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62 Abstract

Researchers have been examining the biological function(s) of isoprene in isoprene-emitting species for two decades. There is overwhelming evidence that leaf-internal isoprene increases the thermo-tolerance of plants and protects them against oxidative stress, thus mitigating a wide range of abiotic stresses. However, the mechanisms of abiotic stress mitigation by isoprene are still under debate. Here we assessed the impact of isoprene on the emission of NO and S-nitroso-proteome of isoprene-emitting (IE) and non-isoprene-emitting (NE) gray poplar (*Populus × canescens* (Aiton.) Sm.) after acute ozone fumigation. The short-term oxidative stress induced a rapid and strong emission of NO in NE compared to IE genotypes. Whereas IE and NE plants exhibited under non-stressful conditions only slight differences in their S-nitrosylation pattern, the *in vivo* S-nitroso-proteome of the NE genotype was more susceptible to ozone-induced changes compared to the IE plants. The results suggest that the nitrosative pressure (NO burst) is higher in NE plants, underlining the proposed molecular dialogue between isoprene and the free radical NO. Proteins belonging to the photosynthetic light and dark reactions, the TCA cycle, protein metabolism, and redox regulation exhibited an increased S-nitrosylation in NE samples compared to IE plants upon oxidative stress. Because the post-translational modification of proteins via S-nitrosylation often impacts enzymatic activities, the present data suggest that isoprene indirectly regulates the production of ROS via the control of the S-nitrosylation level of ROS-metabolizing enzymes, thus modulating the extent and velocity at which the ROS and NO signaling molecules are generated within a plant cell.

Introduction

It has been demonstrated that isoprene protects plants against a plethora of abiotic stresses (Singsaas et al., 1997; Behnke et al., 2007; Velikova et al.; 2008, Vickers et al., 2009a). Since the discovery of the positive influence of isoprene emission on plants' photosynthetic processes in the early 1990s (Sharkey and Singsaas, 1995), many efforts have been made to explain the primary mechanism of isoprene functioning. Most attention was given to the hypothesis that isoprene improves the thermotolerance of the photosynthetic machinery by stabilizing chloroplast (thylakoid) membranes during short, high-temperature episodes (Sharkey and Singsaas, 1995; Loreto and Schnitzler, 2010). Successive studies underlined that isoprene helps 92 maintain high rates of chloroplastic electron transport and $CO₂$ assimilation during heat stress and accelerates recovery from stress (Singsaas and Sharkey, 2000; Velikova and Loreto, 2005; Velikova et al., 2006; Behnke et al., 2010b; Way et al., 2011).

One mechanistic explanation is that isoprene molecules are dissolved in thylakoid membrane, and prevent membrane lipid denaturation following oxidative stress (Sharkey and Yeh, 2001). It was suggested that isoprene acts directly to stabilize the membrane (Sharkey and Yeh, 2001; Siwko et al., 2007). However, recent experiments with phosphatidylcholine liposomes showed that physiologically relevant intra-membrane concentrations of isoprene do not alter membrane viscosity (Harvey et al., 2015). Nevertheless, Velikova et al. (2011) reported that during high-temperature treatments, isoprene stabilized the macro-organization of the pigment-protein complexes of light-harvesting complex II in the thylakoid grana and the disorganization of macro-assemblies in isoprene-emitting chloroplasts began at higher temperatures compared to their non-emitting counterparts. Moreover, Velikova et al. (2011) showed decreased membrane permeability and more efficient primary photochemistry at PSII in isoprene-emitting plants at high temperatures (40–45 °C). However, how isoprene contributes to this protection is still unknown.

The antioxidant hypothesis is the second mechanistic explanation by which isoprene may directly or indirectly exert its protective effect in plant cells. Plants that were fumigated with isoprene, showed less visible ultra structural (chloroplast) damage and less impairment of photosynthetic processes upon acute ozone fumigation than plants where isoprene was absent 112 (Loreto et al., 2001). In conjunction with this hypothesis leaf levels of H_2O_2 (Loreto and Velikova, 2001; Behnke et al., 2010a), singlet oxygen (Affek and Yakir, 2002; Velikova, et al., 2004), and the free radical nitric oxide (NO) (Velikova et al., 2005) were found to be lower in stressed plants when leaf internal isoprene was present. Taken together, these findings strongly indicate that endogenous isoprene modulates the oxidative and nitrosative load in plant tissue upon abiotic stress. However, the mechanism by which this modulation occurs remains unknown.

119 The generation of NO and reactive oxygen species (ROS; such as H_2O_2 , singlet oxygen) is a general plant response to many environmental stresses (such as acute ozone, drought, salinity,

heavy metals; e.g., Mahalingam et al., 2006; Rodriguez-Serrano et al., 2006; Pasqualini et al., 2008; Corpas et al., 2011; Noctor et al., 2014). Excess generation and accumulation of NO and ROS can cause modifications of cellular macromolecules such as nucleic acids and membrane lipids and proteins, thus leading to malfunctioning of enzymes and organelles, ultimately inducing cell death (Mittler, 2002). Even under optimal conditions, these compounds are continuously produced in primary plant metabolism as side products of the chloroplastic and mitochondrial electron transport chains (Foyer and Noctor, 2003). Cellular levels of ROS and NO are tightly regulated by an efficient antioxidant defense system composed of scavenging enzymes and of a non-enzymatic barrier (Foyer and Noctor, 2003). In this context, isoprene may constitute a part of the non-enzymatic oxidative defense system (Vickers et al., 2009a) and may substitute for other antioxidants (Peñuelas et al., 2005; Behnke at al., 2009).

A more indirect mode of isoprene functioning is also under debate (for a review, see Vickers et al., 2009b). Chloroplasts, the main targets of the proposed isoprene function(s), are a major source of NO (Jasid et al., 2006). It is suggested that endogenous NO in chloroplasts can exert either antioxidant or prooxidant effects on chloroplast macromolecules and influence the integrity of membrane processes (Jasid et al., 2006). NO can prevent in chloroplasts the Fenton reaction by scavenging iron, thus avoiding the formation of hydroxyl radicals (Wink et al., 1995) that can be efficiently quenched by isoprene (Huang et al., 2011). Chloroplasts are also the main site of carbon and nitrogen metabolism and ROS production. Isoprene may modulate directly or indirectly the oxidative and nitrosative state of chloroplasts undergoing stress by modulating NO-related signaling pathways. Due to their lipophilic structure, it is probable that isoprene and NO converge inside plants, but to what extent the molecular dialogue between isoprene and NO can affect NO- and ROS-related signaling is unknown.

NO signaling regulates many plant development processes, such as stomatal closure (Neill et al., 2002), germination (Bethke et al., 2004), flowering (He et al., 2004), senescence (Guo and Crawford, 2005) and hormonal signaling (Simontacchi et al., 2013). NO signaling also plays a well-established role during plant-pathogen responses (Delledone et al., 1998; Durner et al., 1998) and abiotic stress reactions (Corpas et al., 2011). The hypersensitive response (HR) upon pathogen invasion is an example of programmed cell death and shares many similarities with plant's ozone response (Sandermann et al., 1998). In both cases (biotic and abiotic elicitor), the activation of HR is associated with a burst of NO and ROS occurring in the same time range (Ahlfors et al., 2009).

NO exerts its signaling action by directly altering proteins through post-translational modifications (PTMs; i.e., S-nitrosylation, metal nitrosylation, and tyrosine nitration). S-nitrosylation, the covalent binding of NO to the thiol side of protein-cysteine residues to form nitrosothiols (SNOs) is regarded as the most important PTM of NO signaling in plants (Moreau et al., 2010). The binding and removal of NO is not strictly an enzymatic process and depends strongly on the redox status of the cell (Lindermayr et al., 2009). However, the enzymatic removal of the NO group via de-nitrosylation has been reported (Benhar et al., 2009) ensuring the reversibility of the modification. S-nitrosylation and de-nitrosylation events together form the S-nitrosylation pattern of a cell under physiological conditions, which may strongly change upon stress (e.g., Abat and Deswal, 2009; Ortega-Galisteo et al., 2012). S-nitrosylation of enzymes can either inhibit or activate their function (Astier et al., 2012). It has been suggested that S-nitrosylation is involved in the regulation of ROS level under abiotic stress (Ortega-Galisteo et al., 2012; Lindermayr and Durner, 2015) by targeting the ROS metabolizing enzymes.

The present work assesses the proposed mechanism of isoprene in modulating NO signaling. Because S-nitrosylation, the covalent binding of NO to cysteine moieties, is the main method of NO signaling, we identified targets of S-nitrosylation in isoprene-emitting (IE) and non-isoprene-emitting (NE) gray poplar plants by using the biotin switch assay in conjunction with mass spectrometry. After taking an inventory of putative S-nitrosylated proteins in IE and NE gray poplar plants under non-stressful conditions, we applied short acute ozone stress triggering changes in the NO emission and S-nitroso-proteome depending on the presence of isoprene.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Whole proteome analysis highlights some alterations in the protein profile of NE gray

poplars under control conditions

LC-MS/MS identification and label-free quantitative analysis of unstressed leaf samples revealed some differences in global protein abundances between IE (WT and EV) and NE (Ra1 and Ra2) genotypes (Figure 1). We identified and quantified 2,025 proteins, among these proteins, 1,388 182 proteins were identified with ≥ 2 unique peptides and 1,071 proteins of them could be quantified 183 with ≥ 2 unique peptides. Globally, the differences in protein abundance between IE and NE

184 samples were small (Figure 1) with 97% of the proteins within a logarithmic fold change of \pm 1 (Figure 1A). The largest, significant fold changes between IE and NE were observed for the terpenoid cyclase (TC) and, as expected, for the isoprene synthase (ISPS), the target of the RNAi-mediated suppression of the isoprene emission. Moreover, the Rubisco large chain, a 50S ribosomal protein, a ubiquinone biosynthesis protein, and the chloroplast inner membrane import protein Tic22 exhibited a significant lower expression in NE. A higher expression was observed for the basic pentacysteine 4, the EP3-3 chitinase, and the eukaryotic aspartyl protease family protein (Figure 1A).

The orthogonal partial least square (OPLS) was employed to dissect the differences between the IE and NE genotypes (Figure 1B, C, and D). Among 116 discriminant proteins able to discriminate between IE and NE, 31 proteins were higher expressed, and 85 proteins were lower expressed in the NE genotype, compared to IE (Supplemental Table S1).

Proteins with a higher abundance in NE comprised 11 enzymes that are involved in protein degradation (e.g., subtilase, serine protease, ubiquitin family protein) and protein folding (heat shock protein 70, HSP70) . This increase in NE may be indicative of a substantial increase in protein degradation in this genotype. Two other more expressed proteins in NE are related to histones (winged-helix DNA-binding transcription factor, histone superfamily protein). This observation fits with the strong expression of histones in the chloroplast proteome of NE plants (Velikova et al., 2014). NE samples also showed a higher abundance of proteins involved in the stress response. These are the germin-like protein (+0.4) and the EP3-3 chitinase. The germin-like proteins have, besides their action in plant development, a proposed role in the plant defense response (Lane et al., 2002). The expression of these proteins is induced upon various biotic and abiotic stresses, and overexpression of the germin-like proteins enhanced the resistance against powdery mildew in barley (Zimmermann et al., 2006). Similarly, various biotic and abiotic stresses can induce the expression of plant chitinases (Kasprzewska et al., 2003). They catalyze 209 the hydrolysis of β -1,4-bonds in chitin and are classified as PR proteins, e.g., EP3 chitinase from *Daucus carrota* is involved in the programmed cell death (PCD) (Kasprzewska et al., 2003). Interestingly, each line had a specific proteome-pattern, suggesting that genetic transformation process can affect the whole proteome and cause off-targeted effects (Day et al., 2000; Latham et al., 2006).

For the visualization of the proteomic differences between lines and treatments we applied Voronoi treemaps (Figure 2, 4, and 6) as introduced by Bernhardt et al. (2009). The major difference in the protein profiles of NE and IE plants (Figure 2) was the lower abundance of several proteins in the NE genotype mostly involved in the light- and dark-reactions of photosynthesis. By contrast, only one protein related to photosynthesis was more abundant in NE (i.e., ferredoxin reductase). The reduction in protein content comprises subunits of the PSI and PSII complexes (e.g., oxygen-evolving complex, PSII assembly factor, and thylakoid luminal 222 proteins), the cytochrome b_{of} complex, the ATP synthase, and the large chain of Rubisco, confirming the proteomic survey of IE and NE poplar chloroplasts (Velikova et al., 2014). It might be speculated that NE plants have a lower demand for components of the photosynthetic apparatus and also for the supply of chlorophyll because several enzymes of the tetrapyrrole biosynthesis pathway that generate essential compounds, such as chlorophyll and heme (Tanaka et al., 2011), are also strongly reduced in concentration in the NE genotype. The lower amount of protein members of the photosynthetic apparatus may influence the physiology of NE poplars under unstressed conditions and upon stress. While initial physiological measurements showed 230 no significant differences in the net $CO₂$ assimilation rates of both genotypes (Behnke et al., 2007; 2009; 2010a), recent observations reported lower gas exchange (Way et al., 2013) and electron transport rates (Velikova et al., 2015) in the NE genotype compared to the IE genotype.

In accordance to previous observations (Velikova et al., 2014), the down-regulation of antioxidant enzymes in the NE genotype can be confirmed at the cellular proteome level. The down-regulated enzymes are three different APX isoforms, superoxide dismutase (SOD), the glutathione S-transferase F11 (GST), and the monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDHAR) (Figure 2). The level and activity of APX and SOD often correlate, and coordinated increases in either gene expression have been shown to improve tolerance to oxidative stress in cassava (Xu et al., 2014). Due to the lower setting of several antioxidant enzymes in NE plants, the strict control of the ROS production could be de-regulated explaining the higher *in vitro* accumulation 242 of H_2O_2 in NE leaves upon high light and temperature treatment (Behnke et al., 2010a).

Overall, the proteomic characterization of IE and NE cell extracts from unstressed poplars shows that the knock-down of the ISPS enzyme results in a distinct, cellular and chloroplastidic (Velikova et al., 2014) rearrangement of proteins and enzymes involved in photosynthetic processes, glycolysis and TCA cycle, redox regulation and protein translation (Figure 2).

2. Isoprene suppression results in slight modification of the S-nitroso-proteome of gray poplar plants under unstressed conditions

Similar to the overall proteomic survey, a label-free LC-MS/MS approach was applied to quantitatively compare the S-nitroso-proteome of the IE and NE genotypes in control conditions and immediately following the short acute ozone exposure (next section). In total 203 S-nitrosylated proteins were identified (Supplemental Table S2) after biotin-switch and subsequent pull-down.

Globally, IE and NE plants exhibited only minor differences in the S-nitrosylation pattern of unstressed plants (Supplemental Table S4). Five of these discriminant proteins were found to be more S-nitrosylated in NE plants (Supplemental Table S4, Figure 6B). These are Rubisco activase, α-N-arabinofuranosidase (ARA), phosphoribulokinase (PRK), HSP70, and O-acetylserine(thiol)lyase (OAS-TL). By contrast, only one protein, a PSII assembly protein, was less S-nitrosylated in the NE genotype compared to the IE genotype.

260 Rubisco activase and PRK, two important enzymes in the $CO₂$ fixation are known targets of several redox-based PTMs (i.e., S-nitrosylation, tyrosine nitration, and glutathionylation; Lindermayr et al., 2005; Lozano-Juste et al., 2011; Tanou et al., 2012) showing that a strong overlap in the signaling pathways of different PTMs exists and that the CBB cycle is strongly redox-regulated (Michelet et al., 2013). Interestingly, Rubisco activase is not only crucial for the maintenance of the high Rubisco activation state (Portis et al., 2003) but also for the photosynthetic light reactions because the knock-down of the Rubisco activase leads to a slower electron transport rate (ETR) and a decrease in the content of PSII components (Cai et al., 2010). Referring to the reduction of ETR and the content of PSII proteins in NE chloroplasts (Velikova et al., 2014), the higher proportion of constitutive S-nitrosylated Rubisco activase and PRK may be functionally related to these alterations. However, no functional characterization of S/de-nitrosylation events on the enzyme activities of the Rubisco activase and PRK has been thus far reported.

The S-nitrosylation of ARA was recently described (Vanzo et al., 2014). ARA hydrolyses the cleavage of terminal arabinofuranosyl residues from the pectin matrix and is involved in secondary cell wall biogenesis in hybrid aspen (*Populus tremula* L. × *P*. *tremuloides* Michx.) (Aspeborg et al., 2005).

The OAS-TL, catalyzing the last step in the cysteine biosynthesis and sulfur assimilation, has one predicted S-nitrosylation site (Supplemental Table S2), but whether S/de-nitrosylation impacts enzyme functionality is unknown. Mentionable, Alvarez et al. (2011) demonstrated that tyrosine nitration, another route of NO signaling (Corpas et al., 2009) inhibits the enzymatic activity of OAS-TL.

HSP70 is a prominent target of S-nitrosylation in plants (e.g., Lindermayr et al., 2005; Abat and Deswal, 2009). Heat shock protein (HSP) accumulation in response to heat stress has been 284 reported (Kotak et al., 2007) and there is evidence that NO and H_2O_2 act as signals that promote the gene expression of HSPs under thermal stress (Volkov et al., 2006). Whether the higher degree of S-nitrosylation of HSP70 in NE plants is functionally related to the higher thermal sensitivity (e.g., Behnke et al., 2007; 2010b) of this genotype requires further analysis.

3. Acute ozone fumigation stimulates NO emission and modifies the S-nitroso-proteome of IE and NE gray poplar

3.1. NO emissions of IE and NE gray poplar following acute ozone

Under control conditions, emissions of NO did not differ significantly between NE and IE poplar genotypes, although a tendency in higher emission from NE was observed (Figure 3). Emissions of NO were rapidly induced after the ozone exposure in both genotypes, but NO emissions were much more induced in NE shoots. In both genotypes NO emissions reached maximal rates after approximately 3.5 hours following the ozone treatment. In the NE genotypes the NO emission rates remained high until 7 hours post ozone exposure. In contrast the NO emissions in IE started to decline after the maximum finally reaching almost similar rates as before the ozone treatment. In NE plants NO emission rates also decreased but still showed doubled intensities at the end of the observation period compared to the initial conditions. Such a difference in NO emission between different isoprene emitter types is supported by previous results showing a stronger stimulation of NO emission in *Populus nigra* L. leaves with chemically inhibited isoprene emission exposed to oxidative stress (Velikova et al., 2008). Inverse correlation between isoprene emission and NO production was also observed in ozonized reed (*Phragmites australis* L.) leaves (Velikova et al., 2005). The finding that NE poplar emits significantly higher rates of NO upon ozone fumigation compared to the natural isoprene-emitting genotype (IE) is an indication that isoprene interferes in the signaling pathway activated by NO-ROS interactions.

3.2. Comparison of the IE and NE S-nitroso-proteome reveals the consequences of isoprene suppression in poplar plants following acute ozone

Irrespective to the plant genotypes, ozone induced strong changes in the S-nitroso-proteome. Possible changes in global protein abundance by the ozone treatment have been taken into account. The intensities of the S-nitrosylated proteins were normalized to the corresponding global protein abundances of the control (C) and ozone-treated (O) leaves, respectively.

Principle component analysis (PCA) with these normalized data revealed that the pronounced differences in the abundance of S-nitrosylated proteins between NE and IE appear after ozone treatment, as indicated by a clear separation between ozonated NE and IE samples in the first and second principal components (Supplemental Figure S1A). The functional categorization of the 203 S-nitrosylated proteins revealed a strong dominance of proteins related to photosynthetic processes (21%), followed by protein synthesis, degradation and folding processes (19%) and redox regulation and signaling (8%; Supplemental Figure S1B, Supplemental Table S2).

We again used OPLS to study the S-nitroso-protein patterns of control and ozonated samples in more detail (Figure 5). The separation between treatments and genotypes can be explained by the 63 discriminant S-nitrosylated proteins (out of 203) (Figure 4, Supplemental Table S3).

- The general ozone response shared by both genotypes demonstrated a strong ozone-induced increase in the abundance of S-nitrosylated proteins, but the changes in the S-nitroso-proteome of the NE genotype were much more pronounced than in IE. While in IE plants the S-nitrosylation level of 16 proteins (13 up, 3 down) was changed upon acute ozone stress (Supplemental Table S5A, Figure 6C), the S-nitrosylation level of 54 proteins (53 up, 1 down) was altered in the NE genotype upon ozone treatment (Supplemental Table S5B; 6E).
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3.3. Target sites of NO action in IE and NE gray poplar

The S-nitroso-proteins, of which the S-nitrosylation abundances significantly differ between the IE and NE genotypes within the ozone-treated plants, are listed in Table 1. These proteins belong to several pathways, such as photosynthesis, the CBB cycle, glycolysis, the TCA cycle, redox metabolism, cell wall metabolism, amino acid degradation, and metal handling (Figure 6F).

3.3.1. Carbon metabolism and photosynthetic proteins in NE

Many enzymes and structural components of carbon metabolism and thus of photosynthesis and

catabolizing pathways (glycolysis, TCA cycle) became S-nitrosylated upon ozone (Supplemental

Table S3, Figure 5), and for most of the enzymes, the ozone treatment modulated the S-nitrosylation pattern of IE and NE genotypes differentially (Table 1; Figure 6F). Notably, many enzymes of the CBB cycle became more S-nitrosylated in NE compared to IE when acutely stressed by ozone. These enzymes are the sedoheptulose-bisphosphatase (SBPase), Rubisco activase, ribose-5-phosphate isomerase (RPI), PRK, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), TPI, and phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK). The SBPase and the TPI became S-nitrosylated in NE plants upon ozone treatment, whereas the corresponding amount of protein was constitutively down-regulated in NE control plants, emphasizing that many proteins are regulated on several levels. Out of the group of CBB cycle enzymes, only TPI and Rubisco are biochemically characterized, and both appeared to be inhibited by S-nitrosylation (Abat et al., 2008; Abat and Deswal, 2009). The cytosolic GAPDH was reported to be inhibited by S-nitrosylation as well (Holtgrefe et al., 2008; Zaffagnini et al., 2013). However, it is unclear if this is true for the chloroplastidic GAPDH, which shares only low structural similarity with the cytosolic isoenzyme (Shih et al., 1991). In *Arabidopsis* S-nitrosoglutathione reductase knock-out plants, the S-nitrosylated proteins are significantly enriched in chlorophyll metabolism and photosynthesis. These plants consistently show lower chlorophyll levels and altered photosynthetic properties, suggesting that S-nitrosylation is an important regulatory mechanism in these processes (Hu et al., 2015).

The TCA cycle enzymes malate dehydrogenase (MDH) and aconitase 1 (ACO1) showed an increase of the S-nitrosylation level upon ozone exposure in NE (Table 1, Figure 6F). Both enzymes become inactivated by S-nitrosylation (Gupta et al., 2012; Ortega-Galisteo et al., 2012). Inactivation of ACO1 by NO leads to an accumulation of citrate, which as a retrograde signal, induces alternative oxidase resulting in a stimulation of the nitrogen and amino acid metabolism (Gupta et al., 2012). The comprehensive metabolomic analyses of the NE and IE genotypes (Way et al. 2013; Kaling et al., 2015) revealed increased concentrations of compounds from the amino acid metabolism, TCA cycle and glycolysis. These findings suggest that the TCA cycle and perhaps glycolysis are constitutively down-regulated in NE plants compared to IE plants and become even more repressed during oxidative/nitrosative stress.

3.3.2. Antioxidant enzymes in NE

Several antioxidant enzymes (i.e., CAT2, APX, thioredoxin-dependent peroxidase 1) also showed more pronounced S-nitrosylation levels in NE compared to IE (Table 1, Figure 6F).

Transgenic plants with reduced protein levels or activities of CAT and APX revealed an 375 accumulation of H_2O_2 , an early event in PCD (Dat et al., 2003), and cytosolic APX was found to be S-nitrosylated at the onset of PCD (de Pinto et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2015; Lindermayr and Durner, 2015). The enhanced S-nitrosylation of CAT and APX in the NE genotype upon ozone 378 fumigation may analogically lead to increased H_2O_2 levels compared to IE. Interestingly, chloroplast (Velikova et al., 2014) and whole proteome analyses (Supplemental Table S1) reveal that the protein levels of several antioxidant enzymes are constitutively lower in the NE genotype (e.g., APX, SOD, chloroplastidic peroxiredoxin). By contrast, total ascorbate content was found to be higher in NE plants (Behnke et al., 2009; Way et al., 2013) compared to IE plants. Ascorbate can directly scavenge ROS or act as a reducing substrate for APX (Foyer and Noctor, 2011). It was suggested earlier that the increase of non-volatile antioxidant metabolites in the NE genotype might compensate for the absence of isoprene (Behnke et al., 2009; Way et al, 2013). In view of the present data, we assume that the altered S-nitrosylation status of many ROS-metabolizing enzymes results in a higher oxidative load in plant cells where isoprene is absent. This difference in the cellular redox homeostasis of both genotypes likely exists under 389 physiological (unstressed) conditions, as indicated by higher H_2O_2 levels in the light-exposed chloroplasts of NE leaves (Behnke et al., 2010a).

3.3.3. Cell wall and lignin biosynthesis related proteins in NE

The S-nitrosylation levels of proteins involved in cell wall reconstruction and lignin biosynthesis were also increased by ozone stress in the NE compared to IE genotype (Table 1, Figure 6F). These proteins are the two α-L-arabinofuranosidases proteins (ARA, the fasciclin-like arabinogalactan protein (FLA)) and the cinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase-like protein (CAD). FLAs are an expanded protein family in plants (Johnson et al., 2003) with implications for processes such as xylem differentiation, cell division, adhesion, and signaling (Seifert and Blaukopf, 2010; Janz et al., 2010). The ARA, a glycosyl hydrolase, is also connected with secondary cell wall formation and cell wall reorganization (Sumiyoshi et al., 2013). Generally, poplar leaves respond to ozone stress with an up-regulation of gene expression and enzyme activities of phenylpropanoid and lignin biosynthetic proteins (Richet et al., 2012), which lead to higher contents of condensed lignin, hydroxycinnamic acids, and flavonoids (Booker and Miller, 1998; Cabané et al., 2004). We recently described the de-nitrosylation of PAL and COMT in WT gray poplar upon ozone exposure (Vanzo et al., 2014) and demonstrated for PAL that *in vitro*

PAL activity increased as a result of de-nitrosylation. Because PAL is a key regulatory enzyme controlling the metabolic flux in the phenylpropanoid and down-stream biosynthetic pathways (Booker and Miller, 1998; Cabané et al., 2004), the activities of the other enzymes of the phenolic secondary metabolism, e.g., COMT (Vanzo et al., 2014) or CAD, may also be rapidly regulated by S-nitrosylation. In the NE but not the IE genotype, the CAD protein, catalyzing the final step in the synthesis of monolignols (Di Baccio et al., 2008), was found to be S-nitrosylated after ozone exposure (Table 1). However, whether these differences in S-nitrosylation levels are related to the different constitutive and stress-induced metabolomic differences (Way et al. 2013; Kaling et al. 2015), i.e., of phenolic compounds in NE and IE genotypes, requires additional analysis.

3.3.4. Thiamine biosynthetic proteins in NE

Interestingly two enzymes of the thiamine biosynthetic pathway were identified as putative targets of S-nitrosylation (Supplemental Table S2, Figure 4). These enzymes are the thiamine thiazole synthase (THI) and the thiamine biosynthesis protein, the latter showing an increase in S-nitrosylation in NE genotypes upon ozone. Non-targeted metabolomics indicated that NE leaves have high levels of thiamin monophosphate (Way et al., 2013), a precursor of thiamin biosynthesis. Thiamine pyrophosphate (TPP) is an important coenzyme required for many cellular processes, i.e., the TCA cycle and the MEP pathway (Goyer, 2010), where it acts as a cofactor of 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase (DXS). Chloroplasts of NE genotypes accumulate excessive amounts of dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMADP), the metabolic precursor of isoprene (Ghirardo et al., 2014). DMADP inhibits *in vivo* the activity of DXS (Ghirardo et al., 2014) by competing for the same substrate-binding site with TPP (Banerjee et al., 2013). Whether the differences in stress-induced changes in the S-nitrosylation of thiamine biosynthetic enzymes in NE and IE genotypes are regulatory orchestrated with the differences of the TCA and MEP pathway intermediates and PTMs is, however, unknown.

3.3.5. UV-B photoreceptor in NE

Ozone treatment led to a strong increase in the S-nitrosylation levels of the UV resistance locus 8 (UVR8) protein in both genotypes (Table 1, Figure 6A) with more pronounced S-nitrosylation in NE (Supplemental Table S5B, Figure 6E). UVR8 is a receptor protein for UV-B radiation and localized as homodimer in the cytosol (Rizzini et al., 2011). UV-B induces the dimer

dissociation, the translocation of the UVR8 monomers into the nucleus and the activation of the transcription factors elongated hypocotyl 5 and MYB12, leading to the expression of a range of genes encoding flavonoid biosynthetic enzymes, DNA repair machineries, and antioxidant proteins (Favory et al., 2009; Heijde and Ulm, 2012). It has been proposed that NO-mediated S-nitrosylation is involved in the nuclear translocation of UVR8 (Tossi et al., 2011), similar to the nuclear translocation of GAPDH undergoing S-nitrosylation (Hara et al., 2005). The present data confirm UVR8 as a target of protein S-nitrosylation (Figure 4, Supplemental Table S2). UV-B exposure and ozone fumigation share many common metabolic and regulatory components, such as the increase in ROS formation and the up-regulation of antioxidants (Rao et al., 1996). One may suggest that the S-nitrosylation of the UVR8 photoreceptor, triggering transcriptional changes favoring the production of ROS-quenching polyphenols (Quideau et al., 2011), may be a general response to oxidative stress. This assumption would indicate a higher amount of phenolic compounds in the NE genotype undergoing conditions of oxidative stress. However, UV-B treatment of the NE genotype resulted in a reduced accumulation of UV-B absorbing compounds compared to IE (Kaling et al., 2015). Additional work is therefore necessary to clarify the importance of UVR8 in the regulation of different regulations of phenolic compound accumulation in NE genotypes compared to the natural situation of isoprene emitters.

Conclusions

The present data demonstrate that the isoprene in poplar leaves influences rapid stress-induced changes in NO emission and thus in the pattern of the *in vivo* S-nitroso-proteome. In accordance with the higher NO emission rates in NE, the S-nitroso-proteome of this genotype was more susceptible to ozone-induced changes compared with IE plants. Our results demonstrate that the nitrosative pressure is lower when isoprene is present in leaf cells. The main target sites of NO action in NE poplar are proteins related to the light and dark reactions of photosynthesis, the TCA cycle, protein metabolism, and redox regulation (Figure 7). CAT2, APX, and thioredoxin-dependent peroxidase 1, all being involved in the detoxification of ROS (Mittler, 2002) showed an increase in S-nitrosylation in NE plants upon oxidative stress. These results indicate that isoprene indirectly regulates ROS formation via control of the S-nitrosylation levels of ROS-metabolizing enzymes. There is evidence (Ortega-Galisteo et al., 2012; de Pinto et al., 2013) that 468 S-nitrosylation inhibits the activities of CAT and APX, thus increasing the accumulation of H_2O_2 (Dat et al., 2003; Vandenabeele et al., 2004; Davletova et al., 2005) as a prerequisite of the

plant's defense response (Apel and Hirt, 2004; de Pinto et al., 2006). Considering the observed lower constitutive amount of many anti-oxidative enzymes in the NE proteome, the present data indicate that the anti-oxidative defense system in poplar that maintains ROS production under strict control is re-arranged in NE genotypes at the protein level and at the level of protein S-nitrosylation.

Overall, the data strongly support the hypothesis (Vickers et al., 2009b) that unsaturated volatile isoprenoids such as isoprene can alter signaling pathways by modulating to what extent and how rapidly ROS and NO signaling molecules are generated within a cell, thus likely modulating the velocity and extent of the physiological response upon biotic and abiotic stress (Ahlfors et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2013).

Materials and Methods

Plant material and growth conditions

All experiments were performed with the natural hybrid (WT) gray poplar (*Populus × canescens* (Aiton.) Sm.; INRA clone 7171-B4; syn. *Populus tremula* × *Populus alba*), a naturally strong isoprene-emitter. Additionally, empty vector control plants (EV) were used. In addition to these two isoprene emitting (IE) lines, two well-characterized isoprene non emitting (NE) lines (35S::*PcISPS*-RNAi lines Ra1 and Ra2; see Behnke *et al*., 2007) were chosen for the 488 experiments. Plantlets were amplified by micropropagation and cultivated (27:24 °C (day/night), 16-h photoperiod, approx. 100 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) under sterile conditions on half-concentrated MS medium in 1 L glass containers each accommodating 6–7 plantlets each. Every 8–10 weeks, plantlets were transferred to fresh medium. Rooting shoots were transferred to soil substrate (50% v/v Fruhstorfer Einheitserde, 50% v/v silica sand (particle size 1–3 mm)) and grown under a plastic lid to maintain high humidity. Plantlets were adapted to ambient air by gradually opening the lid. After approximately 4 weeks on soil, plants were transferred to bigger pots (2.2 L; 25% v/v Fruhstorfer Einheitserde, 25% v/v silica sand, 50% v/v perlite) and further cultivated in the greenhouse. The soil was initially mixed with a slow release-fertilizer (Triabon 497 (Compo, Münster, Germany) and Osmocote (Scotts Miracle-Gro, Marysville, USA); 1:1, 10 g L⁻ $\frac{1}{1}$ soil). Climate conditions in the greenhouse were: 22:18 °C (day:night), 16-h photoperiod, supplemental lighting was used $(200-240 \mu mol$ photons m⁻² s⁻¹).

501 *Experimental set up and ozone fumigation*

The ozone experiment was performed in two sun simulators (for details, see Thiel et al., 1996) in Munich. The sun simulators mimic the spectral irradiance in nature nearly perfectly, simulating natural irradiation. In both chambers (control (C), and ozone (O)), 24 8-week-old plants were placed (6 plants from each genotype; IE: WT, EV; NE: Ra1, Ra2) and acclimated to the 506 prevailing temperature and light conditions (27/18 °C (day/night), approx. 800 µmol photons m⁻² 507 s⁻¹) for 7 days. The ozone pulse (800 nl L⁻¹ for 1 h) was given at 10.00 am. Immediately after fumigation, leaf numbers 9 and 10 (counted from the apex) were frozen in liquid nitrogen for later biochemical and proteomic analyses.

510

511 *Analysis of NO emissions following acute ozone exposure*

512 Measurements were made at the branch level in a dynamic cuvette system (Vanzo et al., 2014). 513 Whole plants were cut and immediately recut under water, and the branch with 18 leaves was 514 introduced into a gas-tight glass cuvette (38.3 L, 500 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ PPFD, air temperature 25 °C \pm 515 1 °C, and flux 11.5 l min⁻¹) and exposed to synthetic air made by mixing pure O_2 , N₂ and CO₂ 516 from cylinders. Concentrations of the three gases (20%, 80%, 400 μL L^{-1} , respectively) were set 517 with mass flow controllers. Net $CO₂$ assimilation and transpiration were monitored as differences 518 between cuvette inlet and outlet air by infrared-absorption (Fischer-Rosemount Binos 100 4P, Hasselroth, Germany). When net $CO₂$ assimilation was stable, ozone fumigation (with 800 nl L⁻ 520 ¹) was applied for 1 hour. Part of the cuvette outflow was diverted to a NO – NO₂ – NO₃ 521 analyzer (ECO PHYSICS AG, Switzerland, model CLD 88 Y p). The detection limit of this 522 instrument is 50 ppt. The NO emission (Φ_{NO} , nmol mol⁻¹) from the leaves was calculated as 523 described in Velikova et al. (2008). Calculations were made based on the gas diffusion: $\Phi_{\text{NO}} =$ $[NO_{cv} \times \Phi_{air}] / S$, where NO_{cv} (nmol mol⁻¹) is the NO concentration in the cuvette, Φ_{air} (mol s-1) is 525 the airflow rate in the cuvette and *S* is the leaf area in the cuvette (m^2) .

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528 *Biotin switch assay and LC-MS/MS-based identification and quantification of S-nitrosylated* 529 *proteins*

530 Six biological replicates per treatment were analyzed from each genotype (IE: WT, EV; NE: 531 Ra1, Ra2). The detection of *in vivo* S-nitrosylated proteins was performed *via* a modified biotin 532 switch assay (Vanzo et al., 2014). Frozen leaf powder was mixed with HENT buffer (100 mM

HEPES-NaOH pH 7.4, 10 mM EDTA, 0.1 mM Neocuproine, 1% (v/v) Triton X-100) in a mixing ratio of leaf powder:buffer 1:5 (w/v). The HENT buffer contained 30 mM NEM and protease inhibitor cocktail tablets (Complete, Roche, Grenzach-Wyhlen, Germany). The homogenate was mixed on a shaker for 30 seconds, incubated on ice for 15 min and centrifuged 537 twice (14,000 g for 10 min). The protein concentration of the supernatant was adjusted to 1 μ g 538 w.L⁻¹ with HENT buffer. For blocking, four-times the volume (v/v) of HENS (225 mM HEPES-NaOH pH 7.2, 0.9 mM EDTA, 0.1 mM Neocuproine, 2.5% (w/v) SDS)) was freshly prepared, 540 and 30 mM NEM was added to the protein extracts. The samples were incubated at 37^oC for 30 minutes. Excess NEM was removed by precipitation with ice-cold acetone, and the protein pellets were re-suspended in 0.5 ml HENS buffer (without NEM) per mg of protein in the starting sample. Biotinylation was achieved by adding biotin-HPDP and SIN (1 mM and 3 mM final concentrations, respectively) with further dark incubation at RT for 1 hour. The controls for false-positive signals (FP) were treated with SIN in the presence of NEM for 25 minutes at 37°C before the biotinylation step (Supplemental Figure S2). After biotinylation, the proteins were precipitated with acetone and subjected to affinity purification of biotinylated proteins by NeutrAvidin agarose, as described elsewhere (Lindermayr et al., 2005). For affinity purification 549 of biotinylated proteins, the precipitated proteins were re-suspended in HENS buffer (100 μ L per mg protein in the starting sample) and 2 volumes of neutralization buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.7, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, and 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100). Biotinylated proteins were incubated for 1 hour at RT with the NeutrAvidin-agarose (30 *µ*L per mg protein). The agarose-matrix was washed extensively with 20 volumes of washing buffer (600 mM NaCl in neutralization buffer) and bound proteins were eluted with 100 mM β-mercaptoethanol in elution buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.7, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA) and precipitated with ice-cold acetone.

In-solution digest of S-nitrosylated proteins after NeutrAvidin affinity purification

The pellets from the acetone-precipitation were dissolved in 30 *µ*L of 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate. For protein reduction, 2 *µ*L of 100 mM DTT were added and incubated for 15 min 561 at 60 °C. After cooling to RT, the free cysteine residues were alkylated by adding $2 \mu L$ of freshly prepared 300 mM iodoacetamide solution for 30 min. A tryptic digest was performed overnight at 37 °C using 0.5 *µ*g of trypsin (Promega, Mannheim, Germany) per sample. The digestion was 564 stopped by adding trifluoroacetic acid and then stored at -20 °C.

Preparation of whole-cell extracts (WCE) for overall proteomic analyses

From each genotype (IE: WT, EV; NE: Ra1, Ra2), 6 biological replicates per treatment were analyzed. Fifty mg of frozen, homogenized leaf tissue were mixed with 1 mL HENT buffer containing a protease inhibitor cocktail tablet and incubated on ice for 10 min. After centrifugation (14,000 *g*, 10 min), Triton X-100 was removed by passing samples over a Sephadex G-25 column (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK) using HEN buffer (without Triton X-100). After determination of the protein content by the Bradford assay, aliquots containing 10 µg of protein were prepared for LC-MS/MS analysis and subsequent label-free quantification.

Filter-aided proteome preparation (FASP) digest of proteins from WCEs

576 From each of the WCEs, an aliquot containing 10 μ g of protein was digested using a modified FASP procedure (Wisniewski et al., 2009). The proteins were reduced and alkylated using DTT and IAA and then centrifuged through a 30 kDa cut-off filter device (PALL, Port Washington, USA), washed thrice with UA buffer (8 M urea in 0.1 M Tris/HCl pH 8.5) and twice with 50 mM AmBic. The proteins were digested for 2 hours at room temperature using 1 *µ*g Lys-C (Wako Chemicals, Neuss, Germany) and for 16 hours at 37°C using 2 *µ*g trypsin (Promega, Mannheim, Germany). The peptides were collected by centrifugation (10 min at 14,000 *g*), and 583 the samples were acidified with 0.5% TFA and stored at -20 °C.

Mass spectrometry

Digested samples (after affinity purification or from WCE) were thawed and centrifuged (14,000 *g*) for 5 minutes at 4 °C. The LC-MS/MS analysis was performed as previously described on an Ultimate 3,000 nano-HPLC coupled to a LTQ-OrbitrapXL (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Bremen, Germany) (Hauck et al., 2010). Every sample was automatically injected and loaded onto the trap column at a flow rate of 30 μ l min⁻¹ in 5% buffer B (98% acetonitrile (ACN)/0.1% formic acid (FA) in HPLC-grade water)) and 95% buffer A (2% ACN/0.1% FA in HPLC-grade water). After 5 minutes, the peptides were eluted from the trap column and separated on the analytical column by a 135-minute gradient from 7% to 32% of acetonitrile in 0.1% formic acid at 300 nl min^{-1} flow rate followed by a short gradient from 32% to 93% acetonitrile for 5 minutes. The gradient was set back between each sample to starting conditions and left to equilibrate for 20 minutes. The 10 most abundant peptide ions from the MS pre-scan were fragmented in the linear

ion trap if they showed an intensity of at least 200 counts and if they were at least +2 charged. 598 During fragmentation, a high-resolution (6 x 10^4 full-width half maximum at 400 m/z) MS spectrum was acquired in the Orbitrap with a mass range from 300 to 1,500 Da.

Label-free analysis using Progenesis LC-MS

The acquired spectra were loaded to the Progenesis LC-MS software (v2.5, Nonlinear Dynamics Ltd, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK) for label-free quantification and analyzed as previously described (Hauck et al., 2010; Merl et al., 2012). Features of only one charge or features with more than seven charges were excluded. The raw abundances of the remaining features were normalized to allow for the correction of factors resulting from experimental variation. Rank 1-3 MS/MS spectra were exported as a MASCOT generic file and used for peptide identification with MASCOT (v2.2 and 2.3.02, Matrix Science, London, UK) in the *Populus trichocarpa* protein database (v4; 17,236,452 residues; 45,036 sequences). The search parameters were 10 ppm peptide mass and 0.6 Da MS/MS tolerance, one missed cleavage allowed.

For the identification and quantification of S-nitroso-proteins, N-ethylmaleinimidation and carbamidomethylation were set as variable modifications, as well as methionine oxidation. A MASCOT-integrated decoy database search calculated a false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.17% 614 using a MASCOT ion score cut-off of 30 and a significance threshold of $P < 0.01$.

For the identification and quantification of total proteins in the WCEs of leaves, carbamidomethylation was set as a fixed modification, and methionine oxidation and deamination of asparagine/glutamine as variable modification. A MASCOT-integrated decoy database search calculated a FDR of < 1%. The MASCOT Percolator algorithm was used to distinguish between correct and incorrect spectrum identification (Brosch et al., 2009), with a maximum *q* value of 0.01. The peptides with a minimum percolator score of 15 were used further.

For each dataset, the peptide assignments were re-imported into the Progenesis LC-MS software.

After summing up the abundances of all of the peptides that were allocated to each protein, the identification and quantification results were exported and are given in Supplemental Table S6.

Visualization of proteome data

For proteomics visualization we applied Voronoi treemaps as introduced by Bernhardt et al., (2009). The presented Treemaps subdivide the 2D plane into subsections according to the hierarchical data structure of gene functional assignments as taken from the corresponding *A. thaliana* orthologs (http://www.arabidopsis.org/tools/bulk/go/index.jsp), which were obtained via the POPGENIE (http://www.popgenie.org) database. For the top level the total area is subdivided into main categories, afterwards the main categories into subcategories and the subcategories into equally sized cells representing significantly changed proteins. According to this classification the "heat shock protein 70" (Fig. 2B), was assigned to the subcategory "protein folding" (Fig. 2A) and this to the category "amino acid and protein synthesis" (Fig. 2A). In the overview images functional classes were encoded by using colors depending on categories. Expression change was encoded by using a blue via grey to orange color gradient with blue for decreased, grey for unchanged and orange for increased expression.

Statistics

The differences in the overall proteome and the S-nitroso-proteome of the IE and NE genotypes between control and ozone-treated samples were analyzed as previously described (Vanzo et al., 2014) using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Orthogonal Partial Least Square regression (OPLS) statistical methods from the software packages 'SIMCA-P' (v13.0.0.0, Umetrics, Umeå, Sweden). The results were validated by 'full cross validation' (Erikssonet al., 2006) using a 95% confidence level.

Raw abundances from the label-free analysis of proteome were extracted from the Progenesis LC-MS/MS software (v2.5, Nonlinear Dynamics Ltd). Protein intensities were normalized to the corresponding (averaged) protein abundance in whole-cell extracts (WCE) of the control (C) and ozone-treated (O) leaves. The PCA was performed on normalized, summed S-nitroso-protein 651 intensities (centered and scaled with 1 SD^{-1}), which were pre-processed by logarithmic (base 10) transformation and used as X-variables. Six independent biological replicates were used for each C and O treatment and for IE and NE genotypes, respectively. The size of the analyzed matrix was 2024-by-24 and 206-by-24 for the overall proteome and the S-nitroso-proteome, respectively. The OPLS was performed as PCA by giving as Y-variable a value of 0 to C samples and a value of 1 to O samples. S-nitroso-proteins showing Variable of Importance for the Projection (VIP) greater than 1 and the uncertainty bars of the jack-knifing method smaller than the respective VIP value were defined as discriminant proteins that can separate O from C samples and IE from NE samples. Additionally, discriminant proteins were tested for

- significance difference (*P* < 0.05) between C and O samples using Student's *t*-test and two-way-
- ANOVA (SPSS, v22.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA).

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Author contributions

J.-P.S., C.L., and J.D. conceived the original research plan; C.L. and J.-P.S. supervised the experiments; E.V. and V.V. performed the experiments; J.M.-P., S.M.H., and A.G. provided technical assistance to E.V.; E.V., V.V., J.M.-P., J.B., K.R., and A.G. analyzed the data; E.V. wrote the article with contributions of all co-authors; J.-P.S. supervised and complemented the writing.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Whole proteome comparison of isoprene-emitting (IE, black) and non-isoprene-emitting (NE, red) gray poplar leaves. A) Volcano plot showing the magnitude of differential protein abundance in NE and IE (Log2 (fold change)) compared to the measure of the statistical 1022 significance (-Log10 (*P*-value, *t*-test)). Vertical, dashed lines indicate the log fold change of \pm 1, 1023 and the horizontal line a significance value of $\alpha = 0.05$. The proteins with the highest and 1024 significant fold changes between NE and IE samples are highlighted and numbered: $1 =$ 1025 terpenoid cyclase, $2 =$ isoprene synthase, $3 =$ Rubisco large chain, $4 = 50S$ ribosomal protein, $5 =$ 1026 ubiquinone biosynthesis protein, $6 =$ chloroplast inner membrane import protein Tic22, $7 =$ basic 1027 pentacysteine 4, $8 = EP3-3$ chitinase, $9 =$ eukaryotic aspartyl protease family. B) Discriminant proteins that explain the separation between IE and NE (116 in total, Supplemental Table S1) grouped according their functional category. Black bars mean up-regulated in IE, red bars indicate an up-regulation in the NE samples. Score (C) and loading (D) plots of OPLS of the whole proteome. C) Plants were divided into IE group (black circles, n = 6) and NE group (red 1032 circles, $n = 6$). Ellipse indicates the tolerance based on Hotelling's T^2 with a significance level of 0.05. D) Each functional group of proteins is indicated with different colors. The outer and inner ellipses indicate 100% and 75% explained variance, respectively. Each point represents an independent plant in the score plot and an individual protein in the loading plot. OPLS model 1036 fitness: $R^2(X) = 69.9\%$, $R^2(Y) = 100\%$, $r^2 = 98.6\%$, Q^2 (cum) = 79.3% using 1 predictive 1037 component. RMSEE = 0.072 ; RMSEcv = 0.227 . $P < 0.05$, cross-validated ANOVA.

Figure 2. Voronoi Treemaps showing the overall proteome changes of isoprene-emitting (IE: WT/EV) and non-isoprene-emitting (NE: Ra1/Ra2) gray poplar leaves. The Treemaps subdivide the 2D plane into subsections according to the hierarchical data structure of gene functional assignments, taken from the corresponding *Arabidopsis thaliana* L. orthologs (http://www.arabidopsis.org/tools/bulk/go/index.jsp), which were obtained via the POPGENIE (http://www.popgenie.org) database. Protein expression changes are displayed according to their functional categories: Hierarchically structured functional assignments were displayed in treemaps (A, B). C) Expression changes (log2 ratios of condition 1 vs condition 2) were color-coded. Orange codes for increased in NE (log2 ratio 4), grey means unchanged and blue codes for decreased (log2 ratio 4) expression in NE genotype.

Figure 3. Time-course curves of NO emission rates in shoots of isoprene-emitting (IE: WT/EV) and non-isoprene-emitting (NE: Ra1/Ra2) gray poplars before and after ozone fumigation (800 1052 nL L⁻¹ for 1 h) Measurements were performed at 25° C and 500 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ PPFD. Values are 1053 means of four biological replicates \pm SE. The vertical grav bar indicates the period of ozone fumigation.

Figure 4. Voronoi Treemaps showing the 63 S-nitrosylated proteins discriminant in IE and NE 1057 genotypes (see also Supplemental Table S3) and assigned to functional categories at the $1st$ level 1058 (A) and $3rd$ level (B).

Figure 5. Score (A) and loading (B) plots of the OPLS of S-nitrosylated protein abundances 1061 from control and ozone samples of isoprene emitting ($IE = WT/EV$) and non-isoprene-emitting 1062 (NE = Ra1/Ra2) genotypes. A) Plants were divided into ozone group (triangles, $n = 12$) and 1063 control group (circles, $n = 12$). Ellipse indicates the tolerance based on Hotelling's T^2 with a significance level of 0.05. B) Each functional group of proteins is indicated with different colors. The outer and inner ellipses indicate 100% and 75% explained variance, respectively. Each point represents an independent plant in the score plot and an individual protein in the loading plot. 1067 OPLS model fitness: $R^2(X) = 48.7\%$, $R^2(Y) = 100\%$, $r^2 = 69\%$, Q^2 (cum) = 59% using 1 1068 predictive component. $RMSEE = 0.224$; $RMSEcv = 0.293$. *P*-values of cross-validated ANOVA: NE/IE (genotype), *P* < 0.05; O/C (treatment), *P* < 0.01.

Figure 6. Voronoi Treemaps showing changes in the S-nitroso-proteome depending on (A) ozone treatment (O/C) and (B) genotype (NE/IE). Ozone-induced changes in the S-nitroso-1073 proteome of (C) isoprene-emitting $(IE = WT/EV)$ and (E) non-isoprene-emitting $(NE =$ Ra1/Ra2) genotypes. Ratios of S-nitrosylation rates in NE/IE under control conditions (D) and (F) ozone treatment. S-Nitrosylated proteins were assigned to the functional categories displayed in Figure 4. Expression changes (log2 ratios of two conditions (see A, B, C, D, E, and F)) were color-coded. Orange means increased (log2 ratio -3), grey means unchanged and blue means decreased (log2 ratio 3) expression.
Figure 7. Scheme of the possible interactions of isoprene with NO formation processes and biochemical target sites of NO in non-isoprene-emitting (NE) gray poplar (modifed after Moreau et al. 2010).

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1087 **Table 1.** Log-fold changes of the abundances of S-nitrosylated proteins between isoprene-1088 emitting (IE) and non-isoprene-emitting (NE) gray poplar after ozone fumigation (only ozone 1089 samples) which differ significantly between lines (VIP score). The intensities of the S-1090 nitrosylated proteins were normalized to the corresponding global protein abundances of ozone-1091 treated (O) leaves. Functional categorization was done according to MapMan BIN 1092 (http://ppdb.tc.cornell.edu/dbsearch/searchacc.aspx). * LC-MS/MS quantification based on one 1093 unique peptide.

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Supplemental Figure S1. S-nitrosylated proteins detected in the control and ozone samples of the isoprene emitting (IE, black) and non-isoprene emitting (NE, red) genotypes. S-nitrosoproteins from IE and NE leaf extracts were detected by the Biotin switch assay, purified via affinity chromatography und identified by LC-MS/MS. A) PCA score plot based on protein abundances of S-nitrosylated proteins in IE and NE samples (control and ozone). The green square highlights the control samples (circles, $n = 12$), the blue square the ozone samples (triangles, $n = 12$). Within the ozone samples, the clustering of the NE samples is highlighted. B) Functional categorization of the 203 identified S-nitrosylated proteins in IE and NE poplar (control and ozone). The category 'Other' comprises C1-metabolism (1 protein), fermentation (1), gluconeogenesis (1), hormone metabolism (1), mitochondrial electron transport (1), nucleotide metabolism (1), N-metabolism (2), and S-assimilation (2).

Supplemental Figure S2

- Protein ladder $1)$
	- NE control
- NE ozone $\overline{3}$
	- NE (control) false positive endogen
- NE (control) without biotin $5)$
- NE (control) without sinapinic acid $6)$
- $7)$ NE (control) without blocking (NEM)

Supplemental Figure S2. Detection of endogenously S-nitrosylated proteins in non-isoprene-emitting (NE) gray poplar. (A) Western blot showing in vivo S-nitrosylated proteins including controls for false-positives (FP) (line 4: FP endogen (reduced with 3 mM sinapinic acid and blocked with 30 mM NEM simultaneously); line 5: without 1 mM biotin; line 6: without 3 mM sinapinic acid; line 7: without 30 mM NEM). Biotinylated (=S-nitrosylated) proteins were detected by an anti-biotin antibody (for details see Material and methods and Vanzo et al. 2014). (B) Ponceau S staining of total protein.

Supplemental Table S1. Proteins, that discriminately separate non–isoprene-emitting (NE) from isoprene emitting (IE) gray poplar samples in the OPLS model of the whole proteome. Proteins with a VIP score > 1 and uncertainty bars of jack-knifing method smaller than the respective VIP value are considered discriminant. Additionally, proteins with VIP scores < 1 were added to the list when they showed a significant difference between IE and NE in the *t*-test ($P < 0.05$). OPLS analysis was performed on LC-MS/MS protein abundances obtained from whole leaf extracts from two IE (WT/EV, $n = 6$ biological replicates per line) and two NE (Ra1/Ra2, $n = 6$ biological replicates per line) genotypes. Log2 ratios between NE and IE are given to show different amounts of the proteins. SE = standard error of jack-knifing method. Annotation and functional classification was achieved by several databases (Phytozome, PopGenIE, MapMan BIN). Proteins highlighted in bold are discussed in the text. * Identified and quantified by only one unique peptide.

Hormone & Lipid metabolism

DOWN in NE

Amino acid & Protein metabolism

Supplemental Table S2. Complete list of LC-MS/MS identified S-nitrosylated proteins in isoprene-emitting (IE) and non-isoprene-emitting (NE) gray poplar leaves (control and ozone). Proteins were extracted from IE and NE leaf samples, subjected to the Biotin switch assay, purified by affinity chromatography and identified by LC-MS/MS. The functional categorization of S-nitrosylated proteins was done according to MapMan BIN (http://ppdb.tc.cornell.edu/dbsearch/mapman.aspx). The protein identification is based on the unique peptide count given in the right column. The prediction of the putative S-nitrosylated cysteine (Cys) within the primary amino acid sequence was performed with the software GPS-SNO 1.0 (Xue et al., 2010).

Supplemental Table S3. Proteins, that discriminately separate non–isoprene-emitting (NE) from isoprene-emitting (IE) gray poplar samples ($n = 6$) biological replicates per individual line: WT, EV, Ra1, Ra2) in the control (C) and ozone (O) treatment in the OPLS of the S-nitroso proteome (*P* = 0.0028; CV-ANOVA). Proteins showing VIP (Variable Importance in the Projection) scores > 1 and uncertainty bars of jackknifing method (SE) smaller than the respective VIP value were defined as discriminant proteins. Additionally, log2 fold changes and *P*-values (*t*-test) are given for the main treatment effect (IE and NE combined), for the main genotype effect (C and O combined), for the treatment effects within the IE genotype or within the NE genotype, and for the genotype effect within C or within O. Significant *P*-values are highlighted in bold (*t*-test, $P \le 0.05$). * LC-MS/MS quantification based on one unique peptide.

Supplemental Table S4. Constitutively S-nitrosylated proteins, which are differentially abundant in isoprene-emitting (IE: WT/EV, $n = 6$ biological replicates per line) and non-emitting (NE: Ra1/Ra2, $n = 6$ biological replicates per line) gray poplar under steady-state conditions (only control samples). Functional categorization was done according to MapMan BIN (http://ppdb.tc.cornell.edu/dbsearch/searchacc.aspx). *LC-MS/MS quantification based on one unique peptide.

Supplermental Table S5. S-nitrosylated proteins, which are differentially abundant in ozone and control treatments of (A) isoprene-emitting (IE: WT/EV, $n = 6$ biological replicates per line) and (B) non-isoprene-emitting (NE: $Ra1/Ra2$, $n = 6$ biological replicates per line) gray poplar samples. Functional categorization was done according to MapManBIN (http://ppdb.tc.cornell.edu/dbsearch/searchacc.aspx). *LC-MS/MS quantification based on one unique peptide.

Table S5A IE genotypes

Accession	VIP score	SE	Log ₂ O_{IF}/C_{IE}	Annotation	MapMan BIN category	P-value $(t-test)$
POPTR 0005s10990	2.03	1.24	1.1	Aconitase 1 (ACO1)	TCA / org.transformation	0.035
POPTR 0017s12240	1.84	1.67	1.3	Pyridoxal phosphate-dependent transferases superfamily protein	Amino acid metabolism/synthesis	0.009
POPTR 0016s02620*	1.36	1.07	1.4	Alpha-N-arabinofuranosidase 1	Cell wall	0.037
POPTR 0015s08540*	2.08	0.66	$4.8\,$	Aldehyde dehydrogenase 2B4 (ALDH2)	Fermentation	0.023
POPTR 0012s10830	2.09	1.06	1.0	Alpha-mannosidase	Misc/gluco-, galacto- and mannosidases	0.003
POPTR 0015s06950*	1.18	1.04	1.4	Protein of unknown function (DUF1118)	Not assigned/unknown	0.098
POPTR 0014s02410	1.66	1.22	0.8	Granulin repeat cysteine protease family protein	Protein/degradation	0.016
POPTR 0004s14960	1.47	0.56	$0.8\,$	Presequence protease 1	Protein/degradation	0.071
POPTR 0018s07410	1.66	0.87	-0.9	Chaperonin 20	Protein/folding	0.072
POPTR 0001s47020*	< 1	$\overline{}$	-0.9	Heat shock protein 90	Protein/folding	0.006
POPTR 0008s05470*	≤ 1	\blacksquare	1.3	Heat shock protein 70	Protein/folding	0.028
POPTR 0010s20810	2.15	0.91	1.7	RuBisCO activase	PS/calvin cyle	0.002
POPTR 0015s07330*	≤ 1	$\overline{}$	1.1	D-ribulose-5-phosphate-3-epimerase	PS/calvin cyle	0.016
POPTR 0004s01470	1.90	0.53	0.6	ATPase, F1 complex, gamma subunit protein	PS/lightreaction	0.072
POPTR 0009s07040*	2.33	0.83	1.6	NIFS-like cysteine desulfurase, chloroplastidic	S-assimilation	0.078
POPTR 0008s03810	1.14	0.48	-1.7	Phenylalanine ammonia-lyase 2 (PAL)	Secondary metabolism	0.027

Table S5B NE genotypes

