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# Sugar signaling modulates SHOOT MERISTEMLESS expression and meristem function in Arabidopsis

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#### 27 SUMMARY

#### 28

29 In plants, development of all above-ground tissues is controlled by the shoot apical meristem 30 (SAM) which balances cell proliferation and differentiation to allow life-long growth. To 31 maximize fitness and survival, meristem activity is adjusted to the prevailing conditions through a 32 poorly understood integration of developmental signals with environmental and nutritional 33 information. Here, we show that sugar signals influence SAM function by altering the protein 34 levels of SHOOT MERISTEMLESS (STM), a key regulator of meristem maintenance. STM is 35 less abundant in the inflorescence meristems of plants grown or treated under limiting light 36 conditions, with lower STM levels correlating with lower sugar content in these meristems. 37 Additionally, sucrose but not light is sufficient to sustain STM accumulation in excised 38 inflorescences. Plants overexpressing the al-subunit of SUCROSE-NON-FERMENTING1-39 RELATED KINASE 1 (SnRK1) accumulate less STM protein under optimal light conditions, 40 despite higher sugar accumulation in the meristem. Furthermore, SnRK1a1 interacts physically 41 with STM, suggesting a direct local repression. Surprisingly, silencing  $SnRK1\alpha$  in the meristem 42 leads to reduced STM expression and severe developmental phenotypes previously associated with 43 STM loss-of-function. Altogether, we demonstrate that sugars promote STM accumulation and 44 that the SnRK1 sugar sensor plays a dual role in the SAM, limiting STM abundance under 45 unfavorable conditions but being required for overall meristem organization and integrity. This 46 highlights the importance of sugars and SnRK1 signaling for the proper coordination of meristem 47 activities.

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#### 51 INTRODUCTION

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Unlike animals, plants generate organs throughout their life cycle. Postembryonic development relies on stem cell reservoirs localized in specialized tissues known as meristems. The shoot apical meristem (SAM) is the site where above-ground organogenesis is initiated, giving rise to leaves, axillary buds, flowers, and the stem. The SAM is organized into functionally distinct subdomains in which cell division and differentiation are tightly coordinated to maintain the integrity and regenerative potential of the meristem. The concerted regulation of the different regions requires the activity of several transcriptional networks and hormone signaling pathways (1).

59 In Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana), SAM homeostasis is finely controlled by a negative-60 feedback loop between WUSCHEL (WUS) and CLAVATA3 (CLV3) (2, 3). WUS is a mobile 61 transcription factor produced in the organizing center that underlies the stem cell layers. WUS 62 moves through plasmodesmata into the overlying stem cells to promote their proliferation and 63 maintain pluripotency (4, 5). In addition, WUS induces stem cells to produce the CLV3 peptide, 64 which in turn diffuses into the organizing center, where it inhibits WUS expression. The WUS-65 CLV3 feedback loop therefore enables a dynamic adjustment of the size of the stem cell pool (6). 66 Meristematic activity is also regulated by members of the THREE-AMINO-ACID-LOOP-EXTENSION (TALE) homeodomain protein superfamily which includes KNOTTED1-like 67 68 homeobox (KNOX) and BEL-like homeobox (BLH or BELL) transcription factors. One key 69 regulator of the TALE family is SHOOT MERISTEMLESS (STM), which is essential both for 70 SAM establishment and SAM maintenance (7). Unlike WUS, STM is expressed throughout the

71 SAM except at the sites of initiating primordia (7, 8). STM suppresses differentiation

independently of WUS and promotes cell division by inducing the expression of CYCLIN D3

(CYCD3) and ISOPENTENYL TRANSFERASE7 (IPT7) (9), which encodes a key enzyme involved

in cytokinin (CK) biosynthesis (10). CKs, in turn, are involved in stem cell maintenance,
influencing SAM size and organ production through WUS and STM (11–13).

Loss-of-function *stm* mutants exhibit defects in SAM formation and maintenance, leading to growth arrest at the seedling stage due to exhaustion of stem cells (7). In addition, the most severely affected mutants like *stm-1* display fusions of cotyledons and other organs, indicating a role for STM also in boundary specification (7, 14, 15). Indeed, incipient organ primordia are formed at sites where *STM* expression is low, coincident with auxin accumulation and the expression of transcription factors (TFs) that promote organ formation and repress *STM*, including ASYMMETRIC LEAVES1 and 2 (AS1 and AS2) and members of the TEOSINTE BRANCHED1/CYCLOIDEA/PCF1 (TCP) family (16–20). In the inflorescence meristem, *STM* expression is also enhanced in boundaries, notably in response to mechanical forces, and is required for correct boundary folding (21).

86 Recent work revealed that STM heterodimerizes with WUS, enhancing WUS binding to the 87 *CLV3* promoter and *CLV3* expression, and repressing stem cell differentiation. Conversely, WUS 88 is required for the expression of STM, which thereby enhances WUS-mediated stem cell activity 89 (22). STM is also regulated through an interaction with BELL1-like homeodomain (BLH) proteins 90 (23) and the formation of these heterodimeric complexes is essential for STM nuclear localization 91 and, thus, proper function (24). STM interacts with the BLH proteins PENNYWISE (PNY), 92 POUNDFOOLISH (PNF), and ARABIDOPSIS THALIANA HOMEOBOX GENE1 (ATH1) 93 (24–27) which contribute redundantly with STM to meristem initiation and maintenance (28–30). 94 Because of their sessile lifestyle, plants continuously adjust their development to changes in 95 the environment, and this is reflected in the dynamic nature of the SAM. In addition to its 96 maintenance by a network of TFs and hormonal signals, the SAM also responds to environmental 97 signals that influence the relative size of its subdomains and the type and number of organs it 98 produces. One of the external factors that affect meristem activity is light, which can exert a direct 99 effect through photoreceptor-mediated signaling and an indirect effect by driving photosynthesis 100 and sugar production (31-33). Both light and metabolic signals activate the TARGET OF 101 RAPAMYCIN (TOR) protein kinase, which in turn promotes cell proliferation in the SAM via an 102 increase in the expression of S-phase genes (34, 35). In addition, TOR induces WUS expression 103 partially through an effect on CK degradation (33, 36).

104 TOR activity is often antagonized by SUCROSE NON-FERMENTING1-RELATED 105 KINASE 1 (SnRK1) which, like TOR, translates environmental information into metabolic and 106 developmental adaptations (37–39). SnRK1 is a heterotrimeric protein kinase complex, composed 107 of an  $\alpha$ -catalytic subunit and two regulatory  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -subunits. In Arabidopsis, the  $\alpha$ -subunit is 108 present in two major isoforms, SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1 and SnRK1 $\alpha$ 2 (also known as KIN10 and KIN11). The 109 SnRK1 complex is activated under low carbon conditions to promote energy saving and nutrient remobilization strategies, whilst TOR is activated in response to nutrient abundance to promote 110 cell proliferation and growth adaptations (37–39). 111

112 Despite the importance of STM for establishing and maintaining SAM function and our 113 increasing understanding of how STM activity is controlled by other transcriptional regulators, it 114 is unknown if environmental signals modulate STM expression and/or activity. Here, we make use 115 of plants expressing transcriptional and translational STM reporters to investigate this question. 116 We show that STM protein accumulation does not respond to CK but is clearly induced by 117 photosynthesis-derived sugars. We also show that the SnRK1 sugar sensing kinase is active in the 118 SAM and that it is involved in adjusting STM protein levels to the light conditions. Finally, we 119 show that SnRK1 is also required to maintain STM expression, meristem organization and 120 integrity.

121

## 122 **RESULTS**

#### 123 Light promotes STM protein accumulation

124 Light is essential for proper plant development and physiology. To investigate a potential 125 regulatory role of light on STM levels, we made use of an Arabidopsis (Col-0) reporter line in 126 which a fluorescently-tagged form of the STM protein (STM-VENUS) is expressed under the 127 control of the STM promoter [pSTM::STM-VENUS (21, 40)]. We measured STM-VENUS levels 128 in inflorescence meristems from 5-week-old plants grown under, or transiently treated with 129 different light conditions. In one set of experiments, we compared STM-VENUS levels between 130 plants grown under two different irradiances [60 vs. 170  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, referred to as low light (LL) 131 and high light (HL), respectively]. Irradiance had a strong impact on STM accumulation, with the 132 mean STM-VENUS levels of plants grown under LL being 76% of those grown under HL (Fig. 133 1A-B). In a second set of experiments, we compared STM-VENUS levels between HL-grown 134 plants transferred to darkness for up to 72 h and their corresponding controls maintained under HL 135 conditions. Incubation under darkness had a very severe impact on STM accumulation, with STM-136 VENUS levels of plants subjected to a 72 h dark treatment being 39% of those prior to the 137 treatment (Fig. 1A, 1C).

To assess whether the impact of light on STM levels was a general effect on protein abundance in meristems, we extracted total proteins from SAMs of plants constantly grown under HL, LL, or treated with 48h of darkness and compared STM levels to those of the housekeeping protein TUBULIN (TUB) by immunoblotting (Fig. 1D). These analyses confirmed the microscopy results regarding STM-VENUS accumulation, showing that, in LL and dark-treated plants, STM

143 levels were 71% and 23%, respectively, of the STM levels in HL. The immunoblots revealed no 144 impact of the light conditions on TUB accumulation, indicating that the lower STM levels were 145 not caused by a general decrease in protein accumulation. Finally, to assess if low STM 146 accumulation could be due to reduced STM transcript abundance, we dissected SAMs of plants 147 kept under HL conditions or subjected to 48 h darkness and analyzed STM transcript levels by 148 quantitative RT-PCR (qPCR). STM levels were not significantly affected by the dark treatment 149 (Fig. 1E), showing that the differences in protein accumulation are not due to changes in STM 150 transcription or transcript stability. On the other hand, the levels of AINTEGUMENTA-LIKE 7 151 (AIL7) and HOMEOBOX PROTEIN 25 (HB25), known gene targets of STM (41), were reduced 152 upon the dark treatment (Fig. 1E). This is also consistent with the lower STM-VENUS abundance 153 and indicates decreased STM activity in the SAM in these conditions.

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## 155 The response of STM to light is CK-independent and involves sugars

156 Several lines of evidence suggest that, like WUS, STM expression could be directly regulated by 157 CK (11, 42). To investigate whether CK could also regulate STM at the protein level and hence be 158 involved in the response of STM to light, we first tested whether light influenced CK signaling in 159 inflorescence meristems. To this end we used plants expressing the synthetic CK reporter 160 *pTCSn::GFP* (43) in similar experiments as described for the *STM-VENUS* reporter line. In plants 161 grown in LL or subjected to a 48 h dark treatment, *pTCSn::GFP* levels were 74% (Supplementary 162 Fig. S1A-B) and 46% (Supplementary Fig. S1A, S1C) of those in HL plants, respectively. These 163 observations show that CK signaling in inflorescence meristems is, like in vegetative meristems 164 (33) affected by light. We next examined whether CK could impact STM levels in inflorescence 165 meristems. For this, we excised SAMs of HL-grown STM-VENUS plants and maintained them 166 under HL in vitro (13) for different periods of time in the absence or presence of 500 nM 6-167 benzylaminopurine (BAP), a synthetic CK. Dissection of the SAMs led to a strong reduction of 168 the STM-VENUS (Supplementary Fig. S1D) and the *pTCSn::GFP* (Supplementary Fig. S1E) 169 reporter signals, as previously described for the *pTCSn::GFP* and *pWUS::GFP* reporters (13). 170 However, in contrast to pTCSn:: GFP [Supplementary Fig. S1E; (13)], CK could not sustain STM-171 VENUS levels (Supplementary Fig. S1D), indicating that the effect of light on STM-VENUS is 172 likely CK-independent.

173 Light plays direct signaling functions through various photoreceptors but also signals 174 indirectly through sugars produced by photosynthesis. We therefore wondered whether the effect 175 of light on STM was direct or mediated by sugars. To investigate this, we first measured the levels 176 of sucrose, glucose, and fructose in the rosettes (Supplementary Fig. S2A) and SAMs (Fig. 2A) of 177 HL- and dark-treated plants. We also measured the levels of Tre6P, a regulatory sugar-phosphate 178 that serves as a signal of the plant sucrose status and that is crucial for sucrose homeostasis, growth 179 promotion, and developmental progression (44). In the light, the levels of sucrose, glucose, and 180 Tre6P were, respectively, 2.1-, 2.2-, and 7.9-fold higher in the SAM than in the rosette, whilst 181 fructose accumulated to comparable levels in the two organs (Fig. 2A and Supplementary Fig. 182 S2A). Incubation in the dark led to a marked depletion of sucrose and fructose both in rosettes 183 (15% and 11% of the levels in the light, respectively) and SAMs (8% and 4% of the levels in the 184 light, respectively), with a much milder reduction being observed for glucose, the most abundant 185 sugar in the SAM (44% and 35% of the levels in the light in rosettes and SAMs, respectively). 186 Tre6P levels were also much lower in dark-treated plants (11% and 3% of the levels in the light in 187 rosettes and SAMs, respectively), reflecting the drop in sucrose levels. To further distinguish 188 between a light and a sugar effect, we excised inflorescences at around 3 cm from the apex and 189 placed them for 48 h in liquid medium. Similarly to what was observed in dissected SAMs 190 (Supplementary Fig. S1D), STM-VENUS signal decreased markedly in cut inflorescences as 191 compared to the uncut controls (Fig. 2B). Furthermore, light alone was not sufficient to sustain 192 STM-VENUS expression, as the signal was comparable in cut inflorescences incubated in the light 193 and in the dark (47% and 43% of the levels in the uncut control, respectively). These results, 194 obtained with a double reporter line (pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-N7; Fig. 2B), were similar 195 to those obtained for plants expressing STM-VENUS alone (Supplementary Fig. S2B).

196 To test if the underlying cause was sugar deprivation, we first incubated excised 197 inflorescences of the double marker line for 48 h in darkness in medium supplemented with 198 increasing concentrations of sucrose. Sorbitol, which is not a readily metabolized carbon source, 199 was used as an osmotic control. Sucrose was able to sustain STM-VENUS accumulation, and its 200 effect was dose-dependent, leading to STM-VENUS levels close to those of uncut inflorescences 201 when supplied at a 5% concentration (72% of the uncut control values as compared to 18% in the 202 corresponding 2.5% sorbitol control; Fig. 2C). STM-VENUS levels did not increase in response 203 to sorbitol, indicating that the effects of sucrose were not osmotic. Similar results were obtained

204 for the single STM-VENUS reporter line (Fig. S2C). To test if the observed effects were 205 transcriptional, we monitored the activity of the pSTM::TFP-N7 transcriptional reporter. 206 Quantification of the *pSTM::TFP-N7* signal revealed no significant repression of *STM* promoter 207 activity upon inflorescence excision and incubation in darkness (Supplementary Fig. S2D), 208 consistent with the results obtained by qRT-PCR in intact plants (Fig. 1E). In addition, incubation 209 in sucrose or sorbitol-containing media had minor effects on TFP levels (Supplementary Fig. S2E) 210 as compared to STM-VENUS (Fig. 2C), with the most severe condition (2.5% sorbitol) leading to 211 65% of the signal in the uncut control as compared to the 18% of the equivalent STM-VENUS 212 samples. This indicates that the effect of sugar deprivation on STM levels does not rely on 213 transcriptional regulation of STM.

214

#### 215 The SnRK1 sugar sensor is expressed in the SAM and influences STM levels

216 One major component of sugar signaling is the SnRK1 protein kinase, that is activated under 217 conditions of low energy and is conversely repressed by sugars (45). Given its well-established 218 role as a sugar sensor and the increasing number of studies implicating SnRK1 in developmental 219 processes (37, 39), we next investigated whether SnRK1 could be involved in the regulation of 220 SAM function through STM. To this end, we used a line expressing SnRK1a1-GFP under the 221 control of the SnRK1a1 promoter and other gene regulatory regions (46). A clear SnRK1a1-GFP 222 signal was detected in the SAM, showing a stronger intensity in the peripheral regions, and 223 developing organs (Fig. 3A). To further confirm this expression and to assess whether SnRK1a1 224 might be enriched in the SAM relative to other organs of the plant, we extracted total proteins from 225 rosettes and shoot apices of 6 to 7-week-old plants and compared the relative levels of SnRK1a1 226 by immunoblotting (Fig. 3B). For the same amount of total protein, shoot apices contained higher 227 amounts of SnRK1a1 suggesting that SnRK1 is relatively more abundant in the SAM than in 228 rosette leaves.

To test if SnRK1 is functional in the meristem, we used SAMs dissected from HL- or darktreated plants (48 h) to measure the activity of the SnRK1 signaling pathway using the expression of downstream target genes (45) as a readout (Fig. 3C). Under control conditions, SnRK1regulated genes were barely expressed, consistent with the pathway being inactive. However, after 48 h of darkness, a marked upregulation of these genes was observed (Fig. 3C), indicating an activation of SnRK1 signaling in the SAM. The induction of SnRK1-regulated genes in darkness was accompanied by a reduction in total SnRK1α1 levels (Fig. 3D), consistent with a tight coupling
between SnRK1 activity and degradation (46), and by an increase in the relative phosphorylation
of the SnRK1α1 (T-loop) that is essential for SnRK1 activity (45).

238 To investigate whether SnRK1 is involved in STM regulation, we introgressed the 239 pSTM::STM-VENUS reporter construct into a line overexpressing SnRK1a1 [35S::SnRK1a1, 240 hereafter referred to as  $SnRK1\alpha 1-OE$ ; (47)] and monitored STM-VENUS levels in different light 241 conditions. When plants were grown under HL, the levels of STM-VENUS in the SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1-OE 242 were 60% of those in control plants (Fig. 3E), a decrease that could not be explained by differences 243 in STM transcript levels (Supplementary Fig. S3). However, the differences between the two 244 genotypes became smaller when plants were grown in LL (STM-VENUS levels in  $SnRK1\alpha 1-OE$ 245 were 77% of those in HL plants; Fig. 3E) and negligible when subjected to a 48 h dark treatment 246 (STM-VENUS levels in SnRK1a1-OE were 97% of those in control plants; Fig. 3F). STM-247 VENUS levels thus appeared to be constitutively low and largely insensitive to the light conditions 248 in SnRK1a1-OE plants. This contrasted with control plants which, in response to restrictive light 249 conditions, reduced STM-VENUS accumulation to levels equivalent to those of the SnRK1a1-OE. 250 Lower STM-VENUS levels in the SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1-OE in HL could not be explained by lower sugar 251 accumulation, as these plants had a higher content of sucrose, glucose, and fructose both in the 252 SAM (Fig. 3G) and rosettes (Supplementary Fig. S4), although the differences were not always 253 statistically significant due to the large variation of the  $SnRK1\alpha I$ -OE samples. The levels of Tre6P, 254 known to inhibit SnRK1 activity (48–50), were also markedly higher in the SnRK1a1-OE SAMs 255 (5.6-fold) and rosettes (5-fold), consistent with previous observations in  $SnRK1\alpha I-OE$  rosettes 256 (51). During the dark treatment, however, all sugars were largely depleted, reaching similarly low 257 levels in control and mutant samples.

258 Altogether these results suggest that SnRK1 is active in the SAM and that it contributes to 259 the adjustment of STM protein levels, inhibiting STM accumulation when sugar levels decline. To 260 further investigate the involvement of SnRK1 on STM regulation, we first used yeast-two-hybrid 261 (Y2H) assays to test if SnRK1a1 can interact directly with STM (Fig. 3H). We observed that yeast 262 co-expressing  $SnRK1\alpha1$  with STM were able to grow in selective medium but this was not the 263 case when SnRK1a1 or STM were expressed individually with the corresponding empty vector 264 controls, suggesting that these two proteins can interact. To determine if the SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1-STM 265 interaction can also occur in planta, we next performed co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP)

experiments using Col-0 mesophyll cell protoplasts expressing SnRK1α1-HA with STM-GFP or
with GFP alone as a negative control. Immunoprecipitation with an anti-GFP antibody and
subsequent Western blot analyses revealed that SnRK1α1 interacts with STM-GFP (Fig. 3I), but
not with GFP alone, indicating that the interactions revealed by Y2H may also occur *in planta*.
Taken together, our results suggest that the impact of SnRK1α1 on STM accumulation may be due
to direct action of the SnRK1 kinase on STM in the meristem.

272

#### 273 Silencing SnRK1a in the SAM reduces STM expression and disrupts meristem function

To investigate further the possibility that SnRK1 acts locally in the meristem, we designed artificial microRNAs (amiRNAs) targeting both *SnRK1a1* and *SnRK1a2* in two different regions of the transcripts (*amiRa-1* and *amiRa-2*) and expressed these *amiRNAs* under the 5.7 kb promoter of *STM* in *STM-VENUS* plants (Fig. 4A). Immunoblot analyses confirmed a decrease in the activated form (phosphorylated in the T-loop) of SnRK1a in all lines, but this was accompanied by a decrease in total SnRK1a1 levels only in lines expressing *amiRa-2* (Fig. 4B).

280 To our surprise, depletion of  $SnRK1\alpha$  resulted in decreased STM-VENUS accumulation, 281 both at the protein (Fig. 4C-E) and transcript levels (Supplementary Fig. S5). The decrease in 282 STM-VENUS levels was strongest in the lines with more compromised SnRK1a activity (amiRa-283 2 lines) and weaker in the lines where the impact on SnRK1a activity was moderate or negligible 284 (amiRa-1 lines; Fig. 4B-E). Lower STM accumulation in the SAM of the SnRK1a amiRNA lines 285 correlated with defects in SAM development, including altered phyllotaxy, reduced bulging and 286 the appearance of bract-like structures in some floral meristems, as well as fusions between 287 adjacent floral meristems (Fig. 4F). Organ fusions were also visible later in development and 288 affected cauline and rosette leaves, petals, siliques, and stems (Fig. 5D,F). Consistent with a 289 previous report (21), STM depletion caused defects in boundary formation, manifested as a 290 decreased curvature at the boundary between the meristem and the incipient organ in the strong 291 amiR $\alpha$ -2 lines (Supplementary Fig. S6).

All *amiRa* lines displayed defects in internode elongation, with an increasing frequency of aberrantly long and aberrantly short internodes (Fig. 5A-B, G-H). Defects in internode elongation resulted in clusters of siliques (Fig. 5A,B,E) and what appeared to be aerial rosettes on the main inflorescence (Fig. 5C,D,F; Supplementary Fig. S7A; Table 1). These phenotypes have been linked to reduced *STM* expression and function (14, 52–54) and, accordingly, they were more severe in

297 the *amiRa-2* plants, where the depletion of STM-VENUS is more pronounced (Fig. 4C-E). Plants 298 expressing  $amiR\alpha$ -2 also exhibited reduced apical dominance with one or two axillary meristems 299 often becoming activated well before flowering (39% and 28% of the  $amiR\alpha-2\#1$ , and  $amiR\alpha-2\#2$ 300 plants, respectively; n=18; Supplementary Fig. S7B-C). A less frequent termination of the main 301 meristem was also observed, after which, growth resumed from an axillary meristem (17% of 302 amiRa-2#1 plants; n=18; Supplementary Fig. S7C). Plants expressing pSTM::amiRa were also 303 compared to the double reporter line as control (*pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-N7*) to ensure 304 that the observed phenotypes were not caused by the introgression of an additional STM promoter 305 in the genome of the STM-VENUS line (Fig. 4C,D,F; Supplementary Fig. S7D).

306 Collectively, these results indicate that SnRK1 plays critical functions in meristem 307 organization and function and that this involves changes in *STM* expression.

308

#### 309 **DISCUSSION**

The capacity to generate organs throughout development is crucial for plant adaptation to the environment, enabling, amongst others, the replacement of leaves lost due to herbivory, the timing of growth to a specific season, or the switch to flower production when conditions are propitious for reproduction. However, how the SAM perceives environmental information and how this is translated into changes in meristem activity are poorly understood.

315 Here we show that light promotes STM accumulation through sugars. First, a clear 316 correlation between STM-VENUS and SAM sugar levels was observed across different light 317 conditions. STM-VENUS levels were lower in LL-grown or dark-treated plants than in plants 318 grown and maintained under HL (Fig. 1A-C). A similar pattern was observed for sugar 319 accumulation in the inflorescence meristems (Fig. 2A), consistent with a previous report on the 320 impact of limiting photosynthetic rates, and thereby sugar supply to the sinks, on the growth and 321 development of reproductive organs and meristem function (55). Second, STM-VENUS levels 322 declined rapidly when inflorescences were excised from rosettes and this decline was similar in 323 inflorescences maintained in the light or transferred to dark, showing that light is not sufficient to 324 sustain STM levels in this system (Fig. 2B). The reason for this could be that light is sensed in 325 leaves from which a light-related signal travels to the apex and that this remote light sensing and 326 systemic communication is disrupted upon excision of the inflorescence. An alternative 327 explanation is that the signal regulating STM levels is not light itself, but rather photosynthesis328 derived sugars. The fact that the decline in STM-VENUS levels triggered by inflorescence 329 excision could be largely suppressed by supplementing sucrose in darkness, argues that sucrose is 330 sufficient to sustain STM-VENUS levels and that the effect of light observed in intact plants is 331 indirect via photosynthesis and sugar production. The impact of sucrose on STM is in line with 332 the reported effects of nutrients on WUS expression and on meristem function. Sugars contribute 333 to meristem activation by inducing WUS in young seedlings (33) and nitrogen promotes WUS334 expression and meristem growth in the inflorescence via systemic CK signaling (13). However, in 335 contrast to WUS, for which transcriptional regulation plays a major role (13, 33), we could not 336 detect significant changes in STM transcript levels under our different growth conditions or 337 treatments (Fig. 1E and Supplementary Fig. S3), supporting that STM is regulated at the protein 338 level. Despite reports linking CK signaling to STM expression (11, 42), STM-VENUS levels did 339 not increase in excised meristems treated with CK (Supplementary Fig. S1D). Even though we did 340 not measure STM transcript accumulation under these conditions, this could mean that CK signals 341 may influence STM more indirectly, e.g. by affecting WUS expression and stem cell number (56).

342 The rescue of STM-VENUS levels by sucrose in excised inflorescences suggests that 343 sucrose is sensed locally in the meristem. This is in accordance with the enrichment and activity 344 of the SnRK1 sugar sensor in the SAM (Fig. 3A-D) and with the importance of meristematic 345 SnRK1 for SAM function (Fig. 4 and 5, Supplementary Fig. S6-7). Ubiquitous SnRK1a1 346 overexpression caused a reduction in STM-VENUS levels under HL conditions (Fig. 3E) despite 347 the high accumulation of soluble sugars and Tre6P in the rosettes and SAMs of the SnRK1a-OE 348 plants (Fig. 3G). In addition, SnRK1a1 interacts physically with STM in yeast cells (Fig. 3H) and 349 mesophyll cell protoplasts (Fig. 3I), supporting a close functional connection with STM and a local 350 function for SnRK1 in the meristem.

Expressing *amiRs* targeting *SnRK1a1* and *SnRK1a2* under the control of the *STM* promoter demonstrated that SnRK1 acts locally in the SAM and is crucial for the proper coordination of meristem activities, with reduced SnRK1 activity causing a wide range of developmental defects (Fig. 5). The severity of the phenotypes caused by SnRK1a depletion contrasts with the apparent lack of developmental defects of the *SnRK1a-OE* line in our growth conditions. This is consistent with previous studies in which SnRK1a1 overexpression causes mostly developmental delays rather than defective organ development and arrangement (37, 39). 358 The finding that sucrose promotes STM-VENUS expression together with the fact that 359 sugars repress SnRK1 activity may at first sight appear to conflict with the decline in STM-360 VENUS expression and abnormal meristem function caused by  $SnRK1\alpha$  silencing. However, 361 despite being generally considered a growth repressor, SnRK1 is also required for cell cycle 362 progression (57) and for normal growth and development (58). Indeed, transient  $SnRK1\alpha 1/\alpha 2$ 363 downregulation via virus-induced gene silencing leads to full growth arrest of plants (45) and 364 double snrklal snrkla2 null mutants could thus far not be recovered, suggesting that complete 365 loss of SnRK1α is embryo lethal (59). A similar duality is observed for the AMP-activated protein 366 kinase (AMPK), the homologue of SnRK1 in animals. Despite serving as a brake for cell 367 proliferation through downregulation of TOR activity (60), AMPK is also essential for normal 368 growth and development. For example, complete loss of the AMPKB1 subunit leads to cell cycle 369 defects in neural stem and progenitor cells, causing profound abnormalities in brain development 370 in mice (61). Along the same lines, hematopoietic stem cell function in mammals is disrupted both 371 upon inactivation and overactivation of TOR signaling, indicating that a fine balance of this central 372 regulator is required for coordinating proliferation, differentiation, and regeneration (62).

373 The effects of light, sucrose and SnRK1a1 overexpression on STM indicate that the 374 underlying mechanisms do not rely on changes in STM transcript abundance (Fig. 1-3). 375 Furthermore, the fact that the SnRK1a1 and STM proteins interact (Fig. 3H-I) suggests that the 376 impact of SnRK1 on STM may be direct. The consequences of SnRK1 $\alpha$  silencing, on the other 377 hand, reveal a more complex scenario, involving reduced accumulation of both the STM transcript 378 and protein, and severe developmental abnormalities. The phenotypes of the  $amiR\alpha$  lines are 379 highly reminiscent of those described for partial STM loss-of-function (14, 15, 21, 63), including 380 organ fusions, altered phyllotaxy, defective internode elongation with clusters of siliques and 381 leaves and, much less frequently, premature SAM termination (Table 1; Fig. 5; Supplementary 382 Fig. S7). However, whether the impact of  $SnRK1\alpha$  on STM in this case is direct or indirect through 383 other factors requires further investigation. It is plausible that  $SnRK1\alpha$  silencing causes hormonal 384 imbalance and/or alterations in the cell cycle that feed back to STM expression.

Altogether, our work demonstrates that sucrose promotes STM accumulation and that this is counteracted by the SnRK1 sugar sensor, likely to adjust SAM activity to the environment (Fig. 6). Nevertheless, SnRK1 is also essential for meristem integrity, adding to the evidence that 388 SnRK1 performs a dual function in the regulation of growth and that its activity needs to be finely389 balanced.

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# 392 MATERIALS AND METHODS

393 A list of all primers, antibodies and plant lines used in this study is provided in Supplementary

394 Table 1. Protein extraction and quantification, immunoblotting, RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis,

395 qRT-PCR, sugar measurements, yeast-two-hybrid assays, and protoplast assays were carried out

396 according to protocols described in *SI Materials and Methods*.

397

# 398 Plant material

399 All Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. plants used here are in the Columbia (Col-0) background. 400 The *pSTM::STM-VENUS* line (*STM-VENUS*) was generated by transforming Col-0 plants with the 401 plasmid described by Heisler and colleagues (13, 18). The *pTCSn::GFP* line was provided by 402 Bruno Müller (43). The SnRK1a1-GFP [pSnRK1a1::SnRK1a1-GFP::terSnRK1a1/snrk1a1-3; 403 (46)] and SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1-OE [35S::SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1; (47)] lines were previously described. For expression of 404 STM-VENUS in the SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1-OE background, the SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1-OE and STM-VENUS lines were 405 crossed, and homozygous progeny was selected on kanamycin and BASTA. For generating the 406 pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-N7 line and the pSTM::amiRa lines, STM-VENUS plants were 407 transformed with a construct to express TFP-N7 or an amiRNA targeting both SnRK1a1 and 408 SnRK1a2 (amiRa-1 or amiRa-2) under the STM promoter (5.7 kb). Detailed descriptions of the 409 cloning strategy and progeny selection are provided in SI Materials and Methods.

410

## 411 **Plant growth conditions**

For most experiments, seedlings were initially grown in short-day conditions (8 h/16 h light/dark period) for 3-4 weeks and then transferred to continuous light (24 h light, temperature: 22°C) and kept under an irradiance of 60 (LL) or 170 (HL)  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>, provided by white fluorescent lamps. Unless otherwise indicated, plants were grown in HL conditions. For dark treatment, plants grown under HL were put into the dark for 24, 48 or 72 h. For the assays with excised inflorescences and STM-VENUS imaging of *amiRa* lines, seedlings were grown in short-day 418 conditions (8 h/16 h light/dark period) for 3-4 weeks and then transferred to long-day conditions
419 (16 h/8 h light/dark period; 22°C/18°C).

- For experiments involving SAM imaging, gene expression or protein analyses, plants were grown in the indicated conditions until bolting, after which SAMs were dissected at the beginning of the flowering stage when the main inflorescence reached 3-5 cm in height.
- For phenotyping the *amiR* $\alpha$  lines, seeds were germinated, and plants grown under equinoctial conditions (12 h/12 h light/dark period; 100-110 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>; 22°C/18°C). Phenotypes were scored when flowering was completed [stage 6.90; (64)].
- 426

## 427 SAM imaging and quantification

For meristem imaging, the main inflorescence meristem of plants at the beginning of the flowering stage was cut 1-2 cm from the tip, dissected under a binocular stereoscopic microscope to remove all the flowers down to stage 3 [as defined in (65)] and transferred to a box containing Arabidopsis apex culture medium without sucrose (ACM: 2.2 g/l Duchefa Biochemie (www.duchefabiochemie.com)-MS basal salt mixture with vitamins, pH adjusted to 5.8 with KOH, and 1.6% (w/v) agarose added).

For the time-lapse experiments examining the effect of exogenous CK, meristems were dissected from HL-grown plants and placed in a box of ACM with 1% (w/v) sucrose and 500 nM BAP or the equivalent volume of the BAP solvent (DMSO) as control. Meristems were thereafter returned to the constant HL cabinet for the indicated times and covered with water for imaging.

438 For the experiments examining the effect of exogenous sugar, inflorescences were 439 dissected at about 3 cm from the apex from HL-grown plants at the beginning of the flowering 440 stage and placed in a 2 mL Eppendorf tube containing 2 mL of liquid ACM (no sucrose) covered 441 with parafilm pierced with a needle so that the inflorescence could be held in air while the base of 442 the stem was submerged in the solution, supplemented with the indicated concentrations of sucrose 443 or sorbitol as osmotic control. Sorbitol and sucrose were used at roughly equivalent concentrations, 444 with 1% sorbitol and 2% sucrose corresponding to 54 mM and 58 mM, respectively. Inflorescences 445 were thereafter kept in darkness inside the growth cabinet for the indicated times. Meristems were 446 then dissected from the excised inflorescences, transferred to a box containing the same sucrose-447 or sorbitol-supplemented solid (1.6% agarose) medium and covered with water for imaging.

Meristems were imaged in water using a 20X long-distance water-dipping objective
 mounted either on a LSM880 (Zeiss; www.zeiss.com) or a SP8 (Leica; www.zeiss.com) confocal
 microscope. Z-stacks of 1-2 μm spacing were taken and the spacing was kept constant within a
 single experiment.

452 Confocal Z stacks were analyzed using the ImageJ software (https://fiji.sc/) and a custom-453 made code written in Matlab (Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA). ImageJ was used for generating the 454 panel figures showing the fluorescence reporters in the SAMs. To generate the panels, z-455 projections (sum slices) of meristems expressing TFP, GFP or VENUS were performed, and the 456 Fire color code was used to represent the signal. The expression levels of the different fluorescence 457 reporters analyzed were by using the Matlab code (see 458 https://gitlab.com/slcu/teamHJ/pau/RegionsAnalysis). pTCSn::GFP reporter was analyzed by 459 using a previously described pipeline (13), which measures total fluorescence intensity of circular 460 expression domains. STM-VENUS signal and TFP signal were analyzed by using a new pipeline 461 that consists on the following. Firstly, a z-sum intensity projection is performed followed by a 462 gaussian blur with a smoothing kernel with standard deviation sigma = 5  $\mu$ m. Second, a region of 463 interest (SAM core excluding the emerging floral organs) is drawn on the image projection and 464 the mean intensity of the region is extracted. The mean intensity was chosen as a measure of the 465 STM-VENUS and TFP levels instead of the total intensity to minimize the influence of manually 466 drawing the region of interest and the new buds on the signal.

To measure the correlation between the folding of the boundary and the size of the primordia in *pSTM::amiRa-1* and *amiRa-2* lines, maximal projections were performed to outline the stage-2 primordia (65) and measure their projected area. Longitudinal sections passing through the middle of the primordia were also performed to measure the folding of the boundary using the angle tool of ImageJ as previously described (21). The relationship between primordia size and the folding of the boundary appeared to be more linear for smaller primordia. Therefore, only stage-2 primordia up to 4000  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> in size were considered for these measurements.

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488

#### 489 FIGURE LEGENDS

490 Figure 1. Effect of light on STM expression. A-C, STM-VENUS expression in SAMs of 491 pSTM::STM-VENUS plants grown under high light (HL) or low light (LL) conditions or 492 transferred from HL to darkness (D) or kept under HL for the indicated times. A, Representative 493 STM-VENUS images of SAMs from HL and LL-grown plants and of plants transferred to D for 494 48 h. Scale bar, 50 µm. B, C. Quantification of STM-VENUS signal. B, Plots show SAM 495 measurements of plants grown as 3 independent batches normalized by the mean of the HL 496 condition of each batch (HL, n=44; LL, n=45). Student's *t*-test (*p*-value shown). C, Plots show 497 SAM measurements of plants grown as 2-3 independent batches normalized by the mean of the 498 HL condition of each batch (0h, *n*=18; 24 h L, *n*=19; 24 h D, *n*=18; 48 h L, *n*=19; 48 h D, *n*=18; 499 72 h L, n=9; 72 h D, n=12). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-500 Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). **D**, Immunoblot analyses of STM protein levels in SAMs of 501 *pSTM::STM-VENUS* plants grown under HL or LL conditions or grown in HL and transferred to 502 D for 48 h. TUBULIN (TUB) and Ponceau staining serve as loading controls. Numbers refer to 503 mean STM-VENUS amounts in LL and D as compared to HL (n=2; each a pool of 5 SAMs; in 504 parenthesis, SEM). E, RT-qPCR analyses of STM and STM target genes AIL7 and HB25 in SAMs 505 of pSTM::STM-VENUS plants grown in HL and transferred to D or kept in HL for 48 h. Graphs 506 show the average of 3 independent samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs. Paired ratio t-507 test (*p*-values shown).

508

509 Figure 2. Effect of sugars on STM levels. A, Effect of light on the levels of soluble sugars in 510 SAMs of *pSTM::STM-VENUS* plants grown in high light (HL) and transferred to darkness (D) or 511 kept in HL for 48 h. Suc, sucrose; Tre6P, trehalose 6-phosphate; Glc, glucose; Fru, fructose. Plots 512 show measurements of 5-6 samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs from plants grown as 2 513 independent batches. Welch's t-test (p-value shown). B, Effect of light on STM-VENUS levels in 514 cut inflorescences. Inflorescences of *pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-N7* plants grown under HL 515 were cut and placed in medium without sugar for 48 h under HL (L) or dark (D) conditions, after 516 which the SAMs were dissected and imaged (VENUS). Upper panel, representative STM-VENUS 517 images of SAMs. Scale bar, 50 µm. Lower panel, plots showing SAM measurements of plants 518 grown as 1-2 independent batches normalized by the mean of the uncut condition of each batch 519 (uncut, n=31, 2 batches; 48 h L, n=14, 1 batch; 48 h D, n=21, 2 batches). Different letters indicate 520 statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). C, Effect of sugar 521 on STM-VENUS levels in cut inflorescences. Inflorescences of pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-522 N7 plants grown under HL condition were cut and placed under darkness for 48 h in medium with 523 sucrose (Suc; 2% and 5%) or sorbitol (Sor; 1% and 2.5%) as osmotic control. SAMs were 524 thereafter dissected and imaged (VENUS). Upper panel, representative STM-VENUS images of 525 SAMs. Scale bar, 50 µm. Lower panel, plots showing SAM measurements of plants grown as 1-3 526 independent batches normalized by the mean of the uncut condition of each batch (uncut, n=31, 3) 527 batches; 1% Sor, *n*=21, 2 batches; 2% Suc, *n*=28, 3 batches; 2.5% Sor, *n*=7, 1 batch; 5% Suc, *n*=6, 528 1 batch). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's 529 test; p < 0.05). The same batches of HL-grown uncut plants served as controls for the experiments 530 shown in **(B)** and **(C)**.

531

532 Figure 3. SnRK1 is expressed in the SAM and affects STM response to light. A, SnRK1a1-533 GFP imaging in the SAM. Right panel, SAM longitudinal section. Scale bars, 50 µm. B, 534 Immunoblot analyses of SnRK1a1 in SAMs and rosette leaves of pSTM::STM-VENUS plants 535 grown under high light (HL). 35 µg of total protein was loaded from SAM and leaf extracts. 536 Ponceau staining serves as loading control. Similar results were obtained from two independent 537 experiments. C, RT-qPCR analyses of SnRK1 signaling marker genes (DIN10, SEN5, DRM2) in 538 SAMs of *pSTM::STM-VENUS* plants grown in HL and transferred to darkness (D) or kept in HL 539 for 48 h. Graphs show the average of 3 independent samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs.

540 Paired ratio *t*-test (*p*-values shown). **D**, Left, representative immunoblot of SnRK1a1 T-loop 541 phosphorylation in SAMs of the plants described in (C), using antibodies recognizing the T175 542 phosphorylation (phospho-SnRK1a) or the total SnRK1a1 protein. Right, quantification of the 543 mean SnRK1 $\alpha$  phosphorylation (phospho-SnRK1 $\alpha$ /total SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1) in D as compared to the ratio 544 in HL (n=3; each a pool of 5 SAMs). Paired ratio t-test (p-value shown). E-F, STM-VENUS 545 expression in SAMs of control and SnRK1a1-OE plants grown under HL or low light (LL) 546 conditions (E) or grown under HL and transferred to darkness (D) or kept under HL for 48 h (F). 547 The same batches of HL-grown plants served as controls for the experiments shown in (E) and 548 (F). HL and LL-grown STM-VENUS samples are replotted from Fig. 1B as a reference. Plots 549 show SAM measurements of plants grown as 3 independent batches normalized by the mean of 550 the HL condition of each batch (control, HL: n=44, LL: n=45, D: n=45; SnRK1a1-OE, HL: n=45, 551 LL: n=45; D: n=45). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis 552 with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). G, Effect of light on the levels of sugars in SAMs of SnRK1a1-OE 553 plants as compared to the control. Suc, sucrose; Tre6P, trehalose 6-phosphate; Glc, glucose; Fru, 554 fructose. Plots show measurements of 5-6 samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs from 555 plants grown as 2 independent batches. Welch's t-test (mutant vs. control for each condition; p-556 values shown). H, Yeast-two hybrid assays examining the interaction of SnRK1a1 with STM. 557 Protein interaction was determined by monitoring yeast growth in medium lacking Leu, Trp and 558 His (-L-W-H) compared with control medium only lacking Leu and Trp (-L-W). Upper panel, 559 yeast growth in cells co-expressing AD-STM, with BD-SnRK1a1. Lower panel, negative controls 560 of yeast transfected with the indicated AD/BD-constructs and the complementary BD/AD-empty 561 vectors. BD and AD, DNA binding and activation domains of the GAL4 transcription factor, respectively. Increasing dilutions of transformed yeast cells are shown (10<sup>-1</sup>, 10<sup>-2</sup>, 10<sup>-3</sup>). 562 563 Experiments were performed three times with similar results. I, Co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) 564 experiments using Arabidopsis Col-0 mesophyll cell protoplasts co-expressing SnRK1a1-HA with 565 STM-GFP or GFP alone. GFP-tagged proteins were immunoprecipitated and co-566 immunoprecipitation of SnRK1a1 was assessed by immunoblotting with an HA antibody. 567 Arrowheads, STM-GFP (upper) and GFP (lower). Experiments were performed three times with 568 similar results.

569

570 Figure 4. Silencing  $SnRK1\alpha$  in the SAM compromises STM expression. A. Schematic 571 localization of  $amiR\alpha$ -1 and  $amiR\alpha$ -2 target sites (grey triangles) in the SnRK1\alpha1 and SnRK1\alpha2 572 transcripts. Yellow blocks correspond to exons. B. Immunoblot analyses of SnRK1a T-loop phosphorylation in SAMs of plants expressing pSTM::amiRa-1 (amiRa-1) or pSTM::amiRa-2 573 574 (amiR $\alpha$ -2), using antibodies recognizing total SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1 or SnRK1 $\alpha$  phosphorylated on T175 575 (phospho-SnRK1 $\alpha$ ). Ponceau staining serves as loading control. Numbers refer to mean SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1 576 amounts or mean SnRK1 $\alpha$  phosphorylation (phospho-SnRK1 $\alpha$ /total SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1) in the *amiR* $\alpha$  lines 577 relative to the control STM-VENUS line (n=2; each a pool of 5 SAMs; in parenthesis, SEM). C. 578 meristems expressing STM-VENUS together with *pSTM::amiRa-1*, Representative 579 *pSTM::amiRα-2* or *pSTM::TFP-N7* as a control, and whose membranes were labelled with FM4-580 64. Left panels show the sum-slice projections of the STM-VENUS signal (color-coded using the 581 Fire representation in ImageJ), and the right panels, the sum-slice projection of the FM4-64 signal. 582 Scale bars, 50  $\mu$ m. P1 and P2, youngest visible and older flower primordia, respectively. **D**. 583 Quantification of the STM-VENUS signal in the SAMs shown in (C). Plots show SAM 584 measurements of plants grown as 2 independent batches (except  $amiR\alpha - 1\#2$ , which grown as a 585 single batch) normalized by the mean of the control line of each batch (control, n=34; amiRa-2#1, 586 n=16;  $amiR\alpha - 2\#2$ , n=22;  $amiR\alpha - 1\#1$ , n=25;  $amiR\alpha - 1\#2$  n=10). Different letters indicate 587 statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). E. Immunoblot 588 analyses of STM-VENUS protein levels in SAMs of the amiRa lines as compared to the STM-589 VENUS control using antibodies recognizing STM. TUBULIN (TUB) and Ponceau staining serve 590 as loading controls. Numbers refer to mean STM-VENUS amounts in the amiRa lines as compared 591 to the control (n=2; each a pool of 5 SAMs; in parenthesis, SEM). F. Sum-slice projection of 592 control line and  $amiR\alpha$ -2 showing additional defects in meristem organization. Red arrows point 593 at bract-like structures while yellow arrows point at fusions between adjacent floral primordia. 594 Scale bars: 50 µm.

595

# 596 Figure 5. Silencing of *SnRK1α* in the SAM affects meristem function and plant architecture.

597 A-F, Representative images of control (*STM-VENUS*, A,C) and *amiRa* (B,D,E,F) plants showing

598 irregular internode length (A,B), clusters of leaves (C,D,F) and siliques (A,B,E), and termination

- 599 of the main inflorescence (F) in the *amiRa* lines. Insets show organ fusion between leaves of an
- 600 aerial rosette (**D**) and between pedicels and the stem (**F**). **G-H**, Quantification of the internode

length defects in control and two independent lines of  $amiR\alpha$ -1 and  $amiR\alpha$ -2 mutants. Internode length was determined by measuring the length of the internodes between paraclades (**G**) and between the first 12 siliques (**H**), all counted acropetally. Internode length was scored in the indicated size ranges from the main inflorescence of 18 plants of each genotype. Graphs show the relative frequencies of each size class in the total number of internodes scored. All phenotypes were scored from plants grown under equinoctial conditions until the completion of flowering.

607

**Figure 6. Model for the role of sugars and SnRK1 signaling in the SAM.** Under favorable conditions, basal SnRK1 activity is required for meristem organization, with local *SnRK1* $\alpha$ silencing causing reduced *STM* expression and severe phenotypes related to SAM dysfunction. The mechanisms underlying these SnRK1 effects remain unknown (question mark). Under limiting light conditions or other unfavorable situations, sugar levels decrease, leading to a strong activation of SnRK1 signaling. This results in decreased STM protein accumulation, potentially through direct action of SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1 on STM to reduce SAM activity and growth.

615

616 **Table 1**. Quantitative analyses of  $amiR\alpha$  phenotypes. Measurements were taken from the main 617 inflorescence of 18 plants of the  $amiR\alpha$  lines and the *STM-VENUS* control line after flowering was 618 completed. Numbers are averages and SD. *p*-values refer to differences between each mutant and 619 the control (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test).

620

#### 621 SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

622 Supplementary Figure S1. Effect of cytokinin on STM levels. A, Representative GFP images from *pTCSn::GFP* SAMs from plants grown under high light (HL; 170  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) or low light 623 624 (LL; 60  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) conditions and of plants transferred from HL to darkness (D) for 48 h. Scale 625 bar, 50  $\mu$ m. **B**, GFP quantification from SAMs of *pTCSn::GFP* plants grown under HL or LL 626 conditions. Plots show SAM measurements of plants grown as 3 independent batches normalized 627 by the mean of the HL condition of each batch (HL: *n*=44, LL: *n*=41). Student's *t*-test (*p*-values 628 shown). C, GFP quantification from SAMs of *pTCSn::GFP* plants grown in HL and transferred to 629 D or kept under HL for 48 h. Plots show SAM measurements of plants grown as 3 independent 630 batches normalized by the mean of the HL condition of each batch (HL, n=44; 48 h D, n=45). 631 Student's *t*-test (*p*-values shown). **D**, Effect of cytokinin (BAP) application on the expression of 632 the STM-VENUS reporter. SAMs of plants grown under HL conditions were excised and placed 633 in medium supplemented or not with 500 nM BAP for the indicated times. Plots show SAM 634 measurements of plants grown as 2 independent batches normalized by the mean of the uncut (0h) 635 condition of each batch (n=14 for each of the indicated conditions). Different letters indicate 636 statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). E, Effect of 637 cytokinin (BAP) application on the activity of the *pTCSn::GFP* reporter. SAMs of plants grown 638 under HL conditions were excised and placed in medium supplemented or not with 500 nM BAP 639 for the indicated times. Plots show SAM measurements of plants grown as 2 independent batches 640 normalized by the mean of the uncut (0h) condition of each batch (all 0 nM BAP conditions, n=12; 641 0h 500 nM BAP, n=12; 24 h 500 nM BAP, n=10; 48 h 500 nM BAP, n=10). Different letters 642 indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05).

643

644 Supplementary Figure S2. Effect of sugar on STM promoter activity. A, Effect of light on the 645 levels of soluble sugars in rosettes of pSTM::STM-VENUS plants grown in high light (HL) and 646 transferred to darkness (D) or kept in HL for 48 h. Suc, sucrose; Tre6P, trehalose 6-phosphate; 647 Glc, glucose; Fru, fructose. Plots show measurements of 6 whole rosettes from plants grown as 648 one batch. Welch's t-test (p-value shown). B, Effect of light on STM-VENUS levels in cut 649 inflorescences. Inflorescences of *pSTM::STM-VENUS* plants grown under HL were cut and placed 650 in medium without sugar for 48 h under HL (L) or dark (D) conditions, after which the SAMs were 651 dissected and imaged (VENUS). Upper panel, representative STM-VENUS images of SAMs. 652 Scale bar, 50 µm. Lower panel, plots showing SAM measurements of plants grown as one batch 653 normalized by the mean of the uncut condition (uncut, n=7; 48 h L, n=7; 48 h D, n=7). Different 654 letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). C, 655 Effect of sugar on STM-VENUS levels in cut inflorescences. Inflorescences of pSTM::STM-656 VENUS plants grown under HL condition were cut and placed under darkness for 48 h in medium 657 with 2% sucrose or 1% sorbitol as osmotic control. SAMs were thereafter dissected and imaged 658 (VENUS). Upper panel, representative STM-VENUS images of SAMs. Scale bar, 50 µm. Lower 659 panel, plots showing SAM measurements of plants grown as one batch normalized by the mean of 660 the uncut condition (uncut, n=7; 1% Sor, n=7; 2% Suc, n=7). Different letters indicate statistically 661 significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). The same batches of HL-grown 662 uncut plants served as controls for the experiments shown in (B) and (C). D, Effect of light on

663 STM promoter activity in cut inflorescences. Inflorescences of pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-664 N7 plants grown under HL were treated as in (B) and dissected SAMs were imaged (TFP). Upper 665 panel, representative pSTM::TFP-N7 images of SAMs. Scale bar, 50 µm. Lower panel, plots 666 showing SAM measurements of plants grown as 2 independent batches (except 48h L samples, 667 which generated from a single batch) normalized by the mean of the *uncut* condition of each batch 668 (uncut, n=17; 48 h L, n=7; 48 h D, n=14). Different letters indicate statistically significant 669 differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). E, Effect of sugar on STM promoter 670 activity in cut inflorescences. Inflorescences of pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-N7 plants 671 grown under HL were cut and placed under darkness for 48 h in medium with sucrose (Suc; 2% 672 and 5%) or sorbitol (Sor; 1% and 2.5%) as osmotic control. SAMs were thereafter dissected and 673 imaged (TFP). Upper panel, representative pSTM::TFP-N7 images of SAMs. Scale bar, 50 µm. 674 Lower panel, plots showing SAM measurements of plants grown as 2-3 independent batches 675 (except 2.5% Sor and 5% Suc, which were grown as a single batch) normalized by the mean of the 676 *uncut* condition of each batch (uncut, n=24; 1% Sor, n=14; 2% Suc, n=21; 2.5% Sor, n=7; 5% Suc, 677 n=6). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's 678 test; *p*<0.05).

679

# 680 **Supplementary Figure S3. Effect of ubiquitous SnRK1α1 overexpression on** *STM* levels. RT-681 qPCR analyses of *STM* in SAMs of control and *SnRK1α1-OE* plants grown under high light 682 conditions (170 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). Graphs correspond to the average of 3 independent samples, each 683 consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs. Paired ratio *t*-test (*p*-value shown).

684

685 Supplementary Figure S4. Effect of ubiquitous SnRK1α1 overexpression on the 686 accumulation of soluble sugars. Control and SnRK1α1-OE plants were grown under HL 687 conditions and transferred to darkness (D) or kept under HL for 48 h. Plots show measurements of 688 6 whole rosettes from plants grown as one batch, with SnRK1α1-OE values expressed in 689 comparison to the control. Suc, sucrose; Tre6P, trehalose 6-phosphate. Glc, glucose; Fru, fructose. 690 Welch's *t*-test (mutant *vs*. control for each condition; *p*-value shown).

691

692 Supplementary Figure S5. Effect of SnRK1α depletion in the SAM on *STM* levels. RT-qPCR

693 analyses of STM in SAMs of control and *pSTM::amiRα* plants grown under high light conditions

694 (170  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). Two independent lines of *pSTM::amiRa-2* (*amiRa-2*#1 and *amiRa-2*#2) and

695  $pSTM::amiR\alpha-1$  ( $amiR\alpha-1\#1$  and  $amiR\alpha-1\#2$ ) were used. Graph shows measurements from 2

- 696 independent samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs.
- 697

698 Supplementary Figure S6. Effect of SnRK1a depletion in the SAM on organ boundary 699 formation. A, Representative meristems expressing STM-VENUS together with pSTM:: $amiR\alpha$ -1, 700 *pSTM::amiRα-2* or *pSTM::TFP-N7* as a control, and whose membranes were labelled with FM4-701 64. Left panels show the sum-slice projection of the FM4-64 signal and the right panels, two 702 longitudinal sections showing the SAM-organ boundary of two stage-2 primordia. Note the 703 reduced folding of the boundary and reduced bulging of the primordia in the pSTM:  $amiR\alpha$ -2 line. 704 Scale bars, projections: 50 µm, sections: 20 µm. **B**, Folding angle of the boundary as a function of 705 the size of the primordium in control plants (expressing pSTM:: TFP-N7) as compared to amiRa-2 706 (upper graph) or *amiRa-1* plants (lower graph). Plants in the *amiRa-2* experiment were grown as 707 3 independent batches. Control, n=126 primordia from 29 SAMs; amiRa-2#1, n=121 primordia 708 from 25 SAMs;  $amiR\alpha - 2\#2$ , n=120 primordia from 26 SAMs). Plants in the  $amiR\alpha - 1$  experiment 709 were grown as 2 independent batches. Control, n=95 primordia from 22 SAMs; amiRα-1#1, n=84 710 primordia from 22 SAMs; amiRa-1#2, n=87 primordia from 21 SAMs. Data were fitted using a 711 linear regression (see Methods). #1 and #2 denote two independent lines for the indicated *amiRs*.

712

#### 713 Supplementary Figure S7. Silencing of $SnRK1\alpha$ in the SAM compromises meristem function 714 and plant architecture. A, Representative images of plants expressing STM-VENUS (control) 715 together with pSTM::amiRa-1 or pSTM::amiRa-2 and grown under equinoctial conditions until 716 the completion of flowering. B-C, Representative images of 22d-old plants of the most severely 717 affected amiRa line (amiRa-2#1) showing activation of axillary meristems before flowering (red 718 arrows in **B-C**) and termination of the main meristem (white arrow in **C**). **D**, Representative images 719 of plants expressing STM-VENUS together with pSTM::TFP-N7 (control), $pSTM::amiR\alpha-1$ , or 720 pSTM::amiRa-2, and grown under short-day conditions for 3 weeks and then transferred to long-721 day conditions until the completion of flowering. #1 and #2 denote two independent lines for the 722 indicated amiRs. 723

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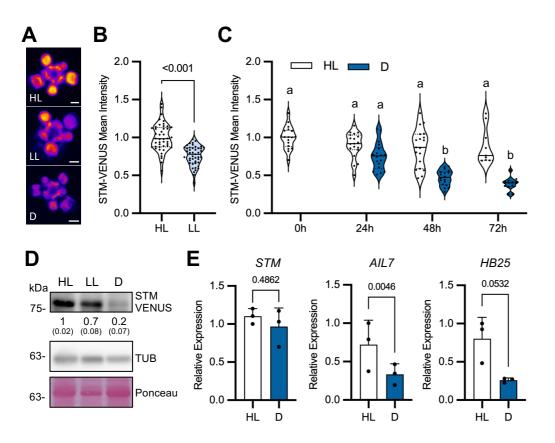


Figure 1. Effect of light on STM expression. A-C, STM-VENUS expression in SAMs of pSTM::STM-VENUS plants grown under high light (HL) or low light (LL) conditions or transferred from HL to darkness (D) or kept under HL for the indicated times. A, Representative STM-VENUS images of SAMs from HL and LL-grown plants and of plants transferred to D for 48 h. Scale bar, 50 µm. B, C. Quantification of STM-VENUS signal. B, Plots show SAM measurements of plants grown as 2-3 independent batches normalized by the mean of the HL condition of each batch (HL, n=44; LL, n=45). Student's t-test (p-value shown). C, Plots show SAM measurements of plants grown as 3 independent batches normalized by the mean of the HL condition of each batch (0h, n=18; 24 h L, n=19; 24 h D, n=18; 48 h L, n=19; 48 h D, n=18; 72 h L, n=9; 72 h D, n=12). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). **D**, Immunoblot analyses of STM protein levels in SAMs of plants grown under HL or LL conditions or grown in HL and transferred to D for 48 h. TUBULIN (TUB) and Ponceau staining serve as loading controls. Numbers refer to mean STM-VENUS amounts in LL and D as compared to HL (n=2; each a pool of 5 SAMs; in parenthesis, SEM). E, RT-qPCR analyses of STM and STM target genes AIL7 and HB25 in SAMs of pSTM::STM-VENUS plants grown in HL and transferred to D or kept in HL for 48 h. Graphs show the average of 3 independent samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs. Paired ratio *t*-test (*p*-values shown).

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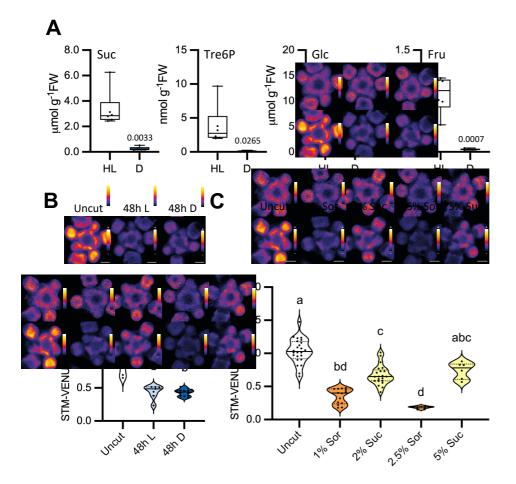
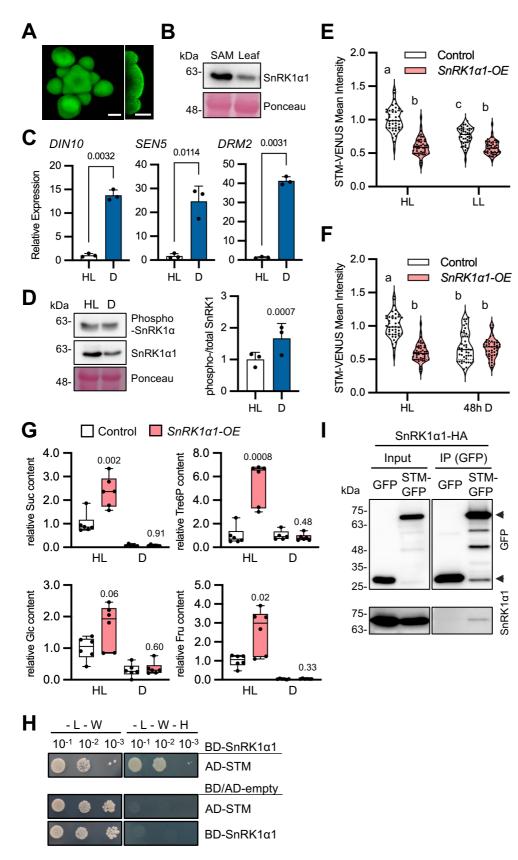


Figure 2. Effect of sugars on STM levels. A, Effect of light on the levels of soluble sugars in SAMs of pSTM::STM-VENUS plants grown in high light (HL) and transferred to darkness (D) or kept in HL for 48 h. Suc, sucrose; Tre6P, trehalose 6-phosphate; Glc, glucose; Fru, fructose. Plots show measurements of 5-6 samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs from plants grown as 2 independent batches. Welch's t-test (p-value shown). B, Effect of light on STM-VENUS levels in cut inflorescences. Inflorescences of pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-N7 plants grown under HL were cut and placed in medium without sugar for 48 h under HL (L) or dark (D) conditions, after which the SAMs were dissected and imaged (VENUS). Upper panel, representative STM-VENUS images of SAMs. Scale bar, 50 µm. Lower panel, plots showing SAM measurements of plants grown as 1-2 independent batches normalized by the mean of the uncut condition of each batch (uncut, n=31, 2 batches; 48 h L, n=14, 1 batch; 48 h D, n=21, 2 batches). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). C, Effect of sugar on STM-VENUS levels in cut inflorescences. Inflorescences of pSTM::STM-VENUS/pSTM::TFP-N7 plants grown under HL condition were cut and placed under darkness for 48 h in medium with sucrose (Suc; 2% and 5%) or sorbitol (Sor; 1% and 2.5%) as osmotic control. SAMs were thereafter dissected and imaged (VENUS). Upper panel, representative STM-VENUS images of SAMs. Scale bar, 50 µm. Lower panel, plots showing SAM measurements of plants grown as 1-3 independent batches normalized by the mean of the uncut condition of each batch (uncut, n=31, 3 batches; 1% Sor, n=21, 2 batches; 2% Suc, n=28, 3 batches; 2.5% Sor, n=7, 1 batch; 5% Suc, n=6, 1 batch). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). The same batches of HL-grown uncut plants served as controls for the experiments shown in (B) and (C).

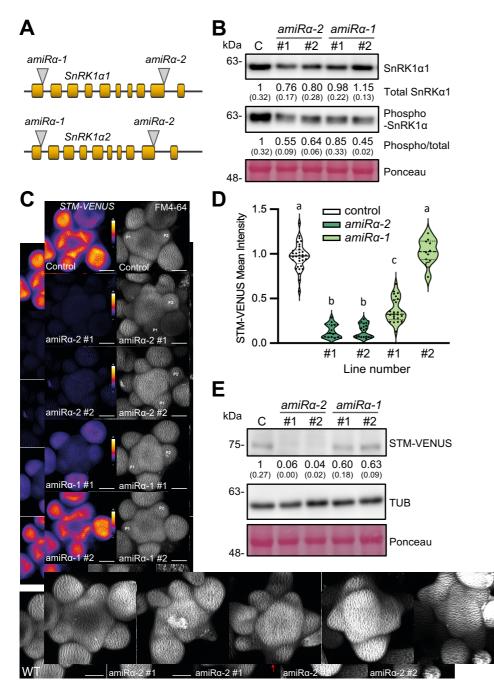
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Figure 3. SnRK1 is expressed in the SAM and affects STM response to light. A, SnRK1a1-GFP imaging in the SAM. Right panel, SAM longitudinal section. Scale bars, 50 µm. B, Immunoblot analyses of SnRK1a1 in SAMs and rosette leaves of *pSTM::STM-VENUS* plants grown under high light (HL). 35 µg of total protein was loaded from SAM and leaf extracts. Ponceau staining serves as loading control. Similar results were obtained from two independent experiments. C, RT-qPCR analyses of SnRK1 signaling marker genes (DIN10, SEN5, DRM2) in SAMs of pSTM::STM-VENUS plants grown in HL and transferred to darkness (D) or kept in HL for 48 h. Graphs show the average of 3 independent samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs. Paired ratio *t*-test (*p*-values shown). D, Left, representative immunoblot of SnRK1a1 T-loop phosphorylation in SAMs of the plants described in (C), using antibodies recognizing the T175 phosphorylation (phospho-SnRK1 $\alpha$ ) or the total SnRK1a1 protein. Right, quantification of the mean SnRK1a phosphorylation (phospho- $SnRK1\alpha/total SnRK1\alpha1$ ) in D as compared to the ratio in HL (*n*=3; each a pool of 5 SAMs). Paired ratio t-test (p-value shown). E-F, STM-VENUS expression in SAMs of control and SnRK1a1-OE plants grown under HL or low light (LL) conditions (E) or grown under HL and transferred to darkness (D) or kept under HL for 48 h (F). The same batches of HL-grown plants served as controls for the experiments shown in (E) and (F). Control HL and LL-grown STM-VENUS samples are replotted from Fig. 1B as a reference. Plots show SAM measurements of plants grown as 3 independent batches normalized by the mean of the control HL condition of each batch (control, HL: n=44, LL: n=45, D: n=45; SnRK1a1-OE, HL: n=45, LL: n=45; D: n=45). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). G, Effect of light on the levels of sugars in SAMs of  $SnRK1\alpha I-OE$  plants as compared to the control. Suc, sucrose; Tre6P, trehalose 6-phosphate; Glc, glucose; Fru, fructose. Plots show measurements of 5-6 samples, each consisting of a pool of 5 SAMs from plants grown as 2 independent batches. Welch's *t*-test (mutant vs. control for each condition; *p*-values shown). H, Yeast-two hybrid assays examining the interaction of SnRK1a1 with STM. Protein interaction was determined by monitoring yeast growth in medium lacking Leu, Trp and His (-L-W-H) compared with control medium only lacking Leu and Trp (-L-W). Upper panel, yeast growth in cells co-expressing AD-STM, with BD-SnRK1a1. Lower panel, negative controls of yeast transfected with the indicated AD/BD-constructs and the complementary BD/AD-empty vectors. BD and AD, DNA binding and activation domains of the GAL4 transcription factor, respectively. Increasing dilutions of transformed yeast cells are shown (10<sup>-1</sup>, 10<sup>-2</sup>, 10<sup>-3</sup>). Experiments were performed three times with similar results. I, Co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) experiments using Arabidopsis Col-0 mesophyll cell protoplasts co-expressing SnRK1a1-HA with STM-GFP or GFP alone. GFP-tagged proteins immunoprecipitated and co-immunoprecipitation of SnRK1a1 were was assessed by immunoblotting with an HA antibody. Arrowheads, STM-GFP (upper) and GFP (lower). Experiments were performed three times with similar results.

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Figure 4. Silencing SnRK1a in the SAM compromises STM expression. A, Schematic localization of  $amiR\alpha$ -1 and  $amiR\alpha$ -2 target sites (grey triangles) in the SnRK1\alpha1 and SnRK1\alpha2 transcripts. Yellow blocks correspond to exons. B, Immunoblot analyses of SnRK1a T-loop phosphorylation in SAMs of plants expressing pSTM:: $amiR\alpha$ -1 ( $amiR\alpha$ -1) or pSTM:: $amiR\alpha$ -2 (amiR $\alpha$ -2), using antibodies recognizing total SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1 or SnRK1 $\alpha$  phosphorylated on T175 (phospho-SnRK1 $\alpha$ ). Ponceau staining serves as loading control. Numbers refer to mean SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1 amounts or mean SnRK1 $\alpha$  phosphorylation (phospho-SnRK1 $\alpha$ /total SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1) in the *amiR* $\alpha$  lines relative to the control STM-VENUS line (n=2; each a pool of 5 SAMs; in parenthesis, SEM). C, Representative meristems expressing STM-VENUS together with pSTM:: $amiR\alpha$ -1, pSTM:: $amiR\alpha$ -2 or pSTM::TFP-N7 as a control, and whose membranes were labelled with FM4-64. Left panels show the sum-slice projections of the STM-VENUS signal (color-coded using the Fire representation in ImageJ), and the right panels, the sum-slice projection of the FM4-64 signal. Scale bars, 50 µm. P1 and P2, youngest visible and older flower primordia, respectively. D, Quantification of the STM-VENUS signal in the SAMs shown in (C). Plots show SAM measurements of plants grown as 2 independent batches (except  $amiR\alpha$ -1#2, which grown as a single batch) normalized by the mean of the control line of each batch (control, n=34;  $amiR\alpha-2\#1$ , n=16;  $amiR\alpha-2\#2$ , n=22;  $amiR\alpha-1\#1$ , n=25;  $amiR\alpha - 1\#2$  n=10). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test; p < 0.05). E, Immunoblot analyses of STM-VENUS protein levels in SAMs of the amiRa lines as compared to the STM-VENUS control using antibodies recognizing STM. TUBULIN (TUB) and Ponceau staining serve as loading controls. Numbers refer to mean STM-VENUS amounts in the *amiRa* lines as compared to the control (n=2; each a pool of 5 SAMs; in parenthesis, SEM). F, Sum-slice projection of control line and *amiRa-2* showing additional defects in meristem organization. Red arrows point at bract-like structures while yellow arrows point at fusions between adjacent floral primordia. Scale bars: 50 µm.

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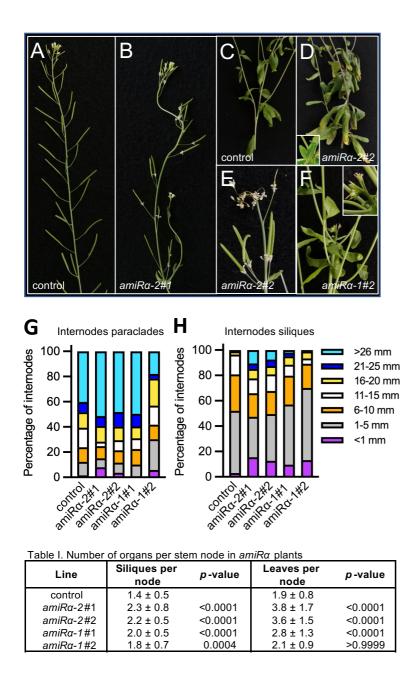


Figure 5. Silencing of *SnRK1a* in the SAM affects meristem function and plant architecture. A-F, Representative images of control (*STM-VENUS*, A,C) and *amiRa* (B,D,E,F) plants showing irregular internode length (A,B), clusters of leaves (C,D,F) and siliques (A,B,E), and termination of the main inflorescence (F) in the *amiRa* lines. Insets show organ fusion between leaves of an aerial rosette (D) and between pedicels and the stem (F). G-H, Quantification of the internode length defects in control and two independent lines of *amiRa-1* and *amiRa-2* mutants. Internode length was determined by measuring the length of the internodes between paraclades (G) and between the first 12 siliques (H), all counted acropetally. Internode length was scored in the indicated size ranges from the main inflorescence of 18 plants of each genotype. Graphs show the relative frequencies of each size class in the total number of internodes scored. All phenotypes were scored from plants grown under equinoctial conditions until the completion of flowering. Figure of the copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

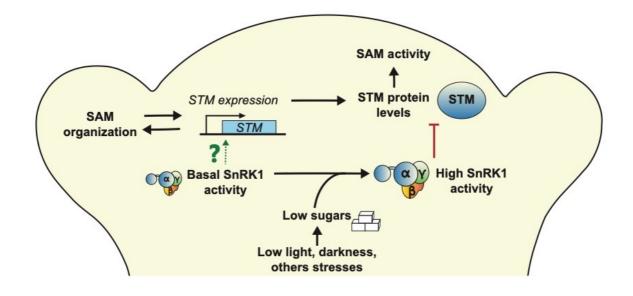


Figure 6. Model for the role of sugars and SnRK1 signaling in the SAM. Under favorable conditions, basal SnRK1 activity is required for meristem organization, with local  $SnRK1\alpha$  silencing causing reduced STM expression and severe phenotypes related to SAM dysfunction. The mechanisms underlying these SnRK1 effects remain unknown (question mark). Under limiting light conditions or other unfavorable situations, sugar levels decrease, leading to a strong activation of SnRK1 signaling. This results in decreased STM protein accumulation, potentially through direct action of SnRK1 $\alpha$ 1 on STM to reduce SAM activity and growth.