

1 **Title**

2 The Resistance Awakens: Natural diversity informs engineering of plant immune
3 receptors at the DNA, RNA, and protein levels

4 **Authors**

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7 **Summary**

8 Plants are natural bioengineers, and we illustrate how the stunning diversity in plant
9 immune receptors can be translated into engineering efforts from Arabidopsis to crops.

10 **Abstract**

11 Plants rely on germline-encoded, innate immune receptors to sense pathogens and
12 initiate the defense response. The exponential increase in quality and quantity of
13 genomes, RNA-seq datasets, and protein structures has underscored the incredible
14 diversity of plant immunity. Arabidopsis continues to serve as a valuable model and the
15 theoretical foundation of our understanding of wild plant diversity of immune receptors,
16 but expansion of study into agricultural crops has also revealed distinct evolutionary
17 trajectories and challenges. Here, we provide the classical context for study of both
18 intracellular nucleotide-binding, leucine-rich repeat receptors (NLRs) and surface-
19 localized pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) at the levels of DNA sequences,
20 transcriptional regulation, and protein structures. We then examine how recent
21 technology has shaped our understanding of immune receptor evolution and informed
22 our ability to efficiently engineer resistance. We summarize current literature and provide
23 an outlook on how researchers take inspiration from natural diversity in bioengineering
24 efforts for disease resistance in crops.

25 **Introduction**

26 Like all organisms, plants can sense the presence of pathogens and induce immune
27 responses. In the absence of adaptive immunity, plant innate immune receptors provide
28 sufficient diversity at a population level to recognize rapidly evolving pathogens, including
29 viruses, bacteria, nematodes, fungi, oomycetes, insects, and parasitic plants (Hamilton
30 et al. 1990; Dangl and Jones 2001; Chisholm et al. 2006). Understanding natural diversity
31 remains essential for uncovering how plants evolve detection of new pathogens and for
32 successful deployment of disease resistance in crops (Barragan and Weigel 2021).

33 Plant immune receptors come in two main forms based on their domain architectures and
34 cellular localization: surface-localized pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) and
35 intracellular nucleotide-binding, leucine-rich repeat receptors (NLRs) (Jones and Dangl
36 2006; Ngou et al. 2022a). PRRs include receptor-like kinases (RLKs) and receptor-like
37 proteins (RLPs) that bind to host-derived molecules, microbe-derived molecules, or
38 pathogen-derived effector proteins present outside of the plant cell (Shiu and Bleecker
39 2003). Upon ligand binding, a protein complex is formed between primary receptor,
40 ligand, and RLK co-receptor(s), leading to kinase activation and downstream immune
41 activation (Li et al. 2024b).

42 NLRs are structurally and functionally conserved across plants, animals, fungi, and
43 bacteria, in that they are able to perceive pathogen-derived effector proteins and induce
44 immune signaling (Jones et al. 2016; Wojciechowski et al. 2022; Kibby et al. 2023). Plant
45 NLRs are defined by their regulatory central NB-ARC (nucleotide-binding adaptor shared
46 by Apaf-1, R proteins, and Ced-4) domain and series of C-terminal leucine-rich repeats
47 (LRRs) mostly implicated in ligand binding (Baggs et al. 2017). N-terminal signaling
48 domains include coiled coils (CC), Resistance to Powdery Mildew 8 (RPW8) domains or
49 Toll-Interleukin receptor (TIR) domains. Upon activation, NLRs form oligomeric structures
50 bringing their signaling domains into activation (Jones et al. 2016; Lolle et al. 2020). Both
51 CC-NLRs and RPW8-NLRs assemble into ion channel pores, while tetrameric TIR-NLRs
52 enable NADase enzymatic activities (Huang et al. 2022; Jia et al. 2022; Yu et al. 2022).

53 Functionally, NLRs are and PRRs could be classified as sensors and helpers. Sensor
54 NLRs can either directly bind pathogen effector proteins translocated into the host, guard
55 host proteins targeted by effectors, or ‘bait’ for the effectors with integrated domains (IDs)
56 (Baggs et al. 2017; Bailey et al. 2018). Helper NLRs aid the activation of immune
57 responses for a subset of sensor NLRs that belong to their regulatory networks or for their
58 specific pairs (Adachi et al. 2019). Similarly, some PRRs act as sensors by binding to a
59 particular epitope or ligand, whereas co-receptors from the SERK (somatic
60 embryogenesis receptor kinase) family act as helpers, activating subsequent immune
61 signaling (Snoeck et al. 2023). Immune signaling after PRR and NLR activation includes
62 mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling, Ca^{2+} burst, production of reactive
63 oxygen species (ROS), transcriptional reprogramming, and, in case of most NLRs,
64 programmed cell death called hypersensitive response (HR), allowing propagation of
65 responses (Lolle et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2023). Pathways activated by PRRs and NLRs
66 work synergistically, with PRRs typically having a broader pathogen recognition range
67 while NLRs have a more narrow, strain-specific but faster evolving response (Tian et al.
68 2021; Yuan et al. 2021; Ngou et al. 2022a).

69 Identifying functional PRRs and NLRs, defining their recognition range, and quantifying
70 their diversity across evolutionary scales have led to multiple strategies of rational crop
71 improvement (Jones et al. 2024). In this review, we focus on the ‘central dogma’ as it
72 relates to plant immune receptors and their associated diversity at the DNA, RNA, and
73 protein level. We describe how available data has expanded from single genes to
74 pangenomes and from individual gene expression studies to multi-tissue RNA-seq
75 datasets. We propose that extreme combinatorial amino acid diversity in innate immune
76 receptor repertoires on the plant pan-genome level fits the model of ‘anticipatory
77 immunity’, in which diversity is rapidly generated on a population level in anticipation of
78 new pathogen challenge, leading to new recognition specificities and selection of
79 functional alleles across generations. Accumulation of expression datasets together with
80 advances in synthetic biology allow for new possibilities in engineering inducible disease
81 resistance. Evolutionary, experimental, and computational structural analyses have
82 facilitated creation of designer receptors with resurrected, broader binding capabilities, or
83 fully synthetic recognition specificities. With accumulation of training data, the future of

84 incorporating generative machine learning could greatly expedite engineering efforts.
85 Modern technologies have accelerated translation from model species into diverse crops,
86 providing practical solutions for sustainable agriculture.

87 **Episode 1: Hope for Tomorrow: DNA Diversity and Anticipatory** 88 **Immunity**

89 *By Chandler A. Sutherland and Ksenia V. Krasileva*

90 “A long time ago, in 119 million nucleotides far, far away...” we start our journey with DNA
91 sequences. Most mutations are deleterious (Eyre-Walker and Keightley 2007; Chen et al.
92 2022), but immune systems present an evolutionary edge case in which high mutation is
93 beneficial and even required to keep pace with rapidly evolving pathogens (Martincorena
94 and Luscombe 2013; Müller et al. 2018). Across the tree of life, this has led to several
95 radical evolutionary innovations, including emergence of molecular mechanisms of self-
96 mutation and clonal selection on antibodies in vertebrates and CRISPR/Cas-based
97 incorporation of extragenomic DNA in bacteria (Figure 1) (Müller et al. 2018). The plant
98 immune system is no exception in the need for rapid evolution. The stunning genetic
99 diversity of plant immune receptors has long been appreciated and inspired multiple
100 hypotheses and questions about its generation and maintenance.

101 **Mystery is Irresistible: Early clues towards immune receptor diversity generation**

102 The molecular study of NLRs and PRRs began with single gene cloning and diversity
103 analysis in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (hereafter as *Arabidopsis*) (Bent et al. 1994; Grant et al.
104 1995; Gómez-Gómez and Boller 2000; Zipfel et al. 2006), tobacco (Whitham et al. 1994),
105 and in crops (Martin et al. 1993; Jones et al. 1994; Song et al. 1995; Meyers et al. 1998;
106 Dodds et al. 2001). These established systems of immune receptors and their pathogen
107 complements provided molecular evidence for the gene-for-gene theory, where each
108 functional plant immune gene is paired with a corresponding gene in the pathogen (Flor
109 1971). In this framework, the presence and activity of both gene partners is required for
110 immunity. Even in this early work, the importance of population-level polymorphism in

111 immune receptors to mediate co-evolution of plants and their pathogens was recognized
112 (Mode 1958; Flor 1971; Dodds 2023).

113 Genetic maps based on molecular markers revealed that many NLRs and PRRs in
114 *Arabidopsis* (Kunkel 1996; Botella et al. 1997) and in crops (Farrara et al. 1987; Islam
115 and Shepherd 1991; Jones et al. 1993; Kesseli et al. 1994) are organized in genomic
116 clusters. This clustered organization was hypothesized to increase the likelihood of
117 tandem duplication, unequal crossing over, and gene conversion, driving structural and
118 copy number variations (Parker et al. 1997; Parniske et al. 1997; Dixon et al. 1998;
119 Michelmore and Meyers 1998; Thomas et al. 1998; Fritz-Laylin et al. 2005). However,
120 clustered status is not a requirement for diversity, with singleton *Arabidopsis* NLR RPP13
121 maintaining extremely high amino acid diversity (Bittner-Eddy et al. 2000; Rose et al.
122 2004). Generally high amino acid diversity of the LRR domain of both NLRs and PRRs
123 was highlighted, and hypothesized to be maintained by diversifying and/or balancing
124 selection (Hamilton et al. 1990; Parniske et al. 1997; Michelmore and Meyers 1998).

125 The first plant genome sequenced was *Arabidopsis*, allowing for genome-wide
126 quantification of NLR and PRR copy numbers, types, and organization (The *Arabidopsis*
127 Genome Initiative 2000; Dangl and Jones 2001; Shiu and Bleecker 2001).
128 Characterization of NLRs and PRRs within and between species revealed high nucleotide
129 diversity in the LRR region primarily driven by nonsynonymous mutations (Nordborg et
130 al. 2005; Bakker et al. 2006; Li et al. 2024b). The NLR gene family in *Arabidopsis* includes
131 the most polymorphic loci and contains the highest frequency of major effect mutations
132 across the genome (Clark et al. 2007; Gan et al. 2011). For many immune-associated
133 PRRs, diversity analysis has lagged behind genome generation due in part to the lack of
134 known targets, making it difficult to functionally group receptors across species (Shiu and
135 Bleecker 2001; Li et al. 2024b). However, mutational frequency is higher in PRRs
136 associated with immunity than those involved in development (Ngou et al. 2024). It was
137 proposed that the high copy number and clustered organization of immune receptors
138 allowed for maintenance of functional recognition despite accumulation of the observed
139 high polymorphism (Figure 1) (Dangl and Jones 2001).

140 Non-model and crop reference genomes have become increasingly available with over
141 4,000 reference plant genomes currently deposited, allowing for interspecies
142 quantification and comparison of PRR and NLRs across plants (Gao et al. 2018; Baggs
143 et al. 2020; Man et al. 2020; Ngou et al. 2022b, 2024). The interspecies perspective on
144 the evolution of immune receptors has shown lineage-specific expansions and
145 contractions, potentially mediated by lifestyle, pathogen pressure, and genome
146 organization (Baggs et al. 2020; Giolai and Laine 2024). Integration of IDs in particular
147 has occurred unevenly across and within species (Kroj et al. 2016; Bailey et al. 2018; Van
148 de Weyer et al. 2019). Thus far, the majority of studies in NLR-IDs have focused on RRS1
149 with the C-terminal WRKY domain in *Arabidopsis* (Narusaka et al. 2014; Le Roux et al.
150 2015; Sarris et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2017; Mukhi et al. 2021) and RGA5 and Pik-1 in
151 rice, which both contain heavy metal-associated (HMA) domains (Ashikawa et al. 2008;
152 Cesari et al. 2013; Maqbool et al. 2015; Ortiz et al. 2017; Guo et al. 2018; Sugihara et al.
153 2023). The expansion of genomic resources will likely facilitate identifications of novel
154 functional NLR-IDs and their applications in the near future.

155 **Change is the essential process of all existence: pangenomic dimensions of** 156 **diversity**

157 The clustered organization, high incidence of structural variation, and polymorphic nature
158 of immune receptors make them challenging to anchor to reference genomes (Figure 1)
159 (Jiao and Schneeberger 2020; Barragan and Weigel 2021). To overcome this, Resistance
160 Gene Enrichment Sequencing (RenSeq) uses a combination of hybrid probe-based
161 enrichment of NLR loci and long read sequencing to allow for examination of NLR
162 diversity across and within species (Jupe et al. 2013). Application of RenSeq across 64
163 *Arabidopsis* accessions enabled a comprehensive, intraspecies view of NLR diversity
164 (Van de Weyer et al. 2019). The portability of this technique has quickly translated to crop
165 species and their wild relatives, enabling rapid cloning of resistance genes (Witek et al.
166 2016; Arora et al. 2019; Vendelbo et al. 2022), investigation of selective pressures related
167 to domestication (Seong et al. 2020; Gladieux et al. 2024), and study of the relationship
168 between ecological pressures and NLR gene content (Keepers et al. 2024).

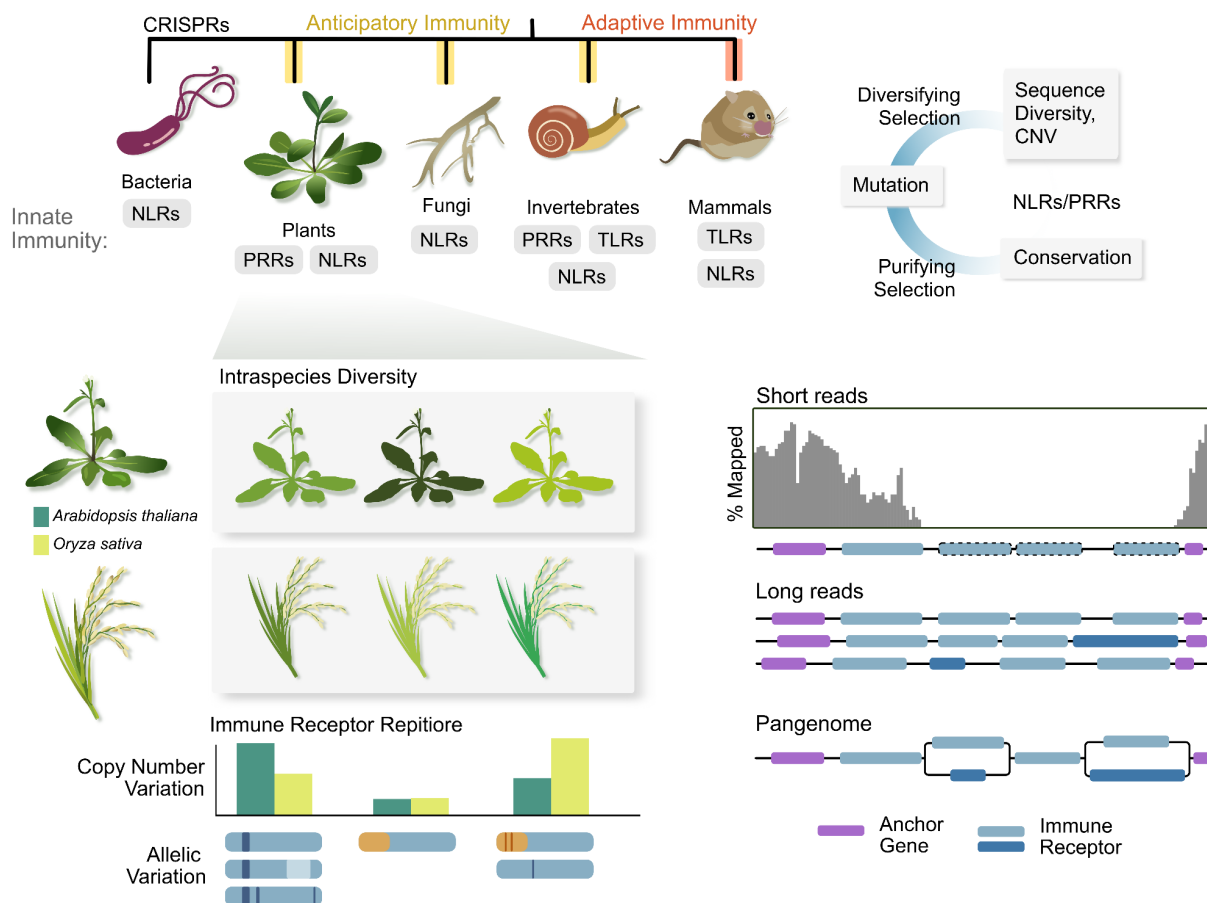
169 If RenSeq unlocked the door to comprehensive immune receptor diversity
170 characterization, recent long read, *de novo* assembled pan-genomes have thrown it wide
171 open. Long read pan-genomes of Arabidopsis now cover 167 distinct accessions (Jiao
172 and Schneeberger 2020; Kang et al. 2023; Wlodzimierz et al. 2023; Lian et al. 2024;
173 Teasdale et al. 2024), and pan-genome scale long read assemblies are now available for
174 many crops including maize (Hufford et al. 2021), rice (Shang et al. 2022), and their
175 availability has recently been reviewed (Pucker et al. 2022; Shi et al. 2023). Long-read
176 genomes provide the opportunity to investigate intraspecies PRR evolution, an
177 opportunity unavailable with RenSeq data. Researchers are no longer limited in the
178 availability and accuracy of sequences of plant immune receptors, but in the ability to
179 meaningfully analyze and draw conclusions from them in the pangenomic dimension
180 (Barragan and Weigel 2021).

181 Phylogenetic grouping of pangenome sequences of PRRs and NLRs has shown high
182 diversity at the solvent-exposed residues of the LRR domains, confirming single gene
183 studies on a genomic level (Man et al. 2020; Prigozhin and Krasileva 2021; Trinh et al.
184 2023; Li et al. 2024b). Quantification of amino acid diversity by Shannon entropy in the
185 model species of Arabidopsis, Brachypodium (Prigozhin and Krasileva 2021), and maize
186 (Prigozhin et al. 2024) reveal in each a subset of NLRs that are evolving quite rapidly.
187 While rice NLRs show signatures of balancing selection (Gladieux et al. 2024),
188 Arabidopsis NLR diversity is driven by positive, diversifying selection (Van de Weyer et
189 al. 2019; Sutherland et al. 2024). In Arabidopsis, this high diversity is associated with
190 distinct genomic features and a predicted higher likelihood of mutation (Sutherland et al.
191 2024). Use of graph-based methods to define the genomic regions surrounding NLRs in
192 17 Arabidopsis accessions allowed for a holistic view of NLR evolution, reaffirming
193 previous emphasis on local copy number variation, association of variable NLRs with
194 transposable elements (TEs), and high polymorphism (Teasdale et al. 2024). Application
195 of these tools developed in Arabidopsis to other crop species will reveal the extent to
196 which these observations are conserved.

197 While mechanistic questions remain, long read, pangenome approaches have supported
198 and unified many early hypotheses on the maintenance and generation of immune

199 receptor diversity. In *Arabidopsis*, a “diversity in diversification” explanation helps to
 200 combine the contributions of large structural variations, fusions, deletions, gene
 201 conversion, point mutation, and TE insertions (Teasdale et al. 2024). Understanding the
 202 mechanisms of diversity generation, the sequence space of receptors, and the associated
 203 genomic contexts will allow us to boost the efficiency and success rate of receptor
 204 engineering, inspired by plants’ natural genome engineering efforts.

205



206

207 **Figure 1: Immune receptors generate and maintain high diversity to manage**
 208 **diverse pathogenic threats.** Across the tree of life, the pressure for diversity in immune
 209 receptors has resulted in multiple mechanisms for its generation including CRISPR/Cas-
 210 based systems in bacteria, adaptive immunity in vertebrates, and anticipatory immunity
 211 in invertebrates, plants, and fungi. Innate immune receptors include NLRs, PRRs and toll-
 212 like receptors (TLRs). Within or across species, receptor number and allelic variation can

213 be measured using genomic sequencing. Long-read sequencing and *de novo* reference
214 assembly enables capture of diverse immune receptor content that was previously
215 missed in reference-based genome assemblies using short-read sequencing.

216 **Your focus determines your reality: exploiting *de novo* mutation events for the**
217 **study of immune receptor evolution**

218 Plant immune receptor diversity is maintained at the population level to buffer against
219 pathogens (Hamilton et al. 1990; Dangl and Jones 2001; Bakker et al. 2006; Teasdale et
220 al. 2024). We propose that plant immune systems, placed in the context of innate immune
221 system evolution across the tree of life, follow a pattern of anticipatory immunity (Müller
222 et al. 2018), where immune receptors are both more likely to mutate and are selected for
223 high diversity. Mutation here is used in the broadest sense, encompassing structural
224 variation and sequence polymorphism, reflecting all possible outcomes of DNA damage
225 and repair. This immune system is anticipatory as opposed to adaptive because it
226 includes higher mutational likelihood at immune receptors in anticipation of pathogen
227 attack with classical darwinian, population-scale selection as opposed to clonal,
228 individual-scale selection. This phenomenon has been described in invertebrate innate
229 immune receptors (Zhang et al. 2004; Ghosh et al. 2011; Adema 2015), but has not been
230 extended to plants.

231 An opportunity to test this hypothesis is highly accurate quantification of low frequency,
232 *de novo* mutational events, as new mutations have minimal opportunity for selection to
233 act. This allows for analyses of the underlying mutation distribution. Mutations are rare
234 events on the population scale, but occur constantly throughout plant development and
235 growth. Previous applications of somatic mutation sequencing in *Arabidopsis* were used
236 to compare mutations between tissues and characterize the mutational rate and spectrum
237 of DNA repair knockouts (Wang et al. 2019c; Wu et al. 2020; Quiroz et al. 2024). However,
238 improvements in ultra-accurate sequencing technology have decreased the variant
239 calling error rate such that *de novo* mutations can be confidently quantified to the
240 nanoscale (Abascal et al. 2021; Bae et al. 2023). Application of this technique to animal
241 tissue has revealed several distinct signatures and rates of mutation associated with
242 tissue types and age (Abascal et al. 2021; Moore et al. 2021; Cagan et al. 2022), but it

243 has yet to be applied to plant nuclear DNA or broadly to innate immune gene evolution.
244 Ultra-accurate mutation sequencing can be applied to both somatic and gametophytic
245 tissues, with an opportunity to use pollen as an accessible representative of germline
246 mutations. Structural variation can additionally be quantified de novo, posing the
247 opportunity to observe the birth and death of immune receptors by copy number variation
248 (Liu et al. 2024b). These improvements in sequencing technology will allow for direct
249 quantification of mutation in immune receptors and help identify the mechanisms driving
250 this diversity.

251 **Episode 2: Temptation of Response: Expression Variation and its** 252 **Regulation**

253 *By Wei Wei and Chandler A. Sutherland*

254 Constitutively activated defense responses can cause severe cell damage and reduce
255 plant growth, making precise regulation of immune receptor expression critical for
256 balancing immunity and growth. While lineage-specific patterns in expression are
257 observable even within species, common pathways for evolution of regulation can be
258 surmised from studies across model plants and crops. Editing transcriptional regulation
259 provides a promising opportunity for engineering broad-spectrum resistance.

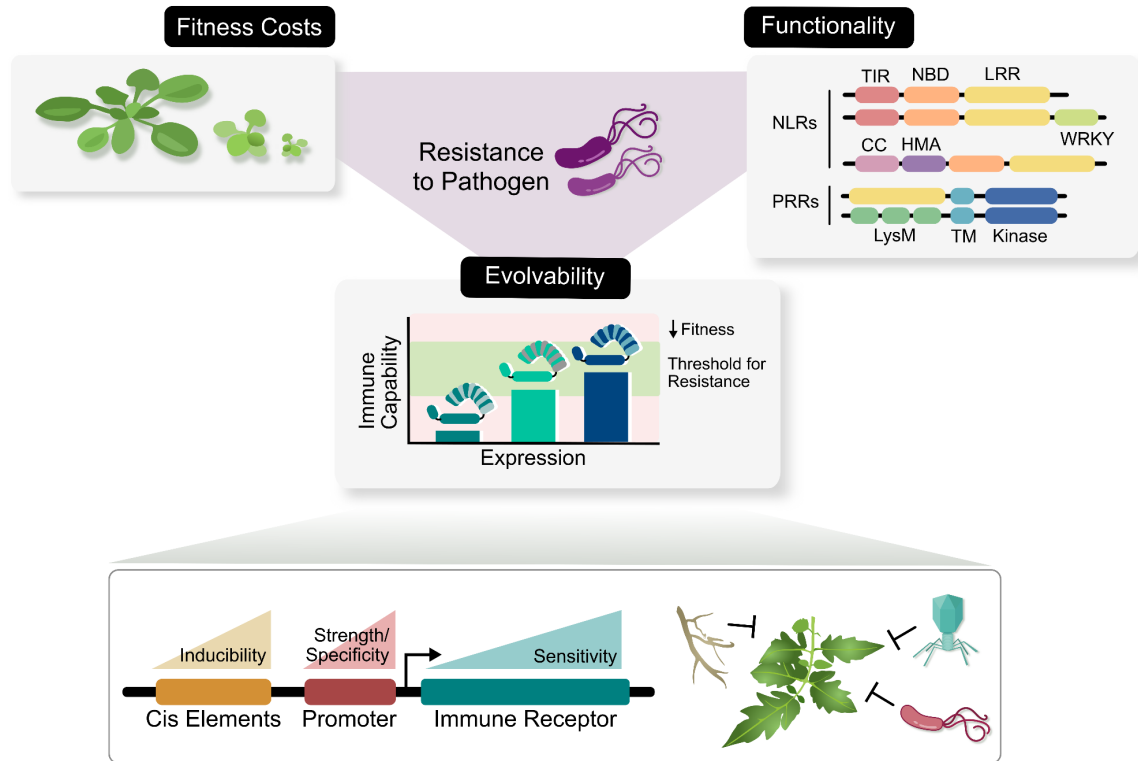
260 **Logic is the beginning of wisdom: immune receptors are induced by stimuli and** 261 **can be tightly regulated in their expression**

262 The first observed expression pattern for NLRs was induction in response to pathogens
263 or other stress stimuli. In Arabidopsis, 74 out of 124 NLRs surveyed using microarray
264 exhibited significant inductions by at least one pathogen, pathogen-related defense
265 elicitors, or hormone treatment (Mohr et al. 2010). The 74 NLR genes varied in the types
266 of pathogens or treatments they responded to, suggesting diverse regulatory pathways
267 mediating NLR induction. Similarly, characterization of the NLR gene family in tomatoes
268 revealed that 15 and 74 NLRs out of 321 were differentially expressed in early and late
269 blight-infected leaves, respectively (Bashir et al. 2022). NLRs in monocot crop species
270 such as maize and rice also exhibited expression changes induced by biotic and abiotic

271 stresses (Ding et al. 2020; Hayford et al. 2024). When responding to pathogens, some
272 NLRs showed differential expression between resistant and susceptible genotypes,
273 pointing to the relevance of expression regulation to immunity (Bashir et al. 2022; Fick et
274 al. 2022a). Defense signaling triggered by a specific NLR also induces global NLR
275 expression, suggesting a potential positive feedback loop to boost immunity. In both NLR-
276 based hybrid incompatibilities (Bomblies et al. 2007; Atanasov et al. 2018; Barragan et
277 al. 2021) and autoactive immune mutants (Yang et al. 2020, 2021), a large proportion of
278 non-causal NLRs are expressed.

279 Gene expression is in part regulated by the cis-regulatory elements located in promoters.
280 A motif search of all Arabidopsis NLR promoters revealed enrichment of W-boxes, the
281 binding site for WRKY transcription factors implicated in defense responses (Mohr et al.
282 2010). Mutagenesis of three W-boxes in the *RPP8* promoter greatly diminished its
283 inducibility and resistance to pathogens, indicating their importance in regulating NLR
284 expression (Mohr et al. 2010). NLR gene expression regulation has also been widely
285 reported on the pre-transcription level (histone modification and DNA methylation) and
286 post-transcription level (alternative splicing, premature transcription termination and small
287 RNAs), which were recently reviewed (Lai and Eulgem 2017; Fick et al. 2022b).

288 Most immune associated PRRs appear to be developmentally and spatially regulated,
289 particularly in the roots and shoots. In Arabidopsis, the flagellin receptor FLS2 and
290 elongation factor Tu receptor EFR are expressed in the shoots as early as 3 weeks of
291 age. In roots, only FLS2 was induced specifically in endodermis of the differentiated root,
292 whereas EFR was not (Beck et al. 2014; Wyrsh et al. 2015; Emonet et al. 2021). In
293 tomato, the flagellin receptor FLS3 and cold shock protein receptor CORE are expressed
294 in foliar tissue as early as four and six weeks of age, respectively (Clarke et al. 2013;
295 Wang et al. 2016). Conversely in the roots, FLS2, FLS3, and CORE displayed enhanced
296 expression in seedlings during the early, but not late, differentiation state (Leuschen-Kohl
297 et al. 2024). We hypothesize receptor sequences—and more likely, expression variations—
298 would explain the differential immune response across plant tissues or species previously
299 observed (Clarke et al. 2013; Wei et al. 2018; Trinh et al. 2023).



300

301 **Figure 2: Different selective pressures on immune receptors can lead to diverse**
 302 **expression patterns and inform engineering efforts for resistance to pathogens.**

303 Each receptor has a minimal threshold of expression to effectively monitor for the
 304 pathogen, and an upper threshold of expression associated with fitness costs. Different
 305 receptors have diverse modularity that can alter functionality and tolerable range of
 306 expression. Precise control of expression by fine-tuning cis-elements provides a platform
 307 for engineering broad-spectrum resistance against pathogenic threats. For functionality,
 308 domains are labeled as the following: TIR = Toll-Interleukin receptor, CC = coiledcoil, NB
 309 = nucleotide-binding domain, LRR = leucine-rich repeat, HMA = heavy-metal-associated,
 310 TM = transmembrane.

311 **The Force is a balance between extremes: immune receptors exist across axes of**
 312 **regulation**

313 With the increase of RNA-seq datasets across species and tissue types, the precise
 314 dynamics of immune receptor expression can be examined at scale. It has been recently
 315 observed that high NLR expression in the absence of a pathogen is more common than

316 previously recognized in Arabidopsis, tomato, barley, and wild wheat progenitor leaf
317 tissues (Figure 2) (Brabham et al. 2024b). High steady state expression of rapidly
318 evolving NLRs has been observed across tissues in Arabidopsis Col-0 (Sutherland et al.
319 2024), and several NLRs across the pangenome of maize show constitutive expression
320 (Prigozhin et al. 2024). RLK expression in Arabidopsis and tomato has shown
321 constitutive, tissue specific, and developmentally regulated expression, whereas RLPs in
322 Arabidopsis show constitutive and pathogen inducible expression (Chuberre et al. 2018;
323 Emonet et al. 2021; Steidele and Stam 2021). Therefore, while some immune receptors
324 may be under tight transcriptional control to prevent autoimmunity or more general
325 reductions in fitness, there are many NLRs and some PRRs that are expressed highly in
326 the absence of pathogens, and this expression is in some cases required for their function
327 as sensors of effectors (Bieri et al. 2004; Brabham et al. 2024b).

328 Restricting expression of NLRs to the tissues with the highest pathogen pressure would
329 reduce fitness costs associated with high receptor expression (Contreras et al. 2023;
330 Lüdke et al. 2023). Two examples in tomato support this hypothesis: the *I-2* gene provides
331 immunity against vascular wilt and shows vascular tissue-specific expression (Mes et al.
332 2000), and the *NRC6* gene cluster that confers resistance to cyst and root-knot
333 nematodes has root-exclusive expression (Lüdke et al. 2023). Spatial regulation of
334 expression can also be driven by developmental tradeoffs: altering of *FLS2*-expressing
335 cell types in Arabidopsis caused collapsed meristem cells and inhibited root growth
336 (Emonet et al. 2021). At the gene family level, NLRs in tomato show root skewed
337 expression, while Arabidopsis has reduced expression of NLRs in roots relative to shoots,
338 consistent with a lack of association with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and therefore
339 decreased pathogen pressure in the roots (Munch et al. 2018).

340 Immune receptor expression level is shaped by downward selective pressure driven by
341 fitness costs associated with excessive expression and upward selective pressure of the
342 minimum dosage required for functionality (Figure 2). Depending on the mode of action
343 and likelihood of autoactivity, individual receptors have different upper and lower bounds
344 of tolerable expression. The NLRs Sr33 and Sr50 are moderately autoactive on the
345 protein level and constitutively high gene expression exacerbates the autoactivity

346 (Tamborski et al. 2023). In this case, pathogen-specific induction of NLRs, in combination
347 with low basal expression, would prevent autoimmunity while maintaining their
348 functionality for defense activation upon pathogen attack. NLRs in sensor-helper pairs
349 are in tight co-evolutionary relationships, as unbalanced expression of the two NLRs can
350 spuriously activate the immune system. These NLR pairs are usually found to be co-
351 localized in the genome, with head-to-head orientation, supposedly being co-regulated
352 by the same promoter (Yang et al. 2024; Shimizu et al. 2022). However, *Mla7* in Barley
353 is a singleton direct recognition NLR that requires multiple active copies with high
354 expression for resistance (Brabham et al. 2024b), indicating a requirement of high
355 expression for functionality. Understanding the relationship between expression,
356 mechanism, and functionality of NLRs will greatly assist engineering efforts and
357 successful implementation in crops (Figure 2).

358 Two theories have emerged for the relationship between expression and evolvability of
359 immune receptors. For an immune receptor under diversifying selection to evolve new
360 recognition specificity, it can either be lowly expressed while accumulating mutations and
361 then be de-repressed to higher expression once a functional allele evolves (Shivaprasad
362 et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2016; Brabham et al. 2024b), or begin constitutively expressed
363 and evolve regulation after functionality (Prigozhin and Krasileva 2021; Sutherland et al.
364 2024). Low expression of a rapidly evolving receptor would allow for a higher tolerance
365 of mutations with slightly deleterious effects until functionality is achieved, as supported
366 by the presence of microRNA families capable of silencing multiple NLRs simultaneously
367 in pathogen-free tissues (Shivaprasad et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2016) and the enrichment
368 of functional, presumably not deleterious NLRs in constitutive expression states
369 (Brabham et al. 2024b). Alternatively, high expression levels observed across highly
370 variable NLRs (Brabham et al. 2024b; Sutherland et al. 2024) may increase evolvability
371 through increased likelihood of mutation associated with transcription (Staunton et al.
372 2023) and strengthened effect of individual mutations on fitness, increasing the efficacy
373 of selection (Bódi et al. 2017; Payne and Wagner 2019). However, it is likely the variation
374 in expression drives evolvability of immune receptors (Capp 2021; Prigozhin et al. 2024),
375 with both theories acting in parallel on different receptors depending on the initial
376 expression state and the strength of selection. High throughput analysis of the

377 relationship between expression levels and fitness of immune receptors of multiple types
378 will provide the evidence required to resolve this thorny evolutionary trajectory.

379

380 **I am one with the Force, and the Force is with me: opportunities and challenges**
381 **in immune receptor expression**

382 Recent advancements in understanding the evolution of spatial and temporal expression
383 can assist in the identification and engineering of functional immune receptors. For
384 identification, constitutive expression can be used as a selection criteria to enrich for
385 functional NLRs genome-wide or in map-based NLR cloning (Kawashima et al. 2016;
386 Brabham et al. 2024b), and tissue specificity can be related to pathogen specificity,
387 narrowing the search space for resistance (Contreras et al. 2023; Lüdke et al. 2023). For
388 example, shoot-specific expression of an engineered defense-related gene in rice largely
389 mitigated the fitness cost of constitutive defense, as it concentrated the immune
390 responses to tissues threatened by their target pathogens (Molla et al. 2016). The
391 development of spatial and single cell RNA-seq will provide high-resolution expression
392 atlases (Zhu et al. 2023), with the opportunity to bring immune receptor engineering to
393 unprecedented levels of precision.

394 The specificity of interaction between NLRs and effectors makes it challenging to
395 engineer the receptors for broad spectrum resistance. As an alternative strategy to protein
396 engineering, several studies have explored control of transcription. For example,
397 autoactive NLRs or elicitors of NLRs can be deployed in plants under pathogen-inducible
398 (PI) promoters (Figure 2). This strategy has been successful against pathogens harboring
399 transcription activator-like (TAL) effectors, such as *Xanthomonas* and *Ralstonia* (Zeng et
400 al. 2015; Gallas et al. 2024). Stacking effector binding elements in the promoter drives
401 the expression of a cell death-inducing NLR gene *Xa10* in rice, enabling induction of
402 resistance by multiple different *Xanthomonas oryzae* strains (Zeng et al. 2015). However,
403 it is challenging to apply these synthetic cassettes against other pathogens because the
404 transcription induction depends on TAL effectors. The tobacco promoter *hsr203j* shows
405 conserved induction by pathogens of several classes and was harnessed to regulate an

406 HR-inducing elicitor in tobacco, producing broad-spectrum resistance (Keller et al. 1999).
407 Recently, an autoactive mutant of *Sr33* and the intrinsically autoactive *Sr50* were fused
408 with PI promoters in tomato for conferring broad-spectrum resistance (Wei et al. 2024).
409 Critical to the success of this effort was pairing autoactive NLRs of varying sensitivities
410 with PI promoters optimized for strength and inducibility to balance immunity and fitness
411 costs (Figure 2).

412 Widely adopting a transcriptional engineering strategy in crops requires precise
413 transcriptional regulation specifically responsive to pathogens and not other stressors.
414 Some PI promoters are also developmentally regulated, leading to unintended induction
415 of NLR expression and autoimmunity at a specific developmental stages (Honee et al.
416 1998; Wei et al. 2024). Comprehensive examination across different tissues,
417 developmental stages, and stress responses is necessary to mine for specifically PI
418 promoters. In addition, the advancement of synthetic biology tools has empowered
419 engineering of transcriptional regulation. For example, promoter engineering at different
420 scales could fine tune the expression precisely to balance leaky expression and induced
421 immunity (Jores et al. 2021; Wei et al. 2024). Designing transcription circuits that display
422 both pathogen inducibility and tissue specificity would further reduce the fitness cost of
423 defense (Brophy et al. 2022). Several successful cases of engineering induced resistance
424 also suggest adding post-transcriptional or translational regulations in addition to
425 inducible promoters might be required to minimize undesired expression (Gonzalez et al.
426 2015; Xu et al. 2017). Manipulation of spatial, temporal, and inducibility of immune
427 receptor expression, aided by characterized promoter libraries, represents an exciting
428 opportunity for the future of plant immune engineering.

429 **Episode 3. The Rise of Ultimate Power: Immune Receptor Engineering**

430 *By Kyungyong Seong and Danielle M. Stevens*

431 Both genetic and regulatory changes are reflected in protein structure and function. In an
432 endless armsrace, pathogens evolve effectors to disarm plants, often adapting more
433 rapidly and divergently than plants can respond. In monocultural fields, the breakdown of
434 resistance can destroy entire populations, threatening global food security. The ultimate

435 power to overcome these threats rises through precise introduction of desired changes in
436 immune receptors.

437 **A little more knowledge lights our way: paving the path to receptor engineering**

438 Since the discovery of the first immune receptors, a central goal of our community has
439 been to engineer receptors for improved, altered, or broadened ligand specificity. Early
440 engineering endeavors were driven by classical techniques including random
441 mutagenesis, chimeras, and domain swaps leading to altered ligand perception (Wulff et
442 al. 2001; Mueller et al. 2012; Helft et al. 2016), enhanced immune responses (Harris et
443 al. 2013; Sueldo et al. 2015) and gain of effector recognition (Segretin et al. 2014; Huang
444 et al. 2021). Studies of allele variants provided further insight into receptor function,
445 residues potentially required for ligand binding, and protein complex formation and
446 stability (Dunning et al. 2007). The overarching aim remains to amplify intended immune
447 outcomes while minimizing unintended consequences (Figure 3). This requires continued
448 accumulation of knowledge in protein stability during complex formation for PRRs
449 (Dunning et al. 2007; Li et al. 2024a) and addressing challenges posed by intricate
450 interactions of NLRs, in order to allow precise and effective engineering strategies.

451 **Table 1. Representative structures of NLRs and PRRs**

PDB Accession*	NLR/ PRR	Type	Organism	Effector/ Ligand	Organism	Reference
4EBZ	CERK1	LysM-RLK	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	chitin		(Liu et al. 2012)
4MN8	FLS2	LRR-RLK	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	flg22		(Sun et al. 2013)
6J5T	ZAR1	CC-NLR	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>			(Wang et al. 2019a, 2019b)
7CRC	RPP1	TIR-NLR	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	ATR1	<i>Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis</i>	(Ma et al. 2020)
7JLU	Roq1	TIR-NLR	<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i>	XopQ	<i>Xanthomonas euvesicatoria</i>	(Martin et al. 2020)
7DRC	RXEG1	LRR-RLP	<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i>	XEG1		(Sun et al. 2022)
7XE0	Sr35	CC-NLR	<i>Triticum</i>	AvrSr35	<i>Puccinia</i>	(Zhao et al. 2022)

			<i>monococcum</i>		<i>graminis</i> f. sp . <i>tritici</i>	
7XC2	Sr35	CC-NLR	<i>Triticum monococcum</i>	AvrSr35	<i>Puccinia graminis</i> f. sp . <i>tritici</i>	(Förderer et al. 2022)
N/A	MLA13	CC-NLR	<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	AVR _{A13-1}	<i>Blumeria hordei</i>	(Lawson et al. 2024)
8RFH	NRC2	CC-NLR	<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i>			(Selvaraj et al. 2024)
9FP6	NRC2	CC-NLR	<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i>			(Madhuprakash et al. 2024)
8XUV	NRC2	CC-NLR	<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>			(Ma et al. 2024)
9CC9	NRC4	CC-NLR	<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i>			(Liu et al. 2024a)
8ZF0	ADR1	RPW8-NLR	<i>Oryza sativa</i>			(Wu et al. 2024)
8ZW9	ADR1	RPW8-NLR	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>			(Yu et al. 2024b)

452 *Only one structure is associated with each study in this table. Additional structures can
453 be identified within each entry in the Protein Data Bank (PDB).

454 **We are what they grew beyond: pushing the boundaries of receptor engineering**

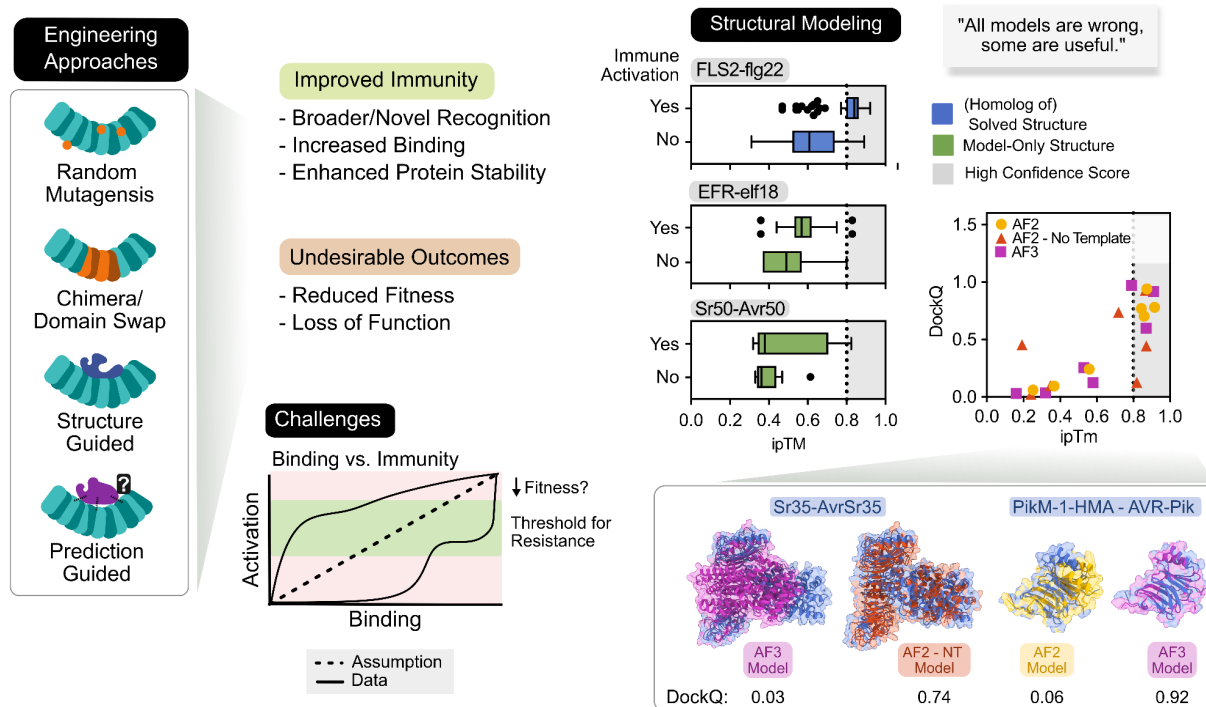
455 Numerous past studies have laid foundations for recent advances in sequence and
456 structural analyses. For engineering the LRR domain, evolution-guided targeted swaps
457 of highly variable LRR residues from Sr50 to closely related Sr33 demonstrated precise
458 transfer of effector recognition specificity in wheat (Tamborski et al. 2023). Similarly,
459 phylogenetic comparisons and ancestral reconstruction of the bean receptor INR enabled
460 altered perception of the caterpillar-associated molecule inceptin (Snoeck et al. 2022). In
461 contrast to the evolution guided design, high-throughput random screening can be an
462 alternative strategy. This approach involves generating shuffled DNA libraries of
463 receptors and screening recombinants against effectors through yeast two-hybrids
464 (Zhang et al. 2024b). A successful example includes the identification of a single
465 substitution between barley MLA7 and MLA13 that allowed MLA7 to recognize MLA13's
466 cognate effector, Avr_{A13-1} (Zhang et al. 2024b).

467 In parallel, structural insights have accelerated receptor engineering (Table 1). FLS2 from
468 Arabidopsis has provided fundamental knowledge to engineer recognition of flg22 epitope
469 variants (Sun et al. 2013; Li et al. 2024a; Zhang et al. 2024a). Discovery of diverse FLS2
470 homologs and structure-guided residue swaps improved flg22 binding affinity and gained
471 perception of previously evaded ligands (Fürst et al. 2020; Wei et al. 2020). Unlike PRRs,
472 the number of NLR structures has gradually grown (Table 1). The resistosome structures
473 of indirect binder ZAR1 and direct binder TIR-NLR RPP1 in Arabidopsis (Wang et al.
474 2019a, 2019b; Ma et al. 2020) propelled the determination of CC-NLRs capable of directly
475 binding to their effectors. The einkorn wheat Sr35 resistosome structure was solved
476 (Förderer et al. 2022; Zhao et al. 2022), allowing identification of its effector binding site
477 and direct transfer of its specificity to wheat TaSh1 and barley HvSh1 (Förderer et al.
478 2022). Similarly, the heterodimer structure of barley MLA13 and its cognate effector
479 Avr_{TA13-1} pinpointed a single amino acid change that can broaden recognition specificity
480 of MLA7 (Lawson et al. 2024). These examples demonstrated that receptor engineering
481 can be accelerated through experimental determination of PRR-ligand and NLR-effector
482 complex structures.

483 Given the challenges in determining structures via X-ray crystallography and Cryogenic
484 electron microscopy, AlphaFold has become a valuable alternative in both PRRs and
485 NLRs. Two independent studies have shown that using AlphaFold can improve
486 engineering and rational design for expanded ligand recognition in FLS2, where a small
487 number of substitutions was required to gain recognition to a target set of flg22 epitopes
488 (Li et al. 2024a; Zhang et al. 2024a). The use of AlphaFold also allowed the prediction of
489 MLA3's binding site in barley (Gómez De La Cruz et al. 2024), uncovering its similarity to
490 that of OsHIPP43, a rice protein targeted by the effector Pwl2 (Brabham et al. 2024a;
491 Zdrzałek et al. 2024). This molecular mimicking was akin to Tsw in pepper, the LRR of
492 which showed structural similarity to COI1 and TIR1 commonly targeted by pathogens
493 (Chen et al. 2023). AlphaFold enabled precise transfer of the Pwl2 binding site from MLA3
494 to Sr50 without hindering Sr50's ability to recognize its effector AvrSr50 (Gómez De La
495 Cruz et al. 2024). Another study utilized AlphaFold to iteratively refine crude molecular
496 docking models of Sr50 and AvrSr50 and guide the selection of LRR residues responsible
497 for effector binding (Seong et al. 2024). Eventually, Sr50 could be resurrected to induce

498 immune responses to the escape effector mutant AvrSr50^{QCMJC}, which no naturally
499 occurring immune receptors are known to recognize (Ortiz et al. 2022; Seong et al. 2024).

500 Structural information and precise modification of IDs has been an alternative avenue to
501 LRR engineering (Cesari et al. 2022; Zhang et al. 2024c). The crystal structure of the
502 effector AVR-Pik bound to OsHIPP19 in rice led to mutations that expanded recognition
503 specificity of Pik-1 against stealthy effector variants (Maidment et al. 2021, 2023).
504 Similarly, the complex structure of Pwl2 bound to its host protein OsHIPP43 in rice
505 enabled the generation of Pikm-1 with its HMA domain replaced with OsHIPP43 for broad
506 pathogen recognition (Zdrzałek et al. 2024). The identification of additional host proteins,
507 such as OsHIPP20 (Oikawa et al. 2024), and their interactions with effectors would further
508 offer additional ID engineering strategies. The manageable size of IDs has also facilitated
509 scalable, high-throughput approaches for ID engineering. For instance, mutagenized
510 HMA domains of Pik1 were displayed on the yeast cell surface to screen against diverse
511 variants of Avr-Pik (Rim et al. 2024). Selection based on interaction by fluorescence-
512 activated cell sorting enabled directed evolution of the HMA domain with broad-spectrum
513 binding capabilities. Challenges remain in effective integration of IDs without
514 autoimmunity and compromised immune responses (Marchal et al. 2022; Zdrzałek et al.
515 2023). Together with the pikobody approach integrating nanobodies from mammalian
516 adaptive immune systems into NLRs (Kourelis et al. 2023), development of novel
517 methodologies continues to push the boundaries of immune receptor engineering.



518

519 **Figure 3: Combination of techniques including structural modeling enable**
 520 **engineering of immune receptors.** Engineering approaches aim to improve immune
 521 responses but could lead to undesirable outcomes. In particular, our understanding of the
 522 relationship between ligand binding and immune activation is yet incomplete, making it
 523 challenging to establish strategies to overcome the unintended consequences. Structural
 524 prediction enables hypothesis generation of receptor-ligand interactions and may guide
 525 engineering endeavors, as some models show high accuracy. Nevertheless, predicted
 526 structures should be used with caution, as they occasionally display notable accuracy,
 527 and correlations between the model accuracy and immune responses need to be further
 528 examined.

529 **May the Fold be with you: structural quest for immune receptors and effectors**

530 AlphaFold has markedly expanded our understanding of immune receptors, effectors,
 531 ligands, and their interactions (Evans et al. 2021, 202; Jumper et al. 2021; Abramson et
 532 al. 2024; Li et al. 2024b). Recent studies have explored the structural diversity of N-
 533 terminal domains of NLRs within *Plantae* (Chia et al. 2024) and LRR domains in maize
 534 (Prigozhin et al. 2024). Putative resistosome structures of CC-NLRs were constructed

535 with AlphaFold 3 with high confidence (Madhuprakash et al. 2024). In parallel, our
536 community has gained an additional dimension of insights in effector diversity, regulation,
537 evolution and interaction that was difficult to uncover with primary sequences alone
538 (Seong and Krasileva 2021, 2023; Rocafort et al. 2022; Derbyshire and Raffaele 2023;
539 Homma et al. 2023; Yan et al. 2023; Asghar et al. 2024; Mukhopadhyay et al. 2024; Yu
540 et al. 2024a).

541 In certain contexts, AlphaFold achieves accurate binding interaction predictions,
542 highlighting its potential for computational screening (Figure 3). In particular, relatively
543 small sizes of IDs and effectors enable scalable all-vs-all interaction predictions.
544 Combined with experimental validation, this computational approach creates
545 opportunities to rapidly uncover novel effector targets and identify functional IDs suitable
546 for engineering. Known NLR-IDs, such as the WRKY domain found in RPS1 and *Triticum*
547 *urartu*'s YrU1 (Le Roux et al. 2015; Sarris et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2020; Mukhi et al. 2021)
548 or the zinc-finger BED domain in Yr5 and Yr7 in wheat (Marchal et al. 2018), could be
549 included for further expansion of our understanding of their functions. Despite such
550 promises, AlphaFold's predictions on some LRR-ligand or LRR-effector complexes show
551 notable inaccuracy (Figure 3). For PRRs, previously characterized FLS2-flg22
552 interactions have proposed using ipTM as a proxy for binding, in which accuracy of
553 immune prediction was based on an ipTM threshold of 0.8 (Figure 3) (Li et al. 2024a).
554 However, when assessing recognition prediction for other receptor-ligand/effector
555 interactions using the same threshold, accuracy is very low (Figure 3) (Colaianni et al.
556 2021; Parys et al. 2021; Seong et al. 2024; Stevens et al. 2024; Trinh et al. 2024).
557 Similarly, the two LRR-effector complexes, MLA13 and AVR_{A13}-1 (Lawson et al. 2024) as
558 well as Sr50 and AvrSr50 (Seong et al. 2024), could not be predicted correctly. The low
559 accuracy is likely due to a combination of factors including the lack of underlying solved
560 structure AlphaFold was trained on and the large binding face along the concave surface.
561 Therefore, while AlphaFold has enabled structural modeling attempts for many known
562 NLR-effector pairs lacking experimental structures (Fick et al. 2024; Wang et al. 2024),
563 these predictions require careful validation through additional experimental data.

564 Our understanding of AlphaFold is yet incomplete. Although AlphaFold could not predict
565 the complex structure for Sr50 and AvrSr50, experimentally supported dimeric structures
566 could be modeled for Sr50 variants, Sr50^{K711D} and SR50^{3BI}, and AvrSr50 (Figure 3)
567 (Gómez De La Cruz et al. 2024; Seong et al. 2024). These results suggest that single
568 amino acid changes in NLRs can significantly impact AlphaFold's predictions, and that
569 the altered prediction possibly reflects biological relevance. This underscores the
570 potential for computational mutational screening to explore how sequence variations
571 influence predictive accuracy and experimental assessment of biological impacts in
572 plants. Advances in prediction algorithms, such as AlphaFold 3, will also continue to
573 address the challenges of accurate structural modeling. However, despite the release of
574 AlphaFold 3, AlphaFold 2 remains a viable option, as we still require experimentally
575 determined templates to improve prediction accuracy, particularly for effector structures
576 like AvrSr27 and AvrSr50 (Figure 3) (Ortiz et al. 2022; Outram et al. 2024). AlphaFold 2,
577 along with the more accessible ColabFold (Mirdita et al. 2022), offers tunable parameters
578 that could enhance the prediction successes. For instance, increasing the number of
579 random seeds, recycles, and ensembles can enhance the predictive power (Jumper et
580 al. 2021; Agarwal and McShan 2024).

581 Looking ahead, refining AlphaFold predictions for PRR-ligand and NLR-effector
582 complexes will greatly benefit from broader community collaboration. By standardizing
583 benchmarking protocols and validating predicted structures experimentally, our
584 community can more effectively assess AlphaFold's performance and identify pathways
585 for improvement, particularly for complex cases. Structural investigations into these
586 predictions offer a promising avenue to accelerate our understanding of plant immune
587 responses and advance predictive capabilities in protein design, while experimental
588 structures provide essential ground-truth over time. Embracing not only successes but
589 also failures in this collective structural endeavor is essential to complete our structural
590 quests. After all, all models are wrong, but some are useful.

591 **To boldly go where no one has gone before: leveraging deep learning in plant**
592 **immunity**

593 Beyond protein structure prediction, machine learning—particularly deep learning—has
594 rapidly expanded our toolkit for exploring protein biology. Geometric deep learning
595 enables analysis of protein surfaces to identify protein-protein interaction sites (Gainza et
596 al. 2020; Tubiana et al. 2022; Krapp et al. 2023). Advances in algorithms like
597 ProteinMPNN and RFDiffusion have made it possible to design primary sequences and
598 protein structures (Dauparas et al. 2022; Watson et al. 2023). Protein language models
599 have also shown remarkable promise with applications in illuminating virtual mutations
600 and aiding antibody design (Hie et al. 2021, 2022, 2023; Lin et al. 2023; Ruffolo and
601 Madani 2024). Applications can potentially extend to NLRs and effectors, as well as PRRs
602 and ligands, allowing association of mutational likelihood with specific roles, functions,
603 and interactions. Notably, our community has already uncovered insights into
604 evolutionary variability in residues within LRR domains of NLRs and PRRs (Prigozhin and
605 Krasileva 2021; Li et al. 2024a; Seong et al. 2024), as well as functional diversity within
606 closely related receptors (Lu et al. 2016; Saur et al. 2019; Bauer et al. 2021). These
607 findings lay the groundwork for using machine learning models to deepen our
608 understanding of natural diversity and its role in functional diversification, potentially
609 enhancing our ability to engineer plant immune receptors.

610 One common theme for the future is the need to generate and utilize good underlying
611 experimental data for more accurate hypothesis generation and model training. For
612 antibody structure prediction, over 3,400 antibody structures and 550 million antibody
613 sequences were used for training (Ruffolo et al. 2023). Building such models for PRR-
614 ligand or NLR-effector interactions will require well-organized and accessible datasets.
615 Recent comparative genomic approaches have curated a naturally diverse PRR ligand
616 dataset, much of which has been experimentally tested in *Arabidopsis* or tomato
617 (Colaianni et al. 2021; Parys et al. 2021; Stevens et al. 2024). Similarly, comprehensive
618 resources cataloging NLRs and detailing plant-pathogen interactions have been
619 developed, including RefPlantNLR, ANNA, NLRscape, PlantNLRatlas, and PHI-base
620 (Urban et al. 2019; Kourelis et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2021; Li et al. 2023; Martin et al. 2023).
621 However, we may need to broaden these databases to include diverse data types, such
622 as predicted immune receptors, effectors or ligands, and their complex structures, along
623 with quantitative and qualitative interaction data. These resources could facilitate models

624 for predicting mutation impacts and support the design of functional assays to capture
625 binding, recognition, and immune outcomes. Standardizing data types and reporting
626 methods will be crucial to make these resources broadly usable and to support machine
627 learning applications. In this new journey, our community stands ready to explore new
628 frontiers, boldly going where no one has gone before in plant immunity.

629 **Conclusions**

630 The growth of the availability and quality of data at the DNA, RNA, and protein levels have
631 provided insights into the diversity generation and maintenance of plant immune
632 receptors and have begun to answer the long-standing question of how strictly innate
633 immune systems cope with rapidly evolving pathogens. Natural diversity uncovered at
634 each layer poses challenges and opportunities for receptor engineering. Further
635 understanding of the mechanisms behind high nucleotide diversity, transcriptional
636 regulation, and immune receptors' ligand binding and activation will not only lead to new
637 engineering strategies but also aid in continued development of computational predictive
638 and generative models.

639 We posit that there is sufficient evidence to suggest that plant immune systems fit an
640 anticipatory model of immune evolution, with a high likelihood of individual mutation
641 maintained by population level-selection. The expression of immune receptors exists
642 along multiple axes of regulation and is increasingly relevant to functional receptor
643 prioritization and optimized control in engineering efforts. The new hope of protein
644 structure prediction has revolutionized immune receptor design, but poses new
645 opportunities and challenges for ensuring accurate and relevant structures. As we gain
646 additional high throughput datasets through community-coordinated efforts, we can better
647 leverage emerging machine learning approaches. Along with progress in understanding
648 plant disease resistance, we face regulatory challenges, in particular which
649 bioengineering efforts will be allowed in scalable agricultural settings and when they will
650 be accepted by the general public. "Difficult to see. Always in motion is the future"—it is
651 not yet clear how far we can apply synthetic immune receptors in crops. However, we
652 must do our best to communicate that plants are natural engineers, and we have and
653 continue to learn from them in our efforts.

654 **Contributions**

655 CAS led conceptualization of the manuscript and drafting of the DNA diversity and
656 contributed to expression variation. DMS added PRR content across each section, led
657 figure generation, and contributed to the immune receptor engineering section. WW led
658 expression variation and its regulation. KS led immune receptor engineering. KVK wrote
659 the introduction, contributed to conceptualization of the manuscript, and contributed to
660 the DNA section. All authors were involved in reviewing and editing.

661 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

662 There are no conflicts of interest.

663 **Acknowledgements**

664 We would like to thank all the members of the Krasileva lab for their feedback on the
665 conceptualization and editing of this manuscript. We would like to acknowledge George
666 Lucas and the Star Wars franchise for inspiration in the thematic organization of the
667 manuscript, and to ChatGPT for assistance in incorporating his work into the headings.
668 ChatGPT was not otherwise used in the conceptualization, drafting, or editing of this
669 manuscript. CAS has been supported by the Grace Kase-Tsujimoto Graduate Fellowship.
670 KS has been supported by the Berkeley BioEnginuity Fellowship. All authors have
671 received support from the NIH Director's Award (1DP2AT011967-01) awarded to KVK,
672 Gordon and Betty Moore Inventor Fellowship (grant number: 8802), and the Innovative
673 Genomics Institute.

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