu-miR396 PS	GCGGCGGTCCAAGAAAGCTGT	62	66	
44	stu-miR R	ATCCAGTGCAGGGTCCGAGG		no product	
45	DNA meF	GCCCCTTTGGAACCTGATGA	62	69	DNA methyltransferase PGSC0003DMT400018502
46	DNA meR	ACCTCCTCCCCTGTGTGAT			
47	emp70 F	TCTTTTCCCCTGTCCCTCCT	62	57	Endomembrane protein emp70 PGSC0003DMT400080455
48	emp70 R	TGGCGTACCACTCCAGTTTC			
49	GRIP F	ACCAAGGAATCTCCCCCTGA	62	98	GRIP and coiled-coil domain-containing protein PGSC0003DMT400046956
50	GRIP R	TTCCAGCCTCTGTGTGGAC			
51	LRR F	TTACGGCTCAGTTTCTGCGT	60	68	LRR receptor-like serine/threonine-protein kinase PGSC0003DMT400054175
52	LRR R	CGGGAGAGATCCTGTCAAGG			
53	Multicys1 F	CGGCAACTGATGATGCTGGA	60	162	Multicystatin PGSC0003DMT400015250
54	Multicys1 R	AGTCCTCCATTCTTTCACCC			
55	Multicys2 F	CCAAACCCAAACAGCCCC	60	101	Multicystatin PGSC0003DMG400026899 transcript PGSC0003DMT400069145
56	Multicys2 R	ACTCCAAATGAGCATTCTGAAAAG			
57	Multicys3 F	TTGTTCCATTCCCAAACAGTCCT	62	124	Multicystatin PGSC0003DMG400026899 transcript PGSC0003DMT400069147
58	Multicys3 R	ACAACCTGTTCTTCAAATTCAAAC			
59	Nbs F	GAAGGGCTTCCTTTGGCTCT	62	116	Nbs-lrr resistance protein PGSC0003DMG400007999
60	Nbs R	TGAGACTCGCAGACAGGTTG			
61	K trans F	AACTCTAGCTGCCGTGGTTG	60	91	Potassium transporter 17 PGSC0003DMT400006057
62	K trans R	TCGAGGGAAGCATCCAAGAG			
63	disul F	GGGTTCCCGACTTTGCTTCT	62	65	Protein disulfide isomerase PGSC0003DMT400006756
64	disul R	GCGGAGAATCCACCAGTGTA			

Supplementary Table 3. Summary of RNA integrity and RNA-seq quality in all samples

Sample	Integrity value (RIN)	Raw reads	Clean reads	Clean read rate %	Phred Q30(%)	Total mapped reads	Uniquely mapped reads	Total mapping rate %	Unique mapping rate %
CG_CTR1	9.6	46621895	45428436	97.4	93.35	82597562	80328822	90.91	88.41
CG_CTR2	9.4	54807337	53256280	97.2	93.19	96817646	94201598	90.9	88.44
CG_CTR3	9.3	42103939	40978890	97.3	92.93	74434996	72417793	91.82	88.36
CG_INF1	8.9	44143166	42861092	97.1	93.43	78327841	76105235	91.37	88.78
CG_INF2	9.2	41043870	39418633	96	93.63	71729042	69361458	90.98	87.98
CG_INF3	9.4	40899960	39827878	97.4	93.27	72592883	70606984	91.13	88.64
CR_CTR1	9.5	51584521	50347319	97.6	93.25	90237224	87707091	89.61	87.1
CR_CTR2	9.7	42264462	40850710	96.7	93.56	73253138	71188229	89.66	87.13
CR_INF1	9.2	43188342	42052798	97.4	93.1	75480149	73373886	89.74	87.24
CR_INF2	9.5	44806895	43539755	97.2	93.46	78614732	76220491	90.28	87.53
DES_CTR1	8.8	44413115	43106430	97.1	93.52	75830768	73785862	87.96	85.59
DES_CTR2	9.3	54297374	52042644	95.8	93.46	92377746	89861607	88.75	86.33
DES_CTR3	9.5	49726945	48539574	97.6	93.19	85604141	83220354	88.18	85.72
DES_INF1	9.1	49276161	47707909	96.8	93.43	83881741	81472455	87.91	85.39
DES_INF2	9.5	42712405	41694414	97.6	93.42	73499482	71478873	88.14	85.72
DES_INF3	9.7	40287178	39185699	97.3	93.46	69011905	67054493	88.06	85.56

Supplementary Table 4. Comparison (RNA-seq vs. qPCR) of the relative expression of five target genes used for validation

Gene name	CG (log2FoldChange)		CR (log2FoldChange)		DES (log2FoldChange)	
	CG RNA-seq	CG qPCR	CR RNA-seq	CR qPCR	DES RNA-seq	DES qPCR
<i>AGMATINE HYDROXYCINAMOYLTRANSFERASE 1</i>	2.34	1.09	3.39	3.98	2.62	1.29
<i>PATHOGENESIS-RELATED PROTEIN, STH-2</i>	1.98	0.97	2.96	3.15	2.17	1.59
<i>WOUND-INDUCED PROTEIN, WIN1</i>	3.52	2.91	4.54	4.15	4.20	3.15
<i>ABSCISIC ACID AND ENVIRONMENTAL STRESS-INDUCIBLE PROTEIN, TAS14</i>	-1.99	-2.43	-2.03	-1.08	-1.79	-0.91
<i>L-ASCORBATE PEROXIDASE 2</i>	-1.30	-1.75	-1.29	-0.83	-1.02	-0.71

Supplementary Table 5. Targeted metabolite analysis of potato root samples of the resistant lines CG and CR together with the susceptible ‘*Désirée*’, both control (CTR) and 6dpi (INF) in 4 replicates

Sample	CR_CT R1	CR_CT R2	CR_CT R3	CR_CT R4	CR_IN F1	CR_IN F2	CR_IN F3	CR_IN F4	CG_CT R1	CG_CT R2	CG_CT R3	CG_CT R4	CG_IN F1	CG_IN F2	CG_IN F3	CG_IN F4	DES_CT R1	DES_CT R2	DES_CT R3	DES_CT R4	DES_IN F1	DES_IN F2	DES_IN F3	DES_IN F4
indole-3-acetic-a.	14.3	12.4	6.36	6.53	11.5	7.46	11.2	9.73	4.59	4.54	4.67	4.05	5.66	5.44	5.41	5.31	4.59	4.42	4.77	2.87	7.78	5.54	4.6	5.64
benzoic a.	219	181	137	143	158	229	111	191	877	729	709	520	419	284	584	548	219	450	321	330	274	237	260	292
salicylic a.	24.5	21.3	20.1	21.2	57.7	35	32.9	24	42.1	33	29.2	24	39.5	76.7	52.8	94	40.4	50.4	45.8	38.5	166	132	113	124
para-hydroxybenzoic a.	66	68.4	48.2	48.5	54.4	83.2	60	56.2	95.1	81.3	82.5	46.7	69	48.8	95.4	52.8	54.7	43.9	62.9	39.3	52.4	30.3	34.2	42.8
jasmonic a.	<LO Q	0.495	0.663	0.379	0.571	1.34	1.84	0.401	1.19															
abscisic a.	8.87	8.6	9.13	9.31	6.64	9.64	6.03	8.47	4.72	4.14	4.07	3.54	4.05	4.33	4.11	4.13	5.53	7.47	5.41	3.42	5.08	6.76	6.91	8.77
phaseic a.	0.193	0.166	0.216	0.257	0.149	0.214	0.182	0.163	0.258	0.323	0.304	0.272	0.281	0.344	0.442	0.407	0.415	0.413	0.32	0.282	1.03	2.28	0.97	1.03
dihydrophaseic a.	2.69	2.02	2.54	4.02	0.79	1.69	1.4	1.29	2.76	2.23	2.83	2.24	0.87	0.72	1.76	1.54	5.41	4.63	4.2	3.33	7.84	13.8	8.19	10.8
naringenin	0.328	0.216	0.36	0.657	0.165	0.537	0.331	0.0742	0.151	0.425	0.107	0.0747	0.052	0.1	0.34	0.105	0.197	0.398	0.327	0.343	1.23	0.41	0.781	1.03
taxifolin	12.3	8.49	43.2	47	12	24.1	28.6	3.74	12.1	25.6	54	18.2	14.5	20.7	88.8	49.1	206	428	398	303	481	366	768	618
dihydrokaempferol	6.38	3.74	7.77	11.1	3.94	12.7	10.2	2.44	4.05	14.1	27.9	5.73	2.55	2.98	4.58	8.22	230	662	902	562	445	280	804	1060
chlorogenic a.	854	1100	4060	2900	4280	2700	4920	3000	2790	3770	4500	6880	6460	9920	7840	12700	1060	718	266	298	4410	4340	2510	1090
rutin	0.858	0.909	8.43	6.09	2.2	4.71	8.97	1.56	23.5	15.4	15.4	18.1	97.3	293	289	411	17	6.25	8.4	6.17	130	102	73	103
jasmonic a-leucin conjugate	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q																
vanillin	173.7	182.2	105.5	105.4	195.8	234.4	141.7	297.5	667.5	583.2	633	706.5	546.1	393.5	911.7	433.2	111.9	160.8	106	93.3	144.7	169.1	136	174.5
vanillic a.	268	115	200	207	152	392	121	188	772	530	447	302	392	158	857	396	385	1143	639	799	299	249	332	476
caffeic a.	103.6	62.1	700.8	607.2	385.1	452.6	438.7	330.7	249.9	204.6	378.4	226	435.9	413.3	781.3	1335.2	231.3	249.8	198.8	147.7	404.8	405.9	722.6	408.3
syringaldehyde	12	9.88	6.15	9.02	38	12.1	9.51	18.8	62.9	40.4	67	71.5	84.9	58.8	162.7	95.5	7.01	12.1	7.74	5.1	14.5	19	13	18.5
scopoletin	0.98	0.0503	1.77	1.29	2.09	7.67	6.47	3.32	1.21	0.688	0.131	0.133	1.34	0.984	2.96	1.45	22.8	42.9	13.4	12.1	8.15	8.73	19	11.1
ferulic a.	237	204	163	159	224	459	181	280	692	492	553	264	343	117	866	147	224	417	314	498	177	143	308	234
esculin	1.83	1.99	4.31	3.72	4.72	6.25	3.31	5.94	1.38	2.6	1.09	4.57	10.26	7.29	5.95	5.84	5.17	8.69	3.05	5.6	8.7	6.73	8.14	5.1
quercetin-3-O-glucoside	<LO Q	0.183	0.33	<LO Q	<LO Q	0.64	0.61	<LO Q	12.05	18.66	30.21	68.58	40.51	52.96	246.48	115.37	6.23	5.31	2.61	2.52	13.86	11.41	25.08	15.17
quercetin-4'-O-glucoside	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q																

quercetin-3-O-galactoside	1.49	0.9	8.22	4.7	3.26	5.46	6.46	2.4	14.4 2	9.65	8.6	64.4 4	70.8 7	190. 99	356. 38	286. 94	9.57	8.83	5.75	5.87	64.6	49.5 4	61.1 7	37.8 4
kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside	11.8	43.7	78.7	40.7	22.1	44.2	48.6	27.3	38.8	162	127	383	196	300	169 4	129 7	176	214	281	110	449	563	1803	1363
isorhamnetin-3-O-rutinoside	3.22	28.2	13.9 7	11.0 1	6.34	9.83	14.2 9	4.63	15.4 4	23.9 1	27.1 4	78.1 5	85.2 7	116. 48	413. 81	158. 33	22.18	16.16	19.6	15.18	57.6 6	59.4 9	139. 95	63.9 4
quercetin-3,4'-diglucoside	10.9	43.9	58.5	33.1	24.6	36.9	46.8	16.7	40.1	47.2	60.2	190	108. 6	239. 1	915. 1	375. 8	30.1	29.9	21.9	25.4	89.1	54.4	154. 2	85.4
neochlorogenic a.	127	1295 .67	2040	1720	174 0	763	221 0	419	90.2	84.3	145	257	670	105 0	912	212 0	34	15.2	9.72	0.833	165	87.9	143	29
cryptochlorogenic a.	612	410	5980	4650	435 0	303 0	373 0	186 0	1290	1140	1890	3790	474 0	732 0	810 0	152 00	89.9	89.2	21.4	31.9	758	346	387	93.5
phloridzin	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q

Supplementary Table 6. Targeted metabolite analysis of potato leaf samples of the resistant lines CG and CR together with the susceptible ‘*Désirée*’, both control (CTR) and 6dpi (INF) in replicates

Sample	CR_CTR 1	CR_CTR 2	CR_CTR 3	CR_CTR 4	CR_INF1	CR_INF2	CR_INF3	CR_INF4	CG_CTR 1	CG_CTR 2	CG_CTR 3	CG_INF1	CG_INF2	CG_INF3	DES_CTR1	DES_CTR2	DES_CTR3	DES_CTR4	DES_INF1	DES_INF2	DES_INF3	DES_INF4
indole-3-acetic a.	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q
benzoic a.	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q
salicylic a.	70.5	37.9	89.6	91.7	78.3	53.9	131	106	37.7	45.7	41.5	22.6	25.2	60.1	110	115	148	135	79.5	110	85	204
para-hydroxybenzoic a.	2.25	3.52	7.55	5.57	6.6	4.98	6.73	6.32	26.8	69	57.9	81	76.2	108	41.8	42.8	22.1	36	13	38.7	17.6	36.4
jasmonic a.	3.09	0.507	6.57	0.422	1.54	1.07	0.37 2	1.44	2.06	1.59	5.27	0.812	0.093 1	0.565	16	3.53	15.3	22.1	2.09	1.25	0.030 3	1.12
abscisic a.	4.68	3.47	4.87	5.76	4.76	8.82	4.85	5.88	2.81	4.84	3.84	7.39	5.73	7.5	86.7	58.6	62.9	69.8	172	140	116	154
phaseic a.	2.37	2.14	3.98	3.16	6.75	6.21	4.88	8.22	1.97	2.99	4.08	6.39	4.57	7.04	10.3	12.7	11.7	10.7	31.6	24.3	14.3	27.8
dihydrophaseic a.	1.04	0.475	1.07	1.06	1.9	0.95 2	0.72	1.54	0.735	0.705	0.971	1.11	0.903	1.67	13	7.58	14.4	15.2	21.9	31.9	10.5	46.2
naringenin	3.93	3.24	3.08	3.72	2.87	5.49	4.78	4.69	0.439	0.526	0.415	1.56	0.955	0.604	1.09	0.948	1.13	0.867	2.41	1.99	1.85	1.83
taxifolin	81.8	84.8	67.3	149	74.7	195	163	169	10.6	24.5	18.5	18	22.4	19.3	2760	1620	3170	2390	1710	1270	938	1620
dihydrokaempferol	89.2	148	62.2	157	99.5	192	171	202	74.9	141	111	122	141	154	1980	1630	1970	1950	1700	1820	1320	1930
chlorogenic a.	1430 0	2500 0	2340 0	2510 0	2310 0	2490 0	2430 0	2550 0	3010 0	2400 0	2180 0	2790 0	2670 0	1250 0	4590	6820	5140	4210	14500	7620	5780	4140
rutin	73	39.1	66.4	89.9	65.5	77.9	65.1	76.1	113	123	144	115	179	143	599	250	741	517	297	303	288	370

jasmonic a.-leucin conjugate	2.23	0.744	4.73	0.418	1.06	1.05	0.45 2	1.13	1.85	1.15	4.79	0.666	0.113	0.208	7.16	1.14	5.48	9.78	1.45	0.359	0.079 3	0.592
vanillin	27.40 142	17.09 751	19.41 008	23.71 35	59.4 3398	24.1 2538	32.1 1446	50.7 7227	59.06 031	100.5 545	115.6 577	28.01 89	38.41 068	136.0 916	13.93 792	12.86 495	11.04 083	6.794 138	9.560 098	7.244 368	9.061 427	16.85 86
vanillic a.	248.2 87	424.9 343	396.7 804	291.9 636	221. 035	240. 2275	224. 3309	223. 5139	233.8 988	146.2 557	175.9 379	238.0 872	164.7 418	188.1 367	45.29 865	57.22 993	49.75 964	48.35 203	41.89 441	52.63 766	30.48 06	31.71 939
caffeic a.	<LO Q	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q													
syringald ehyde	103.2 951	38.46 54	57.33 774	91.36 63	232. 9066	51.3 3498	80.2 3058	148. 4773	168.1 14	271.4 499	449.2 085	106.0 303	198.1 653	468.7 671	13.50 167	14.97 569	9.805 613	18.86 356	7.902 411	28.72 813	12.27 001	39.93 866
scopoletin	<LO Q	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q													
ferulic a.	<LO Q	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LOQ	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q	<LO Q													
esculin	68.35 255	119.5 748	84.78 154	70.43 083	93.9 1459	69.9 9368	102. 3292	77.3 445	118.0 873	69.02 405	93.14 792	68.31 789	58.30 247	56.20 613	14.39 457	21.23 636	12.52 449	17.27 498	27.47 676	18.42 294	18.00 633	18.82 259
quercetin-3-O-glucoside	28.69 707	69.15 261	44.05 384	43.37 281	43.3 2237	28.6 4779	36.1 0943	47.7 7425	460.7 636	415.2 22	349.3 411	340.1 264	333.1 584	252.5 066	52.96 801	48.41 122	50.46 955	62.66 266	129.3 543	129.2 799	92.37 54	112.0 24
quercetin-4'-O-glucoside	5.995 472	16.19 492	9.849 955	7.801 819	9.94 9464	11.7 8182	11.2 7192	10.4 6593	27.75 936	19.87 113	13.56 135	18.09 939	15.96 974	11.89 677	4.313 561	5.415 462	3.874 94	3.285 185	16.27 575	8.472 209	7.769 003	6.927 124
quercetin-3-O-galactoside	1771. 233	1926. 016	1669. 445	1979. 354	1491 .447	1197 .72	1250 .331	1355 .134	5058. 533	4779. 075	4658. 354	3594. 905	4297. 912	2894. 271	541.5 221	691.9 4	609.5 723	569.4 053	743.1 174	904.9 713	868.1 58	864.6 692
kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside	5885. 599	1174 8.15	5761. 225	5770. 631	6651 .578	4123 .591	3688 .053	4819 .839	8430 1.37	7133 5.45	6866 1.74	6778 5.86	5961 1.98	6395 5.96	1062. 47	3750. 674	1048. 071	2595. 162	2440. 526	2328. 912	1464. 628	1998. 551
isorhamnetin-3-O-rutinoside	378.9 317	545.4 731	413.3 872	442.7 022	461. 1696	317. 8073	300. 1483	355. 3836	2735. 185	1450. 127	1865. 371	2039. 334	1922. 178	1914. 224	100.8 337	131.4 215	78.90 691	130.5 34	190.1 77	160.6 998	139.6 043	169.9 694
quercetin-3,4'-diglucoside	4113. 137	5029. 427	4356. 532	5112. 895	4122 .261	3844 .089	2931 .099	3851 .273	3178. 125	2819. 86	2344. 806	2872. 7	2514. 011	2118. 608	1445. 434	1796. 835	1682. 293	2220. 518	2625. 274	2461. 897	2222. 111	2667. 658
neochlorogenic a.	3550 0	1020 00	6510 0	6200 0	5700 0	5570 0	5620 0	4620 0	1070 00	4580 0	2870 0	5710 0	6530 0	1270 0	1860	4570	1990	1700	9490	2890	4580	1540
cryptochlorogenic a.	3890 0	7150 0	5760 0	5910 0	5630 0	5270 0	5170 0	5640 0	6850 0	5250 0	3840 0	5690 0	4820 0	1820 0	6920	11600	8720	7290	23900	11800	9290	7170
phloridzin	85.56 94	214.2 857	117.4 253	138.9 96	204. 0919	155. 1654	149. 7654	160. 7254	654.3 052	685.9 023	600.4 18	699.5 603	606.9 482	684.3 086	115.3 48	176.5 487	92.78 021	148.0 98	316.8 357	296.7 335	126.7 771	265.7 372

Supplementary Table 7. Browning assay quantification of PPO mutants

Tubers							
Genotype	Désirée Control	Désirée Line 14	Désirée Line 17	Balatoni Rózsa Control	Balatoni Rózsa Line 12	Balatoni Rózsa Line 25	
Mean Intensity	62.956	76.274	132.643	76.872	80.813	91.43	
	74.13	83.618	122.292	94.928	111.384	112.488	
	51.125	89.384	129.052	69.046	107.409	107.942	
Average	62.737	83.092	127.9956667	80.282	99.86866667	103.9533333	
Genotype	Mean	St Dev	% of reduction in browning	Genotype	Mean	St Dev	% of reduction in browning
Désirée Control	62.737	11.5040635		Balatoni Rózsa Control	80.282	13.27367907	
Désirée Line 14	83.092	6.570809083		Balatoni Rózsa Line 12	99.86866667	16.62194274	
Désirée Line 17	127.9956667	5.255728335		Balatoni Rózsa Line 25	103.9533333	11.08115235	
Degree of browning (255-mean intensity)							
	Désirée Control	192.263		Balatoni Rózsa Control	174.718		
	Désirée Line 14	171.908	10.9375	Balatoni Rózsa Line 12	155.1313333		10.91954023
	Désirée Line 17	127.0043333	33.85416667	Balatoni Rózsa Line 25	151.0466667		13.2183908
Roots							
Genotype	Désirée Control	Désirée Line 14	Désirée Line 17	Balatoni Rózsa Control	Balatoni Rózsa Line 12	Balatoni Rózsa Line 25	
Mean Intensity	151	158	163	139	135	149	
Browning (255-mean intensity)	104	97	92	116	120	106	
	Genotype		% of reduction in browning				

Roots browning	Balatoni Rózsa Control	116					
	Balatoni Rózsa Line 12	120	3.005462428	*increase			
	Balatoni Rózsa Line 25	106	8.620689655				
Roots browning	Désirée Control	104					
	Désirée Line 14	97	7.692307692				
	Désirée Line 17	92	11.53846154				

Supplementary Table 8. Foldchange and p-value calculated for the 26 metabolites quantified for the ‘Désirée’ and ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ mutants with respect to their respective controls

Leaves									
Compound	D14Log2FoldChange	D17Log2FoldChange	R12FoldChange	R25FoldChange	Group	D14 pvalue	D17 pvalue	R12 pvalue	R25pvalue
Salicylic acid	0.61377977	0.915923812	0.691788713	-0.94134787	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.3274105	0.0093742	0.0916424	0.0261332
4-Hydroxybenzoic acid	0.29380092	0.723376529	0.562760865	-1.84943054	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.2733607	0.0265724	0.0169939	0.0154104
2,6-Dihydroxybenzoic acid	0.82939071	2.386296914	-0.003056558	-2.62636876	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.0337265	0.0019666	0.9930167	0.0171005
Vanillin	0.3704045	0.658963082	-0.40275917	-0.52683845	phenolic (aromatic) aldehyde	0.1795563	0.0633466	0.4297341	0.0727301
Acetovanillone	0.11855892	1.61740481	0.010033687	-0.60802934	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.6149108	0.0020245	0.9604561	0.0511454
Syringaldehyde	1.18879221	0.473601392	-0.265006263	-0.58634505	phenolic (aromatic) aldehyde	0.002262	0.1507557	0.1745799	0.0579145
Vanillic acid	0.25663663	1.476915929	0.080418682	-2.23054447	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.021266	0.0281194	0.6076769	0.0022391
Caffeic acid	-0.23463398	#DIV/0!	0.098915026	#DIV/0!	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.3800236	#DIV/0!	0.8246438	#DIV/0!
Chlorogenic acid	0.11141259	0.030317813	-1.850595097	0.704888888	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.7440454	0.978687	0.1528631	0.2387453
Cryptochlorogenic acid	0.13922347	0.121284285	-1.355385683	0.786442236	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.6162688	0.9141798	0.0836168	0.15366
Neochlorogenic acid	-0.35572871	-0.001913383	-0.646126363	0.946228744	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.3098934	0.998734	0.5006903	0.1451975
Ferulic acid	0.30572513	0.139099008	-0.938029107	-1.15393183	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.3144653	0.8074474	0.0791872	0.1632773
Ferulic acid isomer	0.26955139	#DIV/0!	-2.352106244	0.358475617	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.5536372	#DIV/0!	0.1190271	0.4761462
Sinapinic acid	-0.38558065	-1.84375806	-0.069092523	#DIV/0!	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.4874978	0.4223686	0.9228158	#DIV/0!
Sinapinic acid isomer	0.10591437	2.08054971	-0.046088507	1.363999198	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.6279972	0.3692486	0.945869	0.0851014
Scopoletin	0.62269515	3.191927043	0.183837802	-3.38695664	coumarins	0.0518905	0.1171922	0.6615076	0.0551284

Fraxin	#DIV/0!	4.619095186	#DIV/0!	#NUM!	coumarins	#DIV/0!	0.2911698	#DIV/0!	0.1803901
Kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside	0.06222031	0.2410081	1.097124349	-1.37265765	flavonol	0.8131255	0.7106749	0.0556362	0.0123728
Isorhamnetin-3-O-rutinoside	1.0148514	0.278642417	0.41241203	-0.95020177	flavonol	0.0417533	0.6184083	0.1722689	0.0605215
Quercetin-3,4'-diglucoside	0.58267386	0.220557475	0.417238945	-2.56798873	flavonol	0.0532924	0.5574184	0.3828361	0.1851249
Dihydrokaempferol	0.13372298	0.579392243	0.902676587	-1.7856716	flavanonol	0.3645335	0.0750793	0.0303129	0.0069581
Taxifolin	-0.32881954	-0.584607026	1.178190616	-0.67755335	flavanonol	0.0409052	0.2545585	0.0345953	0.276127
Phloridzin	0.36682708	0.692203568	0.730929204	-2.14633606	chalcones (dihydrochalcone)	0.0466254	0.0848839	0.0363426	0.0046505
Indole-3-acetic acid	-0.18181514	-0.651320567	-0.260582332	0.057919976	NA	0.2659667	0.2036519	0.5075111	0.7754742
Jasmonic acid	1.05091697	3.527100271	2.464563875	-0.51126847	NA	0.319765	0.0258186	0.0201237	0.4746195
Dihydrophaseic acid	0.25309266	0.638128929	-0.91320437	-0.66110382	isoprenoid	0.2959763	0.1681157	0.3988269	0.1608064
Roots									
Compound	D14Log2FoldChange	D17Log2FoldChange	R12Log2Foldchange	R25Log2FoldChange	Group	pvalue D14	pvalue D17	pvalue R12	pvalue R25
Salicylic acid	0.05069724	0.48566316	-0.554278329	0.267420241	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.8232385	0.0976214	0.214386	0.5155529
4-Hydroxybenzoic acid	-1.52794802	-1.853829352	-0.117857429	0.024798028	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.0117649	0.0093503	0.727828	0.8686127
2,6-Dihydroxybenzoic acid	0	1.109988038	0	0.250795756	phenolic (aromatic) acids	#DIV/0!	0.0559373	#DIV/0!	0.6999277
Acetovanillone	1.30854907	3.002947284	0.023660084	-0.83889162	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.0005892	0.0375602	0.955797	0.3956025
Vanillic acid	0.4668454	-0.897552731	-0.275179836	-1.34940344	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.1195541	0.0101551	0.3267777	0.0887038
p-Coumaric acid	-0.08766441	-0.719864229	-0.10664256	0.455647002	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.5955307	0.0438533	0.6842326	0.0115055
Caffeic acid	1.47446613	#DIV/0!	0.002671658	#DIV/0!	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.0118334	#DIV/0!	0.9899764	#DIV/0!
Chlorogenic acid	1.22686925	0.273856274	0.510405539	-0.40910183	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.0714024	0.5924642	0.1410739	0.3225704
Cryptochlorogenic acid	2.57087204	0.712373606	0.198621729	-0.35282951	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.0737996	0.3435568	0.7147628	0.44559
Neochlorogenic acid	2.42388516	1.354567651	-1.058574826	-0.30842059	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.0863351	0.2343533	0.0053226	0.599059
Coniferyl alcohol	1.29014161	0.860837252	0.11522781	-0.32901119	phenolic (aromatic) alcohol	0.0041417	0.0754856	0.5497948	0.1739586
Sinapinic acid	0.45172195	1.70901098	-0.024825279	0.037303699	phenolic (aromatic) acids	0.252469	0.1036772	0.8489008	0.7819501
Sinapinic acid isomer	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	phenolic (aromatic) acids	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!	#DIV/0!
Esculin	-0.41095632	-0.385371357	0.177738783	0.160323895	coumarins	0.0135493	0.2581282	0.3434316	0.789816
Scopoletin	0.18737587	0.504097498	-0.445770627	0.558513964	coumarins	0.3374712	0.0877134	0.0591181	0.3995069

Kaempferol-3-O-glucoside	0.52270419	1.497738664	-0.090602549	-2.78228211	flavonol	0.1226417	0.134964	0.8752083	0.0023758
Isorhamnetin-3-O-rutinoside	0.41869082	1.628470299	0.366127899	-3.01798575	flavonol	0.0801793	0.0375384	0.2513803	0.0001411
Quercetin-3-O-glucoside	0.5666755	0.340210913	0.20918067	-2.06218428	flavonol	0.0350176	0.3882403	0.5287653	0.1714723
Quercetin-3,4'-diglucoside	0.84357532	0.627783237	0.105810283	-2.40939094	flavonol	0.0034456	0.016397	0.6949642	0.2724203
Rutin	0.46016065	2.866392428	0.53352818	-3.57680837	flavonol	0.0574048	0.1043471	0.337294	0.0122748
Naringenin	0.75932693	0.964538255	-0.29501422	-2.25239243	flavanone	0.0042866	0.0091762	0.4207722	0.0261573
Dihydrokaempferol	0.39627944	3.03562391	-0.303886655	-2.90644109	flavanonol	0.2939689	0.0338505	0.7144111	0.057862
Taxifolin	1.22427152	1.409609455	-0.036355415	-1.76623739	flavanonol	0.0171113	0.0723505	0.9420203	0.0159469
Phloridzin	0.87905639	#DIV/0!	0.626213529	#NUM!	chalcones (dihydrochalcone)	0.038823	0.0239274	0.1492104	0.0672922
Jasmonic acid	1.06457895	#DIV/0!	0.94032075	0.016147423	NA	0.0821698	0.1445542	0.0137553	0.9577098
Phaseic acid	1.31016838	0.971786398	#DIV/0!	0.518811741	isoprenoid	0.0848571	0.0304324	#DIV/0!	0.0366448
Dihydrophaseic acid	0.23099545	1.28824866	-0.424390498	-0.0764507	isoprenoid	0.1091322	0.0161052	0.173861	0.8111994

Supplementary Table 9. Number of wilted plants among *Ralstonia-solanacearum*-infected ‘Désirée’ (at 19 DPI) and ‘Balatoni Rózsa’ (at 13 DPI) potato plants and Bacterial quantification

	Experiment 1			Experiment 2			
Genotype	Désirée Control	Désirée Line 14	Désirée Line 17	Balatoni Rózsa Control	Balatoni Rózsa Line 12	Balatoni Rózsa Line 25	
Total plants	15	15	15	15	15	15	
Wilted plants	6	13	9	2	3	11	
Wilted plants (%)	40	87	60	13	20	73	
	Experiment 1			Experiment 2			
Genotype	Désirée Control	Désirée Line 14	Désirée Line 17	Balatoni Rózsa Control	Balatoni Rózsa Line 12	Balatoni Rózsa Line 25	
Total plants	20	10	20	20	20	20	
Wilted plants	15	10	20	16	13	20	
Wilted plants (%)	75	100	100	80	65	100	
Bacterial quantification (mean gray value) values obtained from ImageJ							
		Ex-1			Ex-1		
Désirée Line 14	5dpi	9dpi	12dpi	Balatoni Rózsa Line 12	5dpi	9dpi	12dpi

1st plate	56.911	161.234	198.901	1st plate	46.818	81.296	53.998
2nd plate	53.529	114.287	192.179	2nd plate	44.332	101.541	98.644
3rd plate	49.389	57.798	138.109	3rd plate	37.651	74.333	39.625
	53.27633333	111.1063333	176.3963333	Avg	42.93366667	85.72333333	64.089
Désirée Line 17	5dpi	9dpi	12dpi	Balatoni Rózsa Line 25	5dpi	9dpi	12dpi
1st plate	62.109	106.601	131.163	1st plate	45.981	103.554	105.554
2nd plate	59.573	84.325	123.612	2nd plate	20.091	95.942	53.528
3rd plate	52.245	63.095	137.927	3rd plate	52.426	86.728	67.837
Avg	57.97566667	84.67366667	130.9006667	Avg	39.49933333	95.408	75.639667
Désirée Control	5dpi	9dpi	12dpi	Balatoni Rózsa Control	5dpi	9dpi	12dpi
1st plate	56.757	68.284	88.412	1st plate	39.401	62.593	67.573
2nd plate	26.2	70.301	112.521	2nd plate	14.087	27.704	35.269
3rd plate	24.203	35.524	88.117	3rd plate	46.388	83.398	100.066
Avg	35.72	58.03633333	96.35	Avg	76.61733333	91.732	100.066
Plotted values							
12dpi	DC	D14	D17	9dpi	BRC	BR12	BR25
1st plate	88.412	198.901	131.163	1st plate	62.593	81.296	103.554
2nd plate	112.521	192.179	123.612	2nd plate	27.704	101.541	95.942
3rd plate	88.117	138.109	137.927	3rd plate	83.398	74.333	86.728
pvalue		0.037926372	0.032304861	pvalue		0.224965574	0.1380737

Supplementary Table 10. Mycelial mat quantification on tubers of *PPO* mutant lines (intensity) by ImageJ

S. no.	Genotype	Area of ROI	Intensity	st Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1	Désirée C	6497	123.197	16.137	72	193
2	Désirée C	6497	108.144	20.439	54	198
3	Désirée C	6497	122.202	23.384	58	220
4	Désirée Line 14	6497	169.334	25.032	88	219
5	Désirée Line 14	6497	161.993	24.216	0	207

6	Désirée Line 14	6497	153.738	23.905	67	200
7	Désirée Line 17	6497	145.429	23.638	78	232
8	Désirée Line 17	6497	119.396	21.214	55	197
9	Désirée Line 17	6497	104.734	15.508	60	178
10	Balotoni Rózsa C	6497	125.008	33.765	35	192
11	Balotoni Rózsa C	6497	132.629	23.072	0	197
12	Balotoni Rózsa Line12	6497	135.565	22.328	69	197
13	Balotoni Rózsa Line12	6497	135.514	28.188	0	188
14	Balotoni Rózsa Line12	6497	123.016	31.291	53	190
15	Balotoni Rózsa Line12	6497	122.016	19.23	63	178
16	Balotoni Rózsa Line25	6497	116.883	38.753	47	199
17	Balotoni Rózsa Line25	6497	122.788	41.289	31	202

Supplementary Table 11A. Predicted miR396 targets in potato

miR NA_ Acc.	miR NA family	Target Ac c.	target gene function annotation	Ex pec tation	UP E	miR NA_s tart	miRNA_ end	Target star t	Target_ end	miRNA_ aligned_f ragment	Target_alig ned_fragm ent	Inhibiti on	Mul tipli city	SPUD DB GeneID	Information from SPUD DB
PotatoMir 1005 7795 50_x 1620 5	miR3 96	PGS C000 3DM T400 0804 55	Endom embran e protein emp70	2.5	12. 235	1	21	359	379	UUCCA CAGCU UUCUU GAACU U	AAGUUU AAGAGA GAUGUG GAG	Cleava ge	1	Soltu.D M.06G0 20520.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 19.5241 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 29.1261 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 18.3671 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 47.924
PotatoMir 1005 7795 50_x 1620 5	miR3 96	PGS C000 3DM T400 0152 50	Multic ystatin	2	16. 618	1	21	1496	1516	UUCCA CAGCU UUCUU GAACU U	AACUUC AAGAAA GUUGUU GAA	Cleava ge	1	Soltu.D M.06G0 28940	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 21.6115 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 9.74438 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 24.429 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 19.6996

PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400006756	Protein disulfide isomerase	1.5	11.115	1	21	1122	1142	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	GACUUC AAGAAA CUUGUG GAA	Translation	1	Soltu.D M.03G035420.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 15.3544 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 21.606 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 21.6509 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 32.316
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400046956	GRIP and coiled-coil domain - containing protein	1.5	12.827	1	21	581	601	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	GAGGUA AAGAAA GCUGUG GAG	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.01G041150.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 29.1422 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 37.0468 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 47.3839 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 55.9774
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400016105	Tospovirus resistance protein A	0	13.345	1	21	1876	1896	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	AUGAUC AAGAAA GCUGUG GAA	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.01G023270.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 0.1262
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400084792	DNA binding protein	0	15.266	1	17	236	252	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGA	UCAAGA AAGCUG UGGAA	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.11G008570.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 0
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400069147	Multicystatin	2	17.724	1	21	400	420	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	AACUUC AAGAAA GUUGUU GAA	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.06G028910	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 4.21636 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 2.55397 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 4.34826 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 2.35919

PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400069145	Multicystatin	2	17.736	1	21	416	436	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	AACUUC AAGAAA GUUGUU GAA	Cleavage	2	Soltu.D M.06G0 28940.5	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 2.52985e-08 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 1.21191e-06
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400049891	DNA binding protein	0.5	24.61	1	21	466	486	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	AGGGUC AAGGAA GCUGUG GAA	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.10G0 05950.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 1.11008 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 1.12396 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 1.09264 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 1.29944
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400006057	Potassium transporter 17	2.5	11.206	1	21	241	261	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	GAGUUU AAGAAA GUUGUG CAA	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.06G0 13620.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 3.85799 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 3.63155 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 5.22392 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 5.85298
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400054175	LRR receptor-like serine/threonine kinase	3	13.706	1	21	199	219	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	GAGUUU AAGAAA GGUGUC GAA	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.02G0 02890.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 4.24479 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 1.57159 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 6.72537 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 3.22415
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400018502	DNA methyltransferase	2.5	16.016	1	21	1408	1428	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	AAGAUC AGGAAA GCUGUC GAG	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.10G0 30090.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 7.87775 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 9.61453 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 10.9964 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 13.0721
PotatoMir1005779550_x16205	miR396	PGSC0003DMT400053146	Transcription factor	3	17.8	1	20	337	356	UUCCACAGCUUUCUUGAACU	AGUUUA AGAGAG UGGUGG AA	Cleavage	1	Soltu.D M.04G0 21690.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 0 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 0.144488 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 0

	miR3 96-3p	PGS C000 3DM G400 0079 99	Nbs- lrr resistan ce protein											Soltu.D M.04G0 34340.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 78.481 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 108.794 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 105.054 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 145.301
	miR3 96-3p	PGS C000 3DM G400 0040 54	TCP- protein											Soltu.D M.06G0 25210.1	SRR2442808 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 0.706333 SRR2442809 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Resistant potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 0.98221 SRR2442810 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato prior to Phytophthora infestans infection 1.22073 SRR2442811 bulk of 8 heterozygous genotypes Susceptible potato one to two days after Phytophthora infestans infection 1.799

Supplementary Table 11B. miRNA and target-specific qPCR primers used for evaluating miR396 influenced gene expression

Gene	Forward primer (5'-3')	Reverse primer (5'-3')	Product size (bp)	Tm (°C)	C (nM)	E
stu-miR396 LS	GCGGCGGTTCCACAGCTTTCTT	ATCCAGTGCAGGGTCCGAGG	67	62	500	1.84
stu-miR396 PS	GCGGCGGTCCAAGAAAGCTGT		66	62	1000	2
stu-miR159a LS	GCGGCGGTTTGGATTGAAGGGA		67	60	2000	1.93
stu-miR159a PS	GCGGCGGTAGATCTTACTTCC		66	no product amplified		
DNA methyltransferase PGSC0003DMT400018502	GCCCCTTTGGAACCTGATGA	ACCTCCTCCCCTTGTGTGAT	69	62	500	1.98
Endomembrane protein emp70 PGSC0003DMT400080455	TCTTTTCCCCTGTCCCTCCT	TGGCGTACCACTCCAGTTTC	57	62	500	1.9
GRIP and coiled-coil domain-containing protein PGSC0003DMT400046956	ACCAAGGAATCTCCCCCTGA	TTCCAGCCTCTGTGTGGAC	98	62	500	1.94
LRR receptor-like serine/threonine-protein kinase PGSC0003DMT400054175	TTACGGCTCAGTTTCTGCGT	CGGGAGAGATCCTGTCAAGG	68	60	500	2
Multicystatin PGSC0003DMT400015250	CGGCAACTGATGATGCTGGA	AGTCCTCCCATTTCTTACCC	162	60	1000	1.96
Multicystatin transcript PGSC0003DMG400026899 PGSC0003DMT400069145	CCAAACCCAAACAGCCCC	ACTCCAAATGAGCATTCTGAAAAG	101	60	500	2

Multicystatin PGSC0003DMG400026899 transcript PGSC0003DMT400069147	TTGTTCCATTCCCAAACAGTCCT	ACAACCTGTTCCCTTCAAATTCAAAAC	124	62?	500	2
Nbs- <i>lrr</i> resistance protein PGSC0003DMG400007999	GAAGGGCTTCCTTTGGCTCT	TGAGACTCGCAGACAGGTTG	116	62	500	2
Potassium transporter 17 PGSC0003DMT400006057	AACTCTAGCTGCCGTGGTTG	TCGAGGGAAGCATCCAAGAG	91	60	500	2
Protein disulfide isomerase PGSC0003DMT400006756	GGGTTCCCGACTTTGCTTCT	GCGGAGAATCCACCAGTGTA	65	62	500	1.99

Supplementary Table 12A. Number of wilted plants among *Ralstonia-solanacearum*-infected ‘Botond’ miR396 potato plants at 15 DPI and Bacterial quantification

	Experiment 1			
Genotype	Botond C	Botond L7	Botond L8	Botond 9
Total plants	10	5	9	9
Wilted plants	8	5	2	2
Wilted plants (%)	80	100	22.22	22.22
	Experiment 2			
Genotype	Botond C	Botond L6	Botond L8	Botond 9
Total plants	18	15	13	21
Wilted plants	16	NA	1	6
Wilted plants (%)	88.88889		7.692308	28.57143
Bacterial Quantification				
Mean fluorescence intensity				
Botond C	miR396/8	miR396/9		
	13.482	14.467	12.64	
	20.599	14.556	9.59	
	23.234	9.584	8.114	

Supplementary Table 12B. Quantification of infected plants among *Ralstonia-solanacearum*-infected ‘Désirée’ miR396 potato plants until 40 DPI

miR396 Line 3 (8 plants)						disease index	mortality rate	396/3 (8 plants) disturbed soil					disease index	mortality rate	
	no sytoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%				no sytoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%			76-100%
	0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR		0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR
7 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	7 dpi	7	0	1	0	0	0.25	0
10 dpi	7	0	1	0	0	0.25	0	10 dpi	6	0	0	2	0	0.75	0
14 dpi	7	0	0	1	0	0.375	0	14 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25
17 dpi	7	0	0	0	1	0.5	12.5	17 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25
19 dpi	6	1	0	0	1	0.625	12.5	19 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25
21 dpi	6	0	0	1	1	0.875	12.5	21 dpi	5	1	0	0	2	1.125	25
24 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	24 dpi	5	0	1	0	2	1.25	25
26 dpi	5	0	1	0	2	1.25	25	26 dpi	5	0	0	1	2	1.375	25
28 dpi	5	0	0	1	2	1.375	25	28 dpi	5	0	0	1	2	1.375	25
32 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	32 dpi	4	0	0	1	3	1.875	37.5
35 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	35 dpi	4	0	0	1	3	1.875	37.5
39 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	39 dpi	4	0	0	0	4	2	50
miR396 Line 6 (8 plants)						disease index	mortality rate	396/6 (8 plants) disturbed soil					disease index	mortality rate	
no sytoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%				no sytoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%			
	0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR		0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR
7 dpi	7	0	1	0	0	0.25	0	7 dpi	7	1	0	0	0	0.125	0
10 dpi	7	0	0	1	0	0.375	0	10 dpi	4	0	2	2	0	1.25	0
14 dpi	5	2	0	0	1	0.75	12.5	14 dpi	4	0	0	2	2	1.75	25
17 dpi	5	0	0	2	1	1.25	12.5	17 dpi	4	0	0	0	4	2	50
19 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	19 dpi	4	0	0	0	4	2	50
21 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	21 dpi	4	0	0	0	4	2	50
24 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	24 dpi	4	0	0	0	4	2	50
26 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	26 dpi	4	0	0	0	4	2	50
28 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	28 dpi	4	0	0	0	4	2	50
32 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	32 dpi	3	0	0	1	4	2.375	50

35 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	35 dpi	2	0	1	0	5	2.75	62.5
39 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5	39 dpi	2	0	0	1	5	2.875	62.5
miR396 Line10 (8 plants)									396/10 (8 plants) disturbed soil						
	no syptoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	disease index	mortality rate		no syptoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	disease index	mortality rate
	0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR		0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR
7 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	7 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
10 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	10 dpi	5	1	2	0	0	0.625	0
14 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	14 dpi	5	0	1	2	0	1	0
17 dpi	7	0	1	0	0	0.25	0	17 dpi	5	0	0	1	2	1.375	25
19 dpi	7	0	1	0	0	0.25	0	19 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5
21 dpi	7	0	0	1	0	0.375	0	21 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5
24 dpi	7	0	0	0	1	0.5	12.5	24 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5
26 dpi	7	0	0	0	1	0.5	12.5	26 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5
28 dpi	7	0	0	0	1	0.5	12.5	28 dpi	5	0	0	0	3	1.5	37.5
32 dpi	6	0	1	0	1	0.75	12.5	32 dpi	3	0	1	1	3	2.125	37.5
35 dpi	6	0	0	1	1	0.875	12.5	35 dpi	3	0	0	0	5	2.5	62.5
39 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	39 dpi	2	0	1	0	5	2.75	62.5
Desiree control (8 plants)									Desiree (8 plants) disturbed soil						
	no syptoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	disease index	mortality rate		no syptoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	disease index	mortality rate
	0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR		0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR
7 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	7 dpi	6	0	2	0	0	0.5	0
10 dpi	7	1	0	0	0	0.125	0	10 dpi	6	0	0	2	0	0.75	0
14 dpi	7	0	0	1	0	0.375	0	14 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25
17 dpi	7	0	0	0	1	0.5	12.5	17 dpi	4	0	2	0	2	1.5	25
19 dpi	7	0	0	0	1	0.5	12.5	19 dpi	3	1	2	0	2	1.625	25
21 dpi	7	0	0	0	1	0.5	12.5	21 dpi	3	0	1	2	2	2	25
24 dpi	6	0	0	1	1	0.875	12.5	24 dpi	2	1	0	1	4	2.5	50
26 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	26 dpi	2	0	1	0	5	2.75	62.5

28 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	28 dpi	2	0	1	0	5	2.75	62.5
32 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	32 dpi	2	0	0	0	6	3	75
35 dpi	5	0	0	1	2	1.375	25	35 dpi	2	0	0	0	6	3	75
39 dpi	3	0	0	1	4	2.375	50	39 dpi	1	0	0	1	6	3.375	75
Calalo Gaspar (8 plants)								CG (8 plants) disturbed soil							
	no syptoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	disease index	mortality rate		no syptoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	disease index	mortality rate
	0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR		0	1	2	3	4	DI	MR
7 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	7 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
10 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	10 dpi	7	0	0	1	0	0.375	0
14 dpi	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	14 dpi	5	1	1	0	1	0.875	12.5
17 dpi	6	0	1	1	0	0.625	0	17 dpi	2	1	0	2	3	2.375	37.5
19 dpi	6	0	1	0	1	0.75	12.5	19 dpi	2	0	1	0	5	2.75	62.5
21 dpi	6	0	0	1	1	0.875	12.5	21 dpi	1	0	2	0	5	3	62.5
24 dpi	6	0	0	1	1	0.875	12.5	24 dpi	2	0	0	0	6	3	75
26 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	26 dpi	2	0	0	0	6	3	75
28 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	28 dpi	2	0	0	0	6	3	75
32 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	32 dpi	1	1	0	0	6	3.125	75
35 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	35 dpi	1	0	1	0	6	3.25	75
39 dpi	6	0	0	0	2	1	25	39 dpi	1	0	0	0	7	3.5	87.5

Supplementary Table 13. Quantification of infected plants among *Ralstonia-solanacearum*-infected *Arabidopsis thaliana* control and sulphate transporter mutants (SULTR1;2 and SULTR3;1) plants until 19 DPI

							disease index	mortality rate
SULTR1;2 (10 plants)								
	no syptoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%			
	0	1	2	3	4			
7 dpi	10					10	0	0
10 dpi	9	1				10	0.1	0
11 dpi	7	3				10	0.3	0

12 dpi	6	1	3			10	0.7	0
13 dpi	5	1	2	2	0	10	1.1	0
17 dpi	4		1	1	4	10	2.1	40
19 dpi	2		2		6	10	2.8	60
							disease index	mortality rate
SULTR3;1								
	no symtoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%			
	0	1	2	3	4			
7 dpi	9			1		10	0.3	0
10 dpi	9				1	10	0.4	10
11 dpi	9				1	10	0.4	10
12 dpi	8	1			1	10	0.5	10
13 dpi	8	1			1	10	0.5	10
17 dpi	8		1		1	10	0.6	10
19 dpi	8			1	1	10	0.7	10
COL-0 (9 plants)								
	no symtoms	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%		disease index	mortality rate
	0	1	2	3	4			
7 dpi	8			1		9	0.3	0.0
10 dpi	3	1	2	2	1	9	1.7	11.1
11 dpi	3		1	2	3	9	2.2	33.3
12 dpi	2		1	2	4	9	2.7	44.4
13 dpi	0		1	2	6	9	3.6	66.7
17 dpi	0			2	7	9	3.8	77.8
19 dpi				1	8	9	3.9	88.9

Supplementary Table 14. Measuring the degree of suberisation in *Arabidopsis thaliana* control and sulphate transporter mutants (SULTR1;2 and SULTR3;1) plants using Lasx software

COL control	Unit	Ch1/R OI 1																			
Number of Pixels in Area	pixel	131494	109438	143178	135864	119336	118258	122353	126552	120001	127782	130746	126307	118796	128676	124814	124814	85755	92058	119336	126307
ROI Area	m ²	3.34E-08	2.78E-08	3.64E-08	3.45E-08	3.03E-08	3.01E-08	3.11E-08	3.22E-08	3.05E-08	3.25E-08	3.32E-08	3.21E-08	3.02E-08	3.27E-08	3.17E-08	3.17E-08	2.18E-08	2.34E-08	3.034E-08	3.21E-08
Mean Intensity		45.487566	32.282991	47.699046	39.775158	69.711328	42.472103	48.927137	60.47748	60.595028	55.74415	46.310036	48.364192	51.212238	50.032516	36.046357	42.428894	42.556609	31.90267	69.711328	48.364192
SULT R1;2	Unit	Ch1/R OI 1																			
Number of Pixels in Area	pixel	127181	135311	125378	130282	140794	110889	101699	102831	99021	93171	117981	110044	113808	98160	117088	116372	100366	96910	88846	97676
ROI Area	m ²	3.23E-08	3.44E-08	3.19E-08	3.31E-08	3.58E-08	2.82E-08	2.59E-08	2.61E-08	2.52E-08	2.37E-08	3.00E-08	2.80E-08	2.89E-08	2.50E-08	2.98E-08	2.96E-08	2.55E-08	2.46E-08	2.26E-08	2.48E-08
Mean Intensity		94.719604	154.10873	102.05159	137.52647	122.5069	119.67522	131.02366	147.2814	129.94649	110.31612	163.77855	177.19749	162.27491	86.265831	79.595253	65.285558	110.31021	111.36373	152.09351	102.50264
SULT R3;1	Unit	Ch1/R OI 1																			
Number of Pixels in Area	pixel	105817	123565	97852	90567	95133	112156	107922	110537	118463	124076	149290	147232	130427	127962	110907	110675	99848	116853	137820	135391
ROI Area	m ²	2.691E-08	3.142E-08	2.488E-08	2.303E-08	2.419E-08	2.852E-08	2.744E-08	2.811E-08	3.012E-08	3.155E-08	3.796E-08	3.744E-08	3.316E-08	3.254E-08	2.82E-08	2.814E-08	2.539E-08	2.971E-08	3.504E-08	3.442E-08
Mean Intensity		111.11123	116.91619	128.18091	122.93169	71.058024	87.362513	110.06298	117.87358	92.553954	108.51778	148.45947	127.53975	129.47941	107.52216	137.83674	134.66924	152.02999	166.55548	151.76625	153.86112

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A4: LIST OF SCIENTIFIC ACTIVITIES

Articles published in peer reviewed scientific journals

- Jose, J., Bánfalvi, Z.** (2019): The role of *GIGANTEA* in flowering and abiotic stress adaptation in plants. *Columella – Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences*, 6(1), 7-18. <https://doi.org/10.18380/SZIE.COLUM.2019.6.1>.
- Jose, J., Éva, C., Bozsó, Z., Hamow, K.Á., Fekete, Z., Fábíán, A., Bánfalvi, Z. and Sági, L.** (2023): Global transcriptome and targeted metabolite analyses of roots reveal different defence mechanisms against *Ralstonia solanacearum* infection in two resistant potato cultivars. *Frontiers in Plant Science* (IF:4.1), 13, 1065419. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2022.1065419>
- Karsai-Rektenwald, F., Odgerel K., Jose J., Bánfalvi Z.** (2022): *In silico* characterization and expression analysis of *GIGANTEA* genes in potato. *Biochemical Genetics*. (IF:2.4) 60(6), 2137-2154. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10528-022-10214-7>
- Odgerel, K., Jose, J., Karsai-Rektenwald, F., Ficzek, G., Gergely, Simon, G., Végvári G., Bánfalvi Z.** (2022): Effects of the repression of *GIGANTEA* gene *StGI.04* on the potato leaf transcriptome and the anthocyanin content of tuber skin. *BMC Plant Biology* (IF:5.3), 22(1):24922-249. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-022-03636-3>

Book Chapter

- Jose, J. and Éva, C.**, 2023. Plant Biotechnology: Its Importance, Contribution to Agriculture and Environment, and Its Future Prospects. *Biotechnology in Environmental Remediation*, pp.9-30. ePDF ISBN: 978-3-527-83904-9

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- Jose, J., Bozsó, Z., Fábíán, A., Éva, C., and Sági, L.** (2024): The *Arabidopsis* sulfate transporter *AtSultr1;2* is a negative regulator of resistance to *Ralstonia solanacearum*. XXX. Növénynevelési Tudományos Napok. Máj. p.104-108. ISBN:978-963-8351-50-0
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- Congress of Plant Pathology 20-25th August 2023, France. In ICPP 2023 Book of abstracts (2023), pp 185-186.
- Jose, J., Sági, L., Crean, L., Danila, F., and Rathjen, J. (2023):** Employing protein-interaction techniques to identify pathogen effectors to better devise targeted genome editing in plants. 4th PlantEd conference, 18th-20th September 2023, Portugal. In COST Action CA18111 Genome Editing in Plants: book of abstracts (2023), p. 67.
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- Jose, J.**, Éva, C., Bánfalvi, Z., Bozsó, Z., Hamow, K.Á., Balázs E., and Sági, L. (2021): Molecular and metabolomic analysis of resistant potato varieties as a way forward to generate resistance to *Ralstonia solanacearum*, at 2nd PlantEd Conference Plant genome editing 20-22 September 2021, Lecce, Italy. ISBN 978-88-8080-475-8. p.39
- Jose, J.**, Éva, C., Bánfalvi, Z., Bozsó, Z., Balázs E., and Sági, L. (2022): Harnessing S-gene candidates for conferring resistance against *Ralstonia solanacearum* in potato. 3rd PlantEd Conference Plant genome editing 5-7 September 2022, Dusseldorf, Germany. COST Action CA18111 "Genome Editing in Plants" Book of Abstracts
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- Jose, J.**, Bozsó, Z., Fábrián, A., Éva, C., and Sági, L. (2024): The *Arabidopsis* sulfate transporter *AtSultr1;2* is a negative regulator of resistance to *Ralstonia solanacearum*. XXX. Növénynevelési Tudományos Napok. Máj. p.104-108. ISBN:978-963-8351-50-0
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