

Metabolic Cellular Communications: Feedback Mechanisms between Membrane Lipid Homeostasis and Plant Development

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- 1 Metabolic cellular communications: feedback mechanisms between membrane lipid
- 2 homeostasis and plant development
- 3
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13 Abstract:

Membrane lipids are often viewed as passive building block of the endomembrane system. 14 However, mounting evidences suggest that sphingolipids, sterols and phospholipids are 15 16 specifically targeted by developmental pathways, notably hormones, in a cell or tissue specific manner to regulate plant growth and development. Targeted modifications of lipid homeostasis 17 may act as a way to execute a defined developmental program, for example by regulating other 18 signaling pathways or participating in cell differentiation. Furthermore, these regulations often 19 feedback on the very signaling pathway that initiated the lipid metabolic changes. Here, we 20 21 review several recent examples highlighting the intricate feedbacks between membrane lipid 22 homeostasis and plant development. In particular, these examples illustrate how all aspects of 23 membrane lipid metabolic pathways are targeted by these feedback regulations. We propose 24 that the time has come to consider membrane lipids and lipid metabolism as an integral part of 25 the developmental program needed to build a plant.

26

27 Blurb: Boutté and Jaillais present a Review discussing the importance of membrane lipids in

- regulating plant growth and development. They consider the intricate feedbacks between
- 29 membrane lipid homeostasis and plant development and propose that membrane lipid
- 30 metabolism is an integral component of the developmental program needed to build a plant.
- 31

32 Introduction

Lipids are essential building blocks of all biological membranes. They have strong structural 33 34 roles to maintain the integrity and function of these membranes. This includes for example the ability of membranes to act as impermeable barriers, but also the modulation of their 35 physicochemical properties, including elasticity, fluidity, deformability or thickness (Bigay and 36 Antonny, 2012; Boutte and Moreau, 2014; Holthuis and Menon, 2014). The endomembrane 37 38 network is a structurally-linked membrane system in eukaryotic cells—either by direct membrane connections or vesicular trafficking. As such, the endomembrane system includes 39 the endoplasmic reticulum and connected nuclear envelop, the Golgi apparatus and the trans-40 Golgi Network (TGN), endosomes, vacuoles/lysosomes and the plasma membrane. The 41 endomembrane system is composed of three main lipid classes: sphingolipids, sterols and 42 phospholipids (see Box 1). While the same three lipid classes are present in the endomembrane 43 44 system of all eukaryotes, plants present some specificity, with for example the existence of phytosterols, specific headgroups in sphingolipids, or the incorporation of very-long-chain fatty 45 46 acids (VLCFAs) in the phospholipid phosphatidylserine in addition to sphingolipids (Box 1) (Jaillais and Ott, 2020; Mamode Cassim et al., 2019; Murata et al., 1984). Additionally, there is a 47 high degree of variability in the lipid composition of each compartment of the endomembrane 48 network (Holthuis and Levine, 2005; Noack and Jaillais, 2017). This diversity is critical to 49 establish the respective identity of each organelle, but also to ensure their specific function. For 50 example, the lipids in the endoplasmic reticulum tends to be unsaturated and cone-shaped 51 52 while the level of cholesterol is relatively low; this lipid composition creates a loose lipid packing (Bigay and Antonny, 2012; Boutte and Moreau, 2014; Holthuis and Menon, 2014). 53 Oppositely, the plasma membrane contains more saturated cylinder-shaped lipids while the 54 level of cholesterol is relatively high; this creates a tight lipid packing. Moreover, the ER is 55 enriched in highly curved tubules which induce lipid packing defects favorable to translocation 56 of proteins across the membrane, consistent with the function of this endomembrane 57 compartment as a protein production center (Bigay and Antonny, 2012; Holthuis and Menon, 58 2014). By contrast, the membrane curvature of the plasma membrane is lower which limits lipid 59 60 packing defects and creates a more impermeable membrane, consistent with the function of 61 this endomembrane compartment as a barrier to the outside cellular world (Bigay and Antonny, 62 2012; Holthuis and Menon, 2014).

Lipid variability within membrane is enormous and comes not only from variations in the
relative amount in each lipid class, sphingolipids, sterols and phospholipids but also from
differential composition in their carbon chains and head groups. Indeed, they can harbor many
different head groups with sometime drastically distinct properties, they can have acyl-chains
of different sizes and with varied degree of unsaturation and hydroxylation (Box 1) (Holthuis
and Menon, 2014; Mamode Cassim et al., 2019). Because of the importance of lipids for the

organization of the endomembrane system, changes in the equilibrium between, or within, lipid

- classes have strong impact on cellular functions. As such, the underlying metabolic pathways
- that drives the variations in membrane lipid composition are highly regulated. Importantly,
- these regulations are not only happening at the cell level but also within the context of an
- raise of the second sec
- 74 membrane lipid composition also varies at the developmental scale, for example according to
- the organs, tissues and even cell types (Colin and Jaillais, 2019; Li et al., 2019; Stanislas et al.,
- 76 2018). This suggest that membrane lipid metabolism is regulated by developmental pathways
- and that variations in membrane lipid homeostasis may impact plant development in turn.
- 78 Here, we review the recent evidences that support the importance of membrane lipids in plant
- 79 development with a focus on phytohormone responses. In particular, we will illustrate, using
- 80 chosen examples mainly from Arabidopsis root, how developmental pathways target lipid
- 81 metabolism to control growth and morphogenesis and in turn how modifications of membrane
- 82 lipids feedback on these signaling pathways. These examples illustrate how all aspects of
- 83 membrane lipid metabolic pathways are targeted by these feedback regulations, including:
- 84 fatty acyl chain length and saturation degrees, lipid synthesis and breakdown, the role of
- 85 metabolic intermediate or the rapid interconversion of lipid head groups.
- 86

Acyl-chain length of fatty acids is a membrane orchestrating factor of hormonal-induced development programs

Cell specification is a key process in plant development that occurs at defined spots of a tissue 89 90 layer. It results in the regulation of cell proliferation, through modulation of cell division, and 91 induction of cell pluripotency, an instrumental process in acquisition of founder cell identity 92 and production of new organs. While transcriptional regulation networks have been well studied during *de novo* developmental processes primed by the phytohormone auxin, such as 93 94 generation of new floral primordia in the shoot apical meristem or new lateral root primordia 95 from the primary root, little attention has been given to how these transcriptional changes 96 translate into cellular processes. Both the shoot apical meristem and lateral root primordia are 97 excellent experimental systems to explore *de novo* generation of a new organ from founder 98 cells. The shoot apical meristem is composed of several cell layers including the outermost 99 epidermal L1 cell layer and more internal tissues involved in cell proliferation. In a genetic 100 screen for Arabidopsis mutants displaying ectopic cell proliferation, the pasticcino (pas) mutants were first identified (Faure et al., 1998; Vittorioso et al., 1998). PAS genes are involved 101 102 in VLCFAs synthesis. VLCFAs are included into a restricted number of membrane lipid classes, i.e. sphingolipids and phosphatidylserine (Box 1), or into extracellular lipids such as suberin and 103 104 waxes (Delude et al., 2016a; Li-Beisson et al., 2013; Murata et al., 1984; Wattelet-Boyer et al., 105 2016). VLCFA are synthesized in the endoplasmic reticulum by the fatty acid elongase complex

106 that catalyzes rounds of 2-carbon elongation in a 4-step mechanism. The elongase complex is 107 made of a 3-KETOACYL-COA SYNTHASE (KCS), a 3-KETOACYL-COA REDUCTASE (KCR), a 3-HYDROXYACYL-COA DEHYDRATASE (HACD), and a TRANS-2,3-ENOYL-COA REDUCTASE (ECR) 108 (Haslam and Kunst, 2013). PASTICCINO2 (PAS2) is a HACD while PASTICCINO1 (PAS1) physically 109 110 interacts with the elongase complex core members KCR1, PAS2 and ECR/CER10 to favor VLCFAs 111 synthesis (Roudier et al., 2010). Hypertrophy of apical parts and uncoordinated cell division in the *pas* mutants were originally correlated to hypersensitivity to the phytohormone cytokinin 112 (Faure et al., 1998; Vittorioso et al., 1998). Later on, it was shown that expression of PAS2 is 113 restricted to the outermost L1 epidermal cell layer of the shoot apical meristem (Nobusawa et 114 115 al., 2013). Importantly, the *pas2* mutant causes decreased VLCFAs synthesis in the epidermal cell layer of the shoot meristem, increased synthesis of cytokinin and overproliferation of cells 116 in internal tissues of the shoot apical meristem (Nobusawa et al., 2013). Hence, VLCFAs regulate 117 118 auxin-induced shoot apical meristem development through repression of cytokinin synthesis in 119 a non-cell autonomous manner. In Arabidopsis root, PAS2 expression is restricted to the internal endodermis cell layer while expression of a second HACD, the PROTEIN TYROSINE 120 121 PHOSPHATASE-LIKE (PTPLA), is confined to root vascular tissue and pericycle cells (Morineau et al., 2016). Interestingly, PAS2-dependent fatty acyl elongation is enhanced in absence of PTPLA 122 123 which suggests that a non-cell autonomous signal transit between the pericycle and the 124 endodermis, similarly to what was observed in the shoot apical meristem (Morineau et al., 125 2016). The physiological function of this pericycle/endodermal communication through VLCFAs 126 has been elegantly addressed during induction of cell pluripotency, which is essential for new 127 organ generation, especially during formation of lateral root primordia which originates from 128 auxin-induced initiation site in the pericycle (Figure 1). Interestingly, on the one hand, the condensing enzymes KCS2, KCS20 and KCS1, important for >C20 fatty acyl elongation, are 129 130 specifically expressed in root endodermis (Lee et al., 2009; Shang et al., 2016). On the other hand, KCS1-mediated VLCFAs production has been shown to restrict pericycle cell proliferation 131 132 and lateral root primordia development (Figure 1) (Shang et al., 2016; Trinh et al., 2019). It is thought that restriction of lateral root primordia development in the pericycle by VLCFAs 133 production in the endodermis partly relies on the nuclear protein ARABIDOPSIS ABERRANT 134 LATERAL ROOT FORMATION (ALF4), a regulator of cullin-RING E3 ligases, whose expression is 135 136 restricted to the pericycle (Bagchi et al., 2018; Shang et al., 2016).

However, the production of VLCFAs has to be precisely controlled both in time and space to fit
the lateral root primordia pattern observed along the main root and thus avoid anarchical
lateral root development. The AP2/EREBP transcription factor *PUCHI* controls cell proliferation
during the early stages of lateral root formation (Hirota et al., 2007). Interestingly, *PUCHI*targets the spatial expression of genes involved in VLCFA synthesis such as *KCS1*, *KCS20*, *KCR1*, *PAS2* and *ECR/CER10* during lateral root primordia development (Figure 1) (Trinh et al., 2019).
VLCFA mutants display lateral root formation defects and *puchi* mutant displays altered VLCFA

- 144 content with a reduction of C22 fatty alcohols and C24 sphingolipids (Trinh et al., 2019). At later
- stages of lateral root development, *PUCHI* expression disappears from the center of lateral root
- primordia and becomes confined to their base and flanks (Figure 1) (Trinh et al., 2019).
- 147 Consistently with a role of *PUCHI* in restricting cell proliferation in boundaries, the distance
- 148 between two lateral root primordia is reduced in the *puchi* mutant compared to the wild-type
- 149 (Trinh et al., 2019). Lateral inhibition of lateral root primordia development by *PUCHI* is further
- supported by the finding that *PUCHI* is a downstream element of the peptide hormone TARGET
- 151 OF LBD SIXTEEN 2 (TOLS2) which is induced by auxin, through the transcription factor LOB
- 152 DOMAIN-CONTAINING PROTEIN 16 (LBD16), and which is perceived by the RECEPTOR-LIKE
- 153 KINASE7 (RLK7) (Toyokura et al., 2019). TOLS2 is induced by auxin in lateral root founder cells
- and has the ability to move nearby to repress the initiation of other lateral roots in close
- 155 proximity of the developing primordia (Figure 1) (Toyokura et al., 2019).
- 156

157 VLCFA-containing membrane lipids as executive producer of the hormonal transcriptional 158 script

- 159 Auxin induces cell proliferation and pluripotency in new lateral root primordia and at the same
- 160 time separately activates the production of a mobile peptide that will trigger the
- 161 TOLS2/RLK7/PUCHI pathway in neighboring cells to restrict cell proliferation through the
- 162 induction of VLCFA synthesis (Figure 1). Hence, the precise induction of VLCFA synthesis
- delineates a zone of the root where cell proliferation induced by auxin is controlled and this will
- 164 define a periodic pattern along the main root. However, an important question to address is
- 165 how do VLCFAs execute the hormone-induced developmental program? VLCFAs are found
- 166 mainly in the sphingolipids where they constitute more than 80% of sphingolipids in plants
- 167 (Wattelet-Boyer et al., 2016). VLCFAs are additionally found in phosphatidylcholine in
- 168 mammals, phosphatidylinositol in yeast and in phosphatidylserine in plants (Murata et al.,
- 169 1984; Poulos, 1995; Schneiter et al., 2004)
- 170 Beside membrane lipids, extracellular lipids such as the cuticle and suberin contain VLCFAs. The
- 171 cuticle is a hydrophobic barrier at the surface of epidermal cells and is composed from cutin, a
- polymer of C16 and C18 fatty acids, and cuticular waxes, a polymer of VLCFA-derived
- 173 compounds (Bernard and Joubes, 2013; Delude et al., 2016b; Kunst and Samuels, 2003).
- 174 Suberin is a polymer made of VLC ω -hydroxyacids, dicarboxylic acid and fatty alcohols (Delude
- et al., 2016b; Franke et al., 2005). VLCFAs presence in extracellular lipids could be of particular
- importance for targeted development programs since unusual cutin-like compounds were
- 177 found to be enriched in a cell layer overlaying the lateral root primordia and play a role in
- 178 lateral root emergence (Berhin et al., 2019). Moreover, the LONG-CHAIN FATTY ACID
- 179 SYNTHETASE 2 (LACS2) enzyme is required for cutin synthesis and lateral root development

- 180 (Macgregor et al., 2008). Hence, modulation of cuticle lipids plays a role in lateral root
- 181 formation most probably by regulating the permeability of the cuticle to ions and osmotic
- 182 solutes (Berhin et al., 2019; Macgregor et al., 2008). However, targeted auxin/TOLS2/PUCHI-
- 183 mediated lateral root primordia formation is unlikely to occur through cuticle as unusual cutin-
- 184 like compounds detected in developing lateral root primordia are not VLCFAs and the level of
- 185 typical suberin and cutin compounds was found to be similar between wild-type and *puchi*

186 mutant (Trinh et al., 2019).

- 187 Aside from extracellular lipids and membrane sphingolipids, the acyl-chain length of
- 188 phosphatidylserine and the quantity of phosphatidylserine at the plasma membrane vary
- during plant development (Li et al., 2014; Platre et al., 2019). Phosphatidylserine is required for
- auxin-mediated meristem maintenance of the shoot apex (Liu et al., 2013). Moreover,
- 191 phosphatidylserine is a crucial lipid which stabilizes auxin-induced nano-clustering of Rho of
- 192 Plants 6 (ROP6), a small guanosine triphosphatase (GTPase) involved in auxin signaling (Platre et
- al., 2019). Interestingly, in animal cells, phosphatidylserine is located in the cytoplasmic leaflet
- of the plasma membrane (Yeung et al., 2008) and has the ability to induce the nanoclustering of
- 195 GPI-anchored proteins located at the outer leaflet, through trans-bilayer coupling (Raghupathy
- 196 et al., 2015). This coupling requires long acyl-chains of 18 carbons for both GPI and
- 197 phosphatidylserine (e.g. PS 18:0/18:1) (Raghupathy et al., 2015; Skotland and Sandvig, 2019).
- 198 Hence, phosphatidylserine does not necessarily require VLCFA to induce nano-clustering of
- 199 proteins in animal cells. However, whether VLCFA of phosphatidylserine is required to target
- 200 specific developmental programs is currently unknown in plant cells.
- 201 Contrastingly, VLCFAs of sphingolipids are known to be instrumental in executing hormone-
- 202 induced developmental program. α-hydroxylated VLCFAs, specific of sphingolipids (Box 1), were
- found to be a target of the auxin/PUCHI-mediated lateral root primordia formation and this is
- 204 consistent with the role of the ceramide synthases LONGEVITY ASSURANCE GENE 1
- HOMOLOGUE (LOH) in lateral root development (Bach et al., 2011). In *loh* mutant, the auxin
- 206 influx carrier AUX1 and the auxin efflux carrier PIN1, both required for lateral root formation,
- are mis-localized in endosomal compartments, which indicates an involvement of sphingolipids
- in endomembrane trafficking of auxin carriers (Bach et al., 2011). Interestingly, pharmacological
- reduction of acyl-chain length of sphingolipids, which does not alter the total quantity of
- sphingolipids, inhibits secretory sorting of the auxin efflux carrier PIN2 at a specific sub-domain
- of the TGN, a major post-Golgi sorting station (Wattelet-Boyer et al., 2016). Immuno-isolation
- of intact TGN compartments revealed that the TGN sub-domain involved in PIN2 secretory
- sorting is enriched in α -hydroxylated VLCFAs, the specific hallmark of sphingolipids, similarly to
- what was found in TGN-derived vesicles in yeast (Klemm et al., 2009; Wattelet-Boyer et al.,
- 215 2016). Mis-sorting of PIN2 at the TGN upon the reduction of the acyl-chain length of
- 216 sphingolipids resulted in the alteration of the capacity of plants to orient their root growth

- towards the gravity vector (Wattelet-Boyer et al., 2016). Hence, the acyl-chain length of
- 218 sphingolipids is not only involved in developmental programs but also in the perception and
- response of plants to the environment. Identifying the mechanisms through which
- sphingolipids act in protein sorting at the TGN is a future challenge shared in all communities
- 221 working on sphingolipids.
- In summary, auxin triggers cell proliferation and pluripotency, which create a niche of stem
- cells. In parallel, auxin activates signaling pathways that will restrict this zone in space, as well
- as activation of VLCFAs biosynthesis, which will feedback on auxin transport to inhibit cell
- proliferation and organize coordinated growth of the new organ.
- 226

227 VLCFAs are regulating cell-to-cell transport during defined developmental programs

Cell-to-cell transport is known to partly rely on plasmodesmata which are membrane-lined 228 channels connecting the cytoplasm between adjacent cells. Lipid characterization of isolated 229 plasmodesmata revealed that they are significantly enriched in sterols and sphingolipids 230 231 containing α -hydroxylated VLCFAs and phytosphinganine (tri-hydroxylated long chain base t18:0) (Grison et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2020). Phytosphinganine binds plasmodesmata-located 232 protein 5 (PDLP5) which regulates plasmodesmata cell-to-cell connectivity (Liu et al., 2020; 233 Sager et al., 2020). Furthermore, the sphingolipid biosynthesis *phloem unloading modulator* 234 (plm) mutant has reduced level of VLCFA-ceramides and displays enhanced cell-to-cell 235 trafficking between the pericycle and the endodermis (Yan et al., 2019). VLCFA-mediated 236 237 restriction of cell-to-cell trafficking between the pericycle and the endodermis is particularly relevant when considering the restriction of lateral root primordium development at the 238 239 pericycle by VLCFAs production in the endodermis (see discussion in previous section; (Shang et 240 al., 2016; Trinh et al., 2019)). Indeed, during lateral root initiation, the plasmodesmata-241 mediated connectivity between the initial auxin-primed pericycle cell and the neighboring cells 242 is reduced as soon as the first pericycle cell division occurs (Benitez-Alfonso et al., 2013). Auxin 243 is a small molecule that can likely diffuse through plasmodesmata, as shown previously during 244 the tropic growth of Arabidopsis hypocotyl in response to unilateral light (Han et al., 2014), in the root meristem (Mellor et al., 2020) or in leaves (Gao et al., 2020). An advantage of reducing 245 246 cell-to-cell connectivity in the early stages of lateral root primordia development could be to concentrate auxin at a restricted area of the pericycle to trigger cell proliferation and regulate 247 248 the spatial patterning of lateral root primordia along the main root. Sphingolipids-mediated regulation of cell-to-cell connectivity at plasmodesmata occurs through both the external 249 deposition of callose (a β -(1,3)-glucan polymer), induced by the recruitment of PDLP5, and the 250 internal modulation of plasmodesmata membrane structure (Liu et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2019). 251 252 Additionally, a non-negligible number of receptor-like kinases have been identified at

- 253 plasmodesmata such as CLAVATA1 (CLV1) acting in stem cell specification, and its receptor
- kinase interactor CRINKLY4 (Stahl et al., 2013). Another plasmodesmata-located receptor, the
- 255 Qiān Shǒu kinase (QSK1), associates more strongly to plasmodesmata when the acyl-chain
- length of fatty acids was reduced by pharmacological treatment (Grison et al., 2019).
- 257 Interestingly, QSK1 is necessary for callose deposition and lateral root development (Grison et
- al., 2019). Hence, VLCFA-modulation of plasmodesmata occurs through several mechanisms to
- 259 regulate cell-to-cell connectivity during defined developmental programs.
- 260

261 Membrane sterols participate to non-cell autonomous auxin-mediated tissue patterning

- It is known from a long time that membrane sterols are crucial for plant development as the 262 first genetic screens performed in Arabidopsis identified from the start several sterol-263 biosynthesis genes as master regulator of cell division, embryogenesis, body patterning and 264 growth axes polarity (Mayer et al., 1991). More precisely, the ratio between 24-ethyl sterols (β-265 sitosterol and stigmasterol, see Box 1) and 24-methyl sterols (campesterol, see Box 1) has been 266 267 found to be critical during general plant development (Schaeffer et al., 2001). This is important 268 since this ratio is controlled by the last steps of sterol-biosynthesis and could be a way for 269 plants to finely tune morphogenesis in a given tissue. The 24-ethyl/24-methyl sterols ratio is 270 balanced by the C24-methylation of 24-methylene lophenol which is synthesized by the 271 HYDRA1 enzyme. Interestingly, while hydra1 mutant displays root patterning defects in the 272 epidermis, columella and vascular tissues, tissue-specific expression of HYDRA1 in the epidermis 273 significantly rescued the cell patterning defects in all tissues (Figure 2) (Short et al., 2018; 274 Souter et al., 2002). Contrastingly, expression of HYDRA1 in the pericycle, endodermis or 275 vascular tissues had limited effects on the rescue of root cell patterning defects of the hydra1 276 mutant (Short et al., 2018). Thus, sterols are involved in the transit of a non-cell autonomous signal from the epidermis to the other tissues of the root. Campesterol is the precursor of the 277 278 plant hormone brassinosteroids and could be a mobile signal; nonetheless, exogenous 279 application of brassinosteroids does not rescue any of the cell patterning defects of the hydra1 280 mutant (Short et al., 2018). Interestingly, Arabidopsis mutants in sterol-biosynthesis steps upstream the 24-ethyl/24-methyl sterols checkpoint all display defects in the localization of PIN 281 282 auxin efflux carriers and altered tissue distribution of auxin (Men et al., 2008; Pan et al., 2009; 283 Souter et al., 2002; Willemsen et al., 2003). Moreover, specific expression of HYDRA1 in 284 epidermis rescues PIN localization defects in the hydra1 mutant (Figure 2) (Short et al., 2018). Hence, it is very tempting to hypothesize that auxin would be a non-cell autonomous signal 285 286 controlled by membrane sterols.
- Using *Arabidopsis* root hairs, which develop as a projection from trichoblast epidermal cell,
 auxin was found to act as a non-cell autonomous signal controlling the positioning of the root

- hair in the plane of epidermal cells (Figure 2) (Boutte and Grebe, 2009; Fischer et al., 2004;
- 290 Ikeda et al., 2009). Interestingly, at the root hair initiation site, sterols accumulate with ROP
- 291 GTPases, ROP2 and ROP6 and are necessary for correct ROP positioning. Moreover, sterols are
- required for the polar localization at early hair bulging sites of the AGC kinases of the D6PK
- family, which are involved in auxin transport (Figure 2) (Armengot et al., 2016; Barbosa et al.,
- 294 2014; Stanislas et al., 2015; Stanislas and Jaillais, 2019; Zourelidou et al., 2014). Hence, sterols
- 295 feed back on auxin transport during auxin-regulated cell polarization.
- 296

297 Phosphatidylserine gradients regulate Rho-mediated auxin signaling at the tissue level.

Phosphatidylserine is produced in the ER by the PHOSPHATIDYLSERINE SYNTHASE1 (PSS1) 298 299 enzyme (Yamaoka et al., 2011). However, in the ER, phosphatidylserine is oriented toward the lumen and is not accessible to cytosolic proteins (Platre and Jaillais, 2016, 2017). Analysis of 300 301 phosphatidylserine biosensors revealed that instead, phosphatidylserine is present on the 302 cytosolic leaflets of the plasma membrane and endosomal compartments (Platre et al., 2018; 303 Simon et al., 2016). Quantitatively, phosphatidylserine appears to form a concentration 304 gradient from the cell surface to the late endocytic pathway, including the vacuolar membrane (i.e. the tonoplast) (Figure 3A) (Platre et al., 2018). Interestingly, this gradient is not 305 306 homogeneous but appears to be developmentally controlled (Platre et al., 2019). Indeed, in 307 Arabidopsis root epidermis, meristematic cells have a very sharp concentration gradient of 308 phosphatidylserine from the plasma membrane to endosomal compartments (Figure 3B). By contrast, elongating epidermal cells have a more balanced phosphatidylserine cellular gradients 309 310 with less phosphatidylserine sensor localized at the plasma membrane and proportionally more at the surface of endosomes/TGN (Figure 3B) (Platre et al., 2019). Hence, there is not only a 311 312 cellular phosphatidylserine gradient within the endomembrane system but also a tissue-level phosphatidylserine gradient (Figure 3A-B) (Colin and Jaillais, 2019). The variations of 313 314 phosphatidylserine accumulation at the plasma membrane at the tissue scale appears to be functionally relevant as it impacts the signaling activity of the Rho GTPase ROP6 (Platre et al., 315 2019). ROP6 coordinates cytoskeleton dynamics and intracellular trafficking during the root 316 317 response to gravity and is activated in response to auxin (Armengot et al., 2016; Chen et al., 318 2012; Lin et al., 2012). Phosphatidylserine is required to stabilize ROP6 into plasma membrane 319 nanoclusters, which is itself needed for downstream signaling activity (Platre et al., 2019). 320 Importantly, phosphatidylserine is not only required but is rate limiting for this process. Indeed, a decreased phosphatidylserine synthesis leads to attenuated ROP6 nanoclustering and 321 322 response, while an increased phosphatidylserine production leads to constitutive ROP6 nanoclustering and downstream signaling (Platre et al., 2019). Therefore, variations of 323 324 phosphatidylserine accumulation at the plasma membrane during cell differentiation impact 325 the cellular sensitivity of root cells to auxin (Figure 3C) (Colin and Jaillais, 2019). Accordingly,

326 elongating epidermal cells, which have less PS at the plasma membrane, have a weaker response to ROP6-mediated auxin signaling than root meristematic cells. Interestingly, auxin 327 exogenous application promotes phosphatidylserine accumulation at the plasma membrane 328 329 (Platre et al., 2019). Therefore, phosphatidylserine appears to be at the heart of a feedback 330 regulatory loop, by which auxin impacts on the subcellular accumulation of phosphatidylserine 331 to regulate ROP6 signaling and hence a subset of the auxin responses (Figure 3C) (Jaillais and Ott, 2020; Platre et al., 2019). There are many unknown components in this regulatory loop, 332 333 including which of the many auxin pathways (e.g. ROP6 signaling, TIR/AFB-mediated nuclear 334 auxin signaling, non-canonical TIR/AFB signaling) feedbacks on phosphatidylserine subcellular 335 accumulation and what are the phosphatidylserine metabolic pathways that are targeted by the auxin signal (e.g. biosynthesis, flipping from luminal to cytosolic leaflet, transport). Although 336 337 these metabolic intermediates are currently unknown, this example nicely illustrates how a 338 membrane lipid, such as phosphatidylserine, may regulate a given signaling output, while at the 339 same time being targeted for regulation by that signaling pathway.

340

Opposites attract: membrane targeting by electrostatics in the regulation of hormonesignaling.

343 Phosphatidylserine, together with phosphoinositides (e.g. PI4P, PI(4,5)P₂) and phosphatidic acid 344 are anionic lipids (Colin and Jaillais, 2019). As such, they impact a key physicochemical property 345 of biological membranes: their electrostatic field (Noack and Jaillais, 2017; Platre and Jaillais, 2017). The extensive use of lipid and electrostatic biosensors revealed that the endomembrane 346 347 system of plant cells may be roughly divided in two cellular territories (Platre et al., 2018; Simon et al., 2016). The first one includes membrane that are not electrostatics (i.e. no accumulation 348 349 of anionic lipids on their cytosolic leaflet) and that corresponds to ER-derived membranes. The second is an electrostatic territory and is composed of post-Golgi compartments, including the 350 351 TGN, the plasma membrane, endosomes and the tonoplast (Platre et al., 2018). The separation of the endomembrane system into two distinct membrane territories has a strong impact on 352 353 protein localization, including both peripheral proteins that may be recruited to their target membrane through interactions with anionic lipids, but also for integral transmembrane 354 355 proteins, which can be stabilized or destabilized by membrane electrostatics. 356 Phosphatidylserine is the only anionic lipid that accumulates in all post-Golgi compartments 357 and thus can be seen as a hallmark of the electrostatic territory in plants (Platre et al., 2018). By

358 contrast, PI4P and phosphatidic acid strongly accumulate at the plasma membrane and

- together they power a very strong electrostatic field which is a key determinant of the identity
- of this membrane (Figure 3D) (Platre and Jaillais, 2017; Platre et al., 2018; Simon et al., 2016).
- 361 Consequently, proteins that contains a polybasic region engage electrostatic interactions with

anionic lipids and may be targeted specifically to the plasma membrane. This is for example the 362 case of several key regulators of hormonal pathways, including the AGC kinases PINOID and 363 D6PKs, which are master regulators of PIN-mediated auxin transport (Barbosa et al., 2016; Lee 364 et al., 2018; Marhava et al., 2020; Simon et al., 2016; Stanislas et al., 2015). Mutants versions of 365 366 PINOID or D6PKs that are not able to interact with anionic lipids, fail to interact with the plasma 367 membrane and are not functional (Barbosa et al., 2016; Simon et al., 2016). Another example of proteins regulated by plasma membrane electrostatics is the BRI1 KINASE INHIBITOR1 (BKI1) 368 369 (Simon et al., 2016). BKI1 is an inhibitor of the BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE1 (BRI1) receptor 370 kinase (Jaillais and Vert, 2016; Wang and Chory, 2006). It is an intrinsically disordered protein, which binds to the plasma membrane via a polybasic membrane hook (Jaillais et al., 2011). 371 Interestingly, the localization and thereby function of BKI1 is not only regulated by anionic lipids 372 but also by brassinosteroid signaling itself (Figure 3D) (Jaillais et al., 2011; Wang and Chory, 373 374 2006). Here, brassinosteroid does not target the metabolic production of anionic lipids, but 375 directly the BKI1 proteins (Jaillais et al., 2011; Wang and Chory, 2006). Indeed, upon brassinosteroid perception, BRI1 phosphorylates BKI1 on a conserved tyrosine within its 376 377 polycationic membrane hook (Jaillais et al., 2011). This tyrosine phosphorylation triggers the rapid dissociation of BKI1 from the plasma membrane and allows further downstream BRI1 378 379 signaling. A likely mechanistic explanation for this membrane release is that the 380 phosphorylation, which is negatively charged, creates a local electrostatic clash with the highly 381 anionic plasma membrane, thereby releasing BKI1 into the cytosol (Jaillais and Vert, 2016). In 382 favor of this hypothesis, a BKI1 mutant in which the tyrosine residue within the membrane 383 hook is substituted for a negatively charged aspartic acid, is unable to bind to the plasma 384 membrane (Jaillais et al., 2011). This example shows that hormonal pathways may not only target lipid metabolism to modulate their signaling activity, but may also directly manipulate 385 386 protein-lipid interactions, for example via protein phosphorylation.

387

Reinforcing cell polarity: a regulatory feedback loop between auxin and phosphoinositide metabolism.

390 PROTEIN KINASE ASSOCIATED WITH BRX (PAX) is an AGC kinase involved in root protophloem

differentiation (Marhava et al., 2018). PAX is specifically expressed in root protophloem and

- localized on the rootward pole of these cells (Marhava et al., 2018). PAX directly
- 393 phosphorylates PIN proteins in protophloem to enhance polar auxin efflux, which decreases the
- intracellular auxin level (Marhava et al., 2018) (Figure 4A). PAX activity is counterbalanced by its

395 protein partner BREVIS RADIX (BRX), which negatively regulates PAX, thereby decreasing auxin

- 396 efflux and increasing intracellular auxin concentration (Marhava et al., 2018; Rodriguez-Villalon
- 397 et al., 2015). Heightened intracellular auxin dissociates BRX from the membrane into the

cytosol and as such promotes PAX activity and auxin efflux, creating a regulatory feedback loop
akin to a molecular rheostat (Marhava et al., 2018; Scacchi et al., 2009) (Figure 4A-B).

Interestingly, like PINOID or D6PKs, PAX is targeted to the plasma membrane via electrostatic 400 401 interactions with anionic phospholipids (Barbosa et al., 2016) and its localization is dependent 402 on two PI4P kinases PIP5K1/PIP5K2, which produce $PI(4,5)P_2$ (Figure 4C) (Marhava et al., 2020). 403 PIP5Ks are coimmunoprecipated by both BRX and PAX and the pip5k1k2 double mutant shows 404 a protophloem differentiation phenotype similar to pax and brx mutants. PIP5K1/2, PAX and 405 BRX are all localized on the rootward pole of protophloem cells in a plasma membrane domain at the center of the cell and referred to as a muffin-like pattern. This muffin-like membrane 406 407 patch is complementary to PIN1 localization, which accumulates in a donut-like membrane domain surrounding PIP5Ks/PAX and BRX (Figure 4D-F) (Marhava et al., 2020). The PIN1 donut-408 like localization is altered in *pip5k1k2*, *pax* and *brx* mutants suggesting that the activity of the 409 complex is involved in PIN1 localization. Thus, PIN1 localization in donut appears to be 410 important for protophloem differentiation. However, the exact function of this annular pattern, 411

412 by opposition to a localization on the entire face of the cell's rootward pole, is unclear.

Because PIP5K1/2 are localized in the muffin-like patch, it is tempting to speculate that their

lipid product, $PI(4,5)P_2$, is also enriched in this domain. A local increase in $PI(4,5)P_2$ may create a

415 high local electrostatic field, which could contribute to the polar recruitment of PAX specifically

in the muffin-like patch (Figure 4D). In animals, PI(4,5)P₂ is essential for endocytosis as it

417 mediates the recruitment of many key regulators of clathrin-mediated endocytosis (Posor et al.,

2015). A similar scenario is likely in plants, since most of these core regulators of endocytosis

are conserved and $PI(4,5)P_2$ is known to positively contribute to endocytosis (Ischebeck et al.,

420 2013). Interestingly, DYNAMIN-RELATED PROTEIN 1A (DRP1A), a dynamin-like protein involved

421 in clathrin-mediated endocytosis in plants, localizes in the muffin-like domain (Marhava et al.,

422 2020). This suggests that DRP1A may participate in an endocytic process, which locally removes

423 PIN1, thereby promoting its donut-like localization (Figure 4D-E). Thus, PI(4,5)P₂ and their

424 biosynthetic enzymes, PIP5Ks, are part of a self-organizing polarity module (Marhava et al.,

425 2020; Weijers, 2020). On the one hand, they contribute to localizing PAX/BRX to the muffin-like

426 polar patch and on the other hand, they are critical to establish the PIN1 donut domain (Figure

427 4F). Because it is a rate limiting component in cellular auxin efflux, PIN1 determines

428 intracellular auxin levels, which itself impacts on BRX localization (Marhava et al., 2018; Scacchi

429 et al., 2009), but also *PIP5K* and *BRX* expression (Mei et al., 2012; Mouchel et al., 2006; Tejos et

430 al., 2014). This example highlights how lipids participate in self-organizing systems to obtain

robust polarity maintenance, which in this case is required for the differentiation of the root
 vasculature. Interestingly, auxin regulates this polarity module in several ways, including the

433 control of BRX localization, by a so far uncharacterized mechanism, and gene expression. The

fact that auxin acts through multiple pathways on lipid metabolism is a concept that will likely

- 435 be extended to many other developmental outputs, starting with the ROP6/phosphatidylserine
- 436 module (Figure 3C). Indeed, each auxin pathways will likely function at different time scales
- 437 and/or at different concentrations, thereby expanding the regulatory repertoire that
- 438 membrane lipids have to offer to control plant development.
- 439

440 Conclusion

In the examples described above, it is clear that most membrane lipid classes have key roles in 441 the hormonal control of plant development. Their metabolism is directly regulated by these 442 pathways, notably in response to auxin. The modification of membrane lipid homeostasis is 443 therefore part of the downstream cellular toolkit, which executes given developmental 444 responses. In addition, developmentally-controlled modifications of lipid metabolism often 445 feedback on those signaling pathways to either downregulate or activate them, providing 446 negative feedback regulations or self-reinforcing loops. In the case of auxin, which have several 447 paralleled signaling pathways, membrane lipids appear as key factors involved in the crosstalk 448 between the different arms of the auxin responses. However, the importance of lipid 449 450 metabolism in plant development is only beginning to be uncovered as we still do not fully appreciate to what extent phytohormones impact membrane lipids, notably at the single cell 451 452 level. In addition, there are still few cases in which we understand the downstream impacts of 453 targeted membrane lipid alterations on the development of growing tissues and organs. The 454 cell wall is now recognized as a major target of developmental regulators to control plant morphogenesis (Echevin et al., 2019; Eng and Sampathkumar, 2018; Kierzkowski and Routier-455 456 Kierzkowska, 2019; Landrein and Ingram, 2019; Zhao et al., 2018). We propose that membrane 457 lipids, which build the very interface between the cytoplasm and the cell wall (Ackermann and 458 Stanislas, 2020), should also be considered on an equal footing with cell wall modifying 459 processes when considering plant morphogenesis.

460

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- 467

468 **Declaration of interest**:

- 469 The authors declare no competing interests.
- 470

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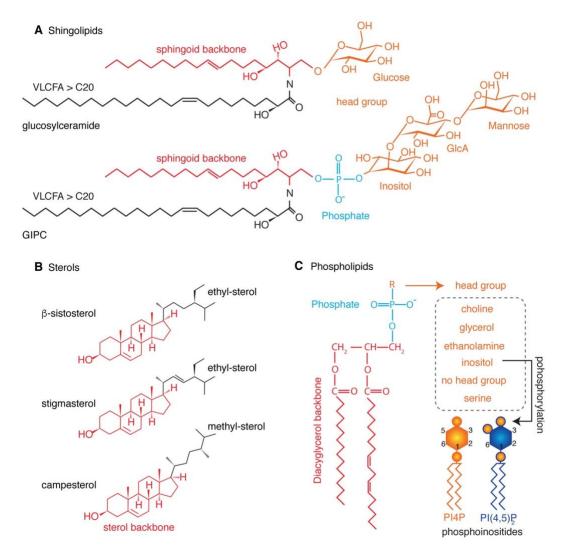
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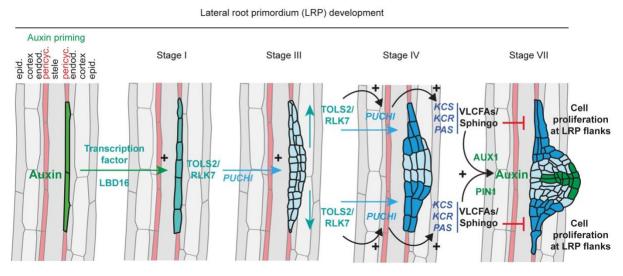
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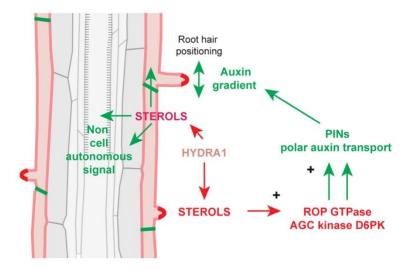
725 Box 1: Typical structures of the three-main lipids of the Arabidopsis endomembrane system. Membrane lipids in 726 the plant endomembrane system are made of three main lipid classes, sphingolipids, sterols and phospholipids. A) 727 Sphingolipids are lipids with a sphingoid backbone grafted with a Very-Long Chain Fatty Acid (VLCFA) and are 728 abundant in plants (up to 10% of total lipids) (Mamode Cassim et al., 2019). The main sphingolipids in plants are 729 glucosylceramide (~35%) and glycosyl inositol phosphoryl ceramide (GIPC, ~65%) (Mamode Cassim et al., 2019). They 730 are mostly located in the outer leaflets of the plasma membrane but also in the lumen of the trans-Golgi Network 731 (TGN), endosomes and the vacuolar membrane, where they can represent about 10 to 20% of total lipids (Jaillais and 732 Ott, 2020; Mamode Cassim et al., 2019). B) Sterols are membrane lipids constituted from four rings and a lateral chain 733 (Boutte and Grebe, 2009). This basic structure of free sterols can be further modified by addition of a fatty acid, 734 producing steryl esters, a sugar, producing steryl glucoside, or both, resulting in acyl steryl glycosides. Plants produce 735 three major sterols amongst which β -sitosterol and stigmasterol are both 24-ethyl sterols, and campesterol, a 24-methyl 736 sterol acting also as a precursor of brassinosteroids, a class of phytohormones involved in multiple plant developmental 737 processes (Belkhadir and Jaillais, 2015; Mamode Cassim et al., 2019). C) Phospholipids are glycerolipids made of a 738 glycerol backbone linking two long chain fatty acids to a hydrophilic head group with a phosphate group (Colin and 739 Jaillais, 2019). They can have diverse head groups, which determine the phospholipid class. Some phospholipids are 740 relatively abundant, such as phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylethanolamine and phosphatidylinositol (Colin and Jaillais, 741 2019). Low abundant phospholipids are also important functionally and often acts as lipid signal in membranes. These 742 low abundant phospholipids are anionic and include phosphatidic acid, phosphatidylserine and the phosphorylated 743 derivative of phosphatidylinositol, the phosphoinositides, such as phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate (PI4P) and 744 phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PI(4,5)P2) (Colin and Jaillais, 2019).



746 Figure 1: Feedbacks between auxin and VLCFAs during development of lateral root primordium. Schematic

representation of auxin-triggered VLCFAs feedbacks on cell proliferation and auxin transport. In pericycle (light red), an

- 748 auxin maximum (green) triggers the synthesis of several transcription factor, including LBD16 (LOB DOMAIN-
- 749 CONTAINING PROTEIN 16) which will activate the synthesis of the peptide TOLS2 (TARGET OF LBD SIXTEEN
- **750** 2, sea green). TOLS2 induces cell signaling through the RECEPTOR-LIKE KINASE 7 RLK7, and triggers the
- 751 synthesis of the transcription factor PUCHI (light blue). The TOLS2 peptide is able to move to neighboring cells and 752 reinforce the synthesis of PUCHI (blue) which targets transcription of genes involved in the synthesis of Very Long
- 752 remote the synthesis of Veel in (blue) which targets transcription of genes involved in the synthesis of Very 1753 Chain Fatty Acids (VLCFAs) such as KCS (3-KETOACYL-COA SYNTHASE), KCR (3-KETOACYL-COA
- 754 REDUCTASE) and PAS (PASTICCINO). Within membrane lipids, VLCFAs are mainly contain in sphingolipids
- 755 (Sphingo) that repress cell proliferation at lateral root primordium flanks and regulate polar auxin transport, thereby it
- 756 will positively feedback on the establishment of an auxin maximum in the new developing root. AUX1: AUXIN
- 757 TRANSPORTER1 (auxin-influx carrier), PIN1: PIN-FORMED1 (auxin-efflux carrier), VLCFA: very-long-chain fatty
- 758 acids, epid.: epidermis, endod.: endodermis, pericyc.: pericycle. Figure based on
- 759 <u>https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.5143987.v4</u> and <u>https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.4786357.v1</u>
- 760



762 Figure 2: Non-cell autonomous sterol function in root hair positioning through ROP GTPase, AGC kinase and

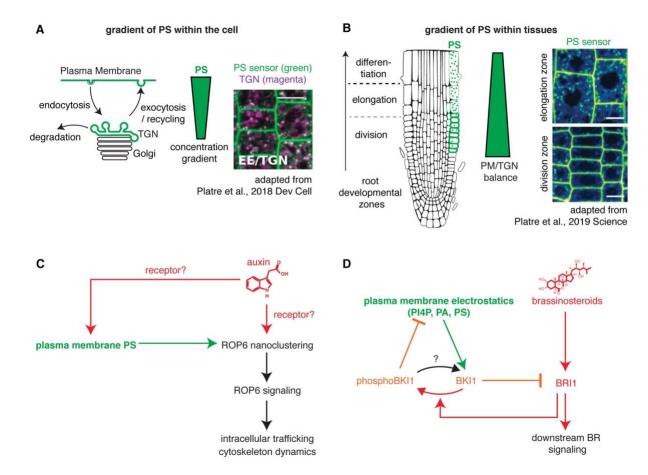
763 polar auxin transport. In epidermis (red), HYDRA1 controls the ratio between 24-ethyl sterols (β-sitosterol and

764 stigmasterol) and 24-methyl sterols (campesterol) in a non-cell autonomous manner. Sterols concentrate at the root hair

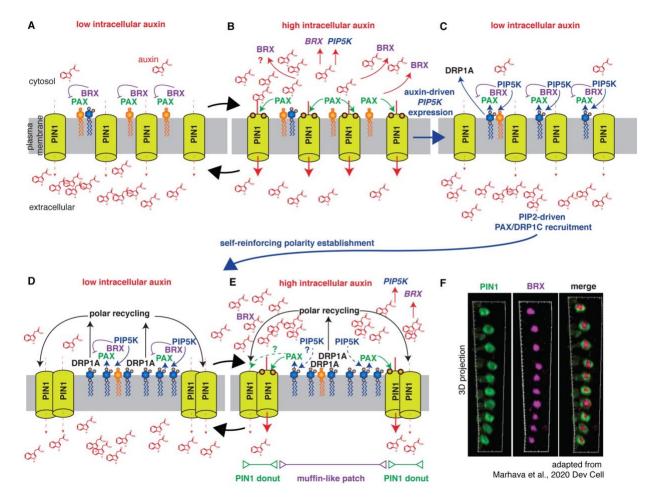
initiation site and are involved in polar positioning of RHO-OF-PLANTS (ROP) GTPase and the D6P-Kinase, which

activate polar auxin transport, create an auxin gradient and define the position of the root hair initiation site at epidermalcells. Sterols mediate the patterning of tissues adjacent to epidermis through a non-cell autonomous signal which could

- 768 be auxin. Figure based on https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.5143987.v4
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772 Figure 3: Feedback regulations between anionic phospholipids and auxin/brassinosteroid signaling. A) 773 Schematic representation of the phosphatidylserine accumulation gradient at the cell level (left), and example of 774 colocalization between a phosphatidylserine sensor and a trans-Golgi Network (TGN) marker (right, image adapted from 775 Platre et al., 2018). B) Schematic representation of the phosphatidylserine accumulation gradient at the tissue level (left), 776 and example of confocal images showing the localization of a phosphatidylserine sensor in the Arabidopsis root 777 epidermis elongation zone (top right) and meristem (bottom right, images adapted from Platre et al., 2019). C) Auxin 778 triggers RHO-OF-PLANTS6 (ROP6) nanoclustering, which is phosphatidylserine-dependent, and subsequent 779 downstream signaling, while at the same time auxin also controls phosphatidylserine subcellular accumulation. Note that 780 the receptor that perceives auxin upstream of ROP6 is unknown. Similarly, the auxin signaling pathway involved in 781 regulating the phosphatidylserine gradients at the cell and tissue scales are unknown, but could involve the ROP6 782 pathway itself. C) Anionic lipids antagonize brassinosteroid signaling by recruiting BRI1 KINASE INHIBITOR1 783 (BKI1) to the plasma membrane, which inhibits BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE1 (BRI1). Brassinosteroid 784 signaling, via BRI1 kinase activity, releases this inhibition by phosphorylating BKI1, thereby blocking the interaction 785 between BKI1 and anionic lipids and removing BKI1 from the plasma membrane. BR: brassinosteroid, PS: 786 phosphatidylserine, PA: phosphatidic acid.



788 Figure 4: Feedback mechanisms between auxin and PI(4,5)P2 in the regulation of polar auxin transport in 789 protophloem. A) PROTEIN KINASE ASSOCIATED WITH BRX (PAX) is recruited to the plasma membrane via 790 electrostatic interactions with anionic phospholipids. When the intracellular auxin concentration is low, BREVIS 791 RADIX (BRX) interacts with PAX and negatively regulates its activity. PIN-FORMED1 (PIN1) is not phosphorylated 792 by PAX thus has a low auxin efflux activity. B) As a result of low PIN1 activity, the intracellular auxin concentration 793 rises, which triggers the release of BRX from the plasma membrane (by an unknown mechanism). In the absence of 794 BRX, PAX phosphorylates PIN1, which activates polar auxin efflux. The original molecular rheostat hypothesis 795 proposed that PIN1 activation allows the system to come back to the situation depicted in A (Marhava et al., 2018). 796 However, high intracellular auxin triggers the expression of BRX and PI4P-5-Kinases (PIP5Ks), which can further lead to 797 the situation depicted in C. C) Once intracellular auxin levels are lowered, BRX and PIP5Ks are recruited to the plasma 798 membrane by PAX. PIP5K phosphorylates PI4P into PI(4,5)P2 (PIP2), which in turn enhances PAX plasma membrane 799 interaction. PIP2 also recruits components of the clathrin-mediated endocytosis machinery, including DYNAMIN-800 RELATED PROTEIN 1A (DRP1A). D) The local increase in PIP2 increases PAX targeting to the plasma membrane, 801 which further lead to enhanced recruitment of PIP5Ks to the plasma membrane, leading to a self-amplifying loop, which 802 fixes PAX/BRX/PIP5K polarity at the center of the cell (muffin-like patch). Increased PIN1 endocytosis in this domain 803 could exclude it from the muffin-like patch and participate in the donut-like localization of PIN1. E) Revised version of 804 the molecular rheostat model, with two distinct polar domains for PIN1 and PAX/BRX/PIP5K/DRP1A (Marhava et 805 al., 2020). F) 3D reconstruction of confocal pictures illustrating the complementary localization of PIN1 (green) and 806 BRX (purple) in root protophloem cells (adapted from Marhava et al., 2020). From panel A to E, only the rootward pole 807 of root protophloem cell is depicted.