

1 Light at the end of the tunnel: FRAP assay reveals that 2 plant vacuoles start as a tubular network

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16 Abstract

17 Plant vacuoles play key roles in cellular homeostasis performing catabolic and storage functions,
18 regulating pH and ion balance^{1,2}. The essential role of vacuoles for plant cell viability makes them a
19 notoriously difficult subject to study. As a consequence, there is still no consensus on the mechanism
20 of vacuolar establishment and the source of membrane material for it. Our previous suggestion of
21 endoplasmic reticulum (ER) being the main contributor of membrane for growing young vacuoles³ was
22 recently challenged in a study proposing that plant vacuoles are formed *de novo* via homotypic fusion
23 of multivesicular bodies (MVBs)⁴. Authors of this work pointed out issues that might explain our
24 seemingly contradictory observations and we have thus carefully reevaluated our hypothesis.

25 Using the *Arabidopsis thaliana* root as a model, we provide a systematic overview of successive
26 vacuolar biogenesis stages, starting from the youngest cells proximate to the quiescent center. We
27 validate our previous conclusions by demonstrating that the vacuolar dye BCECF is fully suitable for
28 studying the organelle morphology and provide 3D models from vacuoles of all developmental stages.
29 We established a customized FRAP assay and proved that even at the earliest stages of biogenesis,
30 vacuoles comprise a connected network. Together, this adds to a growing body of evidence indicating
31 that vacuolar structures cannot originate solely from MVBs.

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33

34 Keywords

35 Plant vacuole biogenesis, Vacuolar network, Root cortex, *Arabidopsis thaliana*, MVBs, Provacuoles,
36 FRAP, vacuole

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39 Abbreviations

40 **CLSM**, confocal laser scanning microscopy; **CTPP**, C-terminal propeptide; **BCECF**, BCECF-AM, 2',7'-Bis-
41 (2-Carboxyethyl)-5-(and-6)-Carboxyfluorescein, Acetoxymethyl Ester; **DZ**, differentiation zone; **ER**,
42 endoplasmic reticulum; **EZ**, elongation zone; **FRAP**, fluorescence recovery after photobleaching; **ILVs**,
43 intraluminal vesicles; **MVBs**, multi vesicular bodies; **MZ**, meristematic zone; **NTPP**, N-terminal
44 propeptide; **QC**, quiescent center; **SVs**, small vacuoles; **TEM**, transmission electron microscopy;

45 Main

46 Vacuoles are the largest organelles of plant cells, they play the key role in cellular homeostasis
47 performing catabolic and storage functions, regulating pH and ion balance and are vital for plant cell
48 adaptability to environmental changes^{1,2,5-7}. All plant cells contain vacuoles, however these organelles
49 are highly dynamic and vary greatly in size, morphology and content, depending on plant species, cell
50 type, developmental stage and environmental conditions. Presence of the vacuoles in all plant cells
51 implies that these organelles are likely to be inherited from cell to cell, but does not exclude that a
52 subpopulation of the vacuolar structures might be possibility formed *de novo*. Plant vacuoles typically
53 undergo massive structural changes during cell differentiation and growth, starting as relatively small
54 organelles in meristematic cells and occupying up to 90% of the cellular volume in differentiated
55 cells^{1,8}. It is intriguing how such vast reorganization of the organelle is synchronized with its vital role
56 in cellular homeostasis and responses to environmental stress stimuli. It is also an exciting question,
57 what is the source of the vacuolar membrane (tonoplast) that supports the massive reorganization
58 and growth of the organelle^{3,9,10}. The knowledge about the mechanisms underpinning vacuolar
59 biogenesis is crucial for our understanding of plant physiology. However, obtaining this knowledge is
60 an undeniably challenging task due to the pleiotropic effects of mutations impacting vacuolar
61 biogenesis¹¹⁻¹³ and embryo lethality of the mutants with impaired vacuolar establishment¹⁴. As the
62 result, the over a century old debate about the origin of plant vacuoles is still ongoing^{3,10,15,16}.

63 So far it has been suggested that plant vacuoles might originate from plastid-like structures¹⁶, or from
64 Golgi-associated endoplasmic reticulum (ER) that undergoes autophagy-dependent modifications¹⁷,
65 or are established with participation of ER-derived provacuoles³. The recent work by Cui et al.⁴
66 proposed an intriguing hypothesis, according to which plant vacuoles start as small vacuoles (SVs) that
67 are *de novo* produced in young meristematic cells *via* homotypic fusion of multivesicular bodies
68 (MVBs). However, the existing body of evidence together with our data strongly suggests that
69 homotypic fusion of MVBs would not produce fully functional vacuolar structures.

70 For instance, in agreement with the pre-existing data, Cui et al. demonstrated that vacuolar structures
71 and MVBs are decorated with two different sets of membrane proteins. This observation alone already
72 indicates that formation of the vacuolar membrane is unlikely to rely solely on MVBs. It plausibly
73 requires an additional membrane source that would deliver the characteristic transmembrane
74 proteins. Indeed, as we have demonstrated previously, the transmembrane subunits of two highly
75 abundant tonoplast protein complexes present on all vacuolar membranes, the vacuolar H⁺-ATPase
76 and the vacuolar H⁺-PPase are delivered to the vacuole via an MVB-independent trafficking route³.

77 Post-Golgi trafficking in general and MVBs in particular undoubtedly play an important role in plant
78 vacuole establishment. MVBs are essential for the trafficking of proteins from ER and plasma
79 membrane to the vacuole.¹⁸ During this process, intraluminal vesicles (ILVs) of MVBs accumulate cargo
80 sorted for delivery to the vacuole and are released into the vacuolar lumen upon MVB fusion with the
81 tonoplast¹⁸. The presence of ILVs in the vacuolar lumen reported by Cui et al. is thus a well-described
82 phenotype merely indicative of a functioning endomembrane trafficking towards the vacuole and
83 does not speak for vacuoles originating from MVBs⁴. The mechanism regulating cargo sorting,
84 formation of ILVs and fusion of MVBs with the tonoplast is relatively well described and known to
85 involve factors implicated in vacuolar maintenance^{11,12,18}. Consequently, disruptions in functionality of
86 MVBs greatly impact vacuolar morphology^{11,12,19,20}. Importantly, cells with aberrant MVB machinery
87 are not devoid of the tonoplastic material, but typically contain large amount of thereof. However,
88 these mutants fail to organize the tonoplast into an organelle with the typical vacuolar
89 morphology^{11,13,20}. Furthermore, some of the mutants with impaired MVB functionality have highly
90 aberrant vacuolar morphology in young cells, where the organelle seems to undergo intensive fission
91 and fusion, but relatively normal vacuolar morphology in the differentiated cells^{11,20}. These data
92 strongly indicate that MVBs play an important role in regulating the tonoplast organization but do not
93 serve as the initial source of the vacuolar membrane.

94 Furthermore, a number of previous studies implementing whole-cell 3D TEM²¹, single-section TEM⁵ or
95 confocal microscopy^{1,22} reported that plant vacuoles at the early stages of their establishment
96 comprise a dynamic tubular network that might undergo temporary fragmentation during cell
97 division. Cui and colleagues suggest that the tubular morphology of young vacuoles observed in some
98 of the previous studies might be an artifact caused by fluorescent probes used to visualize the
99 organelle, i.e. BCECF and SNARF³. Moreover, authors pointed out that the existing studies offer broad
100 conclusions supported only by fragmented data obtained on specific developmental stages in different
101 cell types. We endeavoured to address these issues and performed a series of experiments that
102 provided a systematic overview of the vacuolar establishment process and allowed us to re-evaluate
103 our previous findings.

104 Using *Arabidopsis thaliana* as a model organism greatly facilitated our understanding of plant vacuolar
105 biogenesis. Owing to the simple radial symmetry, concentric distribution of tissues, reproducible
106 position of cell types and location of the meristem at the root tip²³, *Arabidopsis thaliana* primary root
107 is an excellent system for tracking successive stages of cell differentiation and thus is optimal for
108 studying vacuolar development. Root growth is a result of cell division and differentiation. The former
109 occurs close to the root tip in the meristematic zone (MZ), which is maintained by the quiescent center

110 (QC). The neatly organised stem niche cells located in proximity of the QC, give rise to lineages of cell
111 types that undergo gradual differentiation and elongation²³ (**Fig. 1a**). As a result, a single vertical tier
112 of cells will represent a snapshot of successive developmental stages, with the earliest steps occurring
113 close to the QC and the latest taking place proximal to the hypocotyl.

114 In this study we focused on implementing confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM,) which enables
115 *in vivo* tracking of markers localized in plant vacuoles, thus allowing quantitative assessment of the
116 content exchange between individual vacuolar substructures.

117 To assess if BCECF, a dye commonly used to visualize the vacuolar lumen²⁴, affects vacuolar
118 morphology, we compared phenotypes of vacuoles in *Arabidopsis thaliana* root cells in the absence
119 or presence of the dye²⁴ (**Figure 1b-h**). In these experiments we used two independent transgenic lines
120 expressing red fluorescent protein delivered to the vacuole implementing N- or C-terminal propeptide
121 sorting signals^{25,26}, spL-RFP and spRFP-AFVY, respectively²⁷. To ensure that our observations are
122 representative of vacuolar biogenesis, we assessed vacuolar morphology at successive developmental
123 stages of the same cell type. For this, we performed high-resolution 3D confocal microscopy of an area
124 encompassing several cell layers of the root meristem and elongation zones.

125 The imaging data was then used to select a single column of cortex cells, in which cell positions were
126 numbered counting from the QC and 3D reconstructions were generated for the vacuoles of every
127 second cell (**Figure 1b-e, Movie S1**). We selected cortex cells for analysis, since the 3D TEM
128 reconstructions presented by Cui and co-authors were predominantly done on this cell type⁴.

129 Consistent with previously published data based on CLSM^{1,3}, single section TEM⁵ and whole-cell 3D
130 TEM²¹, we observed a fine tubular vacuolar network in young plant cells (**Figure 1e**). The diameter of
131 the tubules was gradually increasing with the age of the cells, eventually causing fusion of the network
132 into balloon-like vacuolar structures that occupied most of the volume in differentiated cells (**Figure**
133 **1b-e, Movies S1 and S2**). Seedlings of the same transgenic lines were then stained with BCECF and
134 imaged as described above. Our data unequivocally demonstrates that BCECF does not cause
135 discernible changes in vacuolar morphology at any of the observed stages of vacuolar biogenesis
136 (**Figure 1f-h**). Thus, we confirm the validity of the results from the previous studies implementing
137 BCECF staining.

138

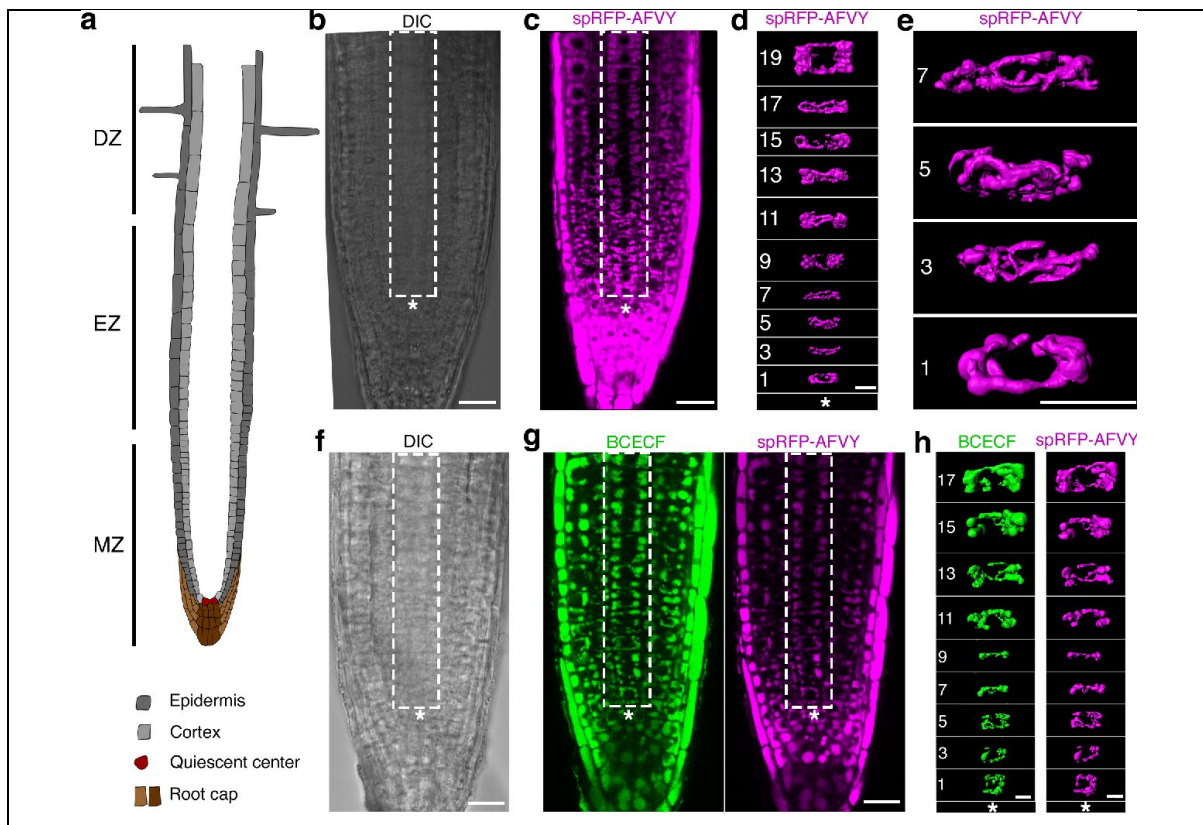


Figure 1. Vacuolar morphology at successive stages of biogenesis visualized using the endogenously expressed vacuolar marker spRFP-AFVY and a fluorescent dye BCECF.

(a) A scheme of an Arabidopsis roots depicting cell types presented in this study. MZ, meristematic zone containing youngest cells with earliest stages of vacuolar biogenesis close to the QC. EZ, elongation zone contains cells that entered differentiation program resulting in their elongation along vertical axis of the root. DZ, differentiation zone is generally defined by the presence of highly elongated and root hairs.

Arabidopsis thaliana seedlings expressing vacuolar marker spRFP-AFVY were directly scanned using CLSM (b-e) or first stained with the BCECF dye typically used to visualize vacuolar lumen (f-h). Obtained z-stack scans were then processed using Imaris software to produce 3D renderings of vacuoles in cortex cells of a single tier (rectangular selection). Successive stages of vacuolar development were tracked from the youngest cells of the root (closest to quiescent center (QC), asterisk)), cell position was numbered counting from the QC. Note, that staining with BCECF shows no discernible effect on vacuolar morphology. Importantly, vacuoles have a distinctly tubular morphology even in the youngest cells of the root cortex.

(b) DIC channel, a single optical slice taken out of a z-stack scan of an Arabidopsis root to show the position of the quiescent center (marked with an asterisk.) Rectangular selection denotes the area used for the 3D reconstruction shown in (d).

(c) RFP channel, a single optical slice taken out of the same z-stack as in (b), to show position of the cortex cells used for rendering in (d).

(d) 3D rendering of the z-stack illustrated in (b) and (c) showing vacuoles at successive stages of development in the single tier of cortex cells.

(e) Enlarged view of c showing vacuoles in the youngest cortex cells, numbers indicate cell position from the QC.

(f) DIC channel, a single optical slice taken out of a z-stack scan of an Arabidopsis root to show the position of the quiescent center (marked with an asterisk.)

(g) Green (BCECF) and magenta (spRFP-AFVY) fluorescent channels, a single optical slice taken out of a z-stack scan of an Arabidopsis root to show the position of the position of the cortex cells used for rendering in (g).

(h) 3D rendering of the z-stack illustrated in (f) and (g) showing vacuoles at successive stages of development in the single file of cortex cells.

*, QC. Numbers indicate cell position from the QC. White rectangles denote area positions used for 3D reconstruction of vacuoles in cortex cells. Scale bars: 10 μ m

139

140 Additionally, we performed time-lapse imaging of cortex cells at successive developmental stages to
141 visualize the mobility of the vacuolar structures (**Movie S2**). The uninterrupted directionality of
142 vacuolar structures movement in young cells strongly implied that they are connected. However,
143 resolution of CLSM is not sufficient to conclusively discern whether we are observing movement of
144 connected tubular vacuolar network or chains of tethered small vacuoles. To assess whether observed
145 vacuolar structures indeed share the luminal space, we attempted to track diffusion of fluorescent
146 markers in the vacuolar lumen using a FRAP (Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching) assay
147 (**Figure 2a-d**). In brief, the fluorophore molecules within a small vacuolar area were exposed to a pulse
148 of high intensity excitation light resulting in an irreversible loss of their fluorescence (photobleaching),
149 after which re-distribution of the fluorescence intensity within the vacuolar area (fluorescence
150 recovery) was tracked to assess diffusion of fluorophore molecules between the vacuolar
151 substructures of the cell.

152 In line with our 3D reconstruction approach described above, we made sure to provide systematic
153 data and performed photobleaching at successive developmental stages in the cortex cells counting
154 their position from the QC. In all cases, experiments using spL-RFP or spRFP-AFVY lines and BCECF dye
155 stained roots produced similar results (**Figure 2, Movie S3**). At all developmental stages fluorescence
156 recovery was observed within a couple of seconds, consistent with diffusion of the marker inside a
157 connected vacuolar network (**Movie S3**). Even in cells containing seemingly fragmented vacuoles, we
158 observed a rapid recovery of fluorescence in a photobleached vacuolar portion, proving that also
159 these cells contain vacuolar networks (**Figure 2b-d**).

160 Performing FRAP assays on young plant vacuoles is a notoriously challenging task. The small size of
161 the young vacuolar structures and their rapid movement during time-lapse imaging causes
162 fluctuations in the fluorescence intensity that interferes with accurate detection of the intensity
163 changes produced by diffusion of the fluorophore. Thus applying the traditional FRAP quantification
164 methods to the highly mobile vacuolar networks of the youngest meristematic cells was yielding
165 unreliable data. We overcame this issue by developing a customized approach for quantifying FRAP
166 data to calculate the connectivity index (CI) of plant vacuoles (**Figure 2e-g, Figure S1**, for the detailed
167 description see the Methods chapter). CI value of 1 indicates unrestricted diffusion of a fluorophore
168 inside the vacuolar lumen and CI values below 0.1 would represent a lack of diffusion due to the
169 fluorophore localization in separated compartments. We calculated connectivity indexes for cells of
170 the meristematic zone (MZ) which contain the youngest vacuoles, elongation zone (EZ) comprising
171 cells with vacuoles that underwent substantial fusion and differentiation zone (DZ) in which cells

172 contain large vacuoles connected into balloon-like structures. Statistical analysis revealed a similar
 173 connectivity indexes in all three zones (**Figure 2g**), thus confirming that even at the earliest stages of
 174 their development plant vacuoles comprise a dynamic network of connected tubules rather than
 175 separate vesicles.

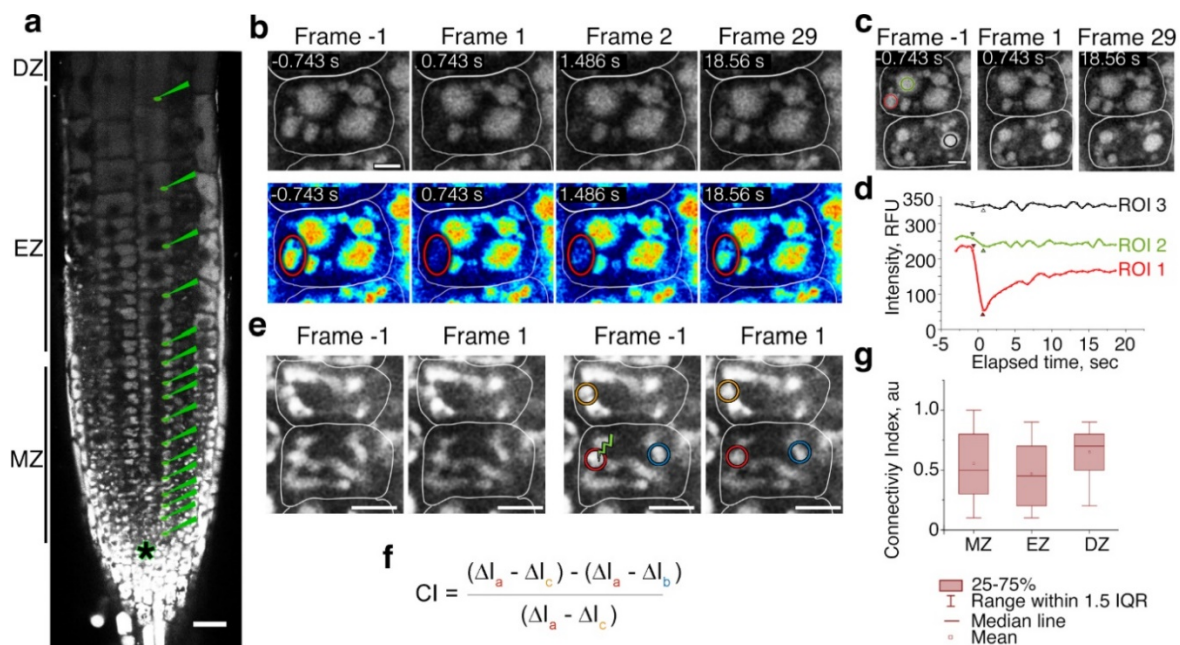


Figure 2. FRAP assay reveals that vacuolar structures form a connected network even at the earliest stages of development.

Arabidopsis thaliana seedlings expressing vacuolar marker spL-RFP were subjected to FRAP assay imaging. (a) The FRAP assay was performed on every second cortex cell counting from the QC. For each cell, a small portion of vacuolar area was subjected to photobleaching. The fluorescence recovery was then used to estimate whether vacuolar structures within each cell comprise a connected network. Scale bar, 10 μ m. *, QC.

(b) Frames from a FRAP time-series obtained on a meristematic cell containing seemingly separated vacuolar structures. Top row shows the raw data, bottom row shows the same data colour-coded for signal intensity using Royal LUT. White lines denote cell walls, the red oval indicates a vacuolar structure within which a small spot was exposed to high intensity laser during photobleaching. Four frames were acquired prior to and 25 frames were acquired after the photobleaching. Scanning was performed at the speed of one frame per 743 msec. "Frame -1", the frame acquired right before photobleaching. "Frame 1", the first frame after photobleaching. Time in seconds, elapsed time from the photobleaching event. Increase in fluorescence within photobleached vacuolar structure is visible already on the Frame 2, less than two second after photobleaching occurred. Such rapid dynamics of recovery strongly indicates free diffusion of the fluorophore between vacuolar structures visible on the optical section of the cell. Scale bar: 5 μ m.

(c) Quantification of the FRAP imaging data illustrated in (b). Regions of interest (ROIs) were selected to represent the photobleached region of the vacuole (red), a vacuolar structure inside the same cell, which was not exposed to high intensity laser light (green) and a vacuolar region in a neighbouring cell (blue).

(d) The fluorescence intensities inside ROIs shown on (c) were measured for the FRAP time-lapse data containing four scans prior to photobleaching and 25 scans after the photobleaching. The arrows indicate data points corresponding to the Frame -1 and Frame 1. ROI1 and ROI2 show decrease in the intensity right after photobleaching, indicating that they are located in connected structures. Expectedly, the ROI3, which corresponds to a vacuolar area of another cell, does not show decrease in the intensity. Half time of fluorescence recovery in the photobleached area is shorter than 2 seconds, consistent with free diffusion of the fluorophore into the photobleached area.

(e) Frames from a FRAP series performed on highly tubulated vacuoles of young cortex cells. "Frame -1", the frame acquired right before photobleaching. "Frame 1", the first frame after photobleaching. White

lines indicate cell walls. Scale bar: 10 μ m. The left panel shows the raw data, the right panel shows the same data with indicated areas subjected to the photobleaching and used for Connectivity index calculation.

(f) Equation for the Connectivity index (CI) calculation, colored letters a, b, c indicate areas denoted on (d) with the corresponding colors. $CI = 1$ indicates that photobleached and not photobleached areas are fully connected and diffusion rate between them is higher than the scanning speed. CI values higher than 0.1 indicate localization of the fluorophore in connected compartments, CI values lower than 0.1, indicate that fluorophore is trapped in separated compartments.

ΔI_a , intensity drop in the photobleached area of the vacuole as % of this area intensity before photobleaching. ΔI_b , intensity drop in the not photobleached area of the same vacuole as % of this area intensity before photobleaching. ΔI_c , intensity drop in the vacuole of neighbouring cell as % of this area intensity before photobleaching. $\Delta I_a - \Delta I_b$, relative loss of fluorescence within the vacuole, comparing photobleached and non-photobleached areas (areas potentially correspond to different parts of vacuolar network). $\Delta I_a - \Delta I_c$, reference loss of fluorescence, comparing photobleached area in one cell and non-photobleached in another (areas are in disconnected vacuoles).

(g) A two-tailed Students t-test comparing CI indexes calculated for the cells belonging to the MZ, meristematic zone (cells at the positions 1-13); EZ, elongation zone (cells at the positions 14-19), DZ, differentiation zone (cells at the positions 20 and upwards) revealed similar connection of the vacuolar structures in the cells of all three zones (p -value > 0.05). The chart shows representative data of one out of six FRAP experiments, that comprised use of 7 roots to acquire 63 FRAP series.

176

177 Cui and colleagues observed fragmentation of vacuoles using super-resolution microscopy on the
178 fixed cells and in the experiments involving photoconversion of a vacuolar marker in the living cells.
179 Interestingly, their photoconversion experiments revealed fragmented vacuoles in elongated cells
180 (cell length : width more than 2:1), which should typically contain connected vacuoles in wild-type
181 plants under normal growth conditions. However, it is well established that plant vacuoles can
182 undergo drastic morphological changes, including fragmentation, depending on environmental
183 stimuli^{1,2,4,6,28-30}

184 We speculate that the discrepancies between our observations and the data reported by Cui and
185 colleagues might originate from differences in plant growth conditions. To test this hypothesis, we
186 compared the morphology of vacuoles in seedlings grown in two independent laboratories in two
187 different countries. We reproducibly observed a tubular vacuolar network in young cells of seedlings
188 grown, stained with BCECF and imaged at different facilities (**Figure S2**). Therefore, we are confident
189 in our conclusion that under growth conditions considered as standard by the plant research
190 community, young plant vacuoles comprise a connected tubular network. Our results provide a
191 systematic evidence that validates, corroborates and unifies previous observations^{1,3,5,21}.

192 In summary, in this study: (i) we argue that the existing knowledge on plant endomembrane trafficking
193 does not support the hypothesis of vacuolar structures originating from homotypic fusion of MVBs;
194 (ii) we provide a comprehensive overview of plant vacuolar morphology at successive developmental
195 stages starting from the youngest cells proximal to the QC and demonstrate that even at the earliest
196 stages vacuoles have a tubular network morphology; (ii) we determine that BCECF does not affect
197 vacuolar morphology, thus validating conclusions from previous studies using this dye; (iii) we use a

198 customized FRAP assay to provide a systematic assessment showing that plant vacuoles comprise a
199 connected network already at the earliest stages of development.

200

201 **Methods**

202

203 **Plant material and growth**

204 In this study we used *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 accession wild-type plants and transgenic plants
205 expressing spL-RFP and spRFP-AFVY markers²⁷. Seeds were surface sterilized for 20 min in 70%
206 Ethanol with 0.05% Triton X-100, washed in 95% Ethanol and air dried. Seedlings were grown on
207 vertical plates containing 0.5x MS (M0222, Duchefa), supplemented with 10 mM MES (M1503,
208 Duchefa), 1% sucrose and 0.8 % Plant agar (P1001, Duchefa), pH5.8 under long day conditions (150
209 μ M light, 16h light, 8h darkness, 22°C)

210 **BCECF staining**

211 BCECF-AM (2',7'-Bis-(2-Carboxyethyl)-5-(and-6)-Carboxyfluorescein, Acetoxymethyl Ester, B1150
212 ThermoFisher) was stored as a 10 mM stock solution in DMSO. For staining, 5-7 days old seedlings
213 were submerged in liquid 0.5xMS (0.5x MS (M0222, Duchefa), 10 mM MES (M1503, Duchefa), 1%
214 sucrose pH5.8) containing 10 μ M BCECF and incubated at room temperature for 2h, followed by
215 washing for 15 min in fresh 0.5xMS liquid medium and immediate mounting for imaging.

216 **Confocal microscopy**

217 Images were obtained using Leica SP8 and Leica SP5 confocal microscopes with LAS X software. To
218 avoid possible dehydration of samples during prolonged scans, seedlings were mounted in 0.5x
219 liquid MS in a RoPod 1 chamber (<https://www.alyonaminina.org/ropod>), roots were covered with a
220 coverslip and the chamber lid was closed to maintain humidity during imaging.

221 **3D**

222 Scanning was performed using Leica SP8 CLSM with 63x objective, NA 1.30. BCECF was imaged using
223 488 nm excitation light, 490nm - 552nm emission range and the standard mode of the HyD detector.
224 RFP fluorescence was excited using 561 nm light and 577nm - 700nm emission range was detected
225 using the standard mode of the HyD detector. Pinhole was set to 1AU, scanning speed was set to
226 400 Hz, line average to 3, pixel resolution was set to optimal and number of optical slices was system
227 optimized.

228 All experiments were performed at COS, Heidelberg University, Germany. Additionally, observed
229 vacuolar phenotypes were tested on seedlings grown at Uppsala BioCenter, SLU, Sweden using a
230 Zeiss LSM 800 microscope equipped with GaAsp detectors and ZEN 2 software, 63x water immersion
231 objective, NA 1.20. Excitation and emission settings were set similarly to the ones described above.

232 **4D**

233 Time-lapse imaging was performed with settings the same settings as used for 3D imaging. The scan
234 area size was cropped to enable frame rate of approximately one frame per second.

235 **FRAP**

236 Imaging for FRAP was performed using Leica SP5, 40.0x objective NA 1.20. The excitation and
237 emission settings were the same as used for obtaining 3D scans. To reduce photobleaching by
238 scanning and speed up frame acquisition rate, resolution was set to 512x512 pixels, scanning speed
239 to 600 Hz and line averaging to 1. FRAP settings were adjusted using FRAP tool of LAS AF software. A

240 crosshair tool was used to select a single dot inside vacuolar area to be exposed to high intensity
241 laser. Photobleaching was performed for 1 second using laser intensity empirically adjusted to
242 achieve at least 30% drop in fluorescence intensity in the selected spot. Four frames were acquired
243 prior to photobleaching to obtain data on the normal fluctuations in the marker fluorescence
244 intensity caused by scanning. 25 more frames were acquired after photobleaching to track signal
245 recovery. Each FRAP time-series was ca 21 seconds in length with approximately 740 msec/frame.

246 3D reconstruction

247 For 3D reconstructions of vacuoles Imaris 9.2 (Bitplane) was used. For each reconstructed cell,
248 cell walls were manually traced using at least every third slice of the z-stack based on the DIC
249 channel. The tracing data was then used to create a cell surface reconstruction. In the next step,
250 the surface of the analysed cells was used to create a masked channel, in which signal intensity
251 for the voxels outside the selected cell surface were set to 0. This channel was then employed to
252 automatically create a 3D model of vacuolar lumen of the analysed cell. The obtained model was
253 visually compared and adjusted to the underlying signal with the background subtraction
254 threshold option. Reconstructions of vacuolar network for individual cells were then combined
255 into a common overview image shown on the Fig.1

256 FRAP quantification

257 FRAP quantification was performed using a custom designed macro for automated extraction of
258 FRAP series from Leica project file and a slightly modified FRAP profiler plugin for ImageJ
259 (<https://github.com/AlyonaMinina/vacFRAP>). The adjustments of the plugin included hardcoding
260 presence in the time-lapse of 4 frames prior to photobleaching and thus building the recovery curve
261 fit starting from the 5th frame.

262 Connectivity index

263 High motility of young vacuoles was causing significant fluctuations of fluorescence intensity within a
264 selected area that was not representing changes due to diffusion of the fluorophore. Thus standard
265 FRAP approach could not be efficiently applied for our samples. Hence we developed a customized

266 approach. We argued that diffusion of the fluorophore within aqueous solution of a vacuole is a rapid
267 process and photobleaching of a small area would lead to a small but detectable drop of fluorescence
268 in the whole vacuolar network. To assess the rapid changes in the fluorophore distribution we
269 analysed FRAP series frames right before (Frame -1) and right after (Frame 1) photobleaching,
270 measuring changes in the fluorescence intensities within selected areas. On these frames we selected
271 a small vacuolar area that was exposed to high intensity laser (**a, Figure 2e, Figure S1**) and an area on
272 of the vacuolar network most distant from the photobleached region (**b, Figure 2e, Figure S1**).
273 Furthermore, an area in the vacuolar network of neighbouring cell (**c, Figure 2d, Figure S1**) was used
274 as a control of vacuole definitely not connected to the vacuolar network in the assessed cell.

275 Connectivity index was then calculated in following steps:

- 276 • ΔI_a = intensity drop in the photobleached area of the vacuole as % of this area intensity
277 before photobleaching
- 278 • ΔI_b = intensity drop in the not photobleached area of the same vacuole as % of this area
279 intensity before photobleaching

- 280 • ΔI_c = intensity drop in the vacuole of neighbouring cell as % of this area intensity before
281 photobleaching
- 282 • Rel = relative loss of fluorescence within the vacuole, comparing photobleached and non-
283 photobleached areas (areas are in potentially connected parts of vacuole)
- 284 $Rel = \Delta I_a - \Delta I_b$
- 285 • Ref = reference loss of fluorescence, comparing photobleached area in one cell and non-
286 photobleached in another (areas are in disconnected vacuoles)
- 287 $Ref = \Delta I_a - \Delta I_c$
- 288 • CI = Connectivity Index
- 289 $CI = (Ref - Rel) / Ref$

290 CI = 0 indicates that photobleached and not photobleached areas are not connected. CI = 1
291 indicates that photobleached and not photobleached areas are fully connected and diffusion
292 rate between them is higher than the scanning speed. Cut-off value, the lowest CI value that
293 corresponds to connected network was estimated empirically. To establish the cut-off value for
294 this study we used cells of the differentiation zone as the positive control representing
295 connected vacuoles and vacuoles in neighbouring cells as a negative control, representing
296 disconnected vacuolar structures (Figure 2e and Figure S1). Under our conditions, the CI values
297 lower than 0.1 reproducibly correlated with not connected vacuolar compartments. CI < 0
298 indicates that non-photobleached area lost more signal than the photobleached area =>
299 technical issues, most probably drift during scanning. CI > 1 indicates that there is a technical
300 issue, most probably drift during scanning.

301 Connectivity indexes were quantified using the designated semi-automated assay implementing
302 ImageJ macros (<https://github.com/AlyonaMinina/Connectivity-Index>). The macros were designed to
303 first process Leica project files and extract individual FRAP series as tiff stack files and then guide the
304 user for selecting the areas required for quantification of the CI index.

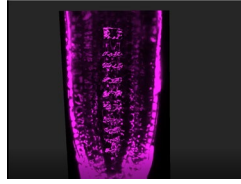
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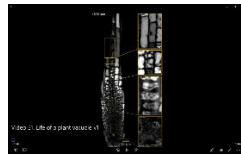
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Movie S1. 3D reconstruction of plant vacuoles in the root cortex cells reveals at successive stages of development.

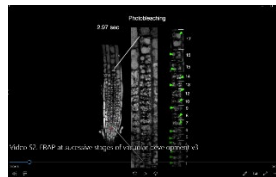
spRFP-AFVY, red fluorescent marker for vacuolar lumen, was detected in *Arabidopsis thaliana* roots using CLSM. A single tier of cortex cells was selected to reconstruct vacuolar structures at successive stages of cell differentiation. The imaging and reconstruction were performed as described in the Materials and methods chapter.



Movie S2. Live imaging of plant vacuoles at successive stages of development.

Arabidopsis thaliana roots expressing spL-RFP, red fluorescent marker for vacuolar lumen, were imaged using CLSM. Time-lapse images of a single optical section show a highly dynamic tubular vacuoles in young cells of the cortex. During cell differentiation and elongation, the thin vacuolar tubules gradually swell and eventually fuse into balloon-like structures.

*, quiescent center; scale bar: 10 μ m.



Movie S3. FRAP at successive stages of vacuolar development.

Arabidopsis thaliana seedlings expressing spRFP-AFVY, a fluorescent marker for vacuolar lumen, were subjected to FRAP assay. 4 scans were made prior to photobleaching, recovery after photobleaching was tracked on 25 frames

The overview of the root on the left shows the position of the quiescent center (QC, asterisk) and position of the cortex cells tier used for the analysis. Numbers indicate the cells position when counted from the QC.

FRAP was performed on 17 consecutive stages of vacuolar establishment to systematically assess possible changes in the vacuolar connectivity during their establishment. At all these stages we detected fluorescence recovery occurring within the matter of seconds, consistent with free diffusion of the fluorophore in the connected volumes of the vacuolar network.

Quantitative comparison of vacuolar connectivity in the meristematic, elongation and differentiation zones is shown on the Fig. 2; scale bar: 10 μ m.

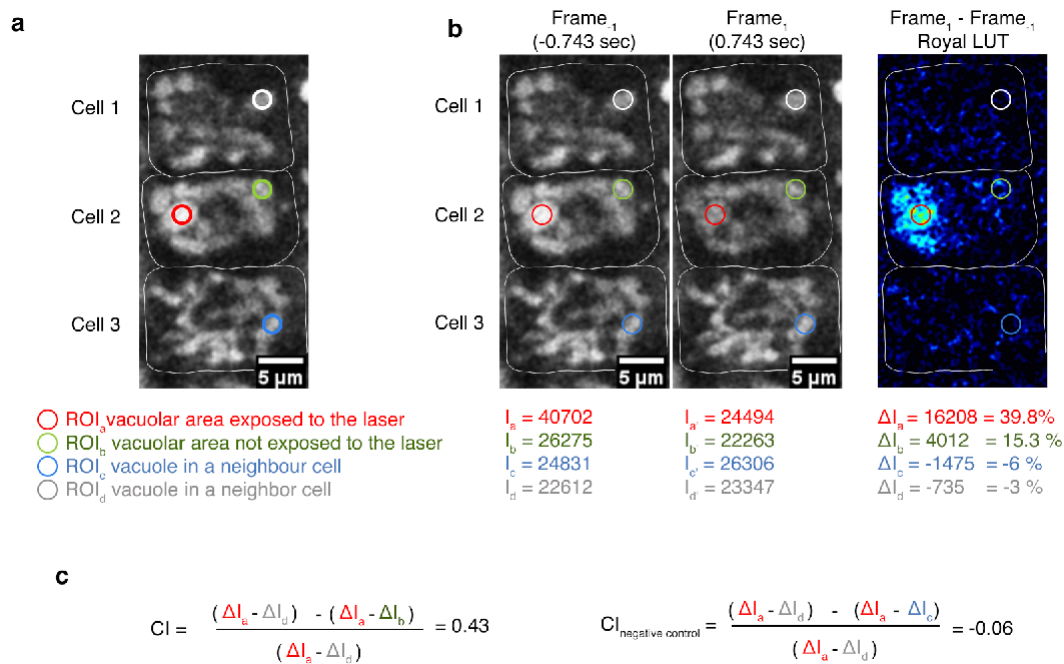


Figure S1. Connectivity Index allows quantitative comparison of fluorescence recovery in highly mobile vacuolar structures of young root cells.

(a) FRAP assay was performed according to the description provided in the Materials and Methods using transgenic Arabidopsis lines expressing red fluorescent marker for vacuolar lumen. An example of regions of interest (ROIs) selected on 3 cells, among which only the ROI1 in the cell 2 was exposed to high intensity laser. White lines indicate cell walls.

(b) Frame₋₁, was taken immediately before the start of photobleaching. Frame₁ was acquired right after photobleaching was finished. The numbers signify fluorescence intensity values within the regions of interest measured using ImageJ software.

To highlight the changes in the intensity caused by photobleaching, Frame₁ image was subtracted from Frame₋₁ image using ImageJ "Calculator" function. The resulting image was color-coded using Royal LUT, lighter colors indicate bigger difference in the intensity. Numbers show fluorescence intensity decrease within the ROIs, which are presented in arbitrary units and as percent of the fluorescence signal within the corresponding ROI before photobleaching.

(c) Connectivity Index (CI) is calculated by comparing change in fluorescence in ROIs within the same cell and in neighbouring cells. Comparison of ROIs within the same cell reveals diffusion rate of the fluorophore within vacuolar structures of the cell. Comparison of ROIs located in different cells informs about fluctuations in fluorescence intensity caused by scanning and movement of the vacuoles. CI values higher than 0.1 indicate that fluorophore can diffuse between vacuolar structures of the cell. CI values lower than 0.1 indicate that the fluorophore is trapped within separated structures.

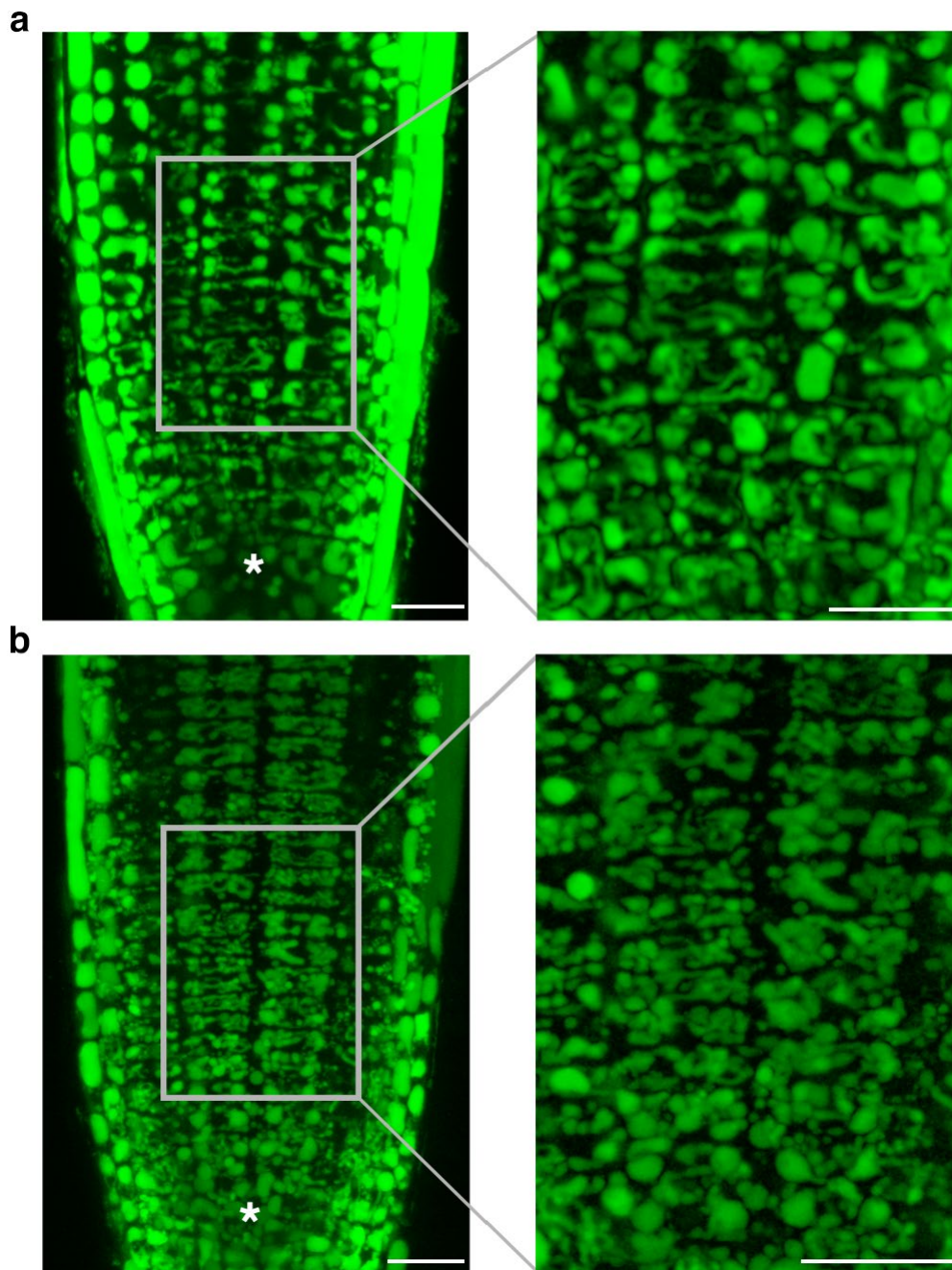


Figure S2. Young cortex cells of seedlings grown in two independent laboratories show similar tubular vacuolar network morphology.

(a) sprRFP-AFVY transgenic line was grown in the COS plant growth facility, University of Heidelberg, Germany. Five days old seedlings were stained with BCECF and imaged using Leica SP8 confocal microscope. Maximal projection of the BCECF channel for the part of the z-stack shows intricate tubular network in the young cells proximal to the quiescent center.

(b) Col-0 wild type seedlings were grown in the plant facility of Uppsala BioCenter, SLU, Sweden. Five days old seedlings were stained with BCECF and imaged using Zeiss LSM 800 confocal microscope. Maximal projection of the BCECF channel shows young cortex cells containing tubular vacuolar network similar to the one shown on (a).

*, QC. Scale bar: 20 μ m.