

Oxygen, energy and light signalling direct meristem fate

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1 **Abstract**

2 Light, nutrition and oxygen are each important cues for developmental transitions in plants. A small
3 number of recent studies have converged to give the first indication of how these environmental
4 cues act together and independently via auxin, cytokinin and ethylene to regulate cell proliferation
5 in the root and shoot meristems.

6 **How do light signals and energy direct cell proliferation and morphogenesis?**

7 Plants perceive and respond to environmental and nutritional cues to regulate meristem activity and
8 thus plant form. A number of developmental transitions also require certain abiotic conditions, and
9 one of the more well-studied examples is the light requirement for the skoto-photomorphogenic
10 transition in seedlings. Yet light incidence serves two purposes to plants, as signal and energy
11 source, both of which may contribute to morphogenic responses. In turn, the energy from light via
12 photosynthesis generates sugars and oxygen, both now known to function as signals for plant
13 development, in addition to their metabolic roles (note; in the case of oxygen, it is low oxygen
14 (hypoxia) that triggers signal transduction). A small number of important advances in the past 2-3
15 years have helped to disambiguate these pathways and develop an outline of how they interact to
16 regulate plant development. As summarised here, the studies demonstrate that light- and sugar-
17 dependent signals orchestrate meristem activity by converging on the TARGET OF RAPAMYCIN (TOR)
18 kinase, which is a key sensory hub of energy status, and plays a direct role in driving cell
19 proliferation. Moreover, the key components identified also implicate oxygen-dependent signalling,
20 thus enabling new hypotheses of how cellular oxygen status influences proliferation by regulating
21 TOR kinase (Figure 1).

22 Light is perceived by photoreceptors and pigments. Photoreceptors transduce light signals via
23 hormone and transcription factor networks to enable photomorphogenesis, for example the apical
24 hook response of the hypocotyl and subsequent development of true leaves. Pigments harvest
25 photon energy to the photosystems for photosynthesis, which generates oxygen and sugars,
26 themselves both fast-acting signals as well as primary substrates for downstream metabolism. A key
27 regulator of the apical hook response is the E3 ubiquitin ligase CONSTITUTIVE
28 PHOTOMORPHOGENESIS1 (COP1), which in the absence of light, targets photomorphogenic
29 transcription factors for proteasomal degradation. Photoreceptor-mediated light signals negatively
30 regulate COP1, enabling photomorphogenic transcription factors to accumulate and regulate the
31 growth transition. As such, the *Arabidopsis cop1* mutant displays constitutive photomorphogenesis
32 even in darkness. Light-grown wild-type plants show a similar phenotype when photosynthesis is
33 chemically inhibited. Although the *cop1* mutant initiates true leaves in the dark, it is not capable of
34 further organ proliferation. However, this phenotype is considerably rescued by supplementation
35 with sucrose. Similarly, light alone is insufficient for the photomorphogenic transition in glucose-
36 starved wild-type seedlings [1, 2]. These insights show that both light and energy are necessary for
37 photomorphogenesis.

38 Using the *Arabidopsis cop1* background, Pfeiffer et al. [1] illustrated that the effects of light and
39 sugars are transduced to the shoot apical meristem (SAM), regulating the expression of the stem cell
40 identity gene *WUSCHEL* (*WUS*). The expression of *WUS* was additively dependent on sucrose and
41 photoreceptor-mediated signalling but apparently did not require photosynthesis. The authors
42 demonstrated that the sucrose-dependent expression of *WUS* was most likely an energy-related
43 function, rather than sucrose-signalling *per se*, as glucose was also effective in inducing *WUS*, while
44 the non-metabolisable palatinose was not. In contrast to the SAM, glucose was sufficient for
45 activation of the cell cycle in the root apical meristem (RAM), where direct light was not necessary.
46 These effects of glucose (in the SAM and RAM) and light (in the SAM) were dependent on the TOR
47 kinase, which phosphorylates and activates the S-phase transcription factor E2Fa, enabling mitosis.
48 Pfeiffer et al. [1] also demonstrated that the light signal was perceived distally from the SAM and
49 relayed via cytokinin pathways.

50 **Auxin supplements photoreceptor signalling in apical meristems**

51 Remarkably, an independent study showed that the application of auxin was able to supplement the
52 requirement for light to activate the SAM TOR kinase and enable the development of true leaves in
53 wild-type *Arabidopsis*, when sucrose was present [2]. Hence, auxin acts downstream of
54 photoreceptor-mediated light signalling to activate TOR kinase in the SAM, but sucrose or glucose
55 are still required. Seedlings expressing a constitutively active form of a small GTPase Rho-related
56 protein2 (ROP2) phenocopy the *cop1*, initiating the photomorphogenic transition in darkness. The
57 authors demonstrated that the function of ROP2 required auxin, and it directly interacts with, and
58 promotes TOR kinase activity. In contrast, glucose had no effect on ROP2. It was then shown that
59 COP1 was indeed upstream of ROP2, and mediated by auxin [3]. The authors hypothesised that the
60 distinction in light requirements for TOR kinase activity in the SAM and RAM was due to the auxin
61 concentration in the respective apices; while continued auxin synthesis in the SAM requires light, the
62 concentration in the RAM is constitutively sufficient [2].

63 **Oxygen and redox signalling may moderate light and energy signals**

64 The involvement of ROP2 in photomorphogenesis provides a logical link to oxygen and
65 reduction/oxidation (redox) signalling [4]. The primary plant oxygen-signalling mechanism, the
66 O₂/NO-dependent N-end rule pathway of proteolysis (N-end rule) was recently described [5, 6]. In
67 conditions of hypoxia and low nitric oxide, Group VII ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTORS (ERF-VII) are
68 stable and transcriptionally activate genes involved in quiescence and etiolation pathways, which
69 includes an increase in ethylene synthesis, starch hydrolysis, glycolysis and fermentation. In the
70 presence of sufficient oxygen and nitric oxide, the N-end rule pathway targets the ERF-VIIs to the
71 proteasome via the E3 ligase PROTEOLYSIS6 (PRT6). Fine regulation of ROP2 is required for survival
72 and recovery of *Arabidopsis* following exposure to hypoxia, where redox homeostasis is disturbed
73 [7]. ROP2 promotes synthesis of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) via NADPH oxidases (RBOH). Gonzali et al.
74 [8] showed that a HYPOXIA RESPONSIVE UNIVERSAL STRESS PROTEIN1 (HRU1), which is
75 transcriptionally induced in hypoxic conditions, directly interacts with ROP2, and likely also with
76 RBOH and thioredoxin h. *HRU1* is constitutively elevated in plants where N-end rule proteolysis is
77 compromised, e.g. *prt6* mutants or those expressing a constitutively stable ERF-VII, suggesting *HRU1*
78 is transcriptionally regulated by the ERF-VIIs. Hence, the ERF-VII - HRU1 - ROP2 pathway provides a
79 hypothetical means for oxygen and redox status to regulate TOR kinase and cell proliferation (Figure
80 1). Additionally, the increase in glucose resulting from of ERF-VII-dependent activation of starch
81 hydrolysis provides an independent link between oxygen status and TOR kinase activity.
82 Consequentially, hypoxic conditions should promote cell division.

83 Components of the N-end rule pathway have also been shown to be essential for developmental
84 transitions, including seed germination and photomorphogenesis [9]. Under hypoxic conditions, the
85 apical hook of wild-type *Arabidopsis* remains closed, and similarly the apical hook of the *prt6* mutant
86 fails to fully open under normoxia [10]. Hence, an increase in oxygen availability as seedlings emerge
87 through the soil is an important developmental signal. Interestingly, quiescence is a common
88 consequence of hypoxia or conditions where ERV-VIIs are stable, e.g. seed dormancy or the SUB1A
89 rice ([9] and references within). This raises the possibility that oxygen status can negatively regulate
90 TOR kinase by a pathway yet to be defined (Figure 1).

91 The connection to ethylene signalling in photomorphogenesis also extends beyond the N-end rule
92 [11]. As indicated earlier, although *cop1* mutants can initiate the photomorphogenic transition in the
93 absence of light, they fail to proliferate and even penetrate the soil surface in certain conditions [12].
94 Overexpression of the central ethylene-dependent transcription factor *ETHYLENE INSENSITIVE3*
95 (*EIN3*), which is upstream of *ERV-VIIs*, partially rescues these deficiencies of *cop1*, because COP1 also

96 mediates proteolytic destruction of EIN3 BINDING F BOX 1 and 2 (EBF1, 2), which in turn targets EIN3
97 for proteolysis.

98 **Concluding remarks**

99 Together these advances provide a significant integration of pathways previously thought to be
100 largely independent in regulating plant development. As such, TOR kinase has emerged as a central
101 hub for environmental and cellular cues which regulate the cell cycle, with several points of crosstalk
102 between energy-, light- and oxygen-dependent pathways already established. Thus, these and
103 related studies provide the required genetic tools and knowledge to explore a number of exciting
104 questions. Firstly, does ERF-VII activity indeed promote TOR kinase independently via the ROP2 and
105 glucose pathways (Figure 1)? If so, how can the quiescence phenotypes such as seed dormancy and
106 SUB1A rice be explained; do negative regulatory links, yet to be defined, exist between ERF-VII target
107 genes and the TOR kinase (Figure 1)?

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Figure legend

Figure 1. Light incidence on plants serves a dual function of signal and energy source, which converge via hormone-, oxygen- and sugar-mediated pathways to regulate the cell cycle via the conserved energy sensor TARGET OF RAPAMYCIN kinase (TOR). Photoreceptors negatively regulate CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENESIS1 (COP1), itself a negative regulator of key photomorphogenic transcription factors such as HY5 (TFs), as well auxin and ethylene signalling pathways, including the EIN3 BINDING F BOX 1 and 2 (EBF1/2). In the presence of light, auxin and the EBF1/2 pathways are activated. Auxin signalling activates a small GTPase Rho-related protein2 (ROP2), which triggers synthesis of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) via NADPH oxidases (RBOH). H_2O_2 feeds back to promote auxin signalling. ROP2 directly binds to and promotes TOR kinase, which phosphorylates and activates the core G1/S-phase transcription factor family of E2F, leading to the expression of the stem cell identity protein WUSCHEL (WUS). However the auxin-mediated pathway is insufficient without two sympathetic pathways, via oxygen and sucrose, both products of photosynthesis. Oxygen status is signalled via N-end rule proteolysis of Group VII ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTORS (ERF-VII), which are negatively regulated by PROTEOLYSIS6* (PRT6) under normal oxygen conditions, or activate quiescence or etiolation pathways, including ethylene synthesis and starch hydrolysis (α -amylase) under low oxygen status (hypoxia). The ERF-VIIs negatively regulate photomorphogenesis, and promote expression of HYPOXIA RESPONSIVE UNIVERSAL STRESS PROTEIN1 (HRU1), which in turn promotes ROP2. The ERF-VIIs may also influence TOR kinase by other pathways, although this has not been demonstrated. The ERF-VIIs are also negatively regulated by light, via the photoreceptor-mediated pathway through COP1-dependent degradation of EBF1/2. Sucrose, via glucose activates TOR kinase and other cell cycle regulators. Hence the cellular cues, energy, oxygen, auxin and ethylene act together and independently to mediate the photomorphogenic transition. G1 and S denote the respective phases of the cell cycle. Arrow with dashed lines are indirect relationships. *The dotted line between oxygen and PRT6 indicates that PRT6 is not regulated by oxygen *per se* (ref [5, 6, 9]).

