



# Up-Regulated Salivary Proteins of Brown Marmorated Stink Bug *Halyomorpha halys* on Plant Growth-Promoting Rhizobacteria-Treated Plants

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## Abstract

Plant Growth-Promoting Rhizobacteria (PGPR) induce systemic resistance (SR) in plants, decreasing the development of phytopathogens. The FZB42 strain of *Bacillus velezensis* is known to induce an SR against pathogens in various plant species. Previous studies suggested that it could also influence the interactions between plants and associated pests. However, insects have developed several strategies to counteract plant defenses, including salivary proteins that allow the insect escaping detection, manipulating defensive pathways to its advantage, deactivating early signaling processes, or detoxifying secondary metabolites. Because Brown Marmorated Stink Bug (BMSB) *Halyomorpha halys* is highly invasive and polyphagous, we hypothesized that it could detect the PGPR-induced systemic defenses in the plant, and efficiently adapt its salivary compounds to counteract them. Therefore, we inoculated a beneficial rhizobacterium on *Vicia faba* roots and soil, previous to plant infestation with BMSB. Salivary gland proteome of BMSB was analyzed by LC–MS/MS and a label-free quantitative proteomic method. Among the differentially expressed proteins, most were up-regulated in salivary glands of insects exposed to PGPR-treated plants for 24 h. We could confirm that BMSB was confronted with a stress during feeding on PGPR-treated plants. The to-be-confirmed defensive state of the plant would have been rapidly detected by the invasive *H. halys* pest, which consequently modified its salivary proteins. Among the up-regulated proteins, many could be associated with a role in plant defense counteraction, and more especially in allelochemicals detoxification or sequestration.

**Keywords** Brown marmorated stink bug · LC–MS/MS · Plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria · Proteomics · Salivary glands

## Introduction

Through their association with the roots, plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) can enhance the growth of host plants by providing nutrients or improving their accessibility, and producing growth hormones, volatiles, enzymes, and cofactors (Van Loon 2007; Lugtenberg and Kamilova 2009; Kumar et al. 2019). Some PGPR can also mitigate abiotic stresses: drought, salinity, heavy metals, and heat (Kumar et al. 2019). Lastly, PGPR could reduce biotic stresses by producing antimicrobial secondary metabolites, competing with root pathogens for nutrients and space, or inducing a systemic resistance (SR) in plants (Lugtenberg and Kamilova 2009; Andrić et al. 2020). In some cases, the plant defense responses are not directly activated by the SR-inducing stimulus (here, the PGPR), a phenomenon called “priming”: defenses of the primed plant would be faster,

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stronger, and more persistent when confronted to a following triggering stimulus (Martinez-Medina et al. 2016). Many studies showed that PGPR-induced SR could decrease the development of phytopathogens in aerial parts of the plant (Conrath et al. 2002; Van Loon 2007; Lugtenberg and Kamilova 2009; Pieterse et al. 2014). Increasing evidence suggests that PGPR could influence the interactions between the plant and associated pests, with outcomes on insect fitness depending on involved species and environmental conditions (Pineda et al. 2010, 2013). Nonetheless, the use of PGPR in integrated pest management is promising and deserves more attention from researchers.

Following recent advances in bacterial phylogeny, an “operational group *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*”, hereafter termed “*B. amyloliquefaciens*” for clarity, was proposed to include the soil-borne *B. amyloliquefaciens* and the plant-associated *Bacillus siamensis* and *Bacillus velezensis* (Fan et al. 2017). Bacteria in this group are known to promote plant growth (Matilla and Krell 2018) and a few studies suggested that they could reduce the fitness of insect pests in lab experiments (Zehnder et al. 1997; Gadhave and Gange 2016; Serteyn et al. 2020). *B. amyloliquefaciens* produces lipopeptides and volatile organic compounds that act as elicitors involved in the induction of plant resistance and priming (Ongena and Jacques 2008; Borriss et al. 2019). After the perception of these molecules by the root cells, defense pathways are activated, resulting in the chemical priming of the plant (Ongena and Jacques 2008; Choudhary and Johri 2009). The FZB42 strain of *B. velezensis* (formerly *B. amyloliquefaciens*), which colonizes roots surface by embedding in a biofilm, is commercially available as a biofertilizer and a control agent of soil-borne diseases (Borriss 2011). This strain is also well known to induce an SR against pathogens in various plant species, involving phytohormones like salicylic acid (SA), jasmonic acid (JA), and/or ethylene (Chowdhury et al. 2015; Tahir et al. 2017; Xie et al. 2017, 2018, 2019; Wu et al. 2018; Borriss et al. 2019; Farzand et al. 2019). Even if the latter hormonal pathways are notorious to be involved in defense against herbivores, the impact of FZB42-induced SR on insect pests is still unclear. Although, in our recently published study, we showed that FZB42 could negatively impact the reproduction of pea aphid *Acyrtosiphon pisum* Harris on *Vicia faba* L. plants, involving both JA and SA pathways (Serteyn et al. 2020).

However, insects have developed several strategies to counteract plant defenses, based on metabolic resistance, behavioral adaptation, or plant response neutralization (Stahl et al. 2018). The latter strategy mainly involves salivary proteins that allow the insect escaping detection, manipulating defensive pathways to its advantage, deactivating early signaling processes, or detoxifying secondary metabolites (Felton and Tumlinson 2008; Louis et al. 2012; Sharma et al. 2014; van Bel and Will 2016; Stahl et al.

2018). Especially, the saliva of phytophagous Hemipteran pests, such as aphids, was subjected to many studies, highlighting its crucial importance in plant-insect interactions (Sharma et al. 2014). Within the much less studied Pentatomidae family, the brown marmorated stink bug (BMSB), *Halyomorpha halys* (Stål) (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae), is a particularly interesting model. Coming from Eastern Asia, it has been accidentally introduced in North America, and then in Europe (Hoebeke and Carter 2003; Wermelinger et al. 2008). This invasive species will most probably colonize a large part of the world in the next decade (Zhu et al. 2012; Wallner et al. 2014; Cianferoni et al. 2018). Also, BMSB is highly polyphagous, feeding on dozens of plant families, including crops and orchards (Rice et al. 2014). These two main traits are likely associated with effective ways to counteract plant defenses.

The first description of BMSB salivary proteins, performed by Peiffer and Felton (2014), highlighted that plant defense could be induced by the salivary sheath. It was later completed by our descriptive proteomic analysis on salivary glands (Serteyn and Francis 2019). In a previous study, we highlighted that BMSB, when exposed to local plant defenses induced by its own presence, was able to rapidly modify its salivary compounds, up-regulating proteins potentially involved in plant defense counteraction (Serteyn et al. 2019). To our knowledge, no other study has worked on BMSB saliva or rhizobacteria-mediated interactions with its host plant.

Regarding our previous studies and the current knowledge on Hemipteran insect-plant interactions, we stated the hypothesis that BMSB could detect the PGPR-induced systemic defenses in plants and adapt its salivary compounds to counteract them. Therefore, we inoculated a beneficial rhizobacterium on plant roots and soil, infested the plants with BMSB, and then analyzed BMSB salivary glands by gel-free quantitative proteomics.

## Methods and Materials

**Insects, Bacteria, and Plants** BMSB individuals were collected from Eastern China and were maintained inside cages in a quarantine rearing room in Belgium (16 h light,  $28 \pm 1$  °C,  $56.5 \pm 3\%$  RH). The insects were fed broad bean plants (*Vicia faba* L. cv. “Grosse Ordinaire”) and sunflower seeds (*Helianthus annuus* L. cv. unknown), replaced every two weeks with new ones.

The FZB42 strain of *Bacillus velezensis*, formerly *B. amyloliquefaciens*, was provided by Prof. R. Borriss of Humboldt University, Berlin, and was cryopreserved at  $-80$  °C in glycerol 20%. Bacteria were grown on lysogeny broth (tryptone  $10$  gL<sup>-1</sup>, yeast extract  $5$  gL<sup>-1</sup>, NaCl  $10$  gL<sup>-1</sup>, pH 7) with agar–agar  $12$  gL<sup>-1</sup> during 24 h at

30 °C. Bacteria were then transferred into a liquid lysogeny broth and incubated at 30 °C with 200 rpm agitation for 24 h. The bacterial solution was cleaned twice by centrifugation at 5,000 rpm for 10 min and re-suspension of the pellets in autoclaved tap water. The optical density of bacterial solutions was measured with a spectrophotometer (Biochrom WPA, model: Biowave DNA) at 600 nm and the concentration of cells was adjusted to  $5 \times 10^8$  cells per mL.

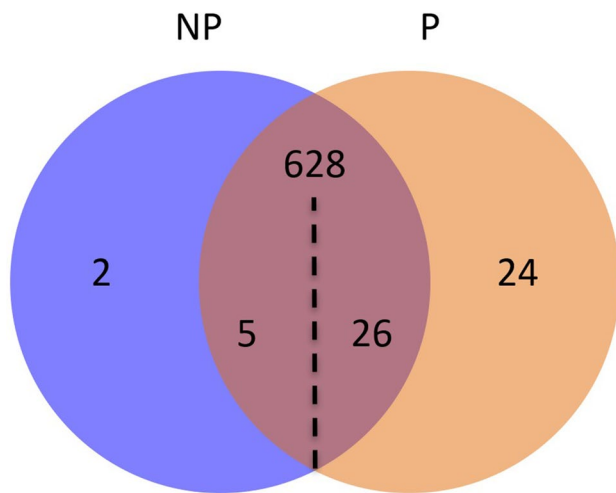
Broad bean seeds were sterilized under agitation with ethanol 70% for 2 min and with sodium hypochlorite 6–14% (Emplura, Merck) for 8 min, and then rinsed with sterilized water. To induce germination, boiling water was applied to seeds for 15 s, and the seeds were soaked in sterilized water overnight. The seeds were soaked in the bacterial solution for 2 min (“P” for PGPR treatment), or sterilized water as a control treatment (“NP” for No PGPR). The seeds were then individually sowed in pots filled with loam (La Plaine Chassart, Belgium) and were put in a growing chamber (16 h light,  $25.5 \pm 0.5$  °C). Seven days later, the surface of the soil of the young plants – whose first leaves were fully developed – was treated with 15 ml of the bacterial solution, or with sterilized water.

**Preparation of Protein Samples** Fifth-instar BMSB larvae were exposed to control or PGPR-treated broad bean plants (2 weeks old or at stage 12 on BBCH-scale). Four biological replicates per treatment were prepared, each consisting of 2 larvae restrained together to the apical, youngest leaves of one plant with tulle bags. After 24 h exposure, they were dissected as described in Serteyn and Francis (2019), to collect all 4 salivary glands of each system. The extraction of proteins of each sample was performed, following the protocol of Serteyn and Francis (2019). Protein contents were quantified using the RC-DC protein assay kit (Bio-Rad) and the reduction-alkylation of 20 µg proteins per sample was performed, following the protocol described by Bauwens et al. (2013). The proteins of each sample were purified using the 2D-Clean Up Kit (GE Healthcare), and then the pellets were re-suspended in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate and digested in solution with trypsin (Pierce MS grade, Thermo Scientific): 16 h incubation at 37 °C with a ratio trypsin/total proteins (w:w) of 1/50; 3 h at 37 °C with a ratio of 1/100 in 80% acetonitrile. After stopping the digestion by adding trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) 0.5% (v/v), the samples were vacuum-dried using SpeedVac (Thermo Scientific). For each sample, 3.5 µg protein digest was purified on a Ziptip C18 (Millipore), dried, and re-suspended in acidified water (0.1% TFA). MassPrep Digestion Standard (Waters), 1 or 2 depending on the condition, was added at 100 fmoles ADH per injection. One microgram protein digest was injected into the LC system.

**Mass Spectrometry** The LC–MS/MS analyses were performed on an Acquity M-Class UPLC (Waters) hyphenated to a Q Exactive Plus (Thermo Scientific), in nano-electrospray positive ion mode, in the Proteomics Facility of the GIGA (ULiège). The trap column was a Symmetry C18 5 µm (180 µm × 20 mm) and the analytical column was a HSS T3 C18 1.8 µm (75 µm × 250 mm) (Waters). The samples were loaded at  $20 \mu\text{Lmin}^{-1}$  on the trap column in 98% solvent A (0.1% formic acid in water) for 3 min and subsequently separated on the analytical column at a flow rate of  $600 \text{ nLmin}^{-1}$  with the following linear gradient: initial conditions 2% solvent B (0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile); 5 min 7% B; 135 min 30% B, 150 min 40% B; 154 min 90% B until 158 min, and then back to initial conditions at 162 min until 177 min. The total run time was 180 min. The mass spectrometer method was a TopN-MSMS method, where N was set to 12, meaning that the spectrometer acquires one Full MS spectrum, selects the 12 most intense peaks in this spectrum, and makes a Full MS2 spectrum of each of these 12 compounds. The parameters for MS spectrum acquisition were: Mass Range from 400 to 1600 m/z; Resolution of 70,000; AGC Target of  $1e6$  or Maximum Injection Time of 50 ms. The parameters for MS2 spectrum acquisition were: Isolation Window of 2.0 m/z; Normalized Collision Energy of 28; Resolution of 17,500; AGC Target of  $1e5$  or Maximum Injection Time of 50 ms.

**Data Processing** Spectra were treated using the software Maxquant vs 1.5.2.8 (Maxquant, Germany), following exactly the procedure of Serteyn et al. (2019). Spectra were searched using NCBI database restricted to Hemiptera taxonomies (downloaded in 2018). Carbamidomethyl of cysteines and oxidation of methionine were set as variable modifications. Identification of a protein was considered reliable when its score was higher than 15, with a FDR of 1% and at least 1 unique peptide. Afterward, each protein hit was quantified and expressed in label-free quantification (LFQ) intensities. To improve the identification of unknown protein hits, BLAST analyses were performed against the broader NCBI database restricted to Arthropoda taxonomies.

**Data Analysis** The dataset was treated following the procedure of Serteyn et al. (2019) to select the differentially expressed proteins between treatments. Using the software Perseus vs 1.6.2 (Maxquant, Germany), contaminants were removed from the dataset, LFQ intensities were  $\log_2$ -transformed, and samples were grouped according to the treatment. Proteins were considered present in a treatment when at least 2 out of the 4 biological replicates showed an MS signal, and proteins were considered absent when none of the 4 replicates showed a signal. To decrease the risk of false positives and negatives, protein hits that were identified in only one out of the 4 replicates in one of



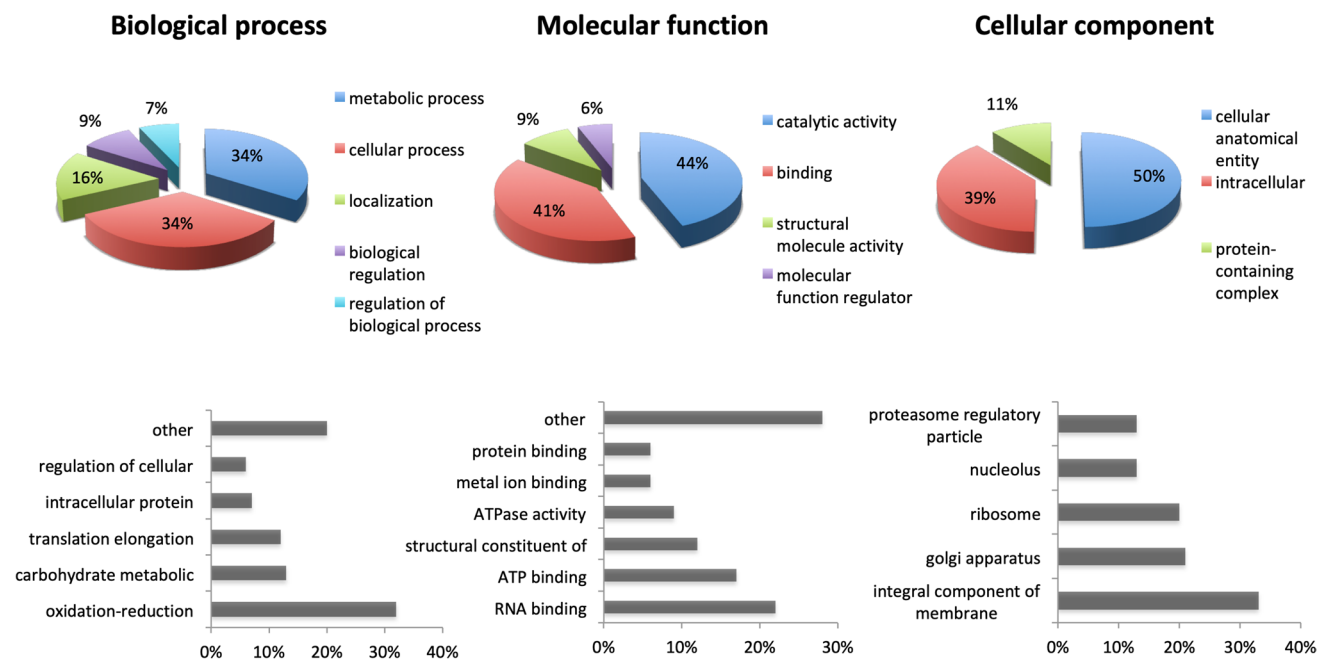
**Fig. 1** Venn diagram distributing proteins of *Halyomorpha halys* salivary glands according to the plant treatment (“NP”: untreated plants; “P”: plants inoculated with *Bacillus velezensis* FZB42)

the conditions were removed from the differential analysis. Additionally, two-samples *t*-tests with a 95% confidence level ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) were performed when at least 3 out of the 4 replicates of both treatments showed a signal. Each differentially expressed protein was annotated with a category of biological process, cellular component, and molecular function, using the software Blast2GO vs 5.2.5 (BioBam, Spain). Their amino-acid sequence was also searched for potential secretion signal, using the SignalP Server v5.0, and

for predicted transmembrane domains, using the TMHMM Server v2.0. Proteins with a signal peptide and 0 or 1 transmembrane domain could be considered as potentially secreted in salivary fluid. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (Perez-Riverol et al. 2019) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD021734.

## Results and Discussion

In this LC–MS/MS analysis, we identified 1,453 proteins in dissected salivary glands of BMSB. After removing the proteins that were identified in only one of the replicates of a treatment, 654 proteins were considered for this comparative analysis according to PGPR inoculation to the host plant. Among the differentially expressed proteins, 50 proteins were up-regulated in salivary glands of insects exposed to PGPR-treated plants for 24 h, and 7 were down-regulated, compared to control treatment (Fig. 1). Among these 57 differentially expressed proteins, 43 could be annotated using Blast2GO software (Fig. 2). Most of them could be associated with metabolic or cellular processes, especially with oxido-reduction effects. They exert their molecular function by binding to RNA or ATP, or by a catalytic activity (e.g., ATPase). The differentially expressed proteins could be mainly associated with intracellular compartment and cell membranes. Proteins with a putative role in insect-plant interactions and/or presenting a secretion signal peptide are



**Fig. 2** Gene Ontology on differentially expressed proteins in *Halyomorpha halys* salivary glands according to PGPR inoculation

**Table 1** Differential proteins identified in salivary glands of *Halyomorpha halys* on PGPR-inoculated (P) or control (NP) plants, with a putative role in insect-plant interactions and/or presenting a secretion signal peptide

Accession number	Name of proteins and organism	Secretion signal peptide? <sup>a</sup>	Mol. Weight (kDa)	Score	Mean LFQ intensity			log <sub>2</sub> (Mean LFQ intensity)			Putative role in insect-plant interactions <sup>d</sup>	Biological process <sup>e</sup>
					NP	P	Fold change <sup>b</sup>	NP	P	p-value <sup>c</sup>		
<b>Down-regulated in PGPR treatment</b>												
XP_014279386.1	endochitinase At2g43620 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	25,42	19,53	8,23E+07	NS		26,29	NS		/	chitin catabolic process; cell wall macromolecule catabolic process
XP_026756143.1	PI-PLC X domain-containing protein 3 isoform X1 [ <i>Galleria mellonella</i> ]	yes	37,03	163,21	3,65E+08	1,49E+08	0,41	28,44	27,15	0,034	/	lipid metabolic process
XP_014289176.1	sorbitol dehydrogenase [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]		37,70	109,74	8,23E+07	7,23E+07	0,88	26,29	26,11	0,027	Xenobiotic metabolic process	oxidation-reduction process
<b>Up-regulated in PGPR treatment</b>												
*XP_014294679.1	esterase FE4-like, partial [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	62,62	28,66	NS	1,23E+07		NS	23,55		Resistance to insecticides and oxidative stress	amino-acids metabolism
*XP_014282104.1	flotillin-1 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]		47,96	13,61	NS	9,86E+06		NS	23,23		Cellular response to exogenous dsRNA	various regulations
XP_014284167.1	RWD domain-containing protein 1 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]		26,87	11,33	NS	8,23E+06		NS	22,97		Cellular response to oxidative stress	various regulations
XP_017301089.1	glycogen phosphorylase [ <i>Diaphorina citri</i> ]		61,98	11,81	NS	5,28E+08		NS	28,98		Immune response	carbohydrate metabolic process
*XP_014277690.1	probable salivary secreted peptide [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	21,41	14,10	NS	3,33E+07		NS	24,99		Toxin activity	secretome
XP_024217902.1	collagen alpha-2(IV) chain-like isoform X2 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	173,85	12,95	NS	1,93E+08		NS	27,53		/	organismal systems
XP_014275880.1	uncharacterized protein LOC106680586 isoform X2 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	31,00	12,55	NS	9,97E+07		NS	26,57		/	unknown
*XP_014279384.1	larval cuticle protein A2B [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	17,28	18,31	NS	1,50E+07		NS	23,84		/	organismal systems
*XP_014281650.1	ATP-binding cassette subfamily F member 1 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]		115,66	128,45	7,22E+07	1,30E+08	1,80	26,10	26,95	0,021	Toxin excretion	protein metabolism
XP_014290021.1	uncharacterized protein LOC106689531 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	47,81	189,61	1,78E+08	2,38E+08	1,33	27,41	27,83	0,050	/	unknown
*XP_014280439.1	heat shock 70 kDa protein 4 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]		92,16	183,31	9,00E+07	1,23E+08	1,37	26,42	26,88	0,044	Cellular response to heat and oxidative stress	stress response
XP_014292736.1	natterin-4 isoform X2 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]		17,30	137,42	5,64E+08	6,67E+08	1,18	29,07	29,31	0,002	Toxin activity	secretome
*XP_024215136.1	nascent polypeptide-associated complex subunit alpha, muscle-specific form isoform X3 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	294,98	323,31	8,02E+08	1,39E+09	1,73	29,58	30,37	0,022	/	transport and catabolism
*XP_014272751.1	protein disulfide-isomerase isoform X1 [ <i>Halyomorpha halys</i> ]	yes	76,20	56,52	5,78E+09	8,41E+09	1,46	32,43	32,97	0,047	/	cell redox homeostasis

Expression heatmap :  Lowest Highest

<sup>a</sup> according to SignalP-5.0 Server

<sup>b</sup> based on control treatment

<sup>c</sup> Student *t*-test with a 95% confidence level

<sup>d</sup> according to literature (see references in text) and UniProtKB

<sup>e</sup> according to Blast2GO software or KEGG pathways

NS No Signal

\* already highlighted in our previous quantitative proteomic study (Serteyn et al. 2019)

presented in Table 1. Most of these proteins of interest were up-regulated upon PGPR treatment compared to the control. All these observations indicate that insect physiology is impacted by a stress during feeding. None of the proteins of interest presented a predicted transmembrane domain, meaning that all proteins of Table 1 with a secretion signal peptide

could be secreted in saliva. Proteomics on salivary glands allows us to (1) identify cellular responses to exogenous stress, and (2) highlight some candidate proteins secreted into the plant through salivation processes.

Interestingly, several of these differentially expressed proteins were also up-regulated in our previous study



on BMSB salivary glands (Serteyn et al. 2019). In the latter, we had induced plant defenses, using LOX activity as an indicator, by the previous feeding of 2 other BMSB individuals. Esterase FE4 and ATP-binding cassette F (ABC-F) are such proteins, whose expression profiles were comparable between both studies, and for which putative roles in plant-insect interactions could be associated. Esterase FE4 is mostly known to provide resistance to insecticides in bees and aphids (Tang et al. 2017; Ma et al. 2018). In *Apis cerana* Fabricius, the gene coding for esterase FE4 was also overexpressed after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment, probably conferring protection to the insect against oxidative stress. Indeed, Ma et al. (2018) showed that the silencing of that gene decreased the expression level of other genes reported to play important roles in the response to oxidative stress: superoxide dismutase, thioredoxin, catalase... It is noteworthy that reactive oxygen species (ROS) are part of early plant defensive responses against herbivores (Erb and Raymond 2019). Also, in a few cases, increased activity of esterase enzymes was measured in Lepidopteran insects exposed to plant phenolic glycosides (Li et al. 2007). Therefore, the up-regulation of esterase FE4 could have been a protective reaction of BMSB individuals that were put on plants whose defenses were likely boosted by the PGPR. Furthermore, this enzyme was already observed in the watery saliva secreted by BMSB (Peiffer and Felton 2014). As it presents a secretion signal peptide, we confirm that it could be secreted with the saliva, therefore directly interacting with the plant. Further research is needed to assess whether the enzyme could directly counteract plant defenses in situ. ATP-binding cassettes (ABC) are involved in the excretion of products resulting from detoxification processes in insects (Chahine and O'Donnell 2011; Birnbaum and Abbot 2018). Therefore, excretion fluids could be enhanced when insects are exposed to plant phenolic compounds (Chahine and O'Donnell 2011), which could be related to ABC. To validate this hypothesis in our case, further studies should assess whether BMSB would produce more excretion droplets while feeding on PGPR-treated plants.

On the contrary, the probable salivary secreted peptide, which could be associated with toxin activities of saliva, was up-regulated in insects feeding on PGPR-treated plants in this study, but down-regulated in insects exposed to BMSB-induced plant defense in our previous study (Serteyn et al. 2019). Natterin-4, initially found in a fish venom gland (Magalhães et al. 2006), was also up-regulated in the present study. This suggests that the previous presence of congeners on the plant could influence the need for toxin injection into plant tissues. Also, the up-regulation of secreted salivary proteins could mean that the salivation phases of BMSB on PGPR-treated plants were enhanced, which could increase

the detoxification potential of proteins involved in plant defense counteraction.

Lastly, heat shock protein 70 (HSP70) is a well-known highly conserved protein, up-regulated in cells of many organisms exposed to environmental stresses (Schlesinger 1990). Notably, it is involved in the immunity systems of insects (Wojda 2017). As a chaperone protein, it was also associated with a protective reaction to oxidative (due to ROS) or biotic stresses (due to pathogenic attacks) (Tang et al. 2012). In our study, HSP70 was up-regulated in salivary glands of BMSB that fed on PGPR-inoculated plants, suggesting that the insect was exposed to oxidative stress. It was previously reported in salivary glands of other insects, like mosquitoes (Jariyapan et al. 2012), and only once, to our knowledge, in secreted saliva of aphids (Chaudhary et al. 2015).

## Conclusions

To conclude, we can confirm that BMSB was confronted to a stress during feeding on PGPR-treated plants. Therefore, the inoculation of *B. velezensis* FZB42 probably primed the plant defenses. This to-be-confirmed primed state, though, would have been rapidly detected by the invasive pest *H. halys*, which consequently modified its salivary proteins. Among the up-regulated proteins, many could be associated with a role in plant defense counteraction, and more especially in allelochemicals detoxification or sequestration. We have pointed candidate proteins, esterase FE4 and ABC-F, whose essential function in adaptation of BMSB to host plant defenses should be assessed by further omics experiments.

With the present study, we set the basis of BMSB physiological plasticity, which will allow many other hypotheses to be tested. Do the salivary changes occur whatever the elicitor of plant defenses (e.g., insect saliva, phytohormones, other bacterial strains, other pests or pathogens...)? And at last, do these up-regulated salivary proteins effectively allow the insect to develop normally on primed plants?

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**Authors' Contributions** LS, MO, and FF designed the experiments; LS, OL, and LI led the experiments; DB and GM performed the proteomic analysis; LS, OL, and LI interpreted the results; LS wrote the manuscript; all authors read and approved the manuscript.

**Data Availability** The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD021734.

**Code Availability** Not applicable.

## Declarations

**Ethics approval** Not applicable.

**Consent to participate** Not applicable.

**Consent for publication** Not applicable.

**Conflicts of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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