Cell type-specific control of secondary cell wall formation by Musashi-type translational regulators in Arabidopsis

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Deciphering the mechanism of secondary cell wall/SCW formation in plants is key to

understanding their development and the molecular basis of biomass recalcitrance.

Although transcriptional regulation is essential for SCW formation, little is known

about the implication of post-transcriptional mechanisms in this process. Here we report

that two *bonafide* RNA-binding proteins homologous to the animal translational

regulator Musashi, MSIL2 and MSIL4, function redundantly to control SCW formation

in Arabidopsis. MSIL2/4 interactomes are similar and enriched in proteins involved in

mRNA binding and translational regulation. MSIL2/4 mutations alter SCW formation

in the fibers, leading to a reduction in lignin deposition, and an increase of 4-*O*-

glucuronoxylan methylation. In accordance, quantitative proteomics of stems reveal an

overaccumulation of glucuronoxylan biosynthetic machinery, including GXM3, in the

***msil2/4* mutant stem. We showed that MSIL4 immunoprecipitates *GXM* mRNAs,**

suggesting a novel aspect of SCW regulation, linking translational control to the

regulation of SCW biosynthesis genes.

Introduction

As the main constituent of the terrestrial plant biomass, lignocellulose represents a huge reservoir of fixed carbon and a renewable resource for bioproducts and energy that is essential for human usages[1]. Lignocellulose biomass enclosed mainly within secondary cell wall (SCW) reinforces vessels for long-distance transport and provides physical properties to fibers allowing upright growth of the plants[1,2]. SCWs are composite material made of high molecular weight biopolymers, including cellulose, hemicelluloses, and lignin, as well as cell wall proteins whose composition and structure can differ markedly between dicots and monocots[2,3]. Cellulose is synthesized at the plasma membrane by the cellulose synthase complex and is composed of linear chains of β-(1–4) glucans that aggregate to form highly crystalline cellulose microfibrils[2,3]. Xylans, the main hemicellulosic polysaccharides in SCW, are synthesized in the Golgi apparatus by a complex biosynthetic machinery and comprise a group of polysaccharides that share a common backbone of β-(1,4)-linked xylose (Xyl) units, but differs by the presence of side chains, whose nature is dependent on tissues and species[2]. In particular, glucuronoxylan, the dominant xylan in the SCW of dicots, is notably substituted at *O*-2 position with α-D-glucuronic acid (GlcA) or (4-O-methyl)- α-D-glucuronic acid (MeGlcA) groups, and with O-acetyl moieties at C-2 or C-3 positions[2]. By interacting with the cellulose and lignin, xylans contribute to the strengthening of the SCW, and are considered to be one of the main factors contributing to the biomass recalcitrance to enzymatic hydrolysis[3,4]. Finally, lignin polymers are made up of H, G, and S units which are the results of the oxidation and the polymerisation of the *p*-coumaryl, coniferyl and synapyl alcohols, respectively. These monomers, also called monolignols are synthesized on the ER surface/cytoplasm prior transportation to the cell wall. Lignins confer stiffness, strength and hydrophobicity to the SCW[2-4].

The metabolic load imposed by the coordinated production of SCW biopolymers

emphasizes the importance for plants of having a precise control over temporal and spatial

expression of the corresponding SCW biosynthetic genes. Based on founding studies

performed in Arabidopsis model, it is generally recognized that the SCW synthesis is

primarily controlled at a transcriptional level by a multilayer and interconnected network of

transcription factors/TFs[5,6]. Key players of this regulatory network are related NAC (NAM-

ATAF1/2-CUC) and MYB-type TFs that induce, in a redundant and combinatorial manner,

the expression of SCW biosynthetic genes by binding their promoter region[5]. In addition, a

family of Class III homeodomain leucine zipper (HD-ZIPIII) TFs, whose members control

several aspects of Arabidopsis development, was also shown to interact with SCW regulatory

network, contributing to xylem cell specification and SCW synthesis[5,6]. Although this

transcriptional level of control can gain complexity in perennial plants, functional orthologs

of the main regulators were identified in many different species, suggesting that SCW

deposition proceeds via a conserved mechanism in all vascular plants[7,8]. During the last

decade, engineering the SCW regulatory network to deposit modified lignin and/or improve

polysaccharide composition became a promising strategy to optimize biomass

processability[9,10]. However, despite huge progresses in understanding the regulation of SCW

synthesis, the engineering of SCW regulatory network to improve biomass yield and

digestibility has proven difficult and often impairs plant growth because of altered vascular

tissue development[11,12].

Downstream of transcriptional regulations by TFs, RNA-binding proteins (RBPs) are

essential post-transcriptional modulators of gene expression across all kingdoms of life[13].

However, although a large cohort of RBPs exists in plants[14], there is little information about

RBPs-mediated posttranscriptional regulation of SCW biosynthetic genes. So far, only few

microRNAs (miRNAs) families have been implicated in the post-transcriptional regulation of

genes involved in both regulatory and enzymatic aspects of SCW biosynthesis[6]. In particular, miR165/166 were shown to target HD-ZIPIII transcriptional regulators, having a direct impact on the transcriptional network associated with SCW biosynthesis[6]. In the other hand, miRNA397/857/408 were shown to affect lignin content *via* the targeting of laccase/LAC genes, which control lignin polymerization from monolignols precursors[15,16]. In addition, two related tandem CCCH zinc-finger proteins, which exhibit both DNA and RNA binding abilities, have been proposed to modulate SCW formation by regulating the expression of genes associated with cell wall metabolism[17]. Despite these mounting evidences, our current knowledge of the role of post-transcriptional regulators in SCW synthesis is still very limited.

In this work, we report that two RRM-domain containing RNA-binding proteins homologous to the animal translational regulator Musashi, Musashi-like2/MSIL2 and Musashi-like4/MSIL4, function redundantly to control various aspects development, including the stiffness of the inflorescence stem in Arabidopsis. We show that RRM-dependent RNA-binding activity is essential for MSIL2/4 functions *in vivo*, and that MSIL2/4 interactomes are similar, being enriched in proteins involved in 3'-UTR binding and translational regulation. MSIL2/4 mutations alter the formation of SCW in the interfascicular fiber cells, leading to a reduction in lignin deposition, and a change in the decoration pattern of glucuronoxylan that is associated with an increase of 4-*O*-methylation of GlcA substituent. In accordance, quantitative mass-spectrometry-based protein analysis reveal an overaccumulation of glucuronoxylan biosynthetic machinery, including the GlucuronoXylan Methyltransferase3/GXM3, in the *msil2/4* mutant stem. We show that MSIL4 immunoprecipitates GXM3 mRNA in vivo, likely regulating its expression at a translational level. Our results demonstrate that MSILs regulate SCW synthesis in interfascicular fiber cells and point to a novel aspect of SCW regulation linking translational repression to regulation of SCW biosynthesis genes.

Results

Musashi-like MSIL2/4 proteins redundantly control specific Arabidopsis development processes.

While many studies have implicated the MSIs in the control of gene expression during cellular proliferation, cell fate determination and cancer in animals[18,19], yet little is known about the presence and activity of MSI-type proteins in plants. In this work, we describe an RNA-binding protein family in Arabidopsis, whose members hereafter named as *MUSASHI-Like1* to *4/MSIL1-4*, share both sequence, domain organization, and model-based structural similarities with animal MSIs (Fig. 1a, b). Phylogenetic analysis revealed that Arabidopsis indeed harbors a clade of seven *MSIL*-type genes with a prominent sub-clade harboring the *MSIL1-4* genes (Fig. 1b). Notably, a neighboring sub-clade contains two genes, *RBGD2* and *RGBD4* (Fig. 1b), that encode for heat-inducible RBPs implicated in the response to heat stress in Arabidopsis[20]. MSIL1-4 proteins share a common domain architecture consisting of two N-terminal RNA recognition motifs (RRM1 and RRM2) that are followed by a poorly conserved, intrinsically unstructured, carboxy-terminal region (Fig. 1a; and Supplementary Fig. 1a). The survey of the gene expression ARAPORT11 databases (https://araport.org/; http://fgcz-pep2pro.uzh.ch) revealed that the *MSIL1-4* genes are widely expressed in Arabidopsis, with *MSIL1* showing the lowest levels of expression (Fig. 1c). Database searches further indicated that *MSIL* orthologs are widely distributed in land plants, from bryophytes to angiosperms (Supplementary Fig. 1b). To gain a mechanistic understanding of MSIL function in Arabidopsis, we determined the subcellular localization of these proteins by performing fluorescence microscopy on GFP-tagged versions of MSIL2 and MSIL4 (MSIL2G and MSIL4G). Both proteins showed a diffuse cytoplasmic distribution in root cells of stable Arabidopsis transgenic plants that contrasts with the nucleus and cytoplasmic distributions of the free GFP protein control (Fig. 1d).

To further investigate the function of the MSILs in Arabidopsis, we raised specific

antibodies against non-conserved regions of MSIL1-4 and characterized T-DNA insertion

msil mutant lines that lack full-length *MSIL* mRNA and MSIL proteins as judged by RT-PCR

and western blot experiments, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 2a-c). However, none of the

four characterized single *msil* mutants showed any obvious phenotype (Supplementary Fig. 3a

and data not shown). To assess the potential functional redundancy between *MSIL* genes, we

crossed the single *msil* mutants together and characterized the six possible double mutant

combinations (Supplementary Fig. 3a). Only the *msil2-1*/*msil4*-1 (*msil2/4*) double mutant

showed discernable developmental abnormal phenotypes, including enlarged and curled

leaves, early leaf senescence and a pendant inflorescence stem (Fig. 1e, f; and Supplementary

Fig. 3a, b). To assess whether MSIL1 and MSIL3 also contribute to Arabidopsis development

in the *msil2/4* double mutant background, we generated a *msil1-1*/*msil2-1*/*msil3-1*/*msil4*-1

(*msil1/2/3/4*) quadruple mutant that shows no particular or aggravated developmental

phenotypes with respect to the *msil2/4* double mutant (Supplementary Fig. 3a, c, d). To test

the functional redundancy of MSIL2 and MSIL4 proteins *in vivo*, we transformed the *msil2/4*

double mutant with constructs coding either for a Flag/HA-tagged version of MSIL2

(MSIL2F) or MSIL4 (MSIL4F), and selected two independent transgenic plants expressing

similar and near physiological levels of the tagged protein, as evaluated by western blot using

our home-made antibodies (Supplementary Fig. 3e). The ectopic expression of either MSIL2F

or MSIL4F proteins was able to rescue all the phenotypes associated with the MSIL2/4 defect

(Fig. 1e, f; and Supplementary Fig. 3b). This confirms that MSIL2F and MSIL4F are

functional proteins and more importantly that MSIL2 and MSIL4 redundantly control various

aspects of development in Arabidopsis.

RRM-dependent RNA-binding activity is essential for MSIL2/4 functions *in vivo*.

Animal MSIs interact with target transcripts through their RRM domains and mutations in

these domains have been shown to impair MSI activity *in vivo*[21,22]. MSILs are very similar to

metazoan MSIs over their RRM sequences (Fig. 1a; and Supplementary Fig. 4a), a closeness

of sequences also observed when homology models of the MSIL4 RRM motifs were

generated using SWISS-MODEL server[23] (Fig. 2a). Homology-based structure prediction

proposed that these domains adopt the characteristic RRM fold with a four-stranded β-sheet

structure bearing the conserved phenylalanine residues involved in the specific recognition of

RNA bases[24] (Fig. 2a; and Supplementary Fig. 4a). This supports the idea that MSILs have

retained the ability to interact with RNA, a notion further supported by the identification of

MSIL2/4 proteins in the experimentally determined Arabidopsis mRNA-binding proteome[14]

To examine the requirement for the interaction of MSIL with RNA in developmental control,

we first generated an RNA-binding mutant form of MSIL4, MSIL4^{RRM}, by introducing

phenylalanine to aspartate (F→D) mutations in both RRM domains (Fig. 2b). Protein-RNA

interaction assays using RNA homopolymers immobilized on agarose beads confirmed that

the MSIL4, but not MSIL4^{RRM}, exhibited intrinsic RNA binding activity *in vitro* (Fig. 2c). To

assess the impact of these mutations *in vivo*, the MSIL4G and MSIL4G^{RRM} constructs were

expressed under the control of the *MSIL4* endogenous promoter into the *msil2/4* mutant, and

two independent transformants expressing near physiological levels of the WT (*MSIL4G*-3

and *MSIL4G*-8), and mutant (*MSIL4G^{RRM}*-3 and *MSIL4G^{RRM}*-10) proteins were selected for

further complementation analysis (Supplementary Fig. 4b). MSIL4G, but not MSIL4G^{RRM}

proteins were able to rescue the developmental defects incurred by *MSIL2/4* mutations (Fig.

2d; and Supplementary Fig. 5a, b), indicating that these proteins are likely to exert their

functions by interacting with RNA targets *in vivo*.

MSIL2/4 protein interactomes are enriched in proteins involved in 3'-UTR binding and translational regulation.

Animal MSIs modulate mRNA expression mostly at a translational level through binding to conserved motifs in the 3'-UTR of the target mRNA and further interactions with various mRNA binding partners[18,25,26]. To further characterize the components of the MSIL2/4 network in Arabidopsis, we performed affinity purification coupled to LC-MS/MS, as described in Scheer et al.[27], using the complemented *MSIL2F1* and *MSIL4F1* lines. Consistent with their functional redundancy, MSIL2F1 and MSIL4F1 exhibit a similar protein interaction network, with 27 proteins significantly enriched in both MS analyses (Fig. 3a, b; and Supplementary Table 1). Examination of the PANTHER database (http://www.pantherdb.org) identified that MSIL2F1/4F1 are part of a protein-protein interaction network that was principally enriched in 4 categories of GO molecular functions, namely poly(A) binding protein (GO:0008143), mRNA 3-UTR binding (GO:0003730), single-stranded RNA binding (GO:0003727), and translation initiation factor activity (GO:0003743), highlighting the relationship between MSIL2/4 and the mRNA binding and regulatory proteome (Fig. 3c).

Many of the proteins present in the MSIL2/4 interactome, such as PABs, PUMs, UBP1 are involved in translation regulation and are targeted to stress granule (SGs) components, a membraneless cytoplasmic organelle that formed consecutive to the global inhibition of translation caused by heat-stress[28,29]. To assess the potential functional link between MSIL and those proteins, we crossed the MSIL2G/4G plants with a functional PAB2-RFP/PAB2R line[29], and assessed the localization of the fusion proteins before and after heat-stress in both parent and crossed lines. Fluorescence analysis revealed that MSIL2G/4G, like PAB2R, show a dispersed cytoplasmic signal under normal condition, and are recruited to cytoplasmic granules that overlap with PAB2R-containing SG upon heat stress (Fig. 3d; and Supplementary Fig. 6). Treatment with cycloheximide (CHX), a translation inhibitor that

prevent SG assembly by trapping mRNAs at polysomes[30], confirmed that those foci

correspond to *bonafide* SGs (Fig. 3e). These results were consistent with the RNA-binding

protein-based signature and the nature of MSIL interactomes, further supporting a functional

relationship between MSILs and the translation machinery in Arabidopsis.

MSIL2/4 proteins regulate the molecular architecture of SCW in Arabidopsis fibers.

Pendant stem inflorescence is a common phenotypic trait of Arabidopsis mutants defective in

SCW biosynthesis, that results from a lack of mechanical support and rigidity[6,31]. Given the

current lack of knowledge of the role of post-transcriptional mechanisms in the control of

SCW biosynthesis in plants, we henceforth focused our analysis on the pendant stem

phenotype of the *msil2/4* double mutant. Survey of the Arabidopsis inflorescence stem tissue-

specific transcriptome database[32] indicated that the *MSIL2/4* genes are highly expressed in the

SCW-forming xylary fiber (F) and xylem vessel (X) cells (Fig. 4a). Toluidine blue O staining

and microscopic analysis of Col-0 and *msil2/4* mutant stem cross-sections revealed no major

changes in the architecture of both the interfascicular and xylary fibers in the mutant stem.

Notably, xylem cells deformation or collapse, which are a characteristic of mutants deficient

in SCW synthesis, were not observed in the *msil2/4* mutant (Fig. 4b). However, the

examination of the cell wall thickness in cross sections of stems revealed that the

interfascicular fiber cells display a significantly thinner SCW in *msil2/4* mutant (Fig. 4c). UV

autofluorescence and phloroglucinol staining of the Col-0, *msil2/4*, *msil2/4+MSIL2*F1 and

*msil2/4+MSIL4*F1 stem sections revealed a reduced lignin signal in the interfascicular fibers of

the *msil2/4* mutant compared to Col-0 or complemented plants (Fig. 4d; and supplementary

Fig. 7a). In agreement with these observations, a significant decrease of 30% in AcBr lignin

content was observed in the *msil2/4* mutant compared to the Col-0 control plants (Fig. 4e).

Despite a tendency to decrease, the difference of lignin content was not significant in the

complemented lines *msil2/4+MSIL2*F1 and *msil2/4+MSIL4*F1 compared to Col-0 (Fig. 4e). To

further investigate potential changes in the lignin structure and composition in the Col-0 and

msil2/4 mutant, we evaluated the impact of MSIL2/4 deficiency on lignin composition by

thioacidolysis, a degradation method allowing the determination of the relative amounts of H,

G and S lignin units linked by beta-O-4 linkages. Total monomer yield did not significantly

differ between the col-0 and the *msil2/4* mutant (Supplementary Fig. 7b), suggesting that the

structure of the lignin polymer is not merely affected in the mutant. Further examination of β-

glucan composition using the fluorescent dye calcofluor white[33] revealed an increased staining

in the interfascicular fiber cells of *msil2/4* mutant, supporting changes in the

composition/accessibility of cellulose (Fig. 4f; and Supplementary Fig. 7c).

To extend this analysis, we then subjected purified Col-0 and *msil2/4* SCW materials

to Fourier-Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy[34]. PLS-DA analyses performed on FT-IR

absorbance data clearly separated *msil2/4* mutant lines from Col-0 plants, using the first two

components (explaining 74% and 10% of total variability, respectively) (Supplementary Fig.

7d, left panel). The large-scale chemotyping of CW composition in stem by FTIR

spectroscopy suggested that not only lignin deposition was impaired in *msil2/4* mutants but

also polysaccharides composition (Supplementary Fig. 7d, right panel). The lowest

absorbance values in *msil2/4* lines were observed in the region 1800-1500cm^{-1}, mostly

associated to the absorbance of lignin related compounds. On the contrary, a higher

absorbance was detected in *msil2/4* samples within 1050-900 cm^{-1} region, mostly associated

to polysaccharides compounds[34]. Because the optimal interaction between the SCW lignin and

polysaccharide polymers is believed to contribute to SCW recalcitrance, we used

saccharification as a proxy to compare cell wall sugars accessibility between Col-0, *msil2/4*

and complemented mutant lines (Fig. 4g). A higher amount of reducing sugars from native

cell wall (without pre-treatment/-Tr) was released using *msil2/4* samples compared to Col-0

samples. After cell wall loosening using alkali pre-treatment/+Tr, an even more important

amounts of sugars (+5%) was released from double mutants CW enzymatic digestion (Fig.

4g). Together, our data indicate that MSIL2/4 regulate the molecular architecture of SCW in

the interfascicular fibers, contributing significantly to the setting of biomass recalcitrance in

Arabidopsis.

The accumulation and activity of the glucuronoxylan decoration machinery are mis-

regulated in *msil2/4* mutant.

To elucidate the impact of the MSIL2/4 on the expression of SCW-related biosynthesis genes

in the Arabidopsis inflorescence stem, we performed mRNA sequencing (mRNA-seq) on both

wild-type and *msil2/4* mutant backgrounds. In total, we found 234 genes to be significantly

differentially regulated (DEG) in the *msil2/4* mutant background (with stringent thresholds

having a logarithm of fold change >1.5 or <-1.5 and false discovery rate (FDR ≤ 0.05),

including 156 up-regulated and 78 down-regulated mRNAs (Supplementary Fig. 8a; and

Supplementary Table 2). Interestingly, genes encoding regulatory or enzymatic components

of the SCW biosynthesis pathway were absent from the DEG list, and their expression was

not significant changed in *msil2/4* mutant (Supplementary Fig. 8a). Gene Ontology analysis of

DEGs revealed significantly enriched signaling pathways (FDR ≤0.05) involved in plant

defense or responses to biotic and abiotic stresses (Supplementary Fig. 8b), encoding products

that are preferentially targeted to the extracellular region and the cell wall (Supplementary

Fig. 8c). In this regard, the constitutive activation of defense pathways has been well

documented in mutant plants defective in cell wall formation, including the SCW[35].

The absence of SCW biosynthesis genes in the DEG list suggests that MSIL2/4 could

regulate the SCW formation at a post-transcriptional/translational level, a hallmark of MSI

function in animal models[18,19]. To investigate proteome-level changes that could potentially

occur upon MSIL2/4 mutations, we performed a comparative proteomic analysis of Col-0 and

msil2/4 inflorescence stems using MS-based quantitative proteomics, and represented ≈4300

reliably identified and quantified proteins in a volcano plot according to their statistical p-

value and their relative difference of abundance. This analysis revealed 267 proteins with

significant abundances in the *msil2/4* mutant versus Col-0 inflorescence stems (fold change

≥2, Benjamini-Hochberg FDR < 1%), including 156 up-regulated, and 111 down-regulated

proteins (Fig. 5a; and Supplementary Table 3). While no specific GO terms were enriched in

the set of down-regulated proteins, the inspection of the up-regulated proteins revealed a

strong enrichment in enzymes involved in the glucuronoxylan biosynthetic pathway (Fig. 5a,

b; and supplementary Table 3). Notably, the upregulated glucuronoxylan-related proteins

included glycosyltransferases required for the xylan backbone synthesis (IRX9/10/14), as well

as enzymes involved in its substitution (ESK1, GUX1, and GXM3)[2] (Fig. 5a, c). Visual

inspection of the RNA-seq aligned reads of the up-regulated glucuronoxylan-related genes

using the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) and quantitative RT-PCR analysis of the

glucuronoxylan-related decoration genes confirmed that the observed proteomic changes in

msil2/4 were not associated with significant variations in mRNA levels (Supplementary Fig.

9a, b).

The outcomes of our histological and proteomic analyses suggest potential variations

in polysaccharide content and/or composition in the SCW of *msil2/4* mutant. To address this

point, we first performed glycome profiling on either untreated (-Tr) or H_2SO_4-treated (+Tr)

stem samples. The levels of glucose (Glc) and xylose (Xyl), which are the building blocks of

cellulose and xylan polysaccharides in the SCW were not substantially affected in the *msil2/4*

mutant (Fig. 5d). Similarly, no significant changes were observed in the levels of the primary

cell wall-related monosaccharides, galactose, rhamnose, arabinose, mannose, fucose and

galacturonic acid (Fig. 5d), indicating that the MSIL2/4 mutations did not significantly altered

cellulose or glucuronoxylan levels in the SCW.

To assess possible changes in glucuronoxylan decoration in *msil2/4* mutant, we

performed cytochemical analysis on Col-0 and *msil2/4* stem sections using two antixylan

antibodies (LM10 and LM11), whose binding specificities depend on the degree of

glucuronoxylan substitution[36]. LM11, which binds with similar affinity both unsubstituted and

substituted glucuronoxylan, shows a similar signal in the interfascicular and xylary fibers of

Col-0 and *msil2/4* mutant stems, confirming that the glucuronoxylan content was not

significantly modified in *msil2/4* compared to Col-0 (Fig. 5e). In contrast, LM10, which binds

less efficiently the substituted glucuronoxylan[36], shows a significant signal decrease in the

interfascicular fibers of *msil2/4* mutant (Fig. 5e; and Supplementary Table 4). Together, our

data indicate that the MSIL2/4 mutations impact the accumulation and activity of the

glucuronoxylan decoration machinery in the interfascicular fiber cells of Arabidopsis stem.

MSILs restrain the degree of 4-O-methylation of glucuronoxylan in Arabidopsis.

In Arabidopsis, the glucuronoxylan backbone is decorated predominantly by acetyl, GlcA,

and MeGlcA groups, that are deposited in a regular and controlled manner by a specific

enzymatic machinery[2,37,38]. Interestingly, the ESK1, GUX2, and GXM3 enzymes, which are

involved in the deposition of the acetyl and GlcA groups, as well as the methylation of GlcA

group, respectively, are over-accumulated in the *msil2/4* stem proteomics, providing a

possible explanation for the modification in glucuronoxylan decoration observed in the

interfascicular fiber cells of the *msil2/4* mutant. To investigate further the variations in

glucuronoxylan decoration incurred by the *msil2/4* mutation, we analyzed the patterns of

xylanase-released SCW oligosaccharide using matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-

time-of-flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF)[39]. Consistent with previously

observations[40,41], MALDI-TOF analysis of Col-0 glucurononoxylan oligosaccharides showed

the release of xylo-oligosaccharide pairs, evenly spaced by their degrees of polymerization

and acetylation, bearing a GlcA (m/z 1705.5/1747.5) or methylated GlcA (m/z 1719.5/1761.5)

substitution group (Fig. 6a). Interestingly, the level of GlcA branched xylo-oligomers was

strongly decreased in the *msil2/4* double mutant, and this whatever the complexity of the

oligomers considered (Fig. 6a; and Supplementary Fig. 10a). Importantly, the molecular

phenotypes observed in the *msil2/4* mutant were rescued in both *msil2/4+MSIL2*F1 and

*msil2/4+MSIL4*F1 complemented lines, confirming the specificity of the mutation (Fig. 6a). In

agreement with the MALDI–TOF outcome, quantification of the acidic sugar levels in

untreated (-Tr), or H2SO4-treated (+Tr) WT and *msil2/4* stem samples confirmed that the

release of GlcA moiety was strongly reduced in *msil2/4* double mutant, as opposed to the

galacturonic acid/GalA group located on pectins (Fig. 6b).

It has been previously proposed that the intermediate level of glucuronoxylan

methylation observed in Arabidopsis is due to an intrinsic rate-limiting activity of GXM

enzymes in vivo[42]. We noticed that in addition to GXM3, a second member of the GXM

family, GXM1[42], tends also to be over-expressed in *msil2/4* stem although at a fold change of

1.77 slightly below the fixed significance threshold in the proteomic analysis (Fig. 5a; and

Supplementary Table 3). This observations make us wonder whether the apparent decrease of

GlcA branched xylooligosaccharides in *msil2/4* could be due to an overmethylation of the

GlcA substituent. To address this question, we performed the xylanase digestion and MALDI-

TOF analysis in presence of an added spike-in oligosaccharide control (Pentaacetyl-

chitopentaose) for normalization of the MALDI_TOF data (Supplementary Fig. 10a). Upon

normalization, the MALDI-TOF data indicated that the decrease of the peaks corresponding

to the GlcA-branched xylooligosaccharides was correlated with a increase in corresponding

meGlcA branched xylooligosaccharides, (Fig. 6c; and Supplementary Fig. 10b; and

Supplementary Table 5), suggesting that the MSIL2/4 mutations unleash the activity of the

GXM1/3 in stem. RNA immunoprecipitation assays further confirmed that the *GXM3* and

GXM1 mRNAs are efficiently pulled-down from MSIL4G-3, but not MSIL4G^{RRM}-3 plant

GXM1 mRNAs are efficiently pulled-down from MSIL4G-3, but not MSIL4G^{RRM}-3 plant

extracts (Fig. 6d), suggesting that the MSIL2/4 interaction network controls the 4-*O*-

methylation of glucuronoxylan by repressing the activity of the GXM1/3 mRNAs in stem.

Discussion

RNA-binding proteins (RBPs) are essential components of the gene regulation machinery that

govern the fate and expression of cellular RNA at post-transcriptional levels, including

processing, splicing, base modification, translation and degradation[13]. Sequence-based

bioinformatic, reverse and forward genetic, and affinity-based proteomic analyses have

converged to show that plants, like animals and fungi, harbor a large diversity of RBPs whose

functions in gene regulation and plant development are ill-defined[14]. In this study, we have

identified an RRM motif-containing RBP family, hereafter named as MSIL, whose members

share sequence, structural and functional similarities with the animal translational regulator

Musashi/MSI. We found that two of the four MSIL members, MSIL2 and MSIL4, function

redundantly to control various aspects of Arabidopsis development, including leaf senescence,

morphology of rosette leaves, and the rigidity of the inflorescence stem. We provide evidence

that the RRM domains of the MSIL2/4 proteins exhibit RNA-binding ability and are essential

for the activity of these proteins *in vivo*, an observation that is corroborated by the presence of

the MSIL2/4 proteins in an experimentally determined Arabidopsis mRNA-binding

proteome[14]. Further supporting a role for MSIL2/4 in mRNA-related transactions, affinity

purification-mass spectrometry analysis revealed that these proteins share a common network

of protein-protein interactions with well-known mRNA-binding proteins, including the

PAB2/4/8, RBP45/47, and the translation factor EIF4G. Notably, the animal polyA-binding

protein/PABP (homolog of the plant PABs) was previously shown to be a functional partner

of MSI that is essential for it activity in translation repression[18,26]. Interestingly, the MSIL2/4-

associated proteins also include the phylogenetically related RBGD2/4 proteins, two

constitutively expressed RBPs that are involved in heat resistance in Arabidopsis[20]. The

comparison of the MSIL2/4 and RBGD2/4 interactomes indicates only a partial overlap,

suggesting a certain level of subfunctionalization. In accordance with this observation, the

MSILs and RBGDs clearly diversify in function, since the *rbgd2/4* double mutant exhibits no

developmental phenotypes under normal growth conditions.

A penetrant developmental phenotype associated with the MSIL2/4 mutations is a loss

in stem rigidity that we could trace back to a defect in SCW formation, an important reservoir

of fixed carbon and a renewable resource of major environmental and economic importance[1].

Yet, with the exception of few microRNAs involved in the control of lignin polymer

synthesis[6,15,16], no information about RBPs-mediated posttranscriptional regulation of SCW

biosynthetic genes was previously reported. In this study, we show that MSIL2 and MSIL4,

function redundantly to promote SCW formation in the interfascicular fibers and that their

ability to bind RNA is essential to fulfill this function. Our conclusions are supported by

independent approaches which highlight changes of SCW thickness, lignin content, and xylan

decoration profile in the interfascicular fiber cells of the *msil2/4* mutant. The fiber-specific

effect of the MSIL2/4 mutations on SCW formation, is further supported by our evidence

showing that the *msil2/4* mutant grows normally and lacks the xylem collapses usually

observed in more pleiotropic SCW deficient mutants. Previous studies have shown that

specific master transcriptional regulators, such as NST1 and NST3, control cell-lineage

specific formation of SCW formation in Arabidopsis[5,31]. Our study extend this observation by

showing that RBP-mediated post-transcriptional mechanisms are also involved in cell-type

specific control of SCW formation in Arabidopsis. Notably, the presumed role of MSIL2/4 in

interfascicular fiber cells contrasts with the rather constitutive expression of the *MSIL2/4*

genes, suggesting that their activity depends on cell-context. This is in accordance with the

reported cell-type specific activities of ubiquitous animal MSI2 in cell renewal, cell

differentiation and cancer control[18,19]. Understanding how the activity of the *MSIL2/4* genes is

controlled by the cellular context will be essential from a basic point of view, providing a

unique model for studying RBP regulation in specific cell type in plants.

Our data indicate that the accumulation of gene transcripts of SCW biosynthesis

pathway enzymes and regulators are unaffected in *msil2/4*, suggesting that MSIL2/4 proteins

are likely to act at a translational level to regulate the SCW formation in interfascicular fiber

cells, an observation that is supported by the nature of the MSIL2/4 interactome. In this

regard, the stem proteomics gives us a glimpse into the changes in protein abundance that

could account for the observed *msil2/4* SCW phenotype. Indeed, our MS data reveal that the

glucuronoxylan biosynthesis machinery, including enzymes involved both in the synthesis

and substitution of the xylan backbone, is specifically over-accumulated in the *msil2/4* double

mutant. The molecular specificity of the observed glucuronoxylan phenotype with respect to

the changes in glucuronoxylan enzymatic machinery content raises several interesting

questions about the impact of the MSIL2/4 mutations on the SCW formation. First, we

noticed that the outcome of our proteomic data contrasts with the observed normal level of

glucuronoxylan deposition in the interfascicular fibers SCW, suggesting that independent

regulatory mechanisms act downstream of MSIL2/4 to control final glucuronoxylan content

in the SCW. One possible explanation for this observation could be that the activities of the

GUX, ESK, IRXs glucuronoxylan biosynthesis enzymes, in contrast to that of GXM3, are not

rate-limiting for glucuronoxylan synthesis *in vivo*. Alternatively, and in agreement with

studies that have reported that glucuronoxylan and cellulose contents are correlated *in vivo* in

xylan-deficient mutants[43], one could imagine that cellulose is the primary determinant of the

content in glucuronoxylan in the SCW, and that the glucuronoxylan produced in excess in the

golgi compartment of the *msil2/4* mutant is targeted for degradation upon secretion if

unbound to cellulose. In contrast, the concomitance between the glucuronoxylan

hypermethylation and the GXM3 overaccumulation phenotypes observed in *msil2/4* clearly

support the previous assumption that the GXM-mediated methylation is a rate-limiting step in

glucuronoxylan that can be overcome by GXM protein overexpression[42]. Our data support the

idea that MSIL2/4 play a specific role in the developmental control of the GXM protein

accumulation/activity, actively restraining the level of glucuronoxylan methylation in the

Arabidopsis interfascicular fiber cells. We currently posit that MSIL2/4 could control the

level of the GXM enzymes by directly regulating the translation of the *GXM* mRNAs or by

indirectly regulating the translation of an yet unknown translational regulator of the

glucuronoxylan biosynthesis pathway (XTRe) (Fig. 7). Future biochemical and functional

studies will be necessary to precisely understand the mechanism by which MSIL2/4 proteins

impact gene expression during SCW synthesis in Arabidopsis.

Our data indicate that, in addition to the reported change in glucuronoxylan

methylation, the MSIL2/4 mutations is also associated with a specific decrease of lignin

content in the SCW of the interfascicular fiber cells, whose origin remains unclear. On the

basis of the previous observations, we envision two possible mechanisms by which the

MSIL2/4 mutations could impact the lignin deposition in the fiber cells. In the first model, we

propose that MSIL2/4 positively control the lignin synthesis pathway in the interfascicular

cells by promoting the translation of lignin biosynthesis genes or that of a putative lignin

translational activator (LTAc) (Fig. 7). In this regard, although no GO enrichment could be

observed for lignin biosynthesis related genes in the proteomic analysis, two lignin

biosynthetic enzymes, CAD4 and PAL2, are significantly down-accumulated in *msil2/4*

mutant (Supplementary Table 3), an observation that could account for the observed decrease

in lignin content. However, previous published biochemical and genetic analyses do not

support this conclusion, as the single *cad4* and *pal2* knock-out mutants display no significant

alteration of lignin content due to genetic redundancy[9,44]. Moreover, thio-acidolysis analyses

showed that the ratio or degree of polymerization of the different lignin monomers remain

unchanged in the *msil2/4* mutant, reinforcing the idea that the lignin biosynthesis pathway is

functional in this mutant, leaving open the question of the specificity of MSIL2/4 action on

the lignin pathway (Fig.7). An alternative explanation for the decrease in lignin phenotype

observed in the *msil2/4* mutant would be that it results from an indirect cascade effect

primarily triggered by the *msil2/4*-dependent changes in glucuronoxylan methylation. In this

regard, it has been proposed that the 4-*O*-methylation of GlcA substituent results in the xylan

being more hydrophobic, possibly impacting its non-covalent interaction with lignin and the

capacity of lignin to assemble in the SCW[41,45,46]. Meanwhile, the hypermethylation of the

carbon-4 hydroxyl of the GlcA side chains could affect the capacity of glucuronoxylan to

form ether linkages to lignin (Fig. 7). Indeed, a study recently reported the existence of an

ether linkage between a carbon-6 hydroxyl of a mannosyl residue of a galactoglucomannan

hemicellulose and lignin in pine wood[47]. Although xylan has been proposed to bind

covalently to lignin via ether bonds involving xylose or Arabinose residues, it remains unclear

to date whether glucuronoxylan can form GlcA-dependent ether linkages with lignin, and the

functional relevance of such linkages remains to be demonstrated[48].

Methods

Plant material. *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 and mutants *msil1-1* (*GABI_462A04*), *msil2-1*

(*Salk_066670*), *msil3-1* (*Salk_002477*) and *msil4-1* (*Salk_094167*) obtained from the SALK

Institute genomic analysis laboratory were used in this study. PAB2-RFP/PAB2R line has

been provided by Cécile Bousquet-Antonelli (LGDP, Université Perpignan). The primers

used to genotype lines are listed in Supplementary Table 4. Double mutants and quadruple

mutants were generated by crossing plants. Plants were either grown in soil or cultivated *in*

vitro on plates containing 2.20 g/l synthetic Murashige and Skoog (MS) (Duchefa) medium

and 0.5g/l MES, pH 5.7, and 7 g/l agar. To breakdown dormancy, seeds were incubated for 48

h at 6°C in the dark. Germination and development were performed in growth chambers, at

20°C, 60–75% hygrometry with a 16-h light/8-h dark photoperiod (100 µE m -2 s-1 light

[fluorescent bulbs with white 6500K spectrum, purchased from Sylvania]). For *in vitro*

culture, the seeds were surface-sterilized before been sown on plates, incubated for 48 h at

6°C in the dark, and placed in a growth cabinet at 20°C with a 16-h-d/8-h-dark cycle and 120

µE m -2 s-1 light (LEDs with white 4500K spectrum, purchased from Vegeled).

Transgenic lines construction. MSIL2F- and MSIL4F-tagged versions were produced from

Phusion-generated genomic DNA PCR products (promoter and coding region) using primers

TL976(SalI)-TL924(PstI) for MSIL2F and TL974(SalI)-TL975(BamHI) for MSIL4F. PCR

products were cloned in the CTL235 binary vector containing a Flag-HA tag in front of a

NosT terminator and the hygromycin resistance gene driven by a 35S promoter. To obtain the

MSIL2G and MSIL4G constructs used for fluorescence microscopy, the same PCR products

were cloned in the CTL579 binary vector in front of a EGFP tag. The obtained plasmids were

then used to transform *mgl2/4* plants via Agrobacterium transformation. MSIL4-

GFP/MSIL4G-tagged version used for complementation and RIP corresponds to the fusion of

a genomic PCR product containing *MSIL4* promoter (primers TL3527(HindIII)-TL3528(SalI))

fused with a second PCR cDNA fragment (primers TL3529(SalI)-TL3530(BamHI)) cloned

initially in pGEM T Easy (Promega). After sequencing the fusion DNA has been cloned in the

binary vector CTL579 containing GFP cDNA sequence. The MSIL4G-tagged construct was

finally introduced in *msil2/4* plants via Agrobacterium transformation. The rrm mutated

MSIL4GΔr version was produced as MSIL4G except that the cDNA fragment has been gene-

synthetized (Genecust) to modify RNA binding ability by having aspartic instead of

phenylalanine at position 9, 49 and 51 in RRM1 domain and in position 111, 151 and 153 in

RRM2 domain. Transgenic seeds selection was performed in the presence of 30 μg/l

hygromycin and the progenies were screened by PCR.

Protein extraction and immunodetection. Total plant extracts (up to 100 mg) were ground

in liquid nitrogen and proteins were extracted according to Hurkman and Tanaka[49] Before

migration, SDS–PAGE loading buffer was added and Coomassie staining was used to

calibrate loadings. Proteins were separated on SDS/ PAGE gels and blotted onto Immobilon-P

PVDF membrane (Cat. No. IPVH00010; MerckMillipore). Protein blot analysis was

performed using the Immobilon Western Chemiluminescent HRP Substrate (Cat. No.

WBKLS0500; MerckMillipore). Specific MSIL antibodies were raised in rabbits against

defined epitopes (Epitope MSIL1 (SCDGTSSTFGYNRIPS), MSIL2

(RLQEYFGKYGDLVE), MSIL3 (GYGVKPEVRYSPAVGN) and MSIL4

(TWRSPTPETEGPAPFS) (Eurogentec).

Protein production and purification. The MSIL4 RRM binding domains were amplified

using primers TL4128 and TL4129 either from MSIL4G construct for the wild type version or

from MSIL4GΔr for the mutated version. PCR products were then cloned in pET41 to obtain

His-tagged RRM domains. Tagged proteins were produced by induction in Escherichia coli

BL21 cells. Cultures of 200 mL of an ampicillin-resistant (100 mg mL–1) colony were grown

at 37°C and induced by 100mM isopropyl-b-D-galactopyranoside in the exponential phase

(optical density 0.5 at 500 nm). After induction, bacteria were harvested by centrifugation and

pellets were resuspended in 5 ml of binding buffer (His-bind buffer kit (Millipore), proteins

were extracted using a Constant cell disrupter system (Constant Systems) with a disruption

pressure of 2.35kbar and then purified using His-bind buffer kit (Millipore) following

manufacturer's recommendations.

RNA binding assays. Binding assays were performed using homopolymer RNA conjugated

to CNBr-activated Sepharose beads (Sigma **C9142**). Either poly(A), poly(G), poly(C) or poly

(U) from Mercks (respectively P9403, P4903, P4404 and P9528) were used following

Sigma's recommendations. 0.7 to 1 mg of RNA were used for 200 mg sepharose beads. 0.45

mg of purified protein (MSIL4 RRM binding domain or mutated version) in 0.5 ml binding

buffer (100 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2.5 mM MgCl2, 2.5 % Triton X-100) were

incubated with 5 mg RNA conjugated Sepharose beads for 1 hour. After incubation, beads

were washed 5 times for 10 min each in 0.5 ml of binding buffer. Beads were then pelleted at

12,000 rpm, resuspended in SDS sample buffer, boiled for 20 min, and pelleted again.

Supernatants were transferred to fresh tubes and loaded on a 12% SDS-PAGE minigel for

electrophoresis (Bio-Rad) and protein blot analysis.

RNA immunoprecipitation. RIP was performed as described previously in Merret et al.[50]

using 400 mg of stem powder as starting material.

Expression analysis. Total RNA was isolated using the TRI re-agent (Cat. No. TR-118;

Euromedex) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Genomic DNA was then digested

out using the RQ1 RNase-Free DNase (Cat. No. M6101; Promega). cDNAs were obtained

from 400 ng of RQ1-treated RNA using 1 μl of GoScript Reverse Transcriptase (Cat. No.

A5003; Promega) in a 20-μl final volume reaction using random primers (Cat. No. C1181;

Promega) in the presence of 20 units of RNasin (Recombinant Ribonuclease Inhibitor, Cat.

No. C2511; Promega) and dNTP mix at a final concentration of 0.5 mM of each dNTP (Cat.

No. U1511; Promega). Semi-quantitative RT–PCR amplifications were performed on 1 µl of

cDNA in a 12.5-µl reaction volume to start with. The amplification of EF1αtranscripts was

used to equilibrate. qRT–PCR was performed on a Light Cycler 480 II machine (Roche

Diagnostics) by using the Takyon No ROX SYBR MasterMix blue dTTP kit (Cat. No. UF-

NSMT-B0701; Eurogentec). Each amplification reaction was set up in a 10-µl reaction

containing each primer at 300 nM and 1 µl of RT template in the case of total RNA with a

thermal profile of 95°C for 10 min and 40 amplification cycles of 95°C, 15 s; 60°C, 60 s.

Relative transcript accumulation was calculated using the ΔΔCt methodology[51], using

ACTIN2 as internal control. Average ΔΔCt represents three experimental replicates with

standard errors. PolyA+ RNAs were purified from RNA obtained by the TRI Reagent

extraction, using the PolyATtract mRNA Isolation System III (Cat. No. Z5310; Promega)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. cDNAs were then synthetized according to the

above protocol using 50 ng of polyA+ RNA as starting material. Semiquantitative and

quantitative RT–PCRs were performed as described above with a 1/25 dilution of cDNAs

from polyA+ RNA as template for qRT–PCR. The primers used for RT and qRT-PCR are

listed in Supplementary Table 6.

RNA Sequencing. Total RNA were extracted from the basal stem section of mature Col-0

and *msil2/4* mutant plants using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Cat.#74904) and treated

onto the column with the RNase-Free DNase Set (Qiagen, Cat.#79254). Two replicates were

performed per plant lines. PolyA purification, library preparation using the Illumina TruSeq

stranded mRNA kit and library quality controls were performed by the BioEnvironment

Illumina Platform. The mRNA sequencing of Col-0 and msil2/4 mRNAs was done with

single-reads, 1x 75pb and 30–35x10^6 reads per library.

RNASeq analysis. For each library, 30–35x10^6 reads were obtained with 85–90% of the bases displaying a Q-score ≥ 30, with a mean Q-score of 38 as assessed with Fastqc (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Reads were mapped against the TAIR 10 genome using gtf annotation file and default parameters of TopHat2 v2.0.7[52]. Assembly and transcript quantification were performed with Cufflinks v2.2.1[53]. Finally, the low expressed transcripts - less than 1 RPKM (reads per kilobase per million mapped reads) in one of the libraries were filtered out. The differential analysis was conducted by Cuffdiff software, belonging to the Trapnell suite. Foldchange (FC) was determined as the ratio between the normalized read counts between mutant and wild-type.

Fluorescence detection and tissue colorations. GFP detections were performed on *in vitro* grown one week seedling roots fixed in fixation buffer (50mM Pipes, 5mM EGTA, 5mM MgSO4, pH7 added with 2% para-formaldehyde and 0.2% Triton). After 5 min vacuum infiltration and 10 min agitation at room temperature, roots were washed twice with fixation buffer and stored at 4°C until confocal observation. Confocal imaging was done using an Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 LSM 700. Roots were observed in water and for GFP detection samples were excited at 488 nm and the signal captured at 495–555 nm. For RFP detection, excitation was performed at 555 nm and the signal captures at 600-700 nm. Images were analysed with ImageJ. At least 15 samples per line were analyzed.

Stem coloration were performed from 5 cm length basal stem pieces conserved in ethanol 80%. Stems were rehydrated first in ethanol 50% and later in water and then embedded in agarose 5% before being transversally cut using a vibratome (Leica vt 1000s) to obtain 120 micron thickness sections stored in water. The presence of lignin was determined by staining with phloroglucinol for 30 seconds, giving a red coloration in the presence of

lignin cinnamaldehyde groups. Sections were observed using an inverted microscope (Leitz

DMRIBE, Leica Micro-systems, Wetzlar, Germany) and images were registered using a CCD

camera (Color Collview, Photonic Science, Milham, UK).

For cellulose detection, the brightener Calcofluor White ST [4,4'-bis(anilino-6-bis(2-

hydroxyethyl)-amino-s-triazine-ylamino)-2,2'-stilbene disulfonic acid; Cyanamide Co.,

Bound Brook, N.J] was used at a final concentration of 0.1%. The samples were incubated

with calcofluor for 3 min, washed three times with water before being observed. For

detection, excitation was performed at 405 nm and the signal captures at 434-496 nm. For

auto-fluorescence analysis stem sections were excited at 405 nm and the signal captures at

410-470 nm for blue. Pictures have been analyzed with LAS X (Leica Application Suite X).

Biochemical analyses of SCWs. Arabidopsis stems (5 cm sections at the bottom part of the

stems) were harvested from Col0 and *msil2/4* double mutant as four independent biological

replicates. Soluble extractives were eliminated as described by Ployet et al.[54] Briefly, stems

were freeze dried for 48h, ground using a Mixer Mill MM 400 (Retsch), and extracted by hot

solvents (successively water, ethanol, ethanol/toluene (1:1 v/v) and acetone) to obtain

extractive-free stem residues (ESR). The determination of acetyl bromide (AcBr) lignin was

performed on 10mg of ESR as described by Ployet et al.[55] All analyses were done in triplicate.

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) analysis was performed on 100-200 mg of

ESR. Spectra were recorded from ten technical replicates, in the range 400–4000 cm−1 with a

4 cm-1 resolution and 32 scans per spectrum using an attenuated total reflection (ATR)

Nicolet 6700 FT-IR spectrometer (Thermo Fisher, Illkirch-Graffenstaden, France) equipped

with a deuterated-triglycine sulfate (DTGS) detector. Spectra analyses were performed as

described in Dai et al.[56] Saccharification yield was estimated with or without alkali

pretreatment, as described by Van Acker et al.[57] Reducing sugar concentration was assessed

with dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) reagent using 10μl of the supernatant after 9 h of reaction.

Enzyme activity was assessed at 0.25 filter paper units (FPU) ml^{-1} in our conditions.

Mass spectrometry (MS)-based proteomic analyses. Proteins from total inflorescence stem

extracts of three biological replicates of Col-0 and *msil2/4* mutant plants were solubilized in

Laemmli buffer and heated for 10 min at 95°C. They were then stacked in the top of a 4-12%

NuPAGE gel (Invitrogen), stained with Coomassie blue R-250 (Bio-Rad) before in-gel

digestion using modified trypsin (Promega, sequencing grade) as previously described[58]. The

resulting peptides were analyzed by online nanoliquid chromatography coupled to MS/MS

(Ultimate 3000 RSLCnano and Orbitrap Exploris 480, Thermo Fisher Scientific) using a 180-

min gradient. For this purpose, the peptides were sampled on a precolumn (300 μm x 5 mm

PepMap C18, Thermo Scientific) and separated in a 75 μm x 250 mm C18 column (Aurora

Generation 2, 1.6μm, IonOpticks). The MS and MS/MS data were acquired using Xcalibur

4.4 (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Peptides and proteins were identified by Mascot (version 2.8.0, Matrix Science)

through concomitant searches against the Viridiplantae database (from Uniprot, Arabidopsis

thaliana (thale-cress) taxonomy, 136447 sequences) and a homemade database containing the

sequences of classical contaminant proteins found in proteomic analyses (human keratins,

trypsin..., 126 sequences). Trypsin/P was chosen as the enzyme and two missed cleavages

were allowed. Precursor and fragment mass error tolerances were set at respectively at 10 and

20 ppm. Peptide modifications allowed during the search were: Carbamidomethyl (C, fixed),

Acetyl (Protein N-term, variable) and Oxidation (M, variable). The Proline software[59]

(version 2.2.0) was used for the compilation, grouping, and filtering of the results

(conservation of rank 1 peptides, peptide length ≥ 6 amino acids, false discovery rate of

peptide-spectrum-match identifications < 1%[60], and minimum of one specific peptide per

identified protein group). MS data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium

via the PRIDE partner repository[61]. Proline was then used to perform a MS1 label-free

quantification of the identified protein groups based on razor and specific peptides.

Statistical analysis was performed using the ProStaR software[62] based on the

quantitative data obtained with the four biological replicates analyzed per condition. Proteins

identified in the contaminant database, proteins identified by MS/MS in less than two

replicates of one condition, and proteins quantified in less than three replicates of one

condition were discarded. After log2 transformation, abundance values were normalized using

the variance stabilizing normalization (vsn) method, before missing value imputation (SLSA

algorithm for partially observed values in the condition and DetQuantile algorithm for totally

absent values in the condition). Statistical testing was conducted with limma, whereby

differentially expressed proteins were selected using a log2(Fold Change) cut-off of 1 and a p-

value cut-off of 0.00513, allowing to reach a false discovery rate close to 1% according to the

Benjamini-Hochberg estimator. Proteins found differentially abundant but identified by

MS/MS in less than two replicates, and detected in less than three replicates, in the condition

in which they were found to be more abundant were invalidated (p-value = 1).

MALDI-TOF MS analyses of the patterns of xylanase-released SCW oligosaccharide. 10

mg of dried alcohol insoluble cell wall residues were incubated with 10U.ml^{-1} of endo-1,4-D-

xylanase (E-XYLNP) from MEGAZYME previously desalted with centrifulgal filters

(Amicon Ultra-0.5ml) in 1 ml during 12hrs at 40°C. After boiling during 5 min to inactivate

enzyme activity, samples where filtred with 50KD centrifulgal filters (Amicon Ultra-0.5ml).

As positive control, 2 mg of wheat AX (MEGAZYMZE) were treated in a similar manner.

The samples were then analyzed by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight

(MALDI-TOF) MS using DMA/DHB (N,N-dimethylaniline/2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid)

matrix[39]. The samples (1 µL) were deposited and then covered by the matrix (1 µL) on a

polished steel MALDI target plate. MALDI measurements were then performed on a rapifleX

MALDI-TOF spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics, Bremen, Germany) equipped with a

Smartbeam 3D laser (355 nm, 10000 Hz) and controlled using the Flex Control 4.0 software

package. The mass spectrometer was operated with positive polarity in reflectron mode.

Spectra were acquired in the range of 560–3200 m/z. The detected species correspond to ions

in the form of sodium adducts.

Thioacidolysis. This method is adapted from Lapierre et al.[63]. Briefly, 10 mg of alcohol

insoluble cell wall residues were incubated in 3ml of dioxane with ethanethiol (10%), BF3

etherate (2.5%) containing 0.1% of heinecosane C21 diluted in CH2Cl2 at 100°C during 4

hours. 3ml of NaHCO3 (0.2 M) were added after cooling and mixed prior the addition of 0.1

mL of HCl (6 M). The tubes were wortexed after addition of 3 mL of dichloromethane and

the whole lower organic phase was collected in a new tube before concentration under

nitrogen atmosphere to approximately 0.5 ml. Then, 10 µL were trimethylsilylated (TMS)

with 100 µL of N,O-bis(trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide and 10 µL of ACS-grade pyridine.

The trimethylsilylated samples were injected (1 µL) onto an Agilent 5973 Gas

Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry system. Specific ion chromatograms reconstructed at

m/z 239, 269 and 299 were used to quantify H, G and S lignin monomers respectively and

compared to the internal standard at m/z 57, 71, 85).

Cell wall sugar analysis. Neutral monosaccharide sugar content was determined by gas

chromatography after acid hydrolysis and conversion of monomers into alditol acetates as

described in Hoebler et al.[64] and Blakeney et al.[65] Gas Chromatography was performed on a

DB 225 capillary column (J&W Scientific, Folsorn, CA, USA; temperature 205 °C, carrier

gas H_2). Calibration was made with standard sugar solution and inositol as internal standard.

For acid sugar analysis, the uronic acid content was automatically quantified after

hydrolysis of polysaccharides in concentrated sulfuric acid (18 M) containing sodium

tetraborate (12.5 mM) or not, followed by m-hydroxydiphenyl colorimetric determination[66,67].

Galacturonic and Glucuronic acid were used as standard for quantification.

Data availability

The high-throughput sequencing data generated in this study are accessible at NCBI's Gene

Expression Omnibus (GEO) via GEO Series accession number GSE223732. The mass

spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via

the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD040207 (proteomic identification

of MSIL-interacting partners), and PXD040020 (proteomic analysis of total inflorescence

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Polysaccharide biochemical analysis: L.L-B. and R.S.; Lignin biochemical and FTIR analysis:

F.M.; immunohistochemical staining: Y.M.; MALDI-TOF analysis and statistical analysis:

R.S. and M.F.; writing: T.L., F.M., R.S., M.F., D.P., and N.B.E.; visualisation: T.L.;

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figures

Fig. 1│ Musashi-like MSIL2/4 proteins redundantly control development in Arabidopsis.

a) Schematic representation of the Musashi-like (MSIL) protein family in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. The invariant RNP1 and RNP2 motifs within the conserved RRM domains are indicated. Numbers refer to amino acid identities between the Mouse Musashi/MSI RRM1/2

domains and the corresponding domains in Arabidopsis MSIL homologs. b) Evolutionary

relationships between MSILs and related RNA-binding proteins. The scale bar indicates the

rate of evolutionary change expressed as number of amino acid substitutions per site. c) RNA-

seq expression map of *MSIL* genes extracted from ARAPORT11. Shading is a $\log_2$ scale of

transcripts per million (TPM). d) General overview of the roots of 6-days-old wild type

Arabidopsis seedlings (Col-0) or transgenic seedlings expressing either a free GFP protein or

GFP-tagged versions of MSIL2/MSIL2G and MSIL4/MSIL4G. Scale bar, 10 μm. e)

Photographs of representative rosettes of Col-0, *msil2/4*, *msil2/4-MSIL2*F1 and *msil2/4-*

*MSIL4*F1 plants. f) Photographs of representative inflorescence stems of Col-0, *msil2/4*,

*msil2/4-MSIL2*F1 and *msil2/4-MSIL4*F1 plants. Abbreviations: Mus musculus Musashi2

(MmMsi2); human heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein A1 (hnRNPA1).

Fig. 2│ RRM-dependent RNA-binding activity is essential for MSIL function *in planta*.
Experimentally determined structures of the RRM1 domain of MmMSI2 (PDB ID: 6C8U) and the RRM2 domain of MmMSI1 (PDB ID: 5x3y), and models of the RRM domains of MSIL4 generated using the homology-modeling server SWISS-MODEL. The α-helices and β-sheets of RRM domain as well as the phenylalanine residues that contact RNA bases are highlighted. b) Schematic representation of the mutations introduced in the RRM domains of MSIL4. c) Binding assays of MSIL4 RRM domains on ssRNA homopolymers *in* vitro. Single-stranded polyA (pA), polyG (pG), polyC (pC) or polyU (pU) RNAs were subjected to binding with the His-tagged recombinant RRM domains from MSIL4 (upper part) or its mutated version (MSIL4^RRM, lower part). An anti-His antibody was used for detection. In.

963 represents the input fraction. d) RRM-dependent RNA-binding activity is essential for

964 MSIL2/4 function in stem. Photographs of representative inflorescence stems of Col-0 and

965 *msil2/4* mutants complemented or not with a WT version of MSIL4 (MSIL4G-8 and 3) or an

966 rrm mutant (MSIL4G^{RRM}-3 and 10).

Fig. 3│ MSIL2/4 protein interactomes are enriched in proteins involved in 3'-UTR binding and translation regulation. a) The semi-volcano plots show the enrichment of proteins co-purified with MSIL2F1 and MSIL4F1 as compared with control IPs. Y- and X-axis display adjusted p-values and fold changes, respectively. The dashed lines indicate the threshold above which proteins are significantly enriched/depleted (fold change > 2; adjP <

0.05). b) Venn diagram showing the overlap between the MSIL2 and the MSIL4

interactomes. c) PANTHER-based classification of the GO molecular function that are

overrepresented among the MSIL-interacting proteins. d) Confocal monitoring of the

colocalization of MSIL2G, MSIL4G and PAB2R in root tips of 8-d-old seedlings were

monitored after 30 min of exposure to 38°C (heat stress) or 20°C for control treatment. e)

Cycloheximide treatment inhibits the formation of MSILG and PAB2R cytosolic foci. The

transgenic plants expressing the stress granule marker PAB2R was used as a control. Root of

7-day-old seedlings expressing either MSIL4G, MSIL2G, or PAB2R were monitored after 1

hour of exposure to 38°C in the presence of DMSO control treatment (DMSO) or in the

presence of cycloheximide inhibitor (+CHX). Scale bar, 10 μm.

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Fig. 4 │ MSIL proteins regulate the molecular architecture of SCW in Arabidopsis fibers.

a) Expression profiles of the *MSIL2* and *MSIL4* genes in the inflorescence stem tissues as retrieved from the Arabidopsis inflorescence stem tissue-specific transcriptome database[40] (https://arabidopsis-stem.cos.uni-heidelberg.de/). The results of two replicates are shown. F, fibers; X, xylem vessels; Cx Cambium (xylem side); Cp, Cambium (Phloem side); P, Phloem; S, Starch sheath; E, Epidermis. b) Cross-sections of Col-0 and *msil2/4* stems showing vascular bundle and interfascicular fiber cells stained with Toluidine blue. c) Measurements of the SCW thickness of xylary fiber and interfascicular fiber cells. Values are means (n>400)± SEM. Data were analyzed by unpaired Student's test. Asterisks indicate significant

differences relative to Col-0; ****p<0.0001. d) Top: lignin autofluorescence under ultraviolet

(UV) using confocal microscopy in Col-0, *msil2/4* mutant, and complemented *msil2/4-*

*MSIL2*F1 and *msil2/4-MSIL4*F1 plant stem sections. xy: xylem fibers; if: interfascicular fibers.

Bottom: Phloroglucinol-HCl staining of Col-0, *msil2/4*, and complemented *msil2/4-MSIL2*F1

and *msil2/4-MSIL4*F1 plant stem sections. Scale bar, 100 μm. e) Histograms represent acetyl

bromide lignin content, expressed as % of dry weight. Lignin content was measured in the

bottom section of mature stems (3 biological replicates per line). Significant differences

between Col-0, *msil2/4+MSIL2*F1, *msil2/4+MSIL4*F1, and *msil2/4* plant lines are indicated by

asterisks*, *P-value*< 0.01 according to Student's t test (n = 6 to 10). f) Confocal microscopy

of Calcofluor-white staining of cross sections of Col-0 and *msil2/4* mutant inflorescence

stems. Scale bar, 100 μm. g) Glucose yield after incubation of Col-0 and *msil2/4*

lignocellulosic material with cellulases either without pre-treatment (-Tr) or after sodium

hydroxide pre-treatment (+Tr).

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 Fig. 5 | The accumulation and activity of the glucuronoxylan decoration machinery are

 altered in *msil2/4* mutant.

 a) MS-based quantitative comparison of Col-0 and *msil2/4* inflorescence stem proteomes.

 Volcano plot displaying the differential abundance of proteins in Col-0 and *msil2/4* cells

analyzed by MS-based label-free quantitative proteomics. The volcano plot represents the -log10 (limma p-value) on y axis plotted against the log2 (Fold Change msil2/4 vs Col-0) on x axis for each quantified protein. Green and red dots represent proteins found significantly enriched respectively in *msil2/4* and Col-0 Arabidopsis stems (log2(Fold Change) ≥ 1 and -log10(p-value) ≥ 2.29, leading to a Benjamini-Hochberg FDR = 1.01 %). The up-regulated proteins involved the glucuronoxylan biosynthetic pathways are indicated. b) Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of the proteins that are significantly up-regulated in the *msil2/4* mutant. The gene ontology analysis of DEGs was performed using ShinyGO v0.76 software. Lollipop diagrams provide information about GO fold enrichment, significance (FDR in log10), and number of genes in each pathway. c) Schematic model of glucuronoxylan substitution patterns in Arabidopsis and the enzymes involved. IRX9/10/14, glycosyltransferases involved in the synthesis of xylan (Xy) backbone. ESK1, eskimo1. GUX1, glucuronic acid substitution of xylan1; GXM3, glucuronoxylan methyltransferase3 are involved in the glucuronoxylan decoration. d) Neutral monosaccharide composition of alcohol insoluble residue (AIR) extracted from inflorescence stems of wild-type and *msil2/4* mutant plants that have been pre-hydrolyzed or not with acid. Rha, rhamnose; Fuc, fucose; Ara, arabinose; Xyl, xylose; Man, mannose; Gal, galactose; Glc, glucose. e) Left: Immunofluorescence labeling of transverse sections of Col-0 and *msil2/4* stems with the LM10 and LM11 antixylan antibodies. Xy, xylem fibers; if, interfascicular fibers. Right: Quantification of the fluorescence was done using ImageJ software and processed according to Supplementary table 4.

Fig. 6│MSILs restrain the degree of 4-O-methylation of glucuroxylan in Arabidopsis inflorescence stem. a) MALDI-TOF mass spectra of xylooligosaccharides generated by xylanase digestion of xylan from Col-0, *msil2/4*, and complemented *msil2/4-MSIL2*F1 and *msil2/4-MSIL4*F1 inflorescence stem materials. The ions at m/z 1705/1747 and 1719/1761

correspond to acetylated xylo-decapolysaccharides bearing a GlcA residu (GlcA-Xyl10-Ac4//GlcA-Xyl10-Ac5) or a methylated GlcA residue (MeGlcA-Xyl10-Ac4//MeGlca-Xyl10-Ac5). b) Acidic monosaccharide composition of alcohol insoluble residue (AIR) extracted from inflorescence stems of wild-type and *msil2/4* mutant plants that have been pre-hydrolyzed or not with acid. GalA, galacturonic acid; GlcA, glucuronic acid. c) Relative changes in unmethylated/methylated GlcA decapolysaccharide ratio in Col-0 (black) and *msil2/4* mutant (red) as controlled by the addition of external spike-in control corresponding to a pentaacetyl-chitopentaose. d) GFP-based RNA-IP assays. Top panel (WB): western blots performed using antiGFP or antiUGPase antibodies on protein fractions from inputs or antiGFP immunoprecipitates from WT and the *msil2/4* mutant plants expressing the WT (MSIL4G-3) or RRM mutant (MSIL4G[RRM]-3) MSIL4-GFP fusions. Bottom panel (RT) : Corresponding RT-PCR using *GXM1* or *GXM3* specific primers on RNA fractions.

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Fig. 7│ Model of MSIL-dependent control of glucuronoxylan methylation in

Arabidopsis and its consequence for SCW architecture. In the interfascicular fiber cells of

Col-0, MSIL2/4 restrain the translation of the glucuronoxylan biosynthesis machinery,

including the rate-limiting GXM3 enzyme. This activity would keep the level of

glucuronoxylan methylation at an intermediate level, therefore providing a biochemical

environment that favors the interactions between the glucuronoxylan and lignin polymers. In

the interfascicular fiber cells of *msil2/4* mutant, the translation of the glucuronoxylan

biosynthesis machinery, including GXM3, is increased, leading to the deposition of an over-

methylated form of glucuronoxylan that has detrimental effects on glucuronoxylan-lignin

interaction and the SCW formation. In a non exclusive manner, MSIL2/4 could also have a

positive role in lignin synthesis, whose defect in *msil2/4* would lead to a decrease in lignin

content. The model was inspired from Grantham et al[37].