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1	Molecular basis of methyl salicylate-mediated plant airborne defense
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21 Abstract

22 Aphids transmit viruses and are destructive crop pests¹. Aphid-attacked plants 23 release volatile compounds to elicit airborne defense (AD) in neighboring plants²⁻ 24 ⁵. However, the mechanism underlying AD is unknown. Here, we reveal methylsalicylate (MeSA), salicylic-acid (SA)-binding protein-2 (SABP2), transcription 2526 factor NAC2, and SA-carboxylmethyltransferase-1 (SAMT1) form a signaling 27 circuit to mediate AD against aphids and viruses. Airborne MeSA is perceived and 28 converted to SA by SABP2 in neighboring plants. SA then cascades signal transduction to activate the NAC2-SAMT1 module for MeSA biosynthesis to 29 30 induce plant anti-aphid immunity and reduce virus transmission. To counteract, 31 some aphid-transmitted viruses encode helicase-containing proteins to suppress 32 AD by interacting with NAC2 to subcellularly re-localize and destabilize NAC2. 33 Consequently, plants become less aphid-repellent, but more suitable for aphid 34 survival, infestation, and viral transmission. Our findings uncover mechanistic 35 basis of AD and a previously undefined aphid-virus co-evolutionary mutualism, 36 demonstrating AD as a potential bioinspired strategy to control aphids and 37 viruses.

38 Main

Plants have evolved the capacity to sense environmental stimuli and induce changes of metabolism to generate volatile organic compounds (VOCs) as intra/interplant signals^{2,6}. VOCs, once released from 'VOC emitter' plants, can serve as aerial cues and be perceived to elicit defenses in neighboring 'receiver' plants, a phenomenon called airborne defense (AD)²⁻⁵. Such plant-plant communication (PPC) and its biological and
ecological significance have been observed in many species over decades^{2,3}. Very
recently, UDP-arabinosyltransferase is found to be involved in airborne volatile
reception in tomato distal defense against cutworms⁷. However, molecular genetic
framework for the VOC-mediated PPC including AD is largely unknown². Moreover,
with the exception of the receptor for ethylene⁸, the receptors for mediating VOCsensing system in plants have remained unidentified.

50 Aphids are the most destructive agricultural and horticultural pests worldwide¹. They 51 are phloem-feeding and cause extensive destruction to crop production due to their 52 efficient transmission of numerous devastating viral pathogens¹. More than 40% 53 viruses depend on aphids for transmission to infect plants including many food, fruit, and vegetable crops⁹. Aphid-attack induces plant emitting VOCs which are mainly 54 composed of MeSA¹⁰⁻¹³. MeSA has been implicated in plant defense against 55 herbivorous insects including aphids by repelling, attracting predators, or reducing 56 survival fitness of these insects¹⁴⁻¹⁶. MeSA, known as a within-plant and long-distance 57 58 mobile signal, is involved in inducing systemic acquired resistance (SAR) to microbial pathogens and herbivorous insects^{17,18}. During SAR, SA accumulates in pathogen-59 infected cells and is converted to MeSA by SAMT1¹⁹; MeSA then travels to distal 60 61 tissues via the phloem and is subsequently reconverted to SA by SABP2 for SAR in systemic leaves²⁰. Although MeSA as a within-plant signal for SAR is known, how 62 MeSA serves as an interplant communication signal to activate anti-aphid defense in 63 neighboring 'receiver' plants has been a long-standing and unsolved question^{2,10,16}. For 64

65	instance, whether plants possess receptor systems to sense and perceive airborne MeSA
66	is unclear ³ . Mechanism for priming MeSA production during aphid infestation is also
67	not illuminated. Furthermore, it remains to be elucidated whether and how aphids and
68	viruses can regulate AD although MeSA is reported to mediate AD against Tobacco
69	mosaic virus (TMV, a Tobamovirus in the family Virgaviridae) ⁴ . In this study, we have
70	exploited a pathosystem comprising aphid, virus, VOC emitter, and receiver plants to
71	dissect AD. We establish the framework for MeSA mediating AD to suppress insect
72	infestation and virus transmission at molecular and genetic level, and identified an
73	odorant-binding protein (OBP)-like receptor for sensing and perceiving airborne MeSA
74	Further, we found an unexpected viral counterdefense strategy to suppress plant AD,
75	suggesting an undefined ecological and co-evolutionary mutualism between aphids and
76	aphid-transmissible viruses. Moreover, our findings lay the groundbreaking work to
77	provide the detailed mechanism of VOC-triggered PPC and will pave the way for future
78	studies on PPC and plant adaptation to environment.

79 Plant antiviral defense requires NAC2

Following our work on *Cucumber mosaic virus* (CMV), a Cucumovirus in the family *Bromoviridae*²¹, we investigated the role of CMV 1a protein (designated CMV1a
hereafter) in viral pathogenesis. Through conducting immuno-pulldowns coupled with
mass spectrometry, we identified *Nicotiana benthamiana* (*Nb*) transcription factor (TF)
NAC2 as a CMV1a-interactor (Extended Data Fig. 1a). NACs constitute a large plantspecific TF family, some of which participate in regulation of within-plant immunity²².
We searched the *Nb* genome database and found two *NAC2* homologs *NAC2.1* and

87	NAC2.2 that share 96.7% nucleotide identity and should represent two alleles of one
88	gene from different ancestry of allotetraploid Nb. We focused mainly on NAC2.1
89	(designated NAC2 hereafter) for further analyses. The CMV1a-NAC2 interaction was
90	verified by co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP), bimolecular florescence (BiFC), and
91	luciferase complementation imaging (LCI) assay (Extended Data Fig. 1b-d). We
92	evaluated whether NAC2 affects CMV infection in NAC2.1/NAC2.2 double-knockout
93	(KO) mutants (nac2) which were generated by CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing (Extended
94	Data Fig. 2a) versus (vs) wild-type (WT) plants. CMV infection resulted in severer
95	symptom and higher accumulation of viral RNA and coat protein (CP) in nac2 than WT
96	plants (Extended Data Fig. 1e-g). Similar results were also obtained in nac2 vs WT
97	plants infected by GFP-tagged Potato virus Y (PVY-GFP, a Potyvirus in the family
98	Potyviridae) or GFP-tagged TMV (TMV-GFP) (Extended Data Fig. 1h-m). These data
99	suggest that NAC2 is essential for plant antiviral defense.

100 NAC2 mediates AD against aphids via MeSA

101 By serendipity we noticed that many more apterous green peach aphids colonized on 102 nac2 than WT leaves. This unexpected discovery led us to examine the role of NAC2 103 in plant attractiveness to aphids. We performed circular-dish and Y-tube olfactometer 104 bioassays, and found that *nac2* plants attracted more aphids (*Myzus persicae*, Sulzer) 105 than WT plants, likely mediated by an airborne signal(s) (Extended Data Fig. 1n, o). To 106 determine which volatile was alterably generated, we used GC-MS assay to identify 107 volatiles emitted by aphid-attacked WT vs nac2 plants. MeSA was the only constant 108 VOC differentially produced in aphid-attacked WT vs nac2 plants, and more MeSA

109	was emitted by WT than <i>nac2</i> plants after aphid infestation (Extended Data Fig. 2e-h).
110	Consistently, MeSA is a well-documented major or even the only aphid-inducible VOC
111	in certain plant species ¹⁰⁻¹³ . To test whether the effect of $NAC2$ on plant attractiveness
112	to aphid is attributed to MeSA emission, we measured the emission rate of aerial MeSA
113	from aphid-attacked WT plants by GC-MS and found that aerial MeSA was emitted at
114	approx. 34 ng/h (equivalent to 0.816 µg/day) per aphid-attacked WT plant (Extended
115	Data Fig. 2f). Furthermore, we found that the aerial MeSA concentrations in chambers
116	containing either 0.8 μ g MeSA-trapped lanolin paste (MeSA/lanolin) or an aphid-
117	attacked WT plant was similar (Extended Data Fig. 2i, j). Thus, we used 0.8 μg
118	MeSA/lanolin per chamber, which is equal to at approx. 3 nM for the following
119	experiments. After smearing plants with MeSA/lanolin, nac2 and WT plants showed
120	similar attractiveness to aphids (Extended Data Fig. 1p, q). However, when treated with
121	lanolin alone or lanolin with other volatiles such as 3,3-dimethyl-hexane, nac2 plants
122	were more attractive to aphids than WT plants (Extended Data Fig. 1r, s). We also kept
123	nac2 and WT plants under volatile MeSA for 24 hours followed by 2-hour
124	ventilation, and compared how gaseous MeSA would affect plants to attract aphids.
125	Under such conditions, WT plants were more repellent to aphids (Extended Data Fig.
126	1t, u). However, no obvious difference in aphid repellence was observed between <i>nac2</i>
127	plants that were given with and without volatile MeSA followed by ventilation
128	(Extended Data Fig. 1v, w). Further, like that without MeSA treatment, nac2 remained
129	more attractive to aphids than WT plants after volatile MeSA treatment followed by
130	ventilation (Extended Data Fig. 1x, y).

131	To decipher reason(s) behind the intriguing phenomenon (Extended Data Fig. 1t-y), we
132	treated nac2 or WT plants with volatile MeSA for 24 hours followed by ventilation, and
133	then quantified volatized MeSA emitted by MeSA-receiving plants (receivers). WT, but
134	not nac2 plants emitted higher level of airborne MeSA (Fig. 1a, b). We next compared
135	aphid attractiveness in MeSA-receivers vs mock WT plants after smearing all plants
136	with MeSA/lanolin, but found that they showed no difference in aphid preference (Fig.
137	1c, d). Moreover, after smearing both nac2 and WT receivers with MeSA/lanolin, these
138	MeSA-receivers also appeared equally to attract aphids (Fig. 1e, f). We then used aphid-
139	attacked plants as emitters to unravel the role of NAC2 in plant AD under natural open-
140	air environment (Extended Data Fig. 3a). After infestation by aphid sap-sucking, WT
141	plants constantly emitted VOC MeSA (Fig. 1g, h). Intriguingly, nac2 receivers released
142	less volatile MeSA, but exhibited higher attractiveness to aphids than WT receivers
143	when emitters were attacked by aphids (Fig. 1i-l). Besides, WT receivers neighboring
144	aphid-attacked emitters were more repellent to aphids than those neighboring mock
145	emitters, while no significant difference in aphid repellence was found between nac2
146	receivers neighboring mock- and aphid-attacked emitters (Fig. 1m, n). Furthermore,
147	aphid-feeding in emitters reduced aphid survival in WT but not nac2 receivers after 24
148	hours feeding in receivers (Fig. 10, p). These results suggest that once MeSA is
149	perceived, MeSA biosynthesis in neighboring receiver plants is regulated in a NAC2-
150	dependent manner to mediate AD against aphids.

151 NAC2 activates SAMT1 transcription

152 We next set up to dissect the molecular and genetic link between NAC2 and MeSA

153	biosynthesis. As a TF (Extended Data Fig. 3b), NAC2 was found to localize in nucleus
154	(Extended Data Fig. 3c). We then performed RNA-seq and comparative transcriptome
155	analysis in WT and nac2 plants with or without aphid feeding, and identified numerous
156	potential NAC2-regulated differentially expressed genes (Extended Data Fig. 4 and
157	Supplementary Table 1 and 2), of which SAMT1 was of particular interest (Extended
158	Data Fig. 4e). SAMT1 RNA level was lower in nac2 than WT plants, no matter whether
159	these plants were attacked by aphids or not (Supplementary Table 1 and 2). Knowing
160	that SAMT1 converts SA into MeSA ¹⁹ , we quantified SAMT1 transcripts in nac2, HA-
161	NAC2-overexpressing, and WT leaf tissues to assess whether NAC2 transcriptionally
162	modulates SAMT1 expression. Primers used in qRT assays were listed in
163	Supplementary Table 3. SAMT1 mRNA level was substantially reduced in nac2 but
164	increased in HA-NAC2 overexpressing plants compared to WT plants (Extended Data
165	Fig. 3d, e). Moreover, Luciferase reporter assay showed that NAC2 enhanced
166	transcription of reporter genes under the control of the SAMT1 promoter (SAMT1 _{pro}) in
167	vivo (Extended Data Fig. 3f). ChIP-qPCR, yeast-one-hybrid, and electrophoretic
168	mobility shift assay (EMSA) all demonstrated that NAC2 bound to the SAMT1
169	promoter at the putative NAC TF-binding site23 and activated reporter gene
170	transcription (Extended Data Fig. 3g-i). Moreover, transient NAC2 over-expression
171	increased MeSA production in plants (Extended Data Fig. 3j). These results suggest
172	that a NAC2-SAMT1 module involves the regulation of the MeSA biosynthesis in
173	plants.

174 SA-activated NAC2-SAMT1 module elicits AD

175	To investigate if NAC2 affects MeSA production in receivers via activating SAMT1
176	transcription, we evaluated NAC2 and SAMT1 mRNA levels in nac2, NahG, and WT
177	plants with or without airborne volatized MeSA treatment followed by ventilation.
178	Exogenous MeSA dramatically increased SAMT1 and NAC2 mRNAs in WT plants, but
179	did not affect SAMT1 mRNA level in nac2 plants (Fig. 2a, b). Plants can sense MeSA
180	as a within-plant signal and convert intracellular MeSA into SA to elicit intracellular
181	defense ^{17,20} . Considering that MeSA treatment did not change much expression of
182	NAC2 and SAMT1 as well as aphid repellence in NahG plants (Fig. 2a-c), we
183	hypothesized that SA might be the cue to initiate NAC2 expression. To test this
184	hypothesis, we first examined the effect of aphid attack on NAC2 expression and found
185	that NAC2 transcription was upregulated in aphid-attacked plants (Fig. 2d). Then, we
186	examined the effect of aphid attack on SA and MeSA production as well as SAMT1
187	expression in WT vs nac2 plants. In the absence of aphids, lower MeSA accumulated
188	in nac2 than WT plants (Fig. 2f). Upon aphid infestation, SA level increased in both
189	WT and <i>nac2</i> plants to similar extents; however, increases in cellular MeSA and <i>SAMT1</i>
190	expression were only found in WT but not nac2 plants (Fig. 2e-g). Similar results were
191	also found in WT receivers and nac2 receivers neighboring with aphid-attacked plants
192	(Fig. 2h-j). These results suggest that NAC2 is required for aphid-directed induction or
193	aphid-mediated volatile priming of SAMT1 expression and MeSA production.
194	Moreover, externally applied SA upregulated NAC2 and SAMT1 expression in WT
195	plants, whereas did not significantly alter SAMT1 mRNA level in nac2 (Fig. 2k, 1).
196	Exogenous SA also induced stronger MeSA volatilization and aphid repellence in WT
197	than nac2 plants (Fig. 2m-p), and increased the levels of NAC2 and SAMT1 transcripts
198	in SAMT1-KO (samt1) plants (Fig. 2q and Extended Data Fig. 2b, c). In addition, samt1
199	plants were more attractive to aphids whilst externally applied SA failed to induce aphid

200 repellence in *samt1* plants (Fig. 2r-t). Furthermore, volatile MeSA production was 201 compromised in *samt1* plants exposed to aphids-attack (Fig. 3a, b). In further aphid 202 behavior experiments, we uncovered that WT receivers neighboring aphid-attacked WT 203 emitters were more repellent to aphids than those with mock WT emitters, while no 204 significant difference in aphid repellence was found in WT receivers neighboring *nac2* 205 or *samt1* emitters despite whether these emitters were exposed to aphids or not (Fig. 206 3c-e). These results further confirm the role of MeSA as a PPC signal for interplant AD. 207 Collectively, our data demonstrate that SA can activate NAC2-SAMT1 transcription to 208 increase MeSA volatilization in both emitter and receiver plants.

209 As an SA-binding protein, SABP2 can also bind to MeSA and is essential for the 210 conversion of intracellular MeSA into SA^{17,20}. Thus, SABP2 may act as an OBP-like 211 receptor that perceives and converts the volatized MeSA generated from emitters into 212 SA to trigger NAC2-mediated aphid resistance in receivers. To test this idea, we first 213 confirmed that SABP2 bound to SA (Fig. 3f), and then examined whether MeSA could 214 influence the specific SABP2 SA-binding activity in competition binding assays (Fig. 215 3g). We set the SABP2-[³H]SA (50 Ci/mmol) binding capacity in the absence of 216 competitor MeSA as 100%. However, under the same experimental conditions, the 217 binding activity of [³H]SA by SABP2 reduced to approx. 74% and 46% in the presence 218 of 3 nM and 15 nM MeSA, respectively (Fig. 3g). Thus, 3 nM MeSA was sufficient to 219 compete with [³H]SA for binding to SABP2, suggesting that MeSA can bind to SABP2 220 at physiological concentration. We next generated SABP2-KO lines (sabp2) and tested 221 aphid repellence in *sabp2* vs WT receivers with volatized MeSA treatment followed by 222 ventilation. Such volatile MeSA treatment increased aphid repellence and SA 223 biosynthesis in WT but not sabp2 receivers (Fig. 3h-j and Extended Data Fig. 2d). 224 Furthermore, aphid-feeding in WT emitters increased aphid repellence in WT but not sabp2 receivers (Fig. 3k). In addition, after external applications of SA, no difference
in the volatized MeSA amount was found between WT and sabp2 plants, indicating that
SABP2 is not required for MeSA emission (Fig. 3l, m). These results demonstrate that
SABP2 is indeed an OBP-like receptor that perceives and converts airborne MeSA into
SA to elicit NAC2-mediated aphid repellence in receiver plants.

230 SAMT1 is required for plant antiviral defense²⁴. To test if SAMT1 is a component in 231 NAC2-mediated plant antiviral defense. We knocked-down (KD) NAC2 in samt1 to 232 generate nac2/samt1 double-mutant by Tobacco rattle virus (TRV)-based virus-induced 233 gene silencing (VIGS). Like *nac2* mutants, *NAC2*-KD plants (in WT Nb background) 234 showed normal growth and were susceptible to CMV and PVY (Extended Data Fig. 1e-235 j and 5a-e, h-l), suggesting that NAC2-KD by VIGS mimics NAC2-KO. However, 236 nac2/samt1 and samt1 plants showed similar degrees of CMV or PVY infection 237 (Extended Data Fig. 5a-e, h-l). In addition, CMV infection enhanced the intracellular 238 MeSA level in plants (Extended Data Fig. 5f), while NAC2-KD, samt1, and nac2/samt1 239 produced similar amount of MeSA, but all lower than WT plants in systemic leaves 240 during virus infection (Extended Data Fig. 5g). Moreover, we investigated whether and 241 how MeSA are responsible for NAC2-mediated plant antiviral defense by treating *nac2*, 242 sabp2, samt1, and WT plants with external application of either MeSA or SA. 243 Compared to WT, *nac2*, *samt1*, and *sabp2* were more susceptible to CMV and PVY 244 (Fig. 3n, o). However, exogenous MeSA rescued virus hypersusceptibility phenotypes 245 of *nac2* or *samt1* but not *sabp2* plants (Fig. 3n, o), likely due to MeSA conversion into 246 SA in WT, *nac2* and *samt1* but not *sabp2*. On the other hand, external spray of SA 247 rescued virus hypersusceptibility phenotypes of *nac2*, *samt1*, and *sabp2* plants (Fig. 3n, 248 o), consistent with the fact that SA can suppress infection of plants by many viruses 249 including CMV, *Potato virus* X (PVX), and TMV²⁵.

Taken together, our results demonstrate that SA can trigger the NAC2-SAMT1 module to increase *in vivo* MeSA production by activating the NAC2-driven transcription of *SAMT1*. SA converted from perceived MeSA by SABP2 is the cue to elicit AD against aphids and viruses in receiver plants.

254 CMV1a destabilizes NAC2 to suppress AD

255 Aphid-induced PPC and AD may impose some impacts on viral transmission by aphids. 256 To investigate this, we fed CMV-bearing aphids on WT-R/AE, i.e., WT receiver (WT-257 R) plants neighboring virus-free aphid-damaged WT plants as emitters (AE) or WT-258 R/mE, i.e., WT-R plants adjoining non-aphid damaged WT plants as mock emitters 259 (mE), and analyzed the aphid feeding behaviors on these plants by electrical penetration 260 graph (EPG). EPG showed that number of short intracellular punctures (potential drop, 261 pd) of individual aphids, which is responsible for non-persistent aphid-transmission of 262 CMV, was less in WT-R/AE than WT-R/mE plants (Fig. 4a), suggesting that AD 263 reduced aphids to transmit CMV in WT-R/AE plants. Furthermore, we fed WT-R/AE 264 or WT-R/mE plants with viruliferous aphids for 2 hours, removed all aphids from plants 265 afterwards, and tested viral accumulation in these plants 24 hours later. We found that 266 WT-R/AE plants accumulated less CMV than WT-R/mE plants, evidenced by reduction 267 of viral RNA or CP, respectively (Fig. 4b, c). In addition, fewer viruliferous aphids 268 survived in WT-R/AE than WT-R/mE plants that were fed with viruliferous aphids for 269 24 hours (Fig. 4d). These results suggest that PPC elicits AD against aphids (including 270 repellent and survival) and reduces their ability to transmit CMV. We also tested the 271 effect of using CMV-carrying aphids attacked plants as emitters (ACE) on AD, and

272	found that pd number of individual aphids, CMV accumulation, and proportion of
273	living aphids were similar in WT-R/ACE and WT-R/mE plants (Fig. 4e-h). These data
274	suggest that CMV infection can suppress interplant aphid-induced AD. However, the
275	short probing frequency of aphids differs in WT vs CMV-infected plants ²⁶ . By contrast,
276	no difference in short probes frequency is observed in aphid-fed WT vs CMV $\Delta 2b$ -
277	infected plants ²⁶ . Nevertheless, to assure that the effect of CMV infection on aphid-
278	induced AD was not caused by probing frequency difference between virus-free and
279	viruliferous aphids, we conducted EPG experiments and found that the pd number was
280	lower for virus-free than CMV-carrying aphids, but similar for virus-free and CMV $\Delta 2b$ -
281	carrying aphids (Fig. 4i), consistent with the previous report ²⁶ . We then fed WT-R/mE,
282	WT-R/AE, WT-R/ACE, and WT-R/AC Δ E (WT Receiver with WT plants attacked by
283	<u>a</u> phids carrying <u>C</u> MV <u>Δ</u> 2b as <u>e</u> mitters) plants with viruliferous aphids for 2 hours, and
284	tested viral accumulation as well as aphid survival in these plants. We found that AD
285	against aphids and viruses was attenuated in WT-Rs that were positioned nearby either
286	ACE or AC Δ E (Fig. 4j-l). We next investigated if virus infection affects MeSA
287	production in plants. GC-MS analysis revealed that plants fed with CMV-carrying
288	aphids or CMV Δ 2b-carrying aphids emitted less MeSA than plants fed with virus-free
289	aphids (Fig. 4m, n). Taken together, these data suggest that CMV infection can suppress
290	aphid-induced AD for the benefit of aphid survival and virus transmission/infection,
291	likely via a CMV-mediated interference with MeSA production.
292	The CMV1a-NAC2 interplay (Extended Data Fig. 1a-d) suggests that CMV1a might

293 be involved in CMV-mediated suppression of AD. To test this, we first generated

294	transgenic Nb expressing CMV1a (Extended Data Fig. 6a, b) and evaluated the effect
295	of CMV1a on plant attractiveness to aphids and AD. Our circular-dish and Y-tube
296	olfactometer bioassays showed that CMV1a expression caused higher plant
297	attractiveness to aphids (Extended Data Fig. 6c, d). EPG assays revealed that the
298	number of pd of individual aphids was more in CMV1a vs WT plants (Extended Data
299	Fig. 6e). Further, when virus-free aphid-attacked CMV1a plants were used as emitter
300	(1a-AE), AD against aphids and viruses in WT-R was suppressed (Extended Data Fig.
301	6f-h). In addition, WT-R plants nearby non-aphid-attacked WT plants as mock emitters
302	(WT-mE) exhibited higher attractiveness to aphids than WT-Rs adjacent to virus-free
303	aphid-attacked WT plants as emitter (WT-AE), however WT-R plants exhibited similar
304	attractiveness to aphids when non-aphid-attacked or virus-free aphid-attacked
305	transgenic CMV1a plants were used as emitters (1a-mE or 1a-AE) in Y-tube
306	olfactometer bioassays (Extended Data Fig. 6i, j). Moreover, WT-R plants exhibited
307	higher attractiveness to aphids when the emitter was 1a-AE vs WT-AE (Extended Data
308	Fig. 6k). These data imply that CMV1a is involved in CMV-mediated suppression of
309	AD.

To understand the importance of CMV1a-NAC2 interaction in CMV-mediated AD suppression, we identified a key amino-acid in CMV1a responsible for its interaction with NAC2. CMV1a protein consists of an N-terminal methyltransferase and a Cterminal ATP-dependent helicase domain (HD). We found that CMV1a HD is responsible for the CMV1a-NAC2 interaction by LCI (Extended Data Fig. 61). We also modeled the structure of CMV1a-NAC2 complex by AlphaFold-Multimer²⁷ and observed that Glycine (G) at position 983 in CMV1a has the nearest physical proximity
with NAC2, predicting that this residue might be essential for CMV1a to interact with
NAC2 (Extended Data Fig. 6m, n). Indeed, a G983D mutation in CMV1a HD or fulllength CMV1a dramatically impaired the CMV1a-NAC2 interaction in Co-IP or BiFC
assays (Extended Data Fig. 60-q).

321 We next investigated subcellular localization of CMV1a-NAC2 interaction by BiFC 322 and found that CMV1a interacted with NAC2 in both nucleus and cytoplasm (Extended 323 Data Fig. 1c), which is different from NAC2 localization without CMV1a co-324 expression (Extended Data Fig. 3c), suggesting that CMV1a can relocate some NAC2 325 from nucleus to cytoplasm. Consistently, CMV1a-MYC, but neither cLUC-MYC nor 326 CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC, partially caused cytoplasmic localization of RFP-NAC2 and less RFP fluorescence in nucleus (Extended Data Fig. 7a). Notably, CMV1a-MYC did not 327 328 alter RFP nuclear localization, indicating that CMV1a-MYC-directed NAC2 re-329 localization depends on the NAC2-CMV1a interaction (Extended Data Fig. 7b). Further, 330 we investigated the stability of cytoplasmic NAC2 by using nuclear export signal 331 (NES)-tagged NAC2. We found that NES-NAC2 was localized in cytoplasm and 332 subjected to 26S-proteasome system-mediated degradation than WT NAC2 (Extended 333 Data Fig. 7c, d). Moreover, transient CMV1a expression enhanced NAC2 degradation 334 by the 26S-proteasome system but did not affect RFP stability (Extended Data Fig. 7ei), while CMV1a^{G983D} failed to cause NAC2 degradation (Extended Data Fig. 7f-i). 335 Further transient expression assays showed that CMV1a but not CMV1a^{G983D} 336 337 suppressed NAC2-mediated activation of the SAMT1 promoter (Extended Data Fig. 7).

In addition, Y-tube olfactometer bioassays and GC-MS analysis in CMV1a^{G983D} or 338 CMV1a transgenic vs WT plants showed that CMV1a^{G983D} impaired CMV1a-mediated 339 340 plant attractiveness to aphids and suppression of MeSA volatilization (Extended Data 341 Fig. 7k-m). Moreover, when non-aphid-attacked or virus-free aphid-attacked transgenic CMV1a^{G983D} plants were used as emitters (1a^{G983D}-mE or 1a^{G983D}-AE), WT-R plants 342 nearby 1a^{G983D}-mE exhibited higher attractiveness to aphids than WT-R plants adjacent 343 to 1a^{G983D}-AE (Extended Data Fig. 7n). These Y-tube olfactometer bioassays provide 344 345 additional evidence confirming that the amino acid residue G983 is essential for CMV1a to suppress the interplant AD. 346

Taken together, our data suggest that CMV1a interferes with AD by affecting subcellular localization and stability of NAC2 via its direct interaction with NAC2 to impair NAC2-drived *SAMT1* transcription and MeSA production.

350 Some aphid-borne viruses suppress AD

351 CMV1a with methyltransferase and helicase activity, which forms part of the viral 352 replicase complex, interacts with NAC2 through its HD (Extended Data Fig. 1a-d and 353 61-q). We aligned HDs of viral replicases and other HD-containing proteins of multiple 354 plant viruses transmitted by aphids or other vectors. Intriguingly, the HDs from many 355 aphid-transmitted viruses including Potyvirus, Cucumovirus, Luteovirus, and 356 Alfamovirus contain a conserved glycine at position corresponding to CMV1a G983 357 (Extended Data Fig. 8, 9a). We further confirmed that PVY infection affected plant 358 MeSA volatilation after aphid attack. We tested the effect of using virus-free aphids-

359	attacked plants as emitters (AE) on AD against PVY transmission, and found that WT-
360	R/AE plants accumulated less PVY than WT-R/mE plants, evidenced by reduction of
361	viral RNA and CP (Extended Data Fig. 9b, c). Further, GC-MS analysis revealed that
362	plants fed with PVY-carrying aphids emitted less MeSA than plants fed with virus-free
363	aphids (Extended Data Fig. 9d, e). We also tested the effect of using PVY-carrying
364	aphids attacked plants as emitters (APE) on AD, and found that PVY accumulation and
365	proportion of living aphids were similar between WT-R/APE and WT-R/mE plants
366	(Extended Data Fig. 9f-h). Moreover, we showed that two aphid-transmitted viruses
367	CMV and PVY enable to relocate NAC2 from nucleus to cytoplasm (Extended Data
368	Fig. 9i). Similarly, PVY CI, but not CIG347D nor 126KD protein of non-aphid transmitted
369	virus TMV, interacted with NAC2 (Extended Data Fig. 9j, k) and partially impaired
370	nuclear localization of NAC2 (Extended Data Fig. 91). These results reveal that some
371	aphid-transmitted viruses have evolved to deploy HD-containing proteins as a general
372	strategy to interfere with plant AD.

373 **Discussion**

Insect-attacked plants emit VOCs as interplant signals to elicit AD in non-attacked neighboring receiver plants^{11,28-30}. However, it is completely unknown how receiver plants perceive VOCs from neighboring stressed "emitter" plants and activate signal transduction to elicit AD³. In this study, we reveal molecular genetic mechanism underlying AD against aphids in plants.

379 Unlike chewing herbivore attacks, phloem-feeding insects such as aphids avoid or

380 suppress jasmonate (JA)-based defense response, instead, they elicit SA response and

381	increase SA level in attacked plants ^{31,32} . As outlined in our model (Extended Data Fig.
382	10a), NAC2 can be activated by upregulated SA level and directly bind to SAMTI
383	promoter, activating its transcription (Fig. 2k and Extended Data Fig. 3d-i). SAMT1
384	then catalyzes SA to form MeSA ^{19,24} . Consistently, MeSA is a predominant VOC
385	induced by aphid attack in numerous plant species such as bean, chilli, and peach, but
386	it is very low or absent in the VOC emissions induced by beetle attack or artificial
387	wounding ^{10-13,33} . The OBP-like receptor for perceiving airborne MeSA in receiver
388	plants is yet unknown ³ . SABP2 is thought to be a potential receptor for airborne MeSA
389	because it binds to MeSA ^{3,17,20} . However, it has been only reported to operate in the
390	same plants exposed to stress (i.e., within-plant signaling) ³ . We now show that SABP2
391	is an OBP-like receptor for perceiving airborne MeSA from emitter plants and
392	converting MeSA into SA in receiver plants (between-plant signaling) (Fig. 3f-j). Thus,
393	plants may possess an OBP-like receptor-mediated sense system to perceive diverse
394	airborne VOCs3. Because MeSA can mediate resistance to many insects including
395	aphids through attracting their predators or parasitoids in multiple plant species ³⁴⁻³⁸ ,
396	MeSA-perceived plants are also likely to attract aphid parasitoids or predators via
397	volatile MeSA. MeSA-perceived plants repel aphids and reduce aphid survival fitness
398	(Fig. 1m, o and 4d and Extended Data Fig. 1t, u). Thus, NAC2-SAMT1-mediated
399	airborne PPC represents a multifunctional strategy to prevent aphid epidemic
400	infestation.

401 Arabidopsis SA methyltransferase BSMT1 is strongly induced by JA and biotic stress 402 induced MeSA production, therefore severely compromised in JA pathway mutants

403	while SA signaling mutants such as <i>npr1</i> or <i>pad4</i> do not show compromised MeSA
404	emission ³⁹ . This is different to the regulation of <i>NbSAMT1</i> by SA described in this study.
405	Nevertheless, our finding of SAMT1 induction by exogenous SA, intracellular SA upon
406	aphid attack, or aphid-mediated volatile priming via NAC2 in N. benthamiana (Fig. 2a-
407	l and Extended Data Fig. 3d-j) is consistent with that SAMT1 can be induced by SA or
408	insect feeding in <i>Atropa belladonna</i> and rice ^{40,41} as well as in <i>N. alata</i> and <i>N. sylvestris</i> ⁴² .
409	It is possible that diverse species may have evolved distinctive mechanisms to regulate
410	BSMT1 vs SAMT1 expression. MeSA biosynthesis can also respond to environmental
411	biotic and abiotic stresses in a plant species-specific manner.
412	MeSA has been extensively studied as a long-distance mobile signal and shown to be
413	involved in the induction of SAR to viruses and aphids, and herbivore-induced within
414	plants ^{11,12,14,17} . In this study, NAC2-SAMT1 module participates in intra/interplant
415	defense against CMV, PVY, and TMV (Extended Data Fig. 1e-m and 5a-e, h-l). MeSA-
416	mediated AD induces aphid antixenosis and suppresses virus transmission by aphids in
417	neighboring receiver plants (Fig. 4a-d). Hence, the NAC2-SAMT1 module is important
418	not only for plant intra/intercellular antiviral defense but also for AD against aphids and
419	viral transmission among plants. Therefore, we have now unraveled a completely novel
420	role of MeSA in PPC and AD, which is in a NAC2-dependent manner.
421	Elucidation of the molecular insight into AD against aphids and viruses raises an
422	intriguing question on whether and how virus counteracts AD and affects aphid survival
423	in receiver plants. In some cases, virus infection benefits its insect vector in virus-
424	infected plants. For examples, TYLCCNV-encoded β C1 protein suppresses JA pathway

425	or reduces terpene synthase and alters glucosinolate profiles to increase whitefly
426	<i>Bemisia tabaci</i> attraction and performance in virus-infected plants ^{43,44} . CMV 2b protein
427	targets plant JA pathway or alters emission of VOC (not MeSA) to induce attractiveness
428	of virus-infected plants to aphids ^{45,46} . In addition, CMV1a, which influences viral
429	replicase complex assembly and viral systemic movement, prevents CMV 2b-induced
430	anti-aphid resistance (antibiosis), likely via limiting CMV 2b-Argonaute1 interaction ⁴⁷ .
431	Further, CMV 2a stimulates feeding deterrence against aphids ⁴⁸ . Moreover, NIa-Pro
432	encoded by PVY or TuMV increases ethylene production and inhibits callose
433	accumulation to benefit insects in virus-infected plants ^{49,50} . However, there is no report
434	about mechanism underlying pathogen-induced regulation of MeSA-mediated plant
435	AD ² . We now reveal that some aphid-transmitted viruses can suppress MeSA emission
436	in aphid-attacked plants to impair AD against virus infection and aphid infestation in
437	adjacent plants (Fig. 4e-n and Extended Data Fig. 9b-h). This is achieved by the action
438	of the helicase domain-containing protein that suppresses AD through its interaction
439	with NAC2 to partially change the subcellular localization of NAC2 from nucleus to
440	cytoplasm, and to promote the NAC2 degradation via the 26S proteasome to block
441	SAMT1 transcription and subsequent MeSA biosynthesis (Extended Data Fig. 10b).
442	Therefore, some aphid-transmitted viruses have evolved to use helicase domain-
443	containing proteins as a common means to suppress NAC2 transcription function and
444	counteract AD in plants. These findings further suggest that not only viruses can utilize
445	aphids as vector for transmission, but also aphids can in turn exploit viruses to facilitate
446	their surviving and thriving in plants. This unexpected countermeasure reveals an

- 447 undefined ecological and co-evolutionary mutualism between aphids and aphid-
- 448 transmissible viruses (Extended Data Fig. 10).

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588 Figure legends

Fig. 1 | NAC2 regulates MeSA production to mediate PPC-induced aphid resistance.

591 **a**, **b**, GC-MS analysis. WT, but not *nac2* plants emitted higher level of airborne MeSA 592 after MeSA treatment followed by ventilation. c, d, After smearing plants with MeSA-593 containing lanolin, WT and volatile MeSA-treated WT plants exhibited similar 594 attractiveness to aphids in circular-dish (c) or Y-tube olfactometer (d) bioassays. e, f, 595 Once smearing plants with MeSA-containing lanolin, volatile MeSA-treated WT and 596 nac2 plants exhibited similar attractiveness to aphids in circular-dish (e) or Y-tube 597 olfactometer (f) bioassays. g-j, GC-MS analysis. Aphid sap-sucking caused the attacked 598 WT emitter plants to volatilize MeSA (g, h). When aphid-attacked WT plants were used 599 as emitters (AE), their WT receivers (WT-R) volatilize more MeSA than nac2 receivers 600 (*nac2*-R) (i, j). k, l, *nac2*-R (AE) plants exhibited higher attractiveness to aphids than 601 WT-R (AE) plants in circular-dish (k) or Y-tube olfactometer (l) bioassays. m, n, WT-602 R (AE) plants were more repelled by aphids than those neighboring mock emitter plants 603 (m), while no significant difference in aphid repellence between *nac2* receivers 604 neighboring mock- and aphid-attacked emitter plants (n) in Y-tube olfactometer 605 bioassays. **o**, **p**, Proportion of living aphids in WT-R (**o**) or *nac2*-R (**p**) plants with 606 aphid-attacked WT plants as emitters (AE) or non-aphid-attacked WT plants as mock 607 emitters (mE). Numerals shown inside each bar present number of choice-making 608 aphids. **b**, **h**, **j**, Two-sided Student's *t*-test, *n*=3 biologically independent samples. **o**, **p**, 609 One-way ANOVA with least significant difference (LSD), n=4 biologically 610 independent samples; letters A-B represent statistically different groups (P < 0.05). Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.; n.s., no statistical significance. **c-f**, **k-n**, χ^2 test (df = 1). 611 612 All P values are shown in figure. Experiments were repeated at least three times with 613 similar results.

Fig. 2 | NAC2 is required for SA-directed enhancement of MeSA volatilization.

615 **a**, **b**, *NAC2* (or its deletion mutant) or *SAMT1* mRNA levels in WT, *nac2*, and *NahG* 616 plants with or without volatile MeSA treatment. c, Volatile MeSA treatment induced 617 aphid repellence in WT, but not NahG plants in Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. d, NAC2 618 expression was enhanced in aphid-attacked WT plants. e-g, Free SA (e), MeSA (f), and 619 SAMT1 expression (g) in WT or nac2 plants upon aphid attacks. h-j, Free SA (h), MeSA 620 (i), and SAMT1 expression (j) in WT or nac2 receivers neighboring aphid-attacked WT 621 emitters or mock WT emitters. **k**, **l**, *NAC2* or *SAMT1* expression in *nac2* and WT plants 622 with or without SA treatment. **m**, **n**, GC-MS analysis of volatized MeSA in WT or *nac2* 623 plants treated with SA for 24 hours. o, p, SA treatment induced aphid repellence in WT (o), but not nac2 (p) plants in Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. q, NAC2 or SAMT1 624 625 expression in samt1 plants with or without SA treatment. r, samt1 plants exhibited 626 higher attractiveness to aphids than WT plants in Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. s, t, 627 SA treatment induced aphid repellence in WT (s), but not *samt1* (t) plants in Y-tube 628 olfactometer bioassays. a, b, d, g, j-l, n, q, Two-sided Student's t-test. e, f, h, i, One-629 way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test; letters A-C represent statistically 630 different groups (P < 0.05). a, b, d-h, j-l, n, q, n=3 biologically independent samples. i, 631 n=4 biologically independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.; n.s., no statistical significance. c, o, p, r-t, χ^2 test (df = 1). P values are shown in a-d, g, j-l, n-t; P values 632 for e, f, h, i are shown in the Source Data. Experiments were repeated at least three 633 times with similar results. 634

Fig.3 | The conversion between MeSA and SA is required for NAC2-mediated AD against aphids and plant defense against viruses.

a, b, Volatile MeSA production was compromised in *samt1* plants exposed to aphidsattack by GC-MS analysis. c-e, WT receivers neighboring aphid-attacked WT emitters
were more repellent to aphids than those with mock WT emitters (c), while no
significant difference in aphid repellence in WT receivers neighboring *nac2* (d) or *samt1* (e) emitters exposed to aphids or not in Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. f, SAbinding activity of purified SABP2 protein. g, SA competition binding assays with 0,

643 3, 15 nM MeSA. Binding activity of [³H]SA to SABP2 in the presence of 3 nM or 15 644 nM MeSA were calculated against the baselevel. h, sabp2 showed no abnormal 645 developmental phenotypes. i, Volatile MeSA treatment induced aphid repellence in WT 646 plants, but not in sabp2 plants in Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. j, Volatile MeSA 647 treatment increased free SA amount in WT, but not sabp2 plants. k, WT receivers with non-aphid-attacked WT plants as mock emitters (WT-mE) exhibited higher 648 649 attractiveness than those with virus-free aphid-attacked WT plants as emitters (WT-AE), 650 but not for sabp2 receivers in Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. **I, m,** GC-MS assays. No 651 difference in the volatized MeSA amount was seen between WT and sabp2 plants after 652 SA treatment. n, o, MeSA treatment rescued virus hypersusceptibility phenotypes of 653 nac2 or samt1 but not sabp2 plants, whilst SA treatment rescued virus 654 hypersusceptibility phenotypes of *nac2*, *samt1* and *sabp2* plants. **b**, **g**, **j**, **m-o**, Two-655 sided Student's t-test. b, f, m-o, n=3 biologically independent samples. g, j, n=4 656 biologically independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.; n.s., no statistical significance. c-e, i, k, χ^2 test (df = 1). All P values are shown in figure. Experiments 657 658 were repeated at least three times with similar results.

659 Fig. 4 | CMV1a suppresses AD.

660 a, EPG analysis showed the pd number in aphid feeding was less in WT receivers (WT-661 R) with virus-free aphid-attacked WT plants as emitters (AE) than WT receivers with 662 non-aphid-attacked WT plants as mock emitters (mE) when receivers were fed with 663 CMV-carrying aphids. n=21 individual aphids. **b-d**, CMV RNA (b), CP (c) or 664 proportion of living aphids (d) in WT-R (mE) and WT-R (AE) plants. e, The pd number 665 was similar between WT-R (mE) and WT-R plants with CMV-carrying aphids-attacked 666 plants as emitter (ACE) when these receivers were fed with CMV-carrying aphids. n=20 667 individual aphids. f-h, CMV RNA (f), CP (g) or proportion of living aphids (h) is 668 similar between WT-R (mE) and WT-R (ACE) plants. i, The pd number of virus-free 669 aphids was lower than that of CMV-carrying aphids, but similar to that of CMVA2b-670 carrying aphids. n=19 individual aphids. j-l, CMV RNA (j), CP (k) or proportion of 671 living aphids (1) in WT-R plants with mE, AE, ACE, or CMV $\Delta 2b$ -carrying aphid672 attacked WT plants as emitters (AC Δ E). **m**, **n**, GC-MS analysis of volatized MeSA in 673 WT plants fed with virus-free aphids, CMV-carrying aphids, or CMV $\Delta 2b$ -carrying 674 aphids for 3 days. **a**, **b**, **e**, **f**, **i**, **j**, **n**, Two-sided Student's *t*-test. **d**, **h**, One-way ANOVA 675 with LSD. I, One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test; letters A-B 676 represent statistically different groups (P < 0.05). **b**, **d**, **f**, **h**, **j**, **l**, **n**, n=3 biologically 677 independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.; n.s., no statistical significance. P 678 values are shown in **a**, **b**, **d**-**f**, **h**-**j**, **n**; *P* values for **l** are shown in the Source Data. In box 679 plots (a, e, i), the centre line represents the median, box edges delimit bottom and top 680 quartiles and whiskers show the highest and lowest data points. Experiments were 681 repeated at least three times with similar results.

682 Methods

683 Plant Materials and Growth Conditions

684 Nicotiana benthamiana (Nb) was used as wild-type (WT) plant. NahG lines were 685 transgenic Nb plants expressing bacterial NahG which encodes SA-degrading enzyme salicylate hydroxylase⁵¹. Transgenic CMV1a, CMV1 a^{G983D} lines are Nb lines 686 overexpressing CMV1a or CMV1a^{G983D} with C-terminal fusion to a MYC tag. The 687 688 nac2, samt1, and sabp2 were NbNAC2.1/2.2, NbSAMT1, and NbSABP2-edited KO 689 mutant Nb lines, respectively. All seeds were surface-sterilized and cultivated on MS 690 medium (Murashige and Skoog medium, Sigma-Aldrich), grown at 26°C with a 16 h/8 691 h light/dark photoperiod. 10-day-old seedlings were then planted in soil and grown with 692 the same photoperiod.

693 Generation of Transgenic Plants

The MYC-tagged full-length CMV1*a* and CMV1 a^{G983D} genes under the CaMV 35S promoter were cloned into pCambia1300-based binary vector via the ligationindependent cloning strategy. All constructs were verified by DNA sequencing and transformed into *Agrobacterium* GV2260. To generate transgenic plants, leaf discs were

698	plated on MS medium in 100 mm petri dish (704001, NEST Biotechnology) with 0.1
699	mg/mL NAA (N8010, Solarbio), 1.0 mg/mL 6-BA (IB0100, Solarbio), 0.2 mg/mL
700	Timentin and 0.025 mg/mL Hygromycin B (400052, Merck Millipore) for callus, shoot,
701	and root regeneration. Western blot assays were used to select the T2 generation
702	transgenic lines of 35S: CMV1a-MYC and 35S: CMV1a ^{G983D} -MYC plants, and selected
703	transgenic plants were then used for aphid attraction bioassays and GC-MS analysis.
704	The Cas9-edited knockout lines were generated as described ⁵² . Briefly, the fragment
705	containing single sgRNA (NAC2_LacZ/AtU3d-sgRNA, SABP2_LacZ/AtU3d-sgRNA)
706	or two sgRNAs (SAMT1_LacZ/AtU3d-sgRNA1-At3b-sgRNA2) were cloned into
707	pYLCRISPR/Cas9-DH to generate pYLCRISPR/Cas9-DH-NAC2,
708	pYLCRISPR/Cas9-DH-SABP2, and pYLCRISPR/Cas9-DH-SAMT1. The sgRNA
709	sequence is listed in Supplementary Table 3. The editing target site of transgenic plant
710	DNA sequence was characterized by PCR sequencing to select homozygous transgenic
711	lines. PCR amplification was conducted using 2×T5 Super PCR Mix (TSE005, Beijing
712	Tsingke Biotech). Progenies of homozygous nac2, sabp2, and samt1 lines showed no
713	developmental phenotype.

714 MeSA supplement treatment – Lanolin smear assay

⁷¹⁵ 0.8 μg pure MeSA chemical (M6752, Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in lanolin paste

- 716 (S5106, Selleck). Plants for MeSA supplement treatment were smeared with MeSA-
- 717 containing lanolin on the stems or leaf vein. MeSA-containing lanolin would release
- 718 quantitative volatile MeSA continuously and constantly^{53,54}.

719 **MeSA supplement treatment – Airborne assay**

720 0.8 μg pure MeSA was dissolved in lanolin paste. Lanolin containing 0.8 μg MeSA was

then smeared onto the surface of filter paper and the filter paper was placed in a 2 L

volume gas tight glass chamber. Plants for airborne MeSA supplement treatment were
placed in these chambers separately to perceive volatile MeSA (each chamber contains
one plant) for 24 hours, and then transferred from chambers to open-air area for
ventilation for 2 hours before further experiments as described⁵⁵.

726 Exogeneous SA supply treatment

Solutions of $50 \mu M SA (S5922, Sigma-Aldrich)$ were used for plant treatments. 4-weekold seedlings were cultured in pots in a greenhouse and sprayed with the SA solutions.

729 Aphid choice bioassay: Y-tube olfactometer assay

730 Wingless *M. persicae* aphids were isolated from *Nb* plants and starved for 2 hours 731 before testing. Plants grown in soil for 4 weeks were used. The experimental procedure 732 and equipment were used as described⁴⁶. For pair-wise comparison of aphid 733 attractiveness, plants in different groups were separately placed into two chambers, 734 which were connected by the two arms of a glass Y-tube. The glass Y-tube was 1.0 cm 735 in inner diameter and 6 cm in arm length. A humidified continuous air flow purified by 736 activated charcoal flowed through the chambers at 200 mL/min, then flowed into the 737 arms of the Y-tube.

In each experiment, an individual aphid was placed at the end of the Y-tube stem.
Aphids walked upwind toward the arms and made its choice. Once the aphid entered
one arm and walked up to 3 cm away from the Y-junction, their choice would be marked.
To avoid any unknown asymmetry in the setup, the plant-containing chambers were
switched after every 10 tests, and the Y-tube and plants were replaced after 20 tests.
The used Y-tubes were cleaned by ethanol and ddH₂O before reuse. The same number

of aphids were used for each group in each experiment. All experiments were
 independently repeated at least 3 times.

746 Aphid choice bioassay: Petri disc assay

747 Choice test for *M. persicae* was performed with detached leaves from 4 to 5-week-old 748 Nb in plastic petri dishes (15 cm diameter) following a previously described procedure⁵⁶. 749 Two leaves with similar leaf position and size from experimental group plants and 750 control group plants were detached and placed in petri dishes, with their petioles 751 inserted in moistened cotton swabs. Twenty wingless adult aphids were released at the 752 midpoint between pairs of leaves, and the aphids on each leaf were counted at 24 hours 753 after their release in the petri dishes. The same number of aphids were used for each 754 group in each experiment. All experiments were independently repeated at least three 755 times.

756 Interplant communication assays

757 Experimental plants were served as "emitters" or "receivers" respectively. The emitter 758 and receiver plants were placed on two trays at a distance of 30 cm from each other in 759 an open-air experimental set-up for interplant communication assays. Each emitter was 760 fed with fifty virus-free or viruliferous M. persicae aphids or no aphids, then the 761 emitters and receivers were incubated in same cage made by gauze. After 3 days, the 762 receiver plants were taken out for further experiments. Viruliferous *M. persicae* aphids 763 were obtained from aphids which were fed on CMV, CMVA2b, or PVY-GFP-infected 764 plants for 1 hour before the pre-acquisition starvation period (2 hours).

765 Aphid survival and virus-transmission analysis

To measure the effect of plant airborne defense on aphid fitness in neighboring receiver

767 plants, the experimental group receiver plants and mock receiver plants were fed with 768 the same number of wingless adult *M. persicae*. After 24 hours, numbers of alive aphids 769 on each host plant were counted. To measure the influence of airborne defense on aphid-770 mediated virus-transmission in neighbor receiver plants, the experimental group 771 receiver plants and control receiver plants were fed with the same number of 772 viruliferous adult aphids (carrying CMV or PVY) for 2 hours as described⁵⁷, then aphids 773 were removed, 24 hours later, aphid-sucked leaves were taken to measure viral infection. 774 All experiments were conducted at least three times.

775 EPG analysis of aphid feeding behavior

Giga-8 EPG amplifier (Wageningen University, Wageningen, Netherlands) was used to study feeding behavior of *M. persicae* on plants as described⁵⁸. The amplifier with eight channels simultaneously recorded eight individual aphids on separate plants for 2 hours in accordance with the inoculation access period (IAP) in viral transmission experiment. The EPG waveforms of short intracellular punctures (potential drop, pd) were analyzed during 2 hours of aphid feeding with the software "Stylet + a".

782 Measurement of plant endogenous free SA amount

Free SA was extracted and measured as described⁵⁹. Briefly, 0.2 g leave tissue was homogenized in 1 mL of ethyl acetate containing 10 ng of SA-d6, and vortexed for 10 min followed by centrifuging at 18000g at 4 °C for 20 min. Supernatants were collected and evaporated to dry by a vacuum concentrator at 30 °C. 200 μ L of MeOH: H₂O (70:30, v/v) was added to resuspend the residues by centrifuging at 18000g for 10 min. The collection of supernatants was analyzed by a high-performance liquid chromatographytandem mass spectrometry system (QTRAP 4500, AB Sciex).

790 Measurement of plant endogenous MeSA

MeSA was extracted and measured by Suzhou Michy Biomedical Technology Co., Ltd. Briefly, frozen leaf tissues (150 mg) was homogenized with 200 μ L of extraction buffer (water/1-propanol/HCl = 1:2:0.005). The homogenate was added 500 μ L of methylene chloride and shaken thoroughly, then centrifuged at 18800g for phase separation. Aliquots of the supernatants were separated by a gas chromatography (GC) system.

796 Volatile MeSA measurement by GC-MS analysis

797 VOCs emitted by plants were collected by a static-headspace sampling device with a 798 solid-phase microextraction (SPME) fibre (PDMS/DVB, 65 µm) coated with 799 polydimethylsiloxane/divinylbenzene (57345-U, Supelco) as described¹³. Each sample 800 was enclosed in a 1.5-L glass container for 120 min, then the SPME fibre was extended 801 into the headspace to collect volatiles for 30 min. After collection of volatile substances, 802 the SPME fibre was inserted directly into a thermal desorption gas chromatograph-mass 803 spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bermen, Germany). The volatiles bound to the 804 fibre were desorbed for 2 min. A Thermo Scientific Trace 1300 gas chromatograph 805 equipped with a Thermo Scientific Q-Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer (GC-806 Orbitrap-MS, Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany) was used for HRMS quantitative 807 analysis. The split-splitless injection port was held at 250°C for desorpting volatiles in 808 split mode at a split ratio of 1:10. The oven temperature program was set as: 60 °C held 809 for 2 min, then increased to 280°C at 20°C/min and held for 2 min.

810 Mass Spectrometry Analysis

811 Protein extracts were immunoprecipitated by MYC-Trap beads (M20012L, Abmart)

and the mixture was incubated at 4°C for 3 hours. The precipitated samples were washed 5 times with Co-IP buffer, and immunoprecipites were then separated by 10% SDS-PAGE. The gel was silver stained and gel-embedded protein samples were digested and LC-MS/MS analyzed.

816 Yeast One Hybrid (Y1H) Assay

817 The full-length cDNA sequence of NAC2 was fused in frame with the GAL4 activation 818 domain in pGADT7-Rec2 (Clontech). The fusion construct was co-transformed with 819 the reporter vector (pHIS2-cis/promoter of SAMT1) into Y187 yeast cells (Clontech). 820 The empty vector pGADT7-Rec2 and the pHIS2-cis/35S promoter were co-821 transformed as the negative controls. Co-transformed yeast strain Y187 were spotted 822 on selective media (minus (-) His, Leu and Trp) contained 0.5, 1, or 2 mM 3-AT. Images 823 were taken after 3 days incubation at 28°C. All experiments were repeated at least three 824 times.

Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) and firefly luciferase complementation imaging (LCI) assays

827 BiFC and LCI assays were conducted as described⁶⁰. For BiFC assay, the full-length cDNA sequences of NAC2, CMV1a, CMV1a^{G983D}, PVYCI, PVYCI^{G347D}, and 828 829 TMV126KD were cloned into the binary cYFP or nYFP vector by ligation-independent 830 cloning technique. Primer pairs for making these constructs were made by Beijing 831 Tsingke Biotech Co., Ltd. and are listed in Supplementary Table 3. These gene 832 sequences were PCR-amplified by M5 Magic High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (MF740, 833 Mei5Bio) from plant cDNA or virus vector. The Mut Express II Fast Mutagenesis Kit 834 V2 (C214-01, Vazyme) was used to construct mutants. PCR products were purified by HiPure Gel Pure DNA Mini Kit (D2111-02, Magen, China). The YFP fluorescence 835

836 signal for each combination was detected by an inverted confocal microscope (Leica 837 SP8) at 48 hpi. Confocal images were analyzed with Leica LAS X (3.3). Anti-GFP 838 (ab290, Abcam) or anti-Rabbit (HA1001, HUABIO) antibodies were used at a 1:3000 839 dilution for immunoblot analysis. For LCI assays, the full-length cDNA sequences of 840 CMV1a, CMV1a-H, CMV1a-M, and NAC2 were cloned into nLUC vector and cLUC 841 vector by ligation-independent cloning assay. The luciferase substrate (luciferin) was 842 smeared onto the surface of leaves and the luciferase activity was captured with a 843 PlantView100 assay system (BLT PHOTON TECHNOLOGY). All experiments were 844 independently repeated at least three times.

845 **Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) Assay**

The constructs were transiently co-expressed with indicated combinations in Nb leaves. 846 847 At 48 hpi, the leaves were taken for protein extraction. Protein extracts were 848 immunoprecipitated by RFP-Trap beads (rtma, ChromoTek) in Co-IP buffer [50 mM 849 Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5% NP-40, 5 mM 850 DTT, 1 mM PMSF and protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)]. The mixture was incubated 851 for 3 hours at 4°C. The immunoprecipites were then denatured by $2 \times \text{protein loading}$ 852 buffer contains β-mercaptoethanol (JS0150, Hong Kong JSENB International Trading 853 Co., Ltd) and separated in a 10% SDS-PAGE gel (M00664, GenScript) followed by 854 immunoblot analysis. Anti-MYC (M20002M, Abmart), anti-Mouse (AS003, ABclonal), 855 anti-RFP (5f8-100, ChromoTek), or anti-Rat (AS028, ABclonal) antibodies were used 856 at a 1:3000 dilution for immunoblot analysis. StarSignal Chemiluminescent Assay Kit 857 (E171-01, GenStar) was used for signal detection. All experiments were repeated three 858 times and generated similar results.

859 RNA-seq Analysis

860 RNAs extracted from 5-week-old WT and *nac2* plants (without any treatment) were 861 used for RNA-seq analysis. To examine the expression profiles of the WT and nac2 862 plants in response to aphids-attack, RNAs extracted from 3-week-old WT and nac2 863 plants (2 days post aphid-infestation) were used for RNA-seq analysis. RNA-seq was 864 performed by Biomarker Technologies (www.biomarker.com.cn). Raw data were 865 processed by Illumina NovaSeq 6000 sequencer (2×150 bp read length) and aligned 866 to Nb reference genome (https://solgenomics.net/). Differential expression genes (DEGs) were identified according to the transcripts per million reads (TPM) 867 $(\log_2(\text{foldchange}) \ge 1 \text{ or } \le -1 \text{ and } P \le 0.05)$. Furthermore, Gene Ontology (GO, 868 869 http://www.geneontology.org) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG, 870 http://www.genome.jp/kegg/) were performed to identify DEGs that were significantly 871 enriched in GO terms and KEGG pathways.

872 Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA)

GST and GST-NAC2 proteins were purified by Glutathione Sepharose 4B (GE Healthcare) affinity chromatography and eluted by 10 mM GSH followed by size exclusion chromatography (Superdex 200 10/300, GE Healthcare). Oligonucleotide probes were labeled with the biotin by RUIBIO Technology Company. DdH2O was purified by Milli Q (Merck) water purification system. Chemiluminescent EMSA Kit (GS009, Beyotime) was used for EMSA. The detailed protocol was described²¹. EMSA experiments were repeated at least three times.

880 Quantitative Real-Time PCR (qRT-PCR)

Total RNA was extracted with TransZol reagent (TransGen Biotech) and retained in 1.5

882 mL sterile centrifugal tube (HRK-150-TP, Beijing Huaruikang Technology Co., Ltd.). 883 Then 5 µg of RNA was reverse-transcribed into cDNA with TransScript One-Step gDNA Removal and cDNA Synthesis SuperMix (AT311-02, TransGen Biotech). qRT-884 PCR was performed with Hieff® qPCR SYBR Green Master Mix (11201ES08, 885 886 YEASEN). Data was normalized to ACTIN expression by the cycle threshold (CT) 2- $\Delta\Delta^{CT}$ method as described⁶¹ and analyzed by Prism9 software (Graphpad). All 887 888 experiments were repeated at least three times. Primers used for qRT-PCR are listed in 889 Supplementary Table 3. Data are represented as mean \pm s.d.

890 Virus infection and analysis of viral RNA and protein

891 For testing the effect of NAC2 on virus infection, nac2 and Nb plants were grown in soil for 3-4 weeks and infected with CMV⁶², PVY-GFP⁶³, or TMV-GFP through agro-892 893 infiltration. Viral symptoms were photographed at 6 days post-inoculation (dpi) for CMV and TMV-GFP, 7 dpi for PVY-GFP. For performing virus infection in silenced 894 895 plants, 20-day-old WT or *samt1* plants were first agro-infiltrated with TRV-NAC2 or 896 TRV, and the upper leaves were then infected with CMV or PVY-GFP at 14 days after 897 VIGS treatment. Viral symptoms were photographically recorded at 7 dpi for CMV and PVY-GFP. Anti-CMV (CMV21-A, Alpha diagnostic international), anti-PVY 898 899 (POTY11-A, Alpha diagnostic international), anti-TMV (TMV11-A, Alpha diagnostic 900 international), anti-Rabbit (HA1001, HUABIO), or anti-Goat (BE0103, EASYBIO) 901 antibodies were used at a 1:3000 dilution for immunoblot analysis.

For testing whether and how MeSA is responsible for NAC2-mediated plant antiviral defense. *nac2*, *samt1*, *sabp2*, and *Nb* plants were grown in soil for 3-4 weeks, and plants were sprayed with control or solutions of 500 μ M SA or MeSA a daily for 3 days prior to infection with CMV or PVY-GFP as described^{64,65}. Systemic leaves were taken for viral infection analysis at 6 or 7 dpi.

907 Chromatin immunoprecipitation-quantitative (ChIP-qPCR)

908 ChIP-qPCR was performed following the published protocol with minor 909 modifications⁶⁶. Nb leaves over-expressing HA-NAC2 or HA-nLUC were collected 910 and chromatin isolated from 2 g of frozen leaf tissue was sonicated with a Bioruptor sonicator for 6 min. SimpleChIP® Plus Kit (9005S, CST) was used to perform the 911 912 experiment. Enrichment of promoter DNA was measured using the % input method by 913 qRT-PCR analysis as described⁶⁷. Amplification of ACTIN2 promoter sequence served 914 as the negative control. Primers for the ChIP-qPCR assays are listed in Supplementary 915 Table 3. ChIP-qPCR experiments were repeated for three times and all showed similar 916 results.

917 Semi-In Vivo and In Vivo Protein Degradation

For chemical treatments, MG132 (C2211, Sigma), cycloheximide (CHX) (HY-12320, MedChemExpress), and ATP (IA1310, Solarbio) were used. MG132 and CHX were dissolved in DMSO and used at a concentration of 100 μ M. ATP was used at the concentration of 10 mM.

922 For semi-*in vivo* protein degradation analysis, Nb leaves over-expressing CMV1a-MYC, CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC, RFP-NAC2, or cLUC-MYC were collected after 2 days 923 924 post-infiltration. The proteins were respectively extracted with extraction buffer (50 925 mM Tris-MES pH 8.0, 0.5 M sucrose, 1 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM EDTA, 5 mM DTT, protease inhibitor cocktail) as described⁶⁸. For analysis of NAC2 degradation by the 926 927 26S proteasome, the plant extract harboring RFP-NAC2 was mixed with chemicals 928 containing CHX, then the extract was split equally into two tubes, one tube was added 929 into ATP, the other was added equal volume of extraction buffer. Two tubes were 930 incubated in the Eppendorf Thermomixer at 25°C, and extracts were respectively 931 removed from two tubes as samples at different time points. For analysis of CMV1amediated promotion of NAC2 protein degradation via the ubiquitin-proteasome
pathway, the RFP-NAC2 extract was mixed with CMV1a-MYC, CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC,
or cLUC-MYC extracts in a ratio of 1:1 before incubation. ATP and CHX together with
MG132 or DMSO were added to the prepared leaf extracts. The samples were collected
at different time points.

For *in vivo* analysis of NAC2 or NES-NAC2 protein degradation by the 26S proteasome,
RFP-NAC2 or RFP-NES-NAC2 were transiently expressed in *Nb* leaves for 60 h. Then,
the agro-inoculated leaves were treatment with MG132 or an equal volume of DMSO
control solution for 12 hours before sampling. For *in vivo* analysis of NAC2 protein
degradation promoted by CMV1a, RFP-NAC2 were co-expressed with CMV1a-MYC,
CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC, or cLUC-MYC respectively for 60 hours before MG132 treatment
for 12 hours.

944 SA-MeSA competition binding assay

[³H]SA binding of SABP2 was performed as described with modifications^{20,69}. The 945 946 GST-SABP2 proteins were expressed in E. coli and purified. The size exclusion 947 columns were prepared by adding 0.13 g of sephadex G-25 (GE healthcare) to QIAGEN 948 shredder columns. The columns were preequilibrated with reaction buffer (50 mM Tris-949 HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.5) containing 0.1% Tween-20 overnight at 4°C, and excess 950 buffer was removed by spinning at 735 g for 2 min. The GST-SABP2 proteins were 951 respectively incubated with 10 nM, 20 nM, 50 nM, and 100 nM [³H]SA (50 Ci/mmol) 952 in reaction buffer on ice for 1 hour, and then loaded to the columns and centrifuged 953 immediately as above. The flow-through was collected and the radioactivity was 954 measured with 2 ml Ultima GoldTM AB Cocktails (PerkinElmer) by a scintillation 955 counter (MicroBeta2; PerkinElmer). For SA-MeSA competition binding experiments, 956 the GST-SABP2 proteins were incubated with 50 nM [³H]SA in the presence of 0 nM,

957 3 nM or 15 nM MeSA on ice for 1 hour. Binding activity of [³H]SA (50 Ci/mmol) by
958 SABP2 in the absence of competitor MeSA was set to 100%, and binding activity of
959 [³H]SA by SABP2 with 3 nM or 15 nM MeSA was calculated along with comparison.
960 GraphPad Prism 9.0 was used to construct nonlinear binding model of Michaelis961 Menten equation.

962 Alignment of helicase domain

Sequences of viral helicase domain-containing proteins were retrieved from Uniprot
(https://www.uniprot.org/). Multiple sequence alignments of proteins were done in
Jalview using Mafft (L-INS-i method) (http://www.jalview.org/About).

966 Statistical analysis

967 Statistical significance was determined by two-sided Student's t-test or one-way 968 ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test for multiple groups (\geq 3) of data. For aphid attraction bioassays, data were statistically analyzed using the χ^2 test. For 969 970 analyzing aphid survival portion in two groups, data were statistically analyzed using 971 one-way ANOVA with least significant difference (LSD). Statistical analysis was 972 performed with GraphPad Prism 9.0 or IBM SPSS Statistics 26. Detailed statistical 973 analyses are explained in figure legends, and P values are indicated in figures or Source 974 Data. The chromatographic (TIC) data of each sample was exported by The Xcalibur 975 4.1 software. Graphics were drawn by GraphPad Prism 9.0 software. For quantification 976 analysis of blots, the intensities of bands were quantified with ImageJ software.

977 **Reporting summary**

Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting
Summary linked to this article.

980 Data availability

981	All data and materials needed to replicate the work are available. NAC2.1
982	(Niben101Scf01481g02006), NAC2.2 (Niben101Scf07152g04032), SAMT1
983	(Niben101Scf05122g00005), and SABP2 (Niben101Scf00034g00012) from Nicotiana
984	benthamiana genome database (https://solgenomics.net/). RNA-seq raw data have been
985	deposited in National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under Bioproject
986	PRJNA851626 (WT), PRJNA851854 (nac2), PRJNA955195 (WT-aphid), and
987	PRJNA955395 (nac2-aphid). Original data in graphs are shown in Source data files and
988	uncropped gel and immunoblotting images are shown in Supplementary Figure 1.
989	Source data are provided with this paper.

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1058 Author contributions

Y.L. conceived the research. Q.G., Y.J.W., and Y.L. designed all experiments. Q.G.
and Y.J.W. performed all aphid choice bioassays, SA-MeSA competition binding
experiments, semi-*in vivo* and *in vivo* protein degradation experiments, ChIP-qPCR,
EMSA, GC-MS analysis experiments, virus infection and analysis of viral RNA and
protein experiments, and aphid survival as well as virus-transmission analysis. Y.J.W.,
L.H. and F.H. performed BiFC, Y1H and LCI experiments. Y.J.W., D.Z., Y.W., and
X.W. generate transgenic plants. Q.G., L.L., and F.C. performed EPG analysis. Y.J.W.,

- 1066 H.M., and H.D. performed Mass Spectrometry analysis. Q.G., Y.J.W., Y.H., and Y.L.
- 1067 analyzed data, wrote paper with input from all authors.

1068 **Competing interests**

1069 The authors declare no competing interests.

1070 Extended data are available for this paper

1071 Extended Data Figs. 1-10

1072 Additional information

1073 Supplementary Table 1-3

1074 Extended data figures

1075 Extended Data Fig. 1 | NAC2 interacts with CMV1a and is required for plant 1076 antiviral defense and MeSA mediated aphid repellence.

a, Representative LC-MS/MS spectrum of peptides in NAC2 protein. A peptide 1077 1078 (AGIAQDAFVLCR) is shown. b-d, Confirmation of the CMV1a-NAC2 interaction. 1079 In Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assay (b), cLUC-MYC or CMV1a-MYC was co-1080 expressed with RFP-NAC2 in Nb leaves and analyzed 2 days post-infiltration (dpi). 1081 Both Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) (c) and firefly luciferase 1082 complementation imaging (LCI) assays (d) further confirmed CMV1a-NAC2 1083 interaction in Nb leaves. Scale bar = $25 \mu m$. e-g, Viral symptoms in WT and nac2 plants 1084 infected with CMV at 6 dpi (e), and the relative accumulation of CMV RNA (f) or CP 1085 (g) in CMV-infected systemic leaves of WT or *nac2* plants. **h-j**, Viral symptoms in WT 1086 and nac2 plants infected with PVY-GFP at 7 dpi (h), and the accumulation of PVY 1087 RNA (i) or CP (j) in PVY-GFP infected systemic leaves of WT or *nac2* plants. k-m, 1088 Viral symptoms in WT and *nac2* plants infected with TMV-GFP at 6 dpi (k), and the 1089 relative accumulation of TMV RNA (I) or CP (m) in TMV-GFP infected systemic 1090 leaves of WT or *nac2* plants. **n**, **o**, *nac2* plants exhibited higher attractiveness to aphids 1091 than WT plants in circular-dish (n) or Y-tube olfactometer bioassays (o). Numerals shown inside each bar present number of choice-making aphids. p, q, nac2 plants 1092 1093 smeared with MeSA containing lanolin exhibited similar attractiveness to aphids with 1094 WT plants under same treatment in circular-dish bioassay (**p**) or Y-tube olfactometer 1095 bioassays (q). r, s, nac2 plants smeared with lanolin alone or with 3,3-dimethyl-hexane 1096 containing lanolin exhibited higher attractiveness to aphids than WT plants under same 1097 treatment in circular-dish (r) or Y-tube olfactometer bioassays (s). t, u, Volatile MeSA 1098 treatment caused WT plants more repellent to aphids in circular-dish bioassay (t) or Y-1099 tube olfactometer bioassays (u). v, w, No significant difference in aphid repellence 1100 between nac2 plants with and without volatile MeSA treatment in circular-dish (v) or 1101 Y-tube olfactometer (w) bioassays. x, y, After volatile MeSA treatment followed by 1102 ventilation, *nac2* plants showed higher attractiveness to aphids than WT plants in 1103 circular-dish (x) or Y-tube olfactometer (y) bioassays. f, i, l, Two-sided Student's t-test, *n*=3 biologically independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.. **n**-y, χ^2 test (df = 1104 1). All P values are shown in figure. Experiments were repeated at least three times 1105 1106 with similar results.

1107 Extended Data Fig. 2 | GC-MS analysis of VOCs emitted from WT and *nac2*1108 plants.

a-d, Direct sequencing of PCR product containing targeted sites in CRISPR/Cas9-1109 1110 edited knockout *nac2*, *samt1*, and *sabp2* homozygous plants. The rectangular area 1111 indicates the start positions at or from which the mutations occurred. It is worth 1112 mentioning that there is only one SAMT1 or SABP2 copy in N.benthamiana genome 1113 although Nb is allotetraploid. e, GC-MS analysis of VOCs emitted from WT and nac2 1114 plants after 48 h aphid feeding. Wet weight per plant was 1.10 g on average. 1115 Identifications based on retention indices and GC-MS: (1) oxalic acid, allyl hexyl ester; 1116 (2) bicyclo[3.1.0]hex-2-ene, 2-methyl-5-(1-methylethyl)-; (3) benzene, 1,2,3-1117 trimethyl-; (4) 6-methyl heptanoate; (5) butyl pyruvate; (6) benzene, 1,2,3,5-1118 tetramethyl-; (7) methyl salicylate; (8) tridecane, 4-methyl-; (9) 3,3-dimethyl-hexane; 1119 (10) Cyclohexasiloxane, dodecamethyl-; (11) bicyclo[3.1.1]heptane, 6,6-dimethyl-31120 methylene-; (12) heptane, 2,2,3,3,5,6,6-heptamethyl-; (13) heptane, 2,3,6-trimethyl-; 1121 (14) 2,2,4-Trimethyl-1,3-pentanediol diisobutyrate; (15) phenol, 2,6-bis(1,1-1122 dimethylethyl)-4-(1-methylpropyl)-. f, The mean amounts of volatile MeSA collected 1123 from the aphid-attacked plants in GC-MS analysis. g, h, Mass spectrum of putative 1124 MeSA produced by plants (g) and the authentic MeSA standard (h). i, j, Comparison of 1125 the aerial MeSA concentrations in chambers containing either MeSA dissolved lanolin paste or aphid attacked WT plants by GC-MS analysis. Experiments were repeated at 1126 1127 least three times with similar results.

1128 Extended Data Fig. 3 | NAC2 binds to SAMT1 promoter to activate its 1129 transcription.

1130 a, Emitter and receiver plants were placed on two trays at a distance of 30 cm from each 1131 other in an interplant communication assay set-up in open-air environment. Each 1132 emitter was fed with fifty virus-free or viruliferous *M. persicae* aphids or no aphids 1133 before the emitters and receivers were incubated in same cage (100 cm \times 70 cm \times 1134 70 cm) made by gauze. After 3 days, the receiver plants were taken out for further 1135 experiments. **b**, NbNAC2 and AtNAC2 share similar conserved motifs. **c**, RFP-tagged 1136 NAC2 showed nuclear localization, scale bar = $20 \,\mu m. d$, e, qRT-PCR quantification of 1137 relative SAMT1 mRNA levels in nac2 and WT plants (d) or leaves transiently over-1138 expressing HA-NAC2 and HA-nLUC (e). f, Transient expression assays. NAC2 1139 activates luciferase reporter gene transcription under the control of the SAMT1 promoter 1140 (SAMT1pro) in Nb leaves. Photograph was taken at 48 hours post-infiltration (hpi). g, 1141 In planta ChIP-qPCR. HA-NAC2, but not HA-nLUC, specifically binds to the SAMT1 1142 promoter DNA. Chromatin from plants expressing HA-nLUC or HA-NAC2 were 1143 immunoprecipitated and amplified with promoter-specific primers. h, Yeast one-hybrid 1144 assay. Yeast cells were co-transformed with an effector vector containing the SAMT1pro 1145 cloned into pHis2 vector and a prey vector encoding NAC2 cloned into pGADT7. i, In 1146 vitro EMSA. Hot probe is the biotin-labeled NAC2-binding motif DNA of SAMT1pro, cold probe or cold mutant probe is the unlabeled NAC2-binding motif DNA of 1147 1148 SAMT1pro or its mutant DNA. j, Transient over-expression of NAC2 increases MeSA production in plants, the samples were collected at 48 hpi. **d**, **e**, **g**, **j**, Two-sided Student's *t*-test, n=3 biologically independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.; n.s., no statistical significance. All *P* values are shown in figure. Experiments were repeated at least three times with similar results.

1153 Extended Data Fig. 4 | RNA-seq transcriptome analysis of WT and *nac2* plants.

1154 a, Comparison of WT and nac2 plants (without any treatment) RNA-seq sequences on the reference genome. The Phred quality score Q20 (99% base call accuracy) and Q30 1155 1156 (99.9% base call accuracy) were used to measure the quality of RNA sequencing. b, 1157 Hierarchical clustered heat map of 90 differential expressed genes (DEGs, 24-up genes 1158 and 66-down genes) based on the log₂ (fold change) in transcript levels of WT and nac2 1159 plants. c, Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway analysis of 90 1160 DEGs in (b), the module with the most enriched genes is "metabolism" (green color, 1161 marked by red font). **d**, Gene ontology (GO) analysis of 90 DEGs in (**b**), the "biological 1162 process" module (green color) with the most enriched genes is "metabolism process" 1163 (marked by red font). e, Phylogenetic analysis of SAMT1 proteins from various plant 1164 species. NtSAMT1, Nicotiana tabacum SAMT1 (GenBank ID: FJ015052); SISAMT1, 1165 Solanum lycopersicum SAMT1 (GenBank ID: NM 001247880); AtBSMT1, 1166 Arabidopsis thaliana BSMT1 (Tair ID: AT3G11480); AtGAMT1 (Tair ID: 1167 AT4G26420); AtIAMT1 (Tair ID: AT5G55250). f, Comparison of WT (aphid) and nac2 1168 (aphid) plants (under aphid attack) RNA-seq sequences on the reference genome. g, 1169 Hierarchical clustered heat map of 157 DEGs (100-up genes and 57-down genes) based 1170 on the log₂(fold change) in transcript levels of WT (aphid) and *nac2* (aphid) plants. h, 1171 KEGG pathway analysis of 157 DEGs in (g), the module with the most enriched genes 1172 is "metabolism" (green color, marked by red font). i, GO analysis of 157 DEGs in (g), 1173 the "biological process" module (green color) with the most enriched genes is 1174 "metabolism process" (marked by red font). All DEGs were identified according to the 1175 transcripts per million reads (TPM) (log₂ (foldchange) \geq 1 or \leq -1 and $P \leq 0.05$).

1176 Extended Data Fig. 5 | NAC2 regulates SAMT1 to fulfill anti-CMV and PVY

1177 **function.**

1178 **a-e**, Analysis of antiviral role of *NAC2* and *SAMT1* during CMV infection in *nac2*, 1179 samt1, or nac2/samt1 double mutants. Viral symptoms (a), relative NAC2 mRNA levels 1180 in NAC2-silenced WT (b) or NAC2-silenced samt l plants (c), the accumulation of CMV 1181 RNA (d) or CP protein (e), and plant endogenous MeSA amount (f, g) of WT, nac2, 1182 samt1, or nac2/samt1 double mutant plants infected with CMV. h-l, Analysis of antiviral role of NAC2 and SAMT1 during PVY-GFP infection in nac2, samt1, or 1183 nac2/samt1 double mutants. Viral symptom (h), relative NAC2 mRNA levels in NAC2-1184 silenced WT (i) or NAC2-silenced samt1 plants (j), PVY RNA accumulation (k) or PVY 1185 CP (1) of nac2, samt1, or nac2/samt1 double mutant plants infected with PVY-GFP. 1186 1187 Plants in panels (a and h) were photographed at 7 days post-inoculation (dpi). NAC2-1188 knockdown (KD) was triggered by VIGS vector TRV-NAC2 to mimic nac2 mutant while TRV was used as negative control in these experiments. b-d, f, g, i-k, Two-sided 1189 1190 Student's *t*-test, n=3 biologically independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.. 1191 All P values are shown in figure. Experiments were repeated at least three times with 1192 similar results.

1193 Extended Data Fig. 6 | CMV1a suppresses MeSA-mediated AD, and CMV1a^{G983D}

1194 impairs its interaction with NAC2.

a, Transgenic CMV1*a*-MYC or CMV1*a*^{G983D}-MYC expression Nb plant showed normal 1195 growth and development. **b**, CMV1a-MYC and CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC were detected in 1196 1197 transgenic plants by western blot. Rubisco was used as loading control. c, d, Transgenic 1198 CMV1a plants exhibited higher attractiveness to aphids than WT plants in circular-dish 1199 (c) or Y-tube olfactometer (d) bioassays. e, EPG analysis showed that the number of pd 1200 of individual aphids was more in CMV1a plants than WT plants. n=19 individual 1201 aphids. **f-h**, Accumulation of CMV RNA (**f**), CP (**g**) or proportion of living aphids (**h**) 1202 in CMV-carrying aphid-attacked leaves of WT receivers (WT-R) with non-aphid-1203 attacked WT plants as mock emitters (WT-mE), virus-free aphid-attacked WT plants as 1204 emitters (WT-AE), non-aphid-attacked transgenic CMV1a plants as mock emitters (1a-1205 mE), or virus-free aphid-attacked transgenic CMV1a plants as emitters (1a-AE). i, j, 1206 WT-R (WT-mE) plants exhibited higher attractiveness than WT-R (WT-AE) plants (i),

1207 but WT-R plants showed similar attractiveness to aphids when non-aphid-attacked or 1208 virus-free aphid-attacked CMV1a plants were used as emitters (1a-mE or 1a-AE) (i) in 1209 Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. k, WT-R plants nearby virus-free aphid-attacked 1210 CMV1a plants as emitters (1a-AE) exhibited higher attractiveness to WT-R plants close to virus-free aphid-attacked WT plants as emitters (WT-AE). I, LCI assay to show that 1211 1212 CMV1a helicase domain (1a-H), but not methyltransferase domain (1a-M), interacts with NAC2. m, AlphaFold-Multimer predicted CMV1a-H-NAC2 interacting complex 1213 (parameters: "MMseqs2" and "AlphaFold2-Multimer-v2" pattern). Colours are given 1214 1215 based on AlphaFold-Multimer-calculated prediction score: pLDDT. Protein structures 1216 with scores over 90 are represented in blue (very high confidence of prediction); scores between 70 and 90 in light blue (high confidence); scores between 50 and 70 in yellow 1217 1218 (low), and anything below 50 in orange (very low confidence of prediction). **n**, Red and 1219 blue indicate the CMV1a-H and NAC2, respectively. The stick model represents the 1220 potential interacting site between 1a-H and NAC2, this region is predicted with a high 1221 confidence score. o, Co-IP assay to show that G983D mutation in CMV1a helicase domain impairs the 1a helicase domain-NAC2 interaction. p, q, Co-IP assay (p) and 1222 BiFC assay (q) to show that CMV1a^{G983D} failed to interact with NAC2 in Nb. Scale bar 1223 1224 = 25 μ m. e, f, Two-sided Student's *t*-test. h, One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test; letters A-B represent statistically different groups (P < 0.05). **f**, **h**, n=31225 1226 biologically independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.; n.s., no statistical significance. c, d, i-k, γ^2 test (df = 1). P values are shown in c-f, i-k; adjusted P values 1227 for **h** are shown in the Source Data. In box plot (e), the centre line represents the median, 1228 1229 box edges delimit bottom and top quartiles and whiskers show the highest and lowest 1230 data points. Experiments were repeated at least three times with similar results.

Extended Data Fig. 7 | CMV1a re-localizes and degrades NAC2 by 26S proteasome system, and CMV1a^{G983D} possesses a weakened aphid repellence.

1233 **a,** CMV1a but not CMV1a^{G983D} partially changed NAC2 localization from nucleus to

- 1234 cytoplasm. **b**, CMV1a did not alter subcellular localization of RFP. **c**, **d**, Nuclear exit
- signal-tagged RFP-NAC2 (NES-NAC2) changed NAC2 localization to cytoplasm (c)

1236 and enhanced 26S-proteasome system-dependent degradation (d). Scale bar = $25 \mu m$ 1237 in panels (a-c). e, Immunoblot assay of RFP protein levels. f, Immunoblots to show cLUC-MYC, CMV1a-MYC, and CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC protein levels with anti-MYC 1238 1239 antibody. g, In vivo assay showing effects of MG132 and the CMV1a-NAC2 interaction 1240 on NAC2 protein stability. 100 µM MG132 or an equal volume of DMSO (negative 1241 control) was infiltrated into leaves transiently co-expressing RFP-NAC2 with CMV1a-MYC, CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC, or cLUC-MYC for 12 hours before harvesting. h, Semi-in 1242 vivo assay to show that NAC2 protein stability is ATP-dependent. NAC2 protein levels 1243 1244 were analyzed with anti-RFP antibody at different times following 100 µM CHX 1245 treatment in the presence or absence of 10 mM ATP. i, Semi-in vivo assay to show that MG132 inhibits CMV1a-promoted NAC2 degradation. RFP-NAC2, cLUC-MYC, 1246 CMV1a-MYC, or CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC was transiently expressed in Nb leaves and 1247 1248 extracted respectively. NAC2 degradation was performed as below: The RFP-NAC2 protein extract was mixed with the cLUC-MYC, CMV1a-MYC, or CMV1a^{G983D}-MYC 1249 1250 extracts in a 1:1 volume of 100 μ M CHX and 10 mM ATP, in the presence of 100 μ M MG132 or an equal volume of control DMSO. j, Effect of CMV1a on expression of 1251 1252 luciferase reporter gene driven by the SAMT1 promoter (SAMT1pro). Transient expression assays in Nb leaves to show that CMV1a but not CMV1a^{G983D} suppressed 1253 NAC2-mediated activation of the SAMT1 promoter. Photographs were taken at 48 hpi. 1254 **k**, Transgenic plants expressing CMV1a, but not CMV1 a^{G983D} , exhibited higher 1255 attractiveness to aphids than WT plants in Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. l, m, GC-MS 1256 analysis to show that transgenic plants expressing CMV1a, but not CMV1a^{G983D}, 1257 emitted less volatized MeSA than WT plants once they were fed with virus-free aphids 1258 1259 for 3 days. n, WT-R (WT-mE) plants exhibited higher attractiveness than WT-R (WT-1260 AE) plants, WT-R plants showed similar attractiveness to aphids when non-aphid-1261 attacked or virus-free aphid-attacked CMV1a-expressing plants were used as emitters (1a-mE or 1a-AE), whilst WT-R (1a^{G983D}-mE) plants exhibited higher attractiveness 1262 than WT-R (1a^{G983D}-AE) plants in Y-tube olfactometer bioassays. m, Two-sided 1263 Student's *t*-test, n=3 biologically independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.; 1264

- 1265 n.s., no statistical significance. **k**, **n**, χ^2 test (df = 1). All *P* values are shown in figure.
- 1266 Experiments were repeated at least three times with similar results.

1267 Extended Data Fig. 8 | Alignment of helicase domain from aphid and non-aphid 1268 transmitted viruses.

1269 BCMNV, Bean common mosaic necrosis virus (Uniprot ID: Q65399); BYMV, Bean 1270 yellow mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: P17765); MDMV, Maize dwarf mosaic virus (Uniprot 1271 ID: J7II85); PPV, Plum pox potyvirus (Uniprot ID: P13529); PRSV, Papaya ringspot 1272 virus (Uniprot ID: A0A1L2DBW1); PVY, Potato virus Y (Uniprot ID: A0A5J6BDG4); 1273 PeMV, Pepper mottle virus (Uniprot ID: Q01500); PVMV, Pepper veinal mottle virus 1274 (Uniprot ID: A0A6J4A295); SCMV, Sugarcane mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: 1275 A0A0K0Y0R3); SMV, Soybean mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: Q90069); TEV, Tobacco 1276 etch virus (Uniprot ID: P04517); TuMV, Turnip mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: Q9ICI2); TVBMV, Tobacco vein banding mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: F5A3N8); ZYMV, Zucchini 1277 1278 yellow mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: P18479); CLV, Carnation latent virus (Uniprot ID: 1279 A0A858Z687); CMV, Cucumber mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: P17769); PSV, Peanut 1280 stunt virus (Uniprot ID: P28726); TAV, Tomato aspermy virus (Uniprot ID: P28931); 1281 BYDV, Barley yellow dwarf virus (Uniprot ID: P29044); SbDV, Soybean dwarf virus 1282 (Uniprot ID: A0A6M8PRM6); AMV, Alfalfa mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: P03589); PEBV, 1283 Pea early browning virus (Uniprot ID: Q9WJD8); TRV, Tobacco rattle virus (Uniprot 1284 ID: Q9J942); PVX, Potato virus X (Uniprot ID: A0A7H1C8Y4); TMV, Tobacco mosaic 1285 virus (Uniprot ID: P03586); TYMV, Turnip yellow mosaic virus (Uniprot ID: P10358).

1286 Extended Data Fig. 9 | PVY suppresses plant AD by CI-NAC2 interaction.

a, Alignment of helicase domain from multiple aphid- and non-aphid- transmitted viruses. Asterisk (*) indicates that the Glycine (G) amino acid residue is conserved among listed aphid-transmitted viruses. **b**, **c**, Accumulation of PVY RNA (**b**) or CP (**c**) in PVY-carrying aphid-attacked leaves of WT receivers (WT-R) with virus-free aphidattacked WT plants as emitters (AE) or with non-aphid-attacked WT plants as mock emitters (mE) when these receiver plants were fed with PVY-containing aphids. **d**, **e**, 1293 GC-MS analysis of volatized MeSA in WT plants fed with virus-free aphids or PVY-1294 carrying aphids for 3 days. f-h, Accumulation of PVY RNA (f), CP (g) or proportion of 1295 living aphids (h) in WT-R plants with PVY-containing aphid-attacked WT plants as 1296 emitters (APE) or WT-R (mE) plants when these receiver plants were fed with PVYcontaining aphids. i, CMV and PVY infection changed NAC2 localization partially to 1297 cytoplasm. Scale bar = 25 µm. **j**. BiFC assay showing that PVY CI but not its mutant 1298 PVY CI^{G347D} or TMV 126KD, interacted with NAC2. Scale bar = 25 μ m. k, 1299 Immunoblot assay of protein levels in BiFC assay. I, PVY CI but not its mutant PVY 1300 CI^{G347D} or TMV 126KD, changed NAC2 localization partially to cytoplasm, scale bar 1301 = 25 μ m. **b**, **e**, **f**, Two-sided Student's *t*-test. **h**, One-way ANOVA with LSD. **b**, **e**, **f**, **h**, 1302 1303 n=3 biologically independent samples. Data are shown as mean \pm s.d.; n.s., no statistical 1304 significance. The same letter A represents no statistical difference between samples (P >1305 0.05). All P values are shown in figure. Experiments were repeated at least three times with similar results. 1306

Extended Data Fig. 10 | Arms race among emitter and receiver plants, aphids, and viruses.

1309 a, AD defends plants against aphids and viruses. When emitter plants are attacked by 1310 aphids, they can sense the aphid sap-sucking action and stimulate biosynthesis of SA 1311 that activates the NAC2-SAMT1 module to produce volatile MeSA, neighboring 1312 receiver plants perceive and convert volatile MeSA into SA by SABP2, which acts as 1313 the cue to trigger NAC2-SAMT1 module and elicit defense against aphids and viruses. 1314 **b**, Virus and aphid counterdefence. When emitter plants were attacked by viruliferous 1315 aphids, some aphid-transmitted viruses utilized their helicase-contained viral protein 1316 (for example, CMV1a and PVY CI) to subcellularly re-localize and destabilize NAC2, 1317 leading to suppression of NAC2-mediated plant airborne defense to facilitate aphid 1318 propagation and virus transmission. The graphical model was created with 1319 BioRender.com. In summary, we have exploited interplays among aphid, virus, VOC 1320 emitter, and receiver plants in a complexed pathosystem to dissect PPC and AD at 1321 genetic and molecular levels. Our study on deciphering AD also lays the

- 1322 groundbreaking work to empower VOCs as a novel bioinspired tool in defense of plants
- 1323 including agricultural and horticultural crops against insect infestation and virus
- 1324 epidemics.







