A cell type-specific multiomics uncovers a guard cell-specific RAF15-SnRK2.6/OST1 kinase cascade

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SUMMARY

Multicellular organisms such as plants contain different cell types with specialized functions. Analyzing the characteristics of each cell type reveals specific cell functions and enhances understanding of organization and function at the organismal level. Here we report a highly-sensitive and efficient cell type-specific multiomics pipeline, combining simplified flow cytometry-based cell sorting for fluorescent protoplasts and optimized nanoscale proteomics and metabolomics methods, which allow in-depth analysis of the proteomes and metabolomes of a particular cell type. Using this method, we quantitatively compared the proteomes and metabolomes of guard cells and mesophyll cells and revealed that the enrichment of signal transduction-related proteins enables guard cells to respond rapidly to various environmental stimuli. We uncovered a guard cell-specific kinase cascade whereby RAF15 and OST1 mediate ABA-induced stomatal closure. This pipeline can be applied to various cell types in plant or non-plant systems to learn how cells function in highly organized multicellular organisms.

INTRODUCTION

Multicellular organisms such as plants contain different cell types with specialized structures and functions. Dissecting the specific structural and functional information in each cell type is essential to understanding how a particular cell type works and how different cells integrate into a complex organism. Recently, the breakthrough of nucleic-acid-amplification-based DNA and RNA sequencing technologies allowed us to mine the transcriptional heterogeneity in different plant tissues [1-3]. Generally, current single-cell transcriptome techniques use high-throughput and limited depth sequencing of thousands of cells, which enables rapid identification of rare and novel cell types, simultaneous characterization of multiple different cell types and states, and identification of unique marker genes in each cluster/cell type [1]. After understanding the transcriptional heterogeneity of cells, it is necessary to perform in-depth analyses of the proteome, including post-translational modifications (PTMs), and metabolome to understand the specialized structure, function, signal transduction, and metabolism in a particular type/cluster of cells.

However, because proteins cannot be amplified *in vitro* like DNA/mRNA, even cutting-edge mass spectrometry can only identify about 1,000 proteins in a single mammalian cell [4,5]. Comprehensively analyzing the proteome in a single cell is still challenging [6]. Alternatively, enriching for a particular type of plant cell is a realizable approach for in-depth proteomics [7]. However, until now, such single-cell-type proteomics was mainly performed in limited cell types that can easily be isolated, including pollen [8-11], guard cell (GC)[12-14], and mesophyll cell (MC). GC is a specialized epidermal cell that plays an important role in gaseous exchange in and out of plant leaves by regulating the opening and closing of the

stomas. Using GC protoplasts (GCP) isolated by enzyme digestion and centrifugation, several

groups performed pioneering single-cell-type proteomic studies in Arabidopsis, *Brassica*

napus, and maize, and discovered unique proteins, signal transduction pathways, or

metabolism that determine the particular function and development of GC [12-15]. Using

fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) and GeLC-MS/MS (in-gel tryptic digestion

followed by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry), proteomic analyses

identified nearly 2,000 proteins from six different cell types in the Arabidopsis root tips [16]. A

similar study compared the proteomes in epidermal and inner cell lines in Arabidopsis root [17].

However, current methods are applicable to limited cell types and require millions of cells,

and the efficiency of cell acquirement and the sensitivity of proteomics needs to be improved.

Here, we used a FACS method to enrich for fluorescent protoplasts. Combining with an

optimized nanoscale label-free MS analysis method, we set up a cell type-specific pipeline

applicable to proteomics and metabolomics studies of GC and MC, as well as root epidermal

cells in Arabidopsis and rice. This pipeline allowed us to identify more than 4,500 proteins

and 1,600 metabolites in guard cell protoplasts (GCP) and mesophyll cell protoplasts (MCP),

using standard commercial mass-spectrometry machines. Quantitative comparison of GCP

and MCP revealed the enrichment of signaling components in GC that may enable GC to

respond to various environmental stimuli quickly. We uncovered a unique GC-specific

RAF15-SnRK2.6 kinase cascade based on these data, which has a crucial role in

ABA-induced stomatal closure. This pipeline can be applied to various cell types in plant or

non-plant systems to learn how cells work in highly organized multicellular organisms.

RESULTS

A cell-sorting-based proteomics pipeline for limited plant samples

We set up a FACS method to enrich for fluorescent protoplasts (Figure 1A). We used the

pGC1::GFP transgenic plants [18], which carry GC-specific expressed GFP, as a model system

to test our pipeline. The *pGC1::GFP* leaves were digested into protoplasts, and after removal

of tissue fragments by filtration, the protoplasts were subjected to FACS (Figures 1B and 1C).

This simplified cell sorting procedure works well to isolate hundreds to millions of GCP from

Arabidopsis leaves. We typically isolated up to 10,000 fluorescent GCP from 0.2 g leaf tissue

(about 4-6 mature leaves from 3-week-old seedlings). We also optimized a nanoscale protein

extraction and digestion procedure (Figure 1A). The enriched fluorescent GCP were lysed in

sodium lauroyl sarcosinate (SLS)-sodium deoxycholate (SDC) buffer and directly subjected

to trypsin digestion in a single microcentrifuge tube to avoid protein loss in precipitation and

transferring (Figure 1A). After one-step desalting on C18 Stage-Tip, the peptides were

subjected to LC-MS/MS analysis (Figure 1A). Compared to the guanidine chloride (Gdn-Cl)

method optimized for medium-scale plant tissue extract [19,20], the simplified SLS-SDC method

allowed us to identify more peptides/proteins, especially for hundreds to thousands of

protoplasts. For example, we identified 2,827 peptides, representing 1,012 proteins, from

about 500 GCP with the SLS-SDC method, which is nearly two-fold more than with the

Gdn-Cl method (Figures 1D, 1E and S1, Dataset S1). The Gdn-Cl method acquired more

peptides/proteins from 5,000, and 10,000 protoplasts (Figures 1D and S1), probably because

precipitation and resuspension remove metabolites and improve the subsequent enzyme

digestion and MS detection. Therefore, our pipeline is suitable for proteomics analysis in

samples with limited material.

The proteomics pipeline can be applied to different cell types

To test if this pipeline is applicable to other types of fluorescent cells, we enriched for

protoplasts of root cells in *DR5 rev::GFP* transgenic Arabidopsis (Figures 2A and 2B), a

marker line for auxin response [21]. We obtained an average of 6,871 peptides, representing

1,950 proteins, from approximately 1,000 fluorescent protoplasts of *DR5 rev::GFP* (Figure

2C and Dataset S2). GO analysis revealed that proteins involved in root development, auxin

transport, translation, response to cold, oxidative stress, and embryo development are

enriched in *DR5 rev::GFP* fluorescent protoplasts (Figure S2A and Dataset S2).

A recent single-cell transcriptome study in rice revealed that

pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7 is strongly expressed in atrichoblasts in rice root tips [22]. We

obtained 8,149 peptides, representing 2,232 proteins, from approximately 1,000 fluorescent

protoplasts of *pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7* (Figures 2D-F, Dataset S3). Consistent with the

finding that some atrichoblast-enriched genes are involved in cell wall biosynthesis [22], we

found server GO terms like Go:0071669 (plant-type cell wall organization or biogenesis) and

GO:0071554 (cell wall organization or biogenesis) in the proteins identified in the fluorescent

protoplasts of *pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7* (Dataset S3). Other enriched GO terms included

oxoacid and cellular ketone metabolic processes, transport, and glycolysis (Figure S2B and

Dataset S3). Therefore, our pipeline is useful for studying a variety of plant cell types.

In-depth proteomics analysis of GCP and MCP

Encouraged by this result, we further performed label-free quantitative proteomics from 1 μg

total protein extract from GCP (about 30,000 cells) and MCP (about 15,000 cells) to acquire

in-depth proteomic profiles of GCP and MCP. We identified a total of 27,511 peptides,

representing 4,622 proteins, in GCP, and 25,235 peptides, representing 4,237 proteins, in

MCP (Figure 3A, Dataset S4 and S5). Among these proteins, 526 proteins were identified at

least once in the three biological replicates of GCP, but not in any sample of the MCP, and

141 proteins were only detected in MCP (Figure 3A, Dataset S4 and S5). We also performed

a quantitative comparison of the GCP and MCP proteomes (Dataset S6-8). As shown in

Figures 3B and 3C, 2,483 proteins showed enrichment in GCP (FC > 2, $p < 0.05$) (Dataset

S7). Some proteins involved in stomatal development/function were present in the list of

GCP enriched proteins (Figures 3D-F). FAMA and Inducer of CBF Expression 1 (ICE1)/

SCREAM (SCRM) govern GC mother division and promote GC differentiation [23]. FAMA,

ICE1/SCRM, and their interacting protein, the Third Largest Subunit of Nuclear

DNA-dependent Pol II (NRPB3), were present in the list of GCP enriched proteins ($p < 0.05$)

[24]. After forming GC, STOMATAL CARPENTER 1 (SCAP1) is required to develop

functional stomata [25]. MYB DOMAIN PROTEIN 60 (MYB60) involved in the stomatal

movement is a known target of SCAP1 [25]. Both SCAP1 and MYB60 were only present in

GCP, not in MCP, in our study. Besides these proteins for stomatal development, we also

noticed that known regulators of GC intensity, like MUS, SCD1, and PHYB, were enriched

in GC (Figure 3E). Many key components of stomatal movement regulation in response to

blue light (BL), high CO_2, and abscisic acid (ABA) were also enriched in GCP (Figure 3F).

For example, BETA CARBONIC ANHYDRASE 4 (BCA4) [26], HIGH LEAF

TEMPERATURE 1 (HT1) [27], and CONVERGENCE OF BLUE LIGHT AND CO_2 1

(CBC1)/CBC2 [28], mediating CO_2-induced stomatal movement, and blue light receptors

CRYPTOCHROME 2 (CRY2) and PHOT2 [29], the PHOT2 substrate BLUE LIGHT

SIGNALING1 (BLUS1) [30] and BLUE LIGHT-DEPENDENT H^+-ATPase

PHOSPHORYLATION (BHP) [31], were present in the list of GCP enriched proteins. A recent

study suggested that glucose, not malate, is the major starch-derived metabolite in GC for

rapid stomatal opening [32]. The b-AMYLASE1 (BAM1) [32], a glucan hydrolase, and

ATP-BINDING CASSETTE B14 (ABCB14) [33], the malate transporter, were enriched in GCP.

Consistently, the enriched KEGG pathway and enriched GO terms in the GCP were mainly

related to transport, RNA degradation, and responses to ABA, cold, and osmotic stress

(Figures 3G, S3, and Dataset S9).

There were 664 proteins only present or enriched (FC > 2, $p < 0.05$) in MCP (Figures 3B,

3C, and Dataset S8). Notably, 546 out of these 664 proteins are known to be components of

chloroplast (GO term 0009507). Other enriched GO terms of MCP enriched proteins included

photosynthesis, photorespiration, pigment, chlorophyll metabolic process, electron transport

chain, and response to radiation and light stimulus. These data supported the dominant role of

MC in photosynthesis (Dataset S9).

Metabolomics analysis of GCP and MCP

To determine the metabolite differences between GCP and MCP, we also performed

untargeted metabolomics using approximately 100,000 GCP or MCP and detected 1,678

metabolites (Dataset S10). Principal component analysis indicated a clear separation of the

metabolomes in the two different cell types (Figure 4A). We found 260 metabolites

significantly ($\log_2$ ratio > 0.26, p < 0.05, unpaired two-tail t-test) enriched in GCP compared

to MCP, and 530 metabolites enriched in MCP compared to GCP (Figures 4B and 4C,

Dataset S10). Pathway enrichment analysis of the differentially accumulated metabolites

indicated an over-representation of metabolites derived from flavone and flavonol

biosynthesis (Figure 4D, Dataset S10).

We also performed an integrative analysis combining the proteomics and metabolomics

data to reveal the GC-specific metabolic pathway. Several intermediates in

flavonoid/phenylpropanoid metabolic pathways, like

Kaempferol-3-glucoside-7-O-rhamnoside, Kaempferol, Rutin, and Afzelin, were highly

enriched in the GCP ($p < 0.05$, unpaired two-tailed t-test) (Figure S4A). Consistently, the

enzymes catalyzing flavonoid/phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, like Flavonol Synthase 1

(FLS1), Flavanone 3-hydroxylase (F3H), Transparent Testa 5 (TT5), and Chalcone Isomerase

Like (CHIL), were highly accumulated in GCP (Figure 4E and S4B). Previous studies

suggested a crucial role of flavonoids in scavenging reactive oxygen species (ROS) in GC

[34-36]. The enrichments of these enzymes and metabolites suggest their potential roles in

regulating flavonoid metabolism and ROS homeostasis in the GC.

The quick opening and closing of stomata largely depend on the structure of the cell

walls [37]. In *gpat4/gpat8*, a mutant lacking two glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferases (GPAT)

required for cutin biosynthesis, the cuticular ledges between GC are defect [38]. Our data

showed that several enzymes in cutin biosynthesis, including GPAT4, GPAT8, and a

short-chain dehydrogenase ECERIFERUM 3 (CER3), are highly accumulated in GCP

(Dataset S7). Supporting this notion, some enzymes and metabolites in the fatty acid

biosynthesis and elongation pathway were highly accumulated in GCP (Figure 4D and S4B).

GC-enriched RAF15 mediates OST1 activation and stomatal closure

We then systemically surveyed the presence of known ABA signaling components in GCP

and MCP. Dozens of known ABA signaling components showed a GC-enriched pattern, and

only very few components had a higher abundance in MCP than in GCP (Figure 5A). For

example, the ABA receptors PYR1, PYL1, and PYL2 showed 65.8-, 5.6-, and 446-fold

enrichment, respectively, in GCP, while PYL4 was only detected in the GCP, not in the MCP

(Figure 5B). SnRK2.6/OST1 (a master regulator of stomatal movement) and ABI2 showed

34.0- and 4.9-fold enrichment, respectively, in GCP (Figure 5B). By contrast, ABI1 showed

an accumulation in MCP (Figure 5B). To our surprise, the B2 and B3 subgroup RAF kinases,

known to phosphorylate and activate SnRK2.2, SnRK2.3, and SnRK2.6/OST1 in response to

ABA [39-41], were not detected/enriched in our proteomics result (Figure 5B). This suggested

that kinases other than B2 and B3 RAFs may contribute to ABA-induced SnRK2.6/OST1

activation and stomata closure.

Our GCP proteomics identified RAF15 (AT3G58640) in the B1 subgroup, BHP/RAF27

in the C1 subgroup, HT1/RAF19 in the C5 subgroup, RAF28 in the C6 subgroup, and

CBC1/RAF38, CBC2/RAF33, and AtMRK1/RAF48 in the C7 group (Figure 5C).

Consistently, most of these genes showed higher expression in GCP than in MCP (Figures

S5A and 5B). Using a transient expression assay system in MCP of OK^{100}-*nonu,* which lacks

most members of the B2 and B3 RAFs involved in ABA signaling, and has very low

expression of SnRK2.6/OST1, we evaluated the function of these B1 and C subgroup RAFs

in ABA signaling [41]. Co-transfection of SnRK2.6/OST1 alone did not rescue the expression

of ABA-induced *RD29B-LUC* in MCP of *OK^{100}-nonu* (Figure 5D). However, co-transfection

of RAF15, BHP/RAF27, HT1/RAF19, CBC1/RAF38, or MRK1/RAF48, but not RAF28 or

CBC2/RAF33, rescued the expression of ABA-induced *RD29B-LUC* in MCP of *OK^{100}-nonu*

(Figure 5D). An *in vitro* kinase assay showed that full-length HT1/RAF19 or RAF15, out of

the five tested RAFs, could directly phosphorylate SnRK2.6^{KR}, a kinase "dead" form of

SnRK2.6/OST1 (Figure 5E). Two serine residues in the activation loop of SnRK2.6/OST1,

Ser171 and Ser175, are known to be phosphorylated by B2 and B3 RAFs, and their

phosphorylation is essential for SnRK2.6/OST1 activation [22,42,43]. Site-direct mutagenesis of

Ser171 and Ser175 showed that RAF15 mainly phosphorylates the Ser175 in SnRK2.6 and

the Ser175Ala mutation abolished the phosphorylation of SnRK2.6/OST1 by RAF15 (Figure

5F). Neither Ser171 nor Ser175 was the HT1/RAF19 phosphosite in SnRK2.6/OST1 (Figure

S5C).

We then tested if RAF15 could reactivate the dephosphorylated inactive form SnRK2.6

(de-SnRK2.6). We used an adenosine triphosphate (ATP) analog-based *in vitro* kinase assay

system, which can distinguish the trans- and autophosphorylation of SnRK2.6, to monitor the

activity of SnRK2.6/OST1 [41]. A Met94Gly (M94G) mutation in SnRK2.6/OST1 enlarges its

ATP binding pocket, which can use the ATP analog N^6-Benzyl-ATPγS to thiophosphorylate

itself or its substrate [41]. By this method, thiophosphorylation by activated SnRK2.6^{M94G} can

be detected with an anti-thiophosphate ester antibody that only recognizes the

thiophosphorylation. As shown in Figure 5G, pre-dephosphorylated SnRK2.6^{M94G}

(de-SnRK2.6^{M94G}) had no auto-thiophosphorylation activity (lanes 2-6). Application of the

recombinant kinase domain of RAF15 (RAF15-KD) quickly induced the

auto-thiophosphorylation of SnRK2.6^{M94G} in a time-dependent manner (lanes 7-10),

suggesting that RAF15-mediated phosphorylation is sufficient to reactivate SnRK2.6^{M94G} *in*

vitro, in the context of the auto-thiophosphorylation activity of SnRK2.6^{M94G}. We then

examined SnRK2.6^{M94G} activity by detecting the thiophosphorylation of ABA☐responsive

element☐binding factor 2 (ABF2), a well-studied SnRK2 substrate. Adding RAF15-KD

initiated the thiophosphorylation of SnRK2.6^{M94G} and ABF2 (Figure 5H, lanes 4 and 5). Thus,

transphosphorylation by RAF15-KD is sufficient to reactivate the dephosphorylated

SnRK2.6/OST1. Unlike RAF15-KD, HT1/RAF19-KD did not reactivate the

dephosphorylated inactive de-SnRK2.6 in the *in vitro* activation system (Figure 5I, lane 3 and

4).

We also tested the ABA-induced stomatal closure in *raf15-1* and *raf15-2*, two T-DNA

mutant lines of *RAF15* (Figure S5D). Both *raf15-1* and *raf15-2* showed a significantly

impaired stomatal closure in response to ABA, compared to wild type (unpaired two-tailed

t-test, p < 0.001) (Figure 5J). RAF13 in the B1 subgroup also phosphorylated Ser171 and

reactivated SnRK2.6^{KR} *in vitro* (Figures 5I, lane 5 and 6 and S5E). Another B1 RAF, RAF14,

had weak kinase activity and did not phosphorylate SnRK2.6^{KR} *in vitro* (Figure S5F).

However, the abundance of *RAF13* and *RAF14* mRNA in GC was much less than that of

RAF15 mRNA (Figure S5A), and RAF13 and RAF14 protein was not detected in our GC

proteomics (Dataset S4). We also noticed that all three members of the B1 RAF subgroup

failed to phosphorylate SnRK2.4^{KR}, one of the ABA-independent SnRK2s (Figure S5G).

Thus, GC-enriched RAF15 may have a unique role in stomatal closure through specifically

mediating ABA-induced SnRK2.6/OST1 activation (Figure 5K).

DISCUSSION

Here, by optimizing the sample preparation and detection procedures, we developed a

cell-sorting-based nanoscale pipeline that allows in-depth profiling of the proteome and

metabolome of various cell types in plants. We can routinely isolate up to 10,000 protoplasts

from a few leaves of Arabidopsis seedlings and identify more than 4,500 unique proteins and

1,600 metabolites in GCP. Compared to pioneering studies that identified approximately

2,000 proteins from 1,000,000 root cell protoplasts [16], and 2,000 proteins and 300 metabolites

from 3×10^8 GCP [13,44], our method showed a significantly improved sensitivity and

efficiency. Importantly, this pipeline is also applicable to root cells in both Arabidopsis and

rice, suggesting the potential of this pipeline in multiomics analysis in different cells from

different plant species and even non-plant systems. Combined with the

single-cell-transcriptomics that identify unique marker genes for each cell group, we may

generate fluorescent transgenic lines and perform cell-specific multiomics in each cell type in

a tissue or even organism. In the future, this pipeline may also be applied to the sorting and

enrichment of different organelles for spatial proteomics to understand the localization and

dynamics of proteins in cells [45]. Such enriched cells or organelles could also be used for PTM

proteomics to further reveal functional regulation at the proteome level.

As a FACS method, the protoplast isolation method for each cell type needs to be

optimized. A few hours' enzymatic digestion with cellulase/macrozyme and

high-concentration mannitol may affect the stability or modification of some proteins, which

limits the application of this pipeline in stimulus-responsive proteomics analysis. It is also

limited to species than can be transformed. We noticed that some RAFs, e.g., RAF6, that are

highly expressed in GC (Figure S5A) were not identified in our GC proteomics, and this

might be due to degradation in protoplast/sample preparation. In addition, we failed to obtain

enough quiescent center (QC) cells from *WOX5::ERGFP* transgenic plants, which might be

due to the limitation of cytometry to isolate a cell type with such low abundance. In the future,

new methods like magnetic-activated cell sorting may be helpful to isolate and perform

multiomics analysis in such cell types.

The in-depth analysis of proteome and metabolome in GC allows us for the first time to

uncover the molecular basis that determines the highly specialized structure and function of

GC. SnRK2.6/OST1 is the master regulator in stomatal movement, and dysfunction of OST1

in *ost1* results in an open stomata phenotype even upon drought conditions or pathogen

attacks [46,47]. Under unstressed conditions, OST1 is dephosphorylated and inhibited by the A

Clade PP2C phosphatases [48]. Upon stress conditions, ABA binds to ABA receptor

PYR1/PYL/RCAR proteins, and the ABA/receptor complex inhibits PP2Cs [49-52].

Recombinant SnRK2.6 was considered to be auto-reactivated after being released from

PP2C-mediated inhibition [42]. However, recent studies suggested that B2 and B3 subgroup

RAF-mediated transphosphorylation is essential for the reactivation of ABA-dependent

SnRK2.2, SnRK2.3, and SnRK2.6/OST1 [39-41,43,53]. The high-order mutant of B2 and B3

RAFs, *OK[100]-nonu*, shows an ABA-hyposensitive phenotype in germination and seedling

growth, resembling the phenotype of *snrk2.2/2.3/2.6* triple and *pyl112458* high-order mutants

[41]. However, although much insensitive to ABA than the wild type, the stomata of

OK^{100}-nonu, which are still partially closed upon application of ABA, are not identical to

those of *snrk2.2/2.3/2.6* triple and *pyl112458* high-order mutants [41]. Here we showed that the

GC-enriched B1 subgroup RAF15 also phosphorylates SnRK2.6/OST1 and mediates ABA

signaling in GC. Consistently, the *raf15* single mutant already shows impaired stomatal

closure in response to ABA. A very recent study suggested that RAF6, a member of the B3

RAF subgroup, has a dominant role in the rapid vapor pressure difference of GC [54]. Both

RAF6 and *RAF15* are highly expressed in GCP, compared to MCP (Figure S5A). Thus, the

twenty-two B subgroup RAFs and ten SnRK2s may form complex kinase networks, and

different cell types may have unique RAF-SnRK2 cascades. The cell-type specialized

signaling pathways may ensure that different cells, depending on developmental stage,

nutrition status, or microenvironment, respond to similar environmental clues differentially

and precisely.

Besides providing clues for discovering the GC-specific RAF15-SnRK2.6/OST1 kinase

cascade, our multiomics data also suggest the molecular basis for some long-standing

questions in GC structure and function. For example, we found that enzymes in flavone

metabolism are highly enriched in GC. Consistently, intermediates in the flavone biosynthesis

pathway are also accumulated in GC, which may ensure the maintenance of ROS

homeostasis in GC. Our in-depth proteomics and metabolomics data of GC could be a

valuable resource for future study of the structure, signaling, function, or even development

and differentiation of GC.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

P.W. designed the research. H.W., J.R. and Q.G. performed research. H.W., R.L., T.S., C.K.,

S.D., and C.-P.S. performed data analysis. H.W., R.L., C.K., C.-C.H., and C.-P.S. wrote the

manuscript.

DELARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. The cell-sorting-based nano-scale pipeline for isolating and proteomic analysis of guard cell protoplasts. a. Workflow of the cell-sorting-based nanoscale pipeline for single-cell (type) proteomics. The fluorescent protoplasts were sorted by cytometry after enzymatic digestion and filtration. Protein extraction and trypsin digestion were performed in a single microcentrifuge tube, and after desalting through the C18 Stage-Tip, the peptides were subjected to LC-MS/MS. **b.** Fluorescent images showing the GFP fluorescence of *pGC1::GFP* transgenic leaves (left, Bar=50 μm) and sorted GCPs (right, Bar=50 μm). **c.** Representative flow cytometry scatter plots for *pGC1::GFP* (left) and wild type control (WT, right). **d.** The number of peptides (left) and proteins (right) identified from the indicated number of GCPs. **f.** Heatmap showing the number of peptides in each protein detected by SLS-SDC or Gdn-Cl buffers from the indicated number of GCPs.

Figure 2. Proteomic analysis of *DR5 rev::GFP* and *pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7* fluorescent protoplasts. a. Image showing the fluorescence of *DR5 rev::GFP* transgenic seedling roots. Bar=50 μm. **b.** Representative flow cytometry scatter plots for *DR5 rev::GFP* (left) and wild type control (right). **c.** The number of peptides and proteins identified from approximately 1,000 *DR5-rev::GFP* fluorescent protoplasts. **d.** Image showing the fluorescence of root in *pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7* transgenic rice seedling. Bar=50 μm. **e.** Representative flow cytometry scatter plots for *pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7* (left) and wild type (WT, right). **f.** The number of peptides and proteins identified from approximately 1,000 *pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7* transgenic rice fluorescent protoplasts.

Figure 3. Quantitative comparison of GCP and MCP proteome. a. Venn diagram showing

the overlap between the proteins and peptides identified from GCP and MCP

proteomes. **b.** Volcano plot of differentially up-regulated (upper panel) or down-regulated

(bottom panel) proteins in the proteome of GCPs and MCPs. On the y-axis, the negative

log10 values are plotted. On the x-axis, the log2 values of the fold change are seen in the

comparison. **c.** Heatmap showing the quantitative comparison of proteins in GCP and MCP

proteomes. **d**. Some known proteins that function in GC development are present in the

proteome of GCP. **e**. Some known proteins that function in the regulation of GC intensity are

present in the proteome of GCP. Yellow circles highlight proteins detected in GCPs. **f.** Some

known proteins that function in stomatal movement in response to ABA, CO_2 and blue light

(BL) are enriched in GCPs. All proteins listed in this panel show higher abundance in GCPs

than that in MCPs (FC > 2, $p < 0.05$). **g.** Cnetplot generated by ClusterProfiler indicating

proteins associated with enriched KEGG pathways; dots in light brown represent KEGG

pathways, with the size of dots determined by the number of proteins belonging to the

pathway. Small dots of the same size represent proteins, the dot color is determined by fold

changes of protein abundance of GCP/MCP.

Figure 4. Quantitative comparison of GCP and MCP metabolome. a. PCA analysis of

metabolome of the 11 MCP and 11 GCP samples. **b.** Heatmap showing the quantitative

comparison of metabolites in GCP and MCP metabolome. **c.** Volcano plot showing the

quantitative comparison of metabolites in GCP and MCP metabolome. **d.** Pathway analysis of

metabolites differentially accumulated in GCP and MCP. **e.** The protein-metabolite joint

pathway analysis of phenylalanine/flavonoid metabolism between GCP and MCP. The

metabolites, proteins, and their relationships are derived from the phenylpropanoid

biosynthesis pathway (ath:00940) and the flavonoid biosynthesis pathway (ath:00941) in the

KEGG database. The enzymes enriched in GCP or MCP, respectively, are colored with red or

blue. Grey indicates that the enzyme has not been detected by proteomics, but it is

indispensable in phenylpropane metabolism pathway.

Figure 5. RAF15 mediated SnRK2.6/OST1 activation and ABA signaling in GC. a.

Presence of ABA signaling components in the GC and MC proteomes. **b.** Relative protein

abundance of ABA receptor PYR1/PYLs, PP2C phosphatases, and SnRK2s in the GC and

MC proteomes. **c.** Relative protein abundance of B and C subgroup RAFs in the GC and MC

proteomes. **d.** Activation of the reporter gene by the combinations of RAFs with SnRK2.6 in

the protoplasts of *OK^{100}-nonu*. The ratio of *RD29B-LUC* expression in the protoplasts with 5

µM ABA relative to that without ABA treatment was used to indicate the activation activity

of different RAFs on SnRK2.6. Error bars, SEM (n = 6 individual transfections). **e.**

Recombinant full-length RAF was used to phosphorylate SnRK2.6^{KR} (SnRK2.6^{K50R}, a

kinase-dead form of SnRK2.6), in the presence of [γ-^{32}p]ATP. Autoradiograph (upper) and

Coomassie staining (bottom) show phosphorylation and loading, respectively, of purified

GST-HT1/RAF19, GST-MRK1/RAF48, GST-BHP/RAF27, GST-RAF38, HIS-RAF15, and

HIS-SnRK2.6^{KR}. **f.** Ser175Ala mutation abolished RAF15 phosphorylation on SnRK2.6^{KR}.

Recombinant full-length HIS-RAF15 was used to phosphorylate HIS-SnRK2.6^{KR},

SnRK2.6^{KR} with Ser171Ala mutation (SnRK2.6$^{KR-S171A}$), SnRK2.6^{KR} with Ser175Ala

mutation (SnRK2.6$^{KR-S175A}$), or SnRK2.6^{KR} proteins with Ser171AlaSer175Ala mutations

(SnRK2.6^{KR-AA}), in the presence of [γ-^{32}p]ATP. Autoradiograph (upper) and Coomassie

staining (bottom) show phosphorylation and loading, respectively, of purified RAF and HIS-

SnRK2.6^{KR}. **g.** RAF15-KD triggers the autophosphorylation of pre-dephosphorylated

GST-SnRK2.6^{M94G} (de-SnRK2.6^{M94G}). Anti γ-S immunoblot (upper) and Coomassie staining

(lower) show thiophosphorylation and loading, respectively, of recombinant GST-RAF15-KD

and GST-SnRK2.6^{M94G}. **h.** RAF15-KD activates pre-dephosphorylated GST-SnRK2.6^{M94G}

(de-SnRK2.6^{M94G}) and the reactivated SnRK2.6^{M94G} phosphorylates itself and ABF2. Anti γ-S

immunoblot (left) and Coomassie staining (right) show thiophosphorylation and loading,

respectively, of recombinant GST-RAF15-KD, GST-SnRK2.6^{M94G}, and GST-ABF2. Images

shown are representative of at least two independent experiments. **i.** RAF13-KD, but not HT1,

triggers the autophosphorylation of pre-dephosphorylated GST-SnRK2.6^{M94G}

(de-SnRK2.6^{M94G}). Anti γ-S immunoblot (upper) and Coomassie staining (lower) show

thiophosphorylation and loading, respectively, of recombinant GST-RAF13-KD,

GST-HT1/RAF19-KD and GST-SnRK2.6^{M94G}. **j.** Stomatal closure of 4-week-old wild type

and *raf15* mutants in response to ABA. Error bars, SD (n = 176 to 210 individual stomates).

Unpaired two-tailed *t*-tests, *** p < 0.001. Box and whisker: 10–90 percentiles. **k.** Model

showing the different RAFs mediate ABA signaling by phosphorylating SnRK2s in different

cell type.

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difference response. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *118*. 10.1073/pnas.2107280118.

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636 **STAR Methods**

637 **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Anti-thiophosphate ester	Abcam	Cat#ab92570
Anti-actin	ABclonal	Cat#AC009
Bacterial and virus stains		
Escherichia coli DH5a	Widely dist	N/A
Arctic Express	Thermo Fis Scientific	Cat#CY50905
BL21 DE3	Widely dist	N/A
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
Abscisic Acid	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#A1049
Luciferase Assay Reagent	Promega	Cat#E1483
Cellulose R10	Yakult Pharmaceut Industry	Lot#210824-01
Cellulose Onozuka RS	Yakult Pharmaceut Industry	Lot#200116-01
Macrozyme R10	Yakult Pharmaceut Industry	Lot#210317-01
Pectolyase Y-23	Yakult Pharmaceut Industry	Cat#Y-011
Polyvinyl pyrrolidone 40,000	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#V900008
MES	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#M3671
Sorbitol	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#S1876
Mannitol	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#M9647
Sodium lauroyl sarcosinate	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#L5777
Sodium deoxycholate	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#30970
Bovine serum albumin	Yeasen Bio	Cat#36101ES60
L-ascorbic acid	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#95209
TCEP	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#C4706
TEAB	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#T7408
Trypsin	Promega	Cat#V5113
Guanidine chloride	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#G3272
CAA	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#C0267
Formic acid	Merck	Cat#5.43804
Acetonitrile	Honeywell	Cat#34967
C^{18} resin	CDS Analy	Cat#2240

	LLC Headq	
Lambda Protein Phosphatase	NEB	Cat#P0753S
Glutathione Sepharose	Cytiva	Cat#17513202
$CaCl_2$	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#C7902
KCl	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#P3911
$MgCl_2$	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#M9272
β-Mercaptoethanol	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#M6250
PEG4000	Sigma-Aldr	Lot#BCBZ5475
Trans-1,2-diaminocyclo-hexane-N,N,N',N',-tetraacetic acid (DACTAA)	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#D-1383
4-methylumbelliferyl glucuronide (MUG)	Gold Bio Technology	Cat#MUG-1G
Triton X-100	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#T-8787
DTT	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#D-9779
Na_2CO_3	Sigma-Aldr	Cat#S7795
$γ$-^{32}P-ATP	PerkinElme	Cat#NEG502Z500UC
N^6-Benzyl-ATPγS	Abcam	Cat#ab138911
p-nitrobenzyl mesylate	Abcam	Cat#ab138910
Deposited Data		
Raw Imaging Files	This study, Mendeley I	doi:10.17632/2zchtvbv58.1
Experimental Models: Organisms/strains		
pGC1::GFP	Yang et al.	N/A
DR5rev::GFP	Benková et	N/A
pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7	Zhang et al.	N/A
OK^{100}-nonu	Lin et al.[39]	N/A
raf15-1	This study	Salk_020351
raf15-2	This study	Salk_044414
Recombinant DNA		
RD29B-LUC	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
ZmUBQ-GUS	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pSAT6-FLAG	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pSAT6-AT1G62400-FLAG	This study	N/A
pSAT6-AT3G01490-FLAG	This study	N/A
pSAT6-AT3G58640-FLAG	This study	N/A
pSAT6-AT3G63260-FLAG	This study	N/A
pSAT6-AT4G18950-FLAG	This study	N/A
pSAT6-AT4G31170-FLAG	This study	N/A
pSAT6-AT5G50000-FLAG	This study	N/A
pSAT6-AT1G62400^{K113R}-FLAG	This study	N/A
pSAT6-AT3G58640^{K580R}-FLAG	This study	N/A

pGEX-4T-1-1G62400	This study	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-3G01490	This study	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-3G63260	This study	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-4G18950	This study	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-4G31170	This study	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-5G50000	This study	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-3G58640-KD	This study	N/A
pET-28a-3G58640	This study	N/A
pET-28a-SnRK2.6^{K50R}	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pET-28a-SnRK2.6$^{K50R-S171A}$	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pET-28a-SnRK2.6$^{K50R-S175A}$	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pET-28a-SnRK2.6$^{K50R-AA}$	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-SnRK2.6^{M94G}	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pET-28a-SnRK2.4^{K33R}	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-ABF2	Lin et al.[41]	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-2G31010-KD	This study	N/A
pGEX-4T-1-2G42640-KD	This study	N/A
Oligonucleotides		
Primers provided in Dataset 11		
Software		
Proteome Discoverer Version 2.4	Thermo Fis Scientific	N/A
Compound Discoverer Version 3.2	Thermo Fis Scientific	N/A
EXCEL software	Microsoft	N/A
Prism 9.3.0	GraphPad	N/A
Western Blot Touch Imager System	E-BLOT	N/A

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Pengcheng Wang (pcwang@cemps.ac.cn).

Materials availability

Plasmids and plant materials generated in this study are all available from the Lead Contact

upon request.

Data and code availability

• The proteomics data were deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium with the

dataset identifier PXD030489 and PXD030511, the metabolomics data were deposited

to MetaboLights with dataset identifier MTBLS3997.

• Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is

available from the lead contact upon request.

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EXPERIMENTAl MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Growth conditions and plant materials. The *pGC1::GFP* [18] and *DR5rev::GFP* [21] seeds

were sterilized in 75% ethanol and germinated on half-strength Murashige and Skoog (MS)

medium plates with 0.75 agar. After 7 days' growth on the plates, the *pGC1::GFP* seedlings

were transplanted to soil, and rosette leaves were harvested at the indicated time for

protoplast isolation.

The seeds of *pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7* transgenic rice [22] were grown in a

half-strength MS liquid medium in the growth chamber at 26 °C with 60% humidity (16 h

light/8 h dark). After 7 days, the root tips of the seedlings were harvested for protoplast

isolation.

METHOD DETAILS

Preparation of *Arabidopsis* GCP and MCP. The rosette leaves of three-week-old seedlings

of *pGC1::GFP* grown in the soil were blended for 10 s five times in 100 mL ice-cold water.

The blended mixture was filtered through a 100 µm mesh (Falcon) to remove the broken

mesophyll and epidermal cells. The peels were transferred into 20 mL enzyme solution

containing 1.35% cellulose R10 (Yakult Pharmaceutical Industry), 0.268% macrozyme R10

(Yakult Pharmaceutical Industry), 0.1% polyvinyl pyrrolidone 40,000 (PVP-40), 0.25%

bovine serum albumin (BSA), 0.5 mM L-ascorbic acid, 2.75 mM 2-[N-morpholino]

ethanesulfonic acid hydrate-Tris (MES), pH 5.5, 0.275 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.275 mM $MgCl_2$, 5.5 µM

KH_2PO_4, and 0.275 M sorbitol at 27 °C with shaking. After 1 h digestion, the peels were

filtered with 100 µm mesh and placed into 10 ml enzyme solution II containing 1.3%

cellulose Onozuka RS (Yakult Pharmaceutical Industry), 0.0075% Pectolyase Y-23 (Yakult

Pharmaceutical Industry), 0.25% BSA, 0.5 mM L-ascorbic acid, 5 mM MES, pH 5.5, 0.5 mM

$CaCl_2$, 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 µM KH_2PO_4 and 0.5 M sorbitol at 27 °C for 2 h. The digestion

mixture was filtered with 40 µm mesh (Falcon), and the GCP were collected by

centrifugation at $200 \times g$ for 5 min. The protoplasts were resuspended in the same solution

without enzyme and sorted using cytometry (ARIA III Cell sorter, BD bioscience) with the

GFP signal and single-cell pattern to isolate high purity (~ 100%) fluorescent protoplasts. The

indicated number of cells were collected by centrifugation and used for protein extraction for

LC-MS/MS.

For isolating Arabidopsis MCP, leaf strips were excised from the middle parts of young

rosette leaves, dipped in an enzyme solution containing 1.35% cellulase R10 (Yakult

Pharmaceutical Industry) and 0.268% macerozyme R10 (Yakult Pharmaceutical Industry),

and incubated at room temperature in the dark. The protoplast solution was diluted with an

equal volume of W5 solution (2 mM MES, pH 5.7, 154 mM NaCl, 125 mM $CaCl_2$, and 5

mM KCl) and filtered through a nylon mesh. The MCP were resuspended with 10 ml W5

buffer and sorted using cytometry (ARIA III Cell sorter, BD bioscience), using chloroplast's

autofluorescence to isolate high purity (~ 100%) fluorescent protoplasts. The indicated

number of cells were collected by centrifugation and used for protein extraction for

LC-MS/MS.

Preparation of Arabidopsis root cell fluorescent protoplasts. To isolate *DR5 rev::GFP*

fluorescent protoplasts, the root tip regions (about 0.5 cm from root tip) were cut from the

roots of 7-day-old Arabidopsis seedling. The root tips were digested for 2 h in enzyme

solution containing 1.5% cellulase R10, 1.5% macerozyme R10, 0.4 M mannitol, 10 mM KCl,

10 mM $CaCl_2$ and 0.1% BSA. The protoplasts were filtered with a 40 μm mesh (Falcon) and

centrifuged at $500 \times g$ for 6 min. The protoplasts were resuspended in 8% mannitol and

sorted using cytometry (FACS ARIA III Cell sorter, BD bioscience) with the GFP signal and

single-cell pattern to isolate high purity (~ 100%) fluorescent protoplasts. The indicated

number of cells were collected by centrifugation and used for protein extraction for

LC-MS/MS.

Preparation of fluorescent protoplasts of rice root cells. The root tips of 6-day old rice

seedlings were harvested and digested for 3 h at room temperature in an enzyme solution

containing 4% cellulose Onozuka RS, 1.5% macerozyme R10, 0.4 M mannitol, 0.1 M MES,

10 mM KCl, 10 mM $CaCl_2$, and 0.1% BSA with shaking every 30 min. The protoplasts were

filtered with a 40 μm mesh (Falcon) and centrifuged at $500 \times g$ for 6 min. The protoplasts

were resuspended in 8% mannitol and sorted using cytometry (BD bioscience, ARIA III Cell

sorter) with the GFP signal and single-cell pattern to isolate high purity (~ 100%) fluorescent

protoplasts. The indicated number of cells were collected by centrifugation and used for

protein extraction for LC-MS/MS.

Protein extraction and digestion. Two sample preparation workflows were compared for

the efficiency of protein extraction. GCP and MCP were lysed in SLS-SDC buffer (12 mM

sodium lauroyl sarcosinate (SDS), 12 mM sodium deoxycholate (SDC), 100 mM Tris-Cl, pH

8.5) or 6 M guanidine chloride (Gdn-Cl). All the lysis chemicals were dissolved in 100 mM

Tris-HCl (pH 8.5). Proteins were reduced and alkylated with 10 mM Tris (2-carboxyethyl)

phosphine hydrochloride (TCEP) and 40 mM 2-Chloroacetamide (CAA) at 95 °C for 10 min.

Proteins were then subjected to five cycles of ultrasonication pulses of 30 sec and pauses of

30 sec. Protein extracts were 5-fold diluted using 50 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate

(TEAB), and trypsin was subsequently added to a final 1:100 (w/w) enzyme-to-protein ratio

and incubated at 37 °C overnight. For the Gdn-Cl method, proteins were precipitated using

methanol-chloroform precipitation, and the precipitated protein pellet was air dried. The

pellet was suspended in SLS-SDC buffer and the SLS-SDC protocol for enzymatic digestion

and detergent precipitation followed. For both methods, the digested peptides were desalted

using a C18 StageTip.

LC-MS/MS analysis of proteome. The peptides were analyzed using Orbitrap Fusion

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) or timsTOF pro (Bruker) mass spectrometer. To analyze 1 μg of

GCP and MCP digests, the peptides were dissolved in 4 μL of 0.2% formic acid (FA) and

injected into an Easy-nLC 1200 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptides were separated on a 15

cm in-house packed column (360 μm OD × 75 μm ID) containing C18 resin (2.2 μm, 100 Å,

Michrom Bioresources). The mobile phase buffer consisted of 0.1% FA in ultra-pure water

(Buffer A) with an eluting buffer of 0.1% FA in 80% ACN (Buffer B) run over a linear 182

min gradient of 5–35% buffer B at a flow rate of 300 nL/min. The Easy-nLC 1200 was

coupled online with an Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid mass spectrometer. The mass spectrometer

was operated in the data-dependent acquisition (DDA) mode in which a full-scan MS (from

m/z 350–1500 with the resolution of 120,000) was followed by top speed higher-energy

collision dissociation (HCD) MS/MS scans of the most abundant ions with dynamic

exclusion for 60 s.

For the analysis of the digests of counted 250 to 10,000 GCP cells, the peptides were

dissolved in 4 μL of 0.2% FA and injected into nanoflow reversed-phase chromatography,

which was performed on an EASY-nLC 1200 system (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptides

were separated in 120 min at a flow rate of 300 nl min on a 25 cm × 75 μm column with a

laser-pulled electrospray emitter packed with 1.6 μm ReproSil-Pur C18-AQ particles. Mobile

phases A and B were water with 0.1 % FA and 80:20:0.1 % ACN: water: FA, respectively.

The fraction of B was linearly increased from 2% to 27% in 90 min, followed by an increase

to 46% in 22 min and a further increase to 100% in 3 min before re-equilibration. Liquid

chromatography was coupled online to a hybrid TIMS quadrupole TOF mass spectrometer

(timsTOF Pro) via a CaptiveSpray nano-electrospray ion source. The electrospray voltage

applied was 1.60 kV. Precursors and fragments were analyzed at the TOF detector, with a

MS/MS scan range from 300 to 1500m/z. The timsTOF Pro was operated in parallel

accumulation serial fragmentation (PASEF) mode. Precursors with charge states 2 to 3 were

selected for fragmentation, and 4 PASEF-MS/MS scans were acquired per cycle. The

dynamic exclusion was set to 24 s.

For the analysis of the proteome of fluorescent protoplasts of *DR5 rev::GFP* and

pOs01g0248900::VENUS-N7 root cells, peptides were separated using a Thermo UltiMate

3000 RSLC nano ProFlow system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a gradient comprised an

increase from 5% to 38% solvent buffer A (0.1% FA in water) over 80 min, 25%–38% in 15

min, increasing to 99% buffer B (80% ACN, 19.9% H_2O, 0.1% FA) over 1 min, and then

holding at 99% buffer B for the last 9 min, all at a constant flow rate of 100 nL/min. Samples

were separated over a 15 cm 100 C18. All samples were analyzed in a nanoscale liquid

chromatography (nLC)–MS/MS analysis of 100 min using an Eclipse + FAIMS mass

spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The mass spectrometer was operated in the

data-dependent mode in which a full-scan MS (from m/z 375–1500 with the Orbitrap

resolution of 240,000) was followed by Cycle 3 sec higher-energy collision dissociation (HCD)

MS/MS scans of the most abundant ions with dynamic exclusion for 60 s.

Un-targeted metabolomics analysis. Around 100,000 GCP and 100,000 MCP were

suspended in 500 μL of extraction solution (90% methanol). After ultrasonic homogenization

for 2 min and vortexing for 10 min, the samples were kept in the dark for 16 h, dried under

vacuum, resuspended in 50 μL 40% methanol in water, and centrifuged at $15,000 \times g$ for 30

min, 4 °C. The clear supernatants were loaded into injection vials and ready for

UHPLC-MS/MS.

For UHPLC-MS/MS assay, the vanquish-flex UHPLC system was coupled to Q Exactive

Plus (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for metabolite separation and detection. A Hypersil GOLD

column (2.1×100 mm.1.9 um; Thermo Fisher Scientific) was employed for compound

separation at 30 °C, and 1 μl of sample was loaded. The mobile phase A was HPLC grade

H_2O with 0.1% (v/v) FA and phase B was HPLC grade ACN. The gradient elution conditions

were set as follows: from 0 to 2 min, the mobile phase B increased to 10%; from 2 to 10 min,

the mobile phase B increased to 50%; from 10 to 10.1 min the mobile phase B increased to

80%; from 10.1 to 13 min, the mobile phase B was kept at 80%; from 13 to 14 min the

mobile phase B increased to 95%; from 14-18 min the mobile phase B decreased to 10%. The

flow rate was 0.3 mL/min.

The MS data acquisition was performed by the Q Exactive Plus system. In full scan

MS/ddMS^2 mode, the resolutions of full scan MS and ddMS^2 were set at 70,000 and 17,500,

respectively. The automatic gain control (AGC) target and maximum injection time in full

scan MS settings were 1^{e6} and 100 ms, while their values were 2^{e5} and 50 ms in ddMS^2

settings. The TopN (N, the number of top most abundant ions for fragmentation) was set to 8,

and collision energy was set to 20%, 40% and 60%. A heated ESI source was used at positive

and negative ion mode. The spray voltage was set as 3.5 KV for positive mode and 3.2 KV

for negative mode; the capillary temperature and aux gas heater temperature were set as 320

and 350 °C, respectively. Sheath gas and aux gas flow rate were set at 35 and 15 (in arbitrary

units), respectively. The S-lens RF level was 50.

Stomatal bioassay. For stomatal aperture assay, rosette leaves of 4-week-old Arabidopsis

seedlings were taken. Epidermal strips were peeled out and incubated in buffer containing 50

mM KCl and 10 mM MES, pH 6.15, in a plant growth chamber for 3 h before ABA treatment.

Stomatal apertures were measured 2 h after the addition of 5 μM ABA. The apertures of

indicated number of stomata per sample were measured by quantifying the pore width of

stomata using Image J software. All the experiments were repeated at least three times.

Protein purification and *in vitro* kinase assay. For *in vitro* kinase assays, full length coding

sequence of SnRK2.6 and kinase domains of RAFs were cloned into either *pGEX-4T-1,*

pET28a or pET-SUMO vectors and transformed into BL21 or ArcticExpress cells. The

recombinant proteins were expressed and purified as previously described [39]. For the

phosphorylation assay, **recombinant full-length** RAF15, HT1/RAF19, MRK1/RAF48,

BHP/RAF27, RAF38, and the kinase domains of RAF13 (aa 492-775) and RAF14 (aa

518-781) were incubated with "kinase-dead" forms of SnRK2.6 with or without Ser to Ala

mutations at Ser171 and Ser175 in reaction buffer (25 mM Tris HCl, pH 7.4, 12 mM $MgCl_2$,

2 mM DTT), with 1 μM ATP plus 1 μCi of [γ-^{32}P] ATP for 30 min at 30°C. Reactions were

stopped by boiling in SDS sample buffer and proteins were separated by 10% SDS-PAGE.

Primers used in RAF construction are listed in Supplementary Dataset 11.

For the dephosphorylation assay, SnRK2.6^{M94G} coated on Glutathione Sepharose (Cytiva)

were dephosphorylated with Lambda Protein Phosphatase (λPP) for 30 min and the λPP was

removed by washing three times with protein buffer (25 mM Tris HCl, pH 7.4, 150 mM

NaCl). To detect the effects of RAF15 on SnRK2.6^{M94G} thiophosphorylation and activity,

recombinant GST-RAF15-KD (aa 548-809) was incubated with pre-dephosphorylated

SnRK2.6^{M94G} for 30 min in reaction buffer (25 mM Tris HCl, pH 7.4, 12 mM MgCl$_2$, 2mM

MnCl$_2$, 0.5 mM DTT, 50 μM ATP, 50 μM N^6-Benzyl-ATPγS). Then ABF2 was added to the

reaction and incubated for an additional 30 min. This phosphorylation reaction was stopped

by adding EDTA to a final concentration of 25 μM. A final concentration of 2.5 mM

p-nitrobenzyl mesylate (Abcam, ab138910) was added to proceed the alkylating reaction for

1 h at room temperature. Samples with SDS sample buffer were boiled and separated by

SDS-PAGE, transferred to Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane, and immunoblotted

with antibodies against thiophosphate ester (Abcam, ab92570).

Protoplast isolation and transactivation assay. Protoplast isolation and transactivation

assays were performed as previously described [19]. Briefly, protoplasts were isolated from

leaves of 4-week-old plants grown under a short photoperiod (10 h light at 23°C/14 h dark at

20°C). Leaf strips were excised from the middle parts of young rosette leaves, dipped in an

enzyme solution containing cellulase R10 (Yakult Pharmaceutical Industry) and macerozyme

R10 (Yakult Pharmaceutical Industry), and incubated at room temperature in the dark. The

protoplast solution was diluted with an equal volume of W5 solution (2 mM MES, pH 5.7,

154 mM NaCl, 125 mM CaCl$_2$, and 5 mM KCl) and filtered through a nylon mesh. The

flow-through was centrifuged at 100 g for 2 min to pellet the protoplasts. Protoplasts were

resuspended in W5 solution and incubated for 30 min. 100 μL of protoplasts suspended in

MMG solution (4 mM MES, pH 5.7, 0.4 M mannitol, and 15 mM MgCl$_2$) were mixed with

the plasmid mix and added to 110 μL PEG solution (40% w/v PEG-4000, 0.2 M mannitol,

and 100 mM CaCl$_2$). The transfection mixture was mixed completely by gently tapping the

tube followed by incubation at room temperature for 5 min. The protoplasts were washed

twice with 1 mL W5 solution. The *RD29B-LUC* (7 μg of plasmid per transfection) and

ZmUBQ-GUS (1 μg per transfection) were used as an ABA-responsive reporter gene and as

an internal control, respectively. For wild type and mutated *RAF*, *SnRK2.6* plasmids, 3 μg per

transfection were used. After transfection, protoplasts were incubated for 5 h under light in

washing and incubation solution (0.5 M mannitol, 20 mM KCl, 4 mM MES, pH 5.7) with or

without 5 μM ABA. The mutations were introduced into wild type RAFs using the primers

listed in Supplementary Dataset 11.

Primer list

Dataset S11 presents the sequences of the primers used in this study.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

General statistical analysis

Statistic significance of relative luciferase activity, phosphatase activity, fresh weight, Rosetta

diameter, relative intensity, ion leakage, gene expression was examined by Student's t test (*p

< 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001).

Proteomics data analysis

The raw files were searched directly against the Arabidopsis thaliana database (TAIR10 with

35,386 entries) with no redundant entries using SEQUEST HT search algorithm on Proteome

Discoverer software (version 2.4). Peptide precursor mass tolerance was set at 10 ppm, and

MS/MS tolerance was set at 0.02 Da. Three missed cleavage sites of trypsin were allowed.

Search criteria included a static carbamidomethylation of cysteine (+57.0214 Da) and

variable modifications of oxidation (+15.9949 Da) on methionine and phosphorylation

(+79.9663 Da) on serine, threonine, and tyrosine. The false discovery rates (FDR) of proteins

and peptides were set at 1% FDR.

Metabolomics analysis

Following LC–MS analysis, raw data were collected and processed using Compound

Discoverer 3.2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with the metabolite databases including mzCloud,

mzVault, Masslist, and Chemspider. Principal component analysis (PCA), heatmap analysis

of metabolites, and volcano plots were performed using R (version 4.0) software.

a Tissues → Protoplasts → Cytometry → Fluroresent Protoplasts → Peptides → Proteomics data

enzyme digestion → cell sorting → cell lysis/ trypsin digestion → desalting → LC-MS/MS

b Leave / After sorting

pGC1::GFP

c *pGC1::GFP* — GFP-A — 35.7%

WT — GFP-A — 0.00%

PE-Texas Red-A

d

Number of peptides vs Number of protoplasts (Gdn-Cl, SLS-SDC)

Number of proteins vs Number of protoplasts (Gdn-Cl, SLS-SDC)

e Gdn-Cl / SLS-SDC — Number of protoplasts

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5