Regulation of adaptive growth decisions via phosphorylation of the TRAPPII complex in Arabidopsis.

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ABSTRACT

Plants often adapt to adverse or stress conditions via differential growth. The trans-Golgi Network (TGN) has been implicated in stress responses, but it is not clear in what capacity it mediates adaptive growth decisions. In this study, we assess the role of the TGN in stress responses by exploring the interactome of the Transport Protein Particle II (TRAPPII) complex, required for TGN structure and function. Together with yeast-two-hybrid screens, this identified shaggy-like kinases (GSK3/AtSKs) as TRAPPII interactors. Kinase assays and pharmacological inhibition provided *in vitro* and *in vivo* evidence that AtSKs target the TRAPPII-specific subunit AtTRS120. We identified three GSK3/AtSK phosphorylation sites in AtTRS120. These sites were mutated, and the resulting AtTRS120 phosphovariants subjected to a variety of single and multiple stress conditions. The non-phosphorylatable TRS120 mutant exhibited enhanced adaptation to multiple stress conditions and to osmotic stress whereas the phosphomimetic version was less resilient. This suggests that

the TRAPPII phosphostatus mediates adaptive responses to abiotic stress factors. AtSKs are
multitaskers that integrate a broad range of signals. Similarly, the TRAPPII interactome is vast
and considerably enriched in signaling components. An AtSK-TRAPPII interaction would integrate
all levels of cellular organization and instruct the TGN, a central and highly discriminate cellular
hub, as to how to mobilize and allocate resources to optimize growth and survival under limiting
or adverse conditions.
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43 **Key words:** TRAPPII, GSK3/shaggy-like kinases, BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE 2 (BIN2),
44 decision-making, growth trade-offs, light responses, water stress, adaptation, osmotic stress,
45 additive stress, TGN, Arabidopsis
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INTRODUCTION
Plant responses to environmental stimuli involve diverse forms of growth or movement. The slow,
cyclic movement of shoots and stems helps climbing plants such as vines find supportive
structures, and stem growth or tendrils are then used to wrap around and cling to such structures
(Darwin, 2009). Leaf movements linked to the circadian rhythm enable plants to maximize their
exposure to sunlight (McClung, 2006). Tropisms are additional examples of movement in plants:
the shoot bends towards directional light, whereas the root bends away from the light. In addition
to phototropism, plants have tropic responses to a range of stimuli including moisture, fluctuations
in temperature, gravity, touch and other mechanical cues (Garzón & Keijzer, 2011). Darwin argues
that the movements of plants are driven by growth and the need to access resources, such as
sunlight and water (Darwin, 2009). Leaf movements are driven either by specialized motor cells
or by the differential expansion of cells on the adaxial and abaxial sides of petioles (Whippo &
Hangarter, 2009; Polko *et al*, 2012; Rauf *et al*, 2013). Gyrations, revolutions and tropisms require
some form of differential growth or bending at the organ level. Bending is achieved when one side
of an organ grows more rapidly than the opposing side. This differential growth is a result, at least
in part, of the differential sorting of PIN-FORMED (PIN) auxin transporters, resulting in the unequal
distribution of auxin, a morphogen, at opposing sides of a cell (Friml *et al*, 2002; Ding *et al*, 2011).
It follows that differential growth responses such as bending require differential sorting decisions.
How environmental stimuli are translated into sorting decisions remains largely unclear.
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The sorting of PIN transporters has been shown to require trans-Golgi network (TGN) function.
Indeed, disruption of TGN function by mutation results in the ectopic distribution of PIN or AUX
proteins (Naramoto *et al*, 2014; Qi *et al*, 2011; Rybak *et al*, 2014; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). The
TGN plays a key role not only in the sorting of macromolecules, but also in exocytosis and
endocytosis. In addition, the TGN performs specialized functions such as cytokinesis, cell
differentiation, the establishment of cell polarity, and anisotropic growth (Gendre *et al*, 2015;
Ravikumar *et al*, 2017). As an early endosome, the plant TGN is a central hub in the flow of
information to and from the plant cell surface (Uemura, 2016). The plant TGN has been implicated
in responses to abiotic stimuli such as drought, heat, salt stress and osmotic stress and to biotic
stimuli such as fungal attack (Rosquete & Drakakaki, 2018). Studies on the role of the TGN in
stress responses have been carried out predominantly with core trafficking components such as
Rab-GTPases, tethering factors, and Q-SNAREs, required for membrane tethering, docking and
fusion (Rosquete & Drakakaki, 2018; Ravikumar *et al*, 2017). Trafficking mutants typically exhibit
root growth defects and/or hypersensitivity to abiotic cues such as salt stress, osmotic stress,
drought or heat (Asaoka *et al*, 2013; Kim & Bassham, 2011; Lee *et al*, 2006; Rosquete *et al*, 2019;
Uemura *et al*, 2012; Wang *et al*, 2011; Zhu *et al*, 2002). However, whether trafficking mutants
have primary defects in growth with secondary consequences in stress responses, or whether the
primary defects lie in an ability to respond to stress factors remains unclear. More broadly, in the
context of stress responses the question pertains as to whether the TGN is involved in decision-
making processes *per se*, or merely in the execution of adaptive growth decisions.
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As regards decision-making processes, there is a growing body of evidence to suggest that plants
have the ability to learn, to process information, to communicate, to reach decisions, and in
general to exhibit behavior that could be considered cognitive (reviewed in Severino, 2021). For
instance, researchers have found that plants can "remember" a previous exposure to stress and
respond more effectively to that same stressor in the future (Galviz *et al*, 2020). Plants can allocate
resources such as nutrients to different parts of the plant in a way that maximizes their overall
fitness (Ericsson, 1995). Plants can also reach adaptive decisions in response to their
environment; for example, some plants can detect the presence of a nearby competitor and adjust
their growth patterns to optimize access to resources (Silvertown & Gordon, 1989). There is still
controversy in the scientific community over the appropriate use of terms to describe the above
observations. Some scientists argue that the behaviors observed in plants are better explained by
simpler mechanisms, such as chemical or mechanical responses, rather than true cognitive
processes. To avoid such controversy, Severino (2021) makes the case for experimental

approaches. A recent experimental approach for the study of decision-making processes in
germinating seedlings has incorporated two tools used in decision theory: the use of a limited
budget and of conflict-of interest scenarios (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). A limited budget was achieved
by germination in the dark and a conflict-of-interest by the simultaneous withdrawal of light and
water; as a binary readout for responses to these additive stress conditions, tradeoffs in hypocotyl
versus root growth were monitored (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). By emphasizing growth trade-offs, the
experimental approach developed by Kalbfuß *et al* (2022) is aligned with the definition of decision-
making as entailing an appraisal of the advantages and disadvantages of various courses of action
(Karban & Orrock, 2018). While Kalbfuß *et al* (2022) address decision-making at a cellular level,
the literature on plant decision-making has, to our knowledge, not included considerations about
the possible role of the TGN.

In order to understand the role of the TGN in adaptive or stress responses, it would be important
to deploy a battery of gene products not only broadly associated with or localized to the TGN, but
also intrinsic to TGN structure and function. Two such proteins or complexes are ECHIDNA and
the Transport Protein Particle II (TRAPPII) tethering complex. ECHIDNA was identified as an
upregulated transcript in elongating cells (Gendre *et al*, 2011). *echidna* mutants have defects in
cell elongation and hook formation as well as in pollen formation, release and fertilization (Boutté
et al, 2013; Fan *et al*, 2014; Gendre *et al*, 2011, 2013; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). The Arabidopsis
TRAPPII (AtTRAPPII) complex was identified by mutation in screens for seedlings with aberrant
morphogenesis or cytokinesis defects (Söllner *et al*, 2002; Thellmann *et al*, 2010; Jaber *et al*,
2010). AtTRAPPII consists of six shared core subunits and three TRAPPII-specific subunits
(AtTRS120, CLUB/AtTRS130 and TRIPP; Garcia *et al*, 2020; Kalde *et al*, 2019). With the
exception of the plant-specific TRIPP subunit, AtTRAPPII most resembles fungal and metazoan
TRAPPII complexes (Garcia *et al*, 2020; Kalde *et al*, 2019; Pinar *et al*, 2019). We have previously
shown that ECHIDNA and TRAPPII have overlapping yet distinct functions at the TGN (Ravikumar
et al, 2018). ECHIDNA is primarily required for the genesis of secretory vesicles and, as a
consequence, for cell expansion (Boutté *et al*, 2013; Gendre *et al*, 2013; McFarlane *et al*, 2013).
AtTRAPPII plays a role not only in basal TGN functions - exocytosis, endocytosis, protein sorting
- but also in more specialized TGN functions such as cytokinesis and the establishment of cell
polarity (Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). Whether or not AtTRAPPII plays a role in responses to abiotic
cues such as osmotic or drought stress remains to be determined.

In this study, we focus on the TRAPPII complex as a starting point as it is required for all aspects

of TGN function, including the sorting of proteins such as PINs to distinct membrane domains (Qi

et al, 2011; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). We first explored the TRAPPII interactome and also surveyed

dynamic or conditional interactions. Together with yeast-two-hybrid screens, this identified

shaggy-like kinases such as AtSK21/BIN2 as TRAPPII interactors. We corroborated this finding

with *in vitro* kinases assays and pharmacological inhibition *in vivo*. Shaggy-like kinases are multi-

taskers that integrate a vast number of biotic and abiotic cues (Lv & Li, 2020; Planas-Riverola *et*

al, 2019; Youn & Kim, 2015; Li *et al*, 2021; Song *et al*, 2023). AtSK21/BIN2 has recently been

implicated in decision-making in the Arabidopsis seedling (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). We explore the

meaning of the AtSK-TRAPPII interaction using a variety of assays to monitor stress responses

and differential growth decisions.

RESULTS

The TRAPPII interactome contains a large number of signaling components

To gain insight into TGN function, we used the TRAPPII interactome as a starting point. We first

carried out a gene ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis (Fig. 1A; Kalde *et al*, 2019; Rybak *et*

al, 2014). The TRAPPII interactome was significantly enriched in proteins involved in (i) cell

division, (ii) the organization of the cytoskeleton or of cellular or sub-cellular compartments and

(iii) in trafficking or transport (Fig. 1A). This is consistent with known *trappii* phenotypes such as

defects in microtubule organization, in cytokinesis and in the structure and function of the TGN

(Jaber *et al*, 2010; Qi *et al*, 2011; Rybak *et al*, 2014; Steiner *et al*, 2016; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018).

GO terms describing developmental processes were also scored, and this is equally unsurprising

in light of *trappii* defects in root growth, in root hair morphogenesis, in transmission through the

pollen and in vein development (Fig. 1A; Jaber *et al*, 2010; Naramoto *et al*, 2014; Söllner *et al*,

2002; Thellmann *et al*, 2010). GO terms describing transcription, translation and post-translational

protein modifications such as deneddylation, acetylation and dephosphorylation were also

prominently enriched (Fig. 1A). Interestingly, a large number of significantly enriched GO

categories describe responses to abiotic cues such as light, cold, metal ions or chemicals

(grouped under "response to stimulus" in Fig. 1A).

To further explore a possible implication of the TRAPPII complex in signaling, we surveyed the

dynamic interactome, by which we refer to interactors perceived under one environmental

condition (for example in the light) but not in another (for example in the dark). By these criteria,

brassinosteroid signaling components were significantly enriched (p = 0.016); this category

encompasses 11 proteins, of which 9 were detected in CLUB-GFP immunoprecipitates from light-

grown influorescences (Fig. S1; Table S2). Among these were the TOR kinase and a family of

shaggy-like kinases (AtSKs; Fig. S1; Table S2). TOR and AtSKs are highly significant interactors

in the TRAPPII interactome (Fig. S1; Fig. 1B). They show a fold enrichment that is lower than seen

for components of the TRAPPII complex, but similar to that seen for validated interactors such as

RabA2a and MAP65, expected to form more transient associations (Fig. S1; Fig. 1B; Kalde *et al*,

2019; Steiner *et al*, 2016). We then used yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) to probe for binary interactions

between TRAPPII and signaling components identified in the IP-MS. Y2H was carried out with

TRAPPII subunits and truncations thereof (Kalde *et al*, 2019; Steiner *et al*, 2016; Garcia *et al*,

2020). In a large scale Y2H screen including 2400 pair-wise tests, an interaction was detected

between a TRS120$^{499-1187}$ truncation (referred to below as TRS120-T2) and the shaggy-like kinase

BIN2 (AtSK21; Fig. 1C). BIN2 interacted specifically with AtTRS120 and not with other tested

TRAPPII subunits (Fig. 1C). Furthermore, we did not detect any other TRAPPII-kinase interactions

in our pairwise Y2H assays.

The TRAPPII complex is a target of shaggy-like kinases

To assess whether the TRAPPII complex is a target of AtSK/GSK3 kinases, we first looked for the

presence of phosphopeptides in co-immunoprecipitates. To this end, we immunoprecipitated two

TRAPPII-specific subunits, AtTRS120 and CLUB/AtTRS130, and looked for phosphopeptides via

mass spectrometry. This provided ample *in vivo* evidence for TRAPPII AtTRS120 phosphorylation

at AtSK/GSK3 sites (Fig. S2). Furthermore, shaggy-like kinases were detected in IP-MS not only

with the TRAPPII-specific subunit CLUB/AtTRS130 (Fig. 1B; Fig. S1) but also with the TRAPPII-

specific subunit AtTRS120 (Fig. S3). The Arabidopsis genome encodes ten shaggy-like kinases

(AtSKs), which are classified into four clades (Fig. S3A).

The TRS120-T2 truncation contains the GSK3 sites we had found to be phosphorylated *in vivo*

(Fig. S2; see yellow highlights in Fig. 2B). Our nomenclature for these sites is α, β and γ, which is

short for TRS120-S922:S923 (α), TRS120-S971:S973:S974:S975 (β) and TRS120-S1165 (γ; Fig.

2B). Alpha-fold structural predictions (Varadi *et al*, 2022; Jumper *et al*, 2021) show that the three

sites reside in unstructured, flexible and accessible regions of the AtTRS120 protein, as is

observed in the majority of modified amino acid residues (Fig. 2C-D; Jiménez *et al*, 2007). These

reside in the plant-specific moiety of AtTRS120 and are embedded in plant-specific sequences at

the dimer interface (see green shading in Fig. 2A; Fig. 2E). To study the three sites, we generated

site directed mutations in TRS120-T2, mutating the serine (S) and threonine (T) residues (depicted

in red in Fig. 2B) to non-phosphorylatable alanine (A) residues, or to aspartate (D) to mimic

constitutive phosphorylation. In the case of the TRS120-Sβ site, for example, we designate these

variants as TRS120-SβA or TRS120-SβD (Fig. 2F; Fig. 3A). The point mutations were introduced

into cDNA sequences for expression in yeast and bacteria.

The IP-MS and Y2H interactions were validated with *in vitro* kinase assays, performed with a

phosphorus radioisotope (Fig. 3A; Fig. S4). Further, the phosphorylation was confirmed with

mass-spectrometry using non-radioactive assays. The mass-spectrometry results showed that the

AtTRS120 α, β, and γ sites phosphorylated *in vivo* (Fig. S2; IP-MS on seedlings using TRS120-

GFP as bait) were phosphorylated by AtSKs *in vitro* (Fig. 3B, 3C). Kinase assays performed with

varying kinase concentrations (but constant substrate concentrations) showed that the

phosphorylation events were time and/or concentration dependent (Fig. 3C). AtTRS120 was a

substrate of AtSKs in clades I-III; we did not detect phosphorylation of AtTRS120 with a clade IV

AtSK *in vitro* (Fig. 3C). All AtSKs that targeted AtTRS120 had a marked and consistent preference

for the TRS120-γ (S1165) site (Fig. 3C). *In vivo*, IP-MS performed on seedlings treated with the

AtSK inhibitor bikinin showed a reduced extent of phosphorylation of the TRS120-γ peptide (Fig.

S5), which is consistent with the *in vitro* data (Fig. 3C). In Y2H screens, the BIN2-TRS120

interaction, but not TRAPPII complex interactions, was almost abolished when all three sites were

mutated from S to D (TRS120-SαβγD; Fig. 2F). In summary, several lines of *in vitro* (Y2H, kinase

assays) and *in vivo* (IP-MS, pharmacological inhibition) evidence support the conclusion that the

TRAPPII subunit AtTRS120 is a substrate of shaggy-like kinases.

BIN2 and TRAPPII are required for differential growth decisions under additive stress

As TRAPPII is a BIN2 substrate, a question is whether *bin2* and *trappii* mutants have related

phenotypes. We were not able to detect cytokinesis or protein sorting defects, characteristic of

trappii, in semi-dominant *bin2-1* alleles (Fig. S6). We have recently shown that BIN2 is required

for hypocotyl versus root tradeoffs in the germinating seedling under additive stress conditions

involving the simultaneous withdrawal of both light and water (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). Water stress

in the dark is a "conflict of interest" scenario in which hypocotyl and root growth have competing

interests (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022 defined decision mutants as ones that had

either insignificant responses ($P > 0.05$), or consistently wrong growth responses as compared to

the wild-type ($P < 0.05$ but for an opposite growth phenotype, as depicted by red asterisks in Fig.

4B, 4C, 4D; Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). Under additive stress, *trappii* null mutants failed to adjust their

hypocotyl length along the same line as the wild-type (red asterisk in Fig. 4C, 4D; see Fig. 4F for

a direct comparison to the wild-type and for the distribution of datapoints). In particular, *trappii*

trs120-4 mutants had non-significant hypocotyl/root ratio responses to water withdrawal in the

dark (Fig. 4D). Due to some variability between PEG plates and experiments, we normalized each

mutant line to its corresponding wild-type ecotype on the same (PEG) plate in the same

experiment. To this end, the response to water stress in the dark was represented as a normalized

response quotient (RQ). The RQ is an indication of how much the mutant deviates from the

corresponding wild-type and enables us to summarize replicate experiments (see methods for

further detail; the RQ_{ratio} is depicted in Fig. 4G and the $RQ_{hypocotyl}$ and RQ_{root} in Fig. S7). We reason

that mutants unable to integrate environmental cues might have a "confused phenotype" under

multiple stress conditions. The read out for a "confused phenotype" would translate into erratic

(i.e. highly variable) hypocotyl versus root lengths. This high variance would, in turn, translate into

a low signal-to-noise ratio, and this can be seen as a high *P*-value. We, therefore, plotted the

median *P*-values against the normalized response quotients (referred to as volcano plots; mean

RQ_{ratio} in Fig. 4H). Wild-type ecotypes invariably had low *P*-values $< 10^{-10}$ (grey shading on the red

line in Fig. 4H, green arrow). Mutants with high *P*-values and low response quotients would be

considered "confused" and these would map in the lower left quadrant of the RQ_{ratio} volcano plot

(see peach shading in Fig. 4H). *bin2* higher order null alleles and *trs120-4* mutants cluster together

in the lower left region of the volcano plot (see peach shading in Fig. 4H); both qualify as decision

mutants (Fig. 4B, 4D, 4F-H; Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022).

A question that arises is whether *trappii* mutants are impaired in differential growth decisions as a

secondary consequence of primary defects in cytokinesis (Jaber *et al*, 2010; Rybak *et al*, 2014;

Thellmann *et al*, 2010). The etiolation response was severely attenuated in *trappii* mutants, but

nonetheless highly significant (P < 0.00001; Fig. S8C, S8D, S8F-G). Similarly, an attenuated but

clear etiolation response has been shown for other cytokinesis-defective mutants including *keule*

and *knolle* (Assaad *et al*, 2001). This shows that, despite a severe impairment in cell division,

cytokinesis-defective mutants are nonetheless capable of differential growth. In addition to their

cytokinesis defect, *trappii* mutants are impaired in TGN function (Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). We,

therefore, compared *trappii* mutants to *echidna* mutants, severely impaired in TGN structure and

function (Boutté *et al*, 2013; Gendre *et al*, 2013; McFarlane *et al*, 2013). Both *echidna* and *trappii*

mutants exhibited a severe impairment in root elongation in the light (Fig. S8 C-E). In contrast to

trappii, however, *echidna* mutants had highly significant responses to additive stress that

resembled the wild-type in all respects (Fig. 4E, 4G, 4H). The *trappii* decision phenotype was

shared neither by *echidna* mutants, nor by higher order null mutants impaired in the perception of

light or water stress (Fig. 4G, 4H). In conclusion, a comparison to other cytokinesis-defective or

TGN mutants suggests that neither cytokinesis defects nor TGN malfunction suffice to explain the

trappii trs120-4 decision phenotype.

Cellular growth parameters in *trappii* were assessed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) in

the hypocotyl and by confocal microscopy in root tips. In wild-type hypocotyls, both organ length

and cell length decrease in response to water stress in the dark (Fig. 4A; Fig. 5A). In contrast, in

trappii mutants, organ and cell length significantly increased (red asterisks in Fig. 4C, 4D and in

Fig. 5B, 5C highlight a phenotype consistently opposite to the wild-type). This was more

pronounced in *trs120-4* (1.71-fold increase; Fig. 5C) than in *club-2* (1.46-fold increase; Fig. 5B)

whereas the wild-type Col-0 showed a 0.55-fold decrease in cell length. In root tips, we monitored

meristem properties and cell length along single cortical cell files as a function of distance from

the quiescent center. In the wild-type, meristem size was large in the light, intermediate in the dark

and shortest under water stress in the dark (darkW; Fig. 6A-C). In contrast, meristem size in

trs120-4 remained constant under the three environmental conditions tested (Fig. 6E-G). We have

recently shown that root growth in response to water stress in the dark is due to a combination of

cell division and rapid exit from the meristem (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). An early exit from the meristem

can be visualized as cell elongation in cells close to the quiescent center. This was observed

under dark and darkW conditions in the wild-type (green arrows in Fig. 6D) but not in the *trappii*

mutant *trs120-4* (magenta arrows in Fig. 6H). While the curves differed under the different

environmental conditions in the wild-type (Fig. 6D), these were fairly similar regardless of the

environmental cue in *trs120-4* (magenta arrows in Fig. 6H; note that the grey shading, which

designates the 95% confidence interval, overlaps). We conclude that, at a cellular level, *trappii*

trs120-4 mutants are unable to differentially regulate their growth parameters (Fig. 5, Fig. 6). This

would suffice to explain the growth defects we observed at the organ level (Fig. 4). In summary,

bin2 and *trappii* alleles have related phenotypes w.r.t. an inability to differentially regulate cell

growth in both the hypocotyl and root tip in response to additive stress (Figs. 4-6; cf. Kalbfuß *et*

al, 2022).

AtTRS120 phosphovariants are functional

To assess the impact of phosphorylation status on intracellular localization, targeted point

mutations at the TRS120 AtSK sites (Fig. 2B) were introduced into genomic sequences capable

of rescuing the *trs120-4* mutant phenotype (Rybak *et al*, 2014). The TRS120 constructs were

fused to a C-terminal GFP tag and we refer to the ensuing site-directed mutants as TRS120

phosphovariants. The constructs were expressed and capable of rescuing the null *trs120-4* allele

in the T1 and T2 generations (Fig. S9A, S9B); upon further propagation, however, the GFP signal

(but not the ability to rescue the mutant phenotype) was lost and signs of silencing were evident

(Fig. S9C, S9D). The wild-type TRAPPII complex resides in the cytosol, at the TGN and at the cell

plate (Fig. S10A; Naramoto *et al*, 2014; Qi *et al*, 2011; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018; Rybak *et al*, 2014).

Phosphovariants had a similar appearance, but the phosphomimetic S to D variant tended to be

mostly membrane associated, with almost no detectable cytosolic signal (Fig. S10).

TRS120-SαβγA and TRS120-SαβγD have opposite effects on seed germination under

osmotic stress

We first analyzed the impact of osmotic stress on the germination frequencies of TRS120

phosphovariants. Different TRS120-SαβγA and TRS120-SαβγD primary transformants were

plated on media containing 0, 200, or 400 mM mannitol (Fig. 7A-C). As compared with the control

(Col-0), the TRS120-SαβγA phosphovariant had higher seed germination rates on mannitol: on

day 4 we observed 70% germination in TRS120-SαβγA versus 35% germination for the control

on 400 mM mannitol as an osmotic agent (Fig. 7C). In this respect, TRS120-SαβγA was similar to

the ABA deficient mutant *aba2-1* on mannitol (Fig. 7C). In contrast, the TRS120-SαβγD

phosphovariant exhibited delayed and reduced germination, with lower maximal germination

rates, even in the absence of mannitol (Fig. 7A-C). Indeed, on 400 mM mannitol TRS120-SαβγD

mutants reached a maximal germination rate of 60% compared to 90% for the wild-type. With

respect to its delay in germination, TRS120-SαβγD was similar to the ABA coreceptor higher order

mutant *hab1-1 abi1-2 pp2ca-1* on mannitol (Fig. 7C). In summary, the non-phosphorylatable

TRS120-SαβγA mutations enhanced whereas the phosphomimetic TRS120-SαβγD mutations

reduced germination on mannitol.

TRS120 phosphorylation status affects hypocotyl versus root trade-offs under additive

stress conditions

In light of the decision phenotypes of *bin2* and *trappii* mutants and of the observation that AtSKs

such as BIN2 target TRAPPII, the question arises as to whether shaggy-like kinases regulate

differential growth decisions via TRS120 phosphorylation. To test this hypothesis, AtTRS120

phosphovariants homozygous for the null *trs120-4* allele and hemizygous for the phosphovariant

construct were studied under different environmental or stress conditions. The etiolation response

was not impacted by the phosphorylation status of AtTRS120 (Fig. S11). In contrast, TRS120

phosphomutants had phenotypes under additive stress conditions (Fig. 7D-F; Fig. S12). TRS120-

SαβγA non-phosphorylatable variants exhibited an enhanced root response under darkW

conditions (Fig. 7E) and a strongly enhanced ratio response to water stress in the dark (mean

RQ$_{ratio}$ = 1.49; Fig. 7F). Conversely, the phosphomimetic TRS120-SαβγD mutants exhibited severely attenuated responses to water stress in the dark in all respects (Fig. 7D-F; mean RQ$_{hypocotyl}$= 0.66; mean RQ$_{root}$ = 1.48; mean RQ$_{ratio}$ = 0.44). Thus, the non-phosphorylatable TRS120-SαβγA and the phosphomimetic TRS120-SαβγD mutations had opposite effects on hypocotyl versus root lengths under water stress in the dark, with TRS120-SαβγA exhibiting an enhanced and TRS120-SαβγD an attenuated ratio response (Fig. 7F). Under all environmental conditions, the total seedling length of the phosphovariants did not significantly differ from that of the wild-type AtTRS120 construct (Fig. S12D), which highlights the absence of a growth defect. We conclude that the TRS120 phosphorylation status impacts the seedling's ability to differentially regulate its hypocotyl and root lengths in response to additive stress conditions. Taken together, the data show opposite impacts of non-phosphorylatable versus phosphomimetic mutations at AtTRS120 AtSK sites in terms of (i) seed germination under osmotic stress and (ii) responses to additive stress. This suggests that TRAPPII phosphorylation by shaggy-like kinases mediates adaptive responses to osmotic stress and to light and water availability.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we explore the role of the TGN in stress responses in Arabidopsis. Our point of entry is the TRAPPII complex, which has been shown to be required for TGN structure and function (Qi *et al*, 2011; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). We performed proteomic and yeast two-hybrid screens and present several lines of *in vitro* (Y2H, kinase assays) and *in vivo* (IP-MS, pharmacological inhibition) evidence that the TRAPPII subunit AtTRS120 is the target of AtSK kinases, including BIN2. We document differential phosphorylation of three distinct AtSK/GSK3 sites by three of the four AtSK clades. The phosphorylation status of AtTRS120 impacted seed germination under osmotic stress as well as adaptive responses to additive stress. We show that *bin2* and *trappii* alleles have related phenotypes with respect to an impaired adaptation to additive stress conditions, in this instance achieved by the simultaneous withdrawal of light and water.

A concern when assessing the role of the TGN in stress responses is that TGN-related mutants typically have pleiotropic phenotypes as a consequence of their impairment in fundamental processes such as secretion, endocytosis or sorting (Rosquete & Drakakaki, 2018; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). To distinguish between primary defects in growth on the one hand and adaptive responses on the other, we monitored trade-offs between hypocotyl and root growth under additive stress conditions (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). We focus on *echidna* and *trappii* mutants as these have been shown to impact both the structure and the function of the TGN (Boutté *et al*, 2013; Gendre

et al, 2011, 2013; McFarlane *et al*, 2013; Qi *et al*, 2011; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). These TGN
mutants had hypocotyl and root growth defects, which are characteristic of trafficking mutants (Fig.
S8). In addition to their growth defects, *trappii trs120-4* mutants had a significant hypocotyl
response but in the wrong orientation as compared to the wild-type (denoted by red asterisks in
Fig. 4 and Fig. 5) as well as an insignificant hypocotyl/root ratio response to light and water
deprivation (Fig. 4). The *trappii* phenotypes described in this study are difficult to explain as mere
growth defects. Rather, the inability to mediate trade-offs in growth in response to additive stress
provides a compelling argument for TRAPPII as having a role in adaptive growth decisions.

Conceptually, the optimization of hypocotyl-to-root ratios can be deconstructed into four distinct
stages: (i) perception, (ii) signal integration, (iii) decision making and (iv) the implementation of
resulting actions (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). To address the first stage, perception, we looked at
quadruple *phyA phyB cry1 cry2* photoreceptor mutants; these failed to adjust their organ lengths
to light versus dark conditions but had a highly significant response to additive stress (Fig. 4G-H;
Fig. S8G-I; Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). The opposite was true for *bin2-3 bil1 bil2* and *trappii* mutants,
which were able to respond to single stress factors but not to additive stress (Fig. 4; Kalbfuß *et al*,
2022). Shaggy-like kinases integrate a vast number of signaling pathways (Lv & Li, 2020; Youn &
Kim, 2015; Li *et al*, 2021; Song *et al*, 2023; Planas-Riverola *et al*, 2019). Accordingly, we have
postulated that the *bin2-3 bil1 bil2* „decision" phenotype under conflict-of-interest scenarios is
primarily due to signal integration (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). Prime candidates for the fourth stage,
execution or implementation of the action, are *echidna* mutants; these had highly significant
adaptive responses - in the correct orientation - despite their growth defects (Fig. 4). The question
arises as to how to categorize *trappii* mutants in the above conceptual framework. Despite having
abnormally short hypocotyls or roots, *trappii* mutants still exhibited differential length increase
depending on light availability (Fig. S8). This shows that they are able to perceive and respond to
light.

If TRAPPII is primarily involved neither in perception nor in execution, this would place it at the
signal integration and/or decision-making steps of adaptive growth decisions. The TRAPPII
interactome is vast and complex, with - in addition to the expected ontologies describing traffic,
transport and cellular organization - a surprising number of signaling components implicated in
responses to abiotic cues (Fig. 1A). This suggests a role for TRAPPII in signal integration. A recent
study of the BIN2 signaling network describes the expected components of hormone signaling,
phototropism and stress responses; surprisingly, the BIN2 signaling network also includes
secretion, endocytosis, autophagy, TGN, endoplasmic reticulum (ER), cell wall and cytoskeleton
(Kim *et al*, 2023). Thus, there is a considerable compartmental overlap between the BIN2 network

and the TRAPPII interactome. Nonetheless, TRAPPII did not feature among the 482 members of
the BIN2 signaling network identified by proximity labeling (Kim *et al*, 2023). The discrepancy
could be due to the different methods used: yeast two hybrid and proteomics in this study versus
proximity labelling and phosphoproteomics in Kim *et al*, 2023. However, a multiomics approach
identified AtTRS120-S971 (encompassed by our identified β site AtTRS120-
S971:S973:S974:S975) as being differentially phosphorylated in response to brassinolide
treatment (Clark *et al*, 2021). This provides an additional line of *in vivo* evidence for a BIN2-
AtTRS120 interaction and suggests that TRAPPII phosphorylation is brassinosteroid-regulated, at
least for the AtTRS120-S971 residue.

BIN2 is a negative regulator of BR signaling and AtSK11 and AtSK12 have been shown to
negatively regulate root growth responses under osmotic stress (Dong *et al*, 2020; Li *et al*, 2021;
Song *et al*, 2023). To explore the biological significance of the AtSK-TRAPPII interaction, we
probed the phenotypes of TRAPPII phosphovariants. We found that these had an impact on
hypocotyl versus root growth tradeoffs in response to additive stress. Furthermore, the non-
phosphorylatable TRS120-SαβγA variant had an enhanced root adaptation whereas the
phosphomimetic variant decreased root growth under additive stress, which is consistent with the
negative regulation of growth by BIN2 and other AtSKs. We have previously described plant-
specific domains or subunits predicted to be at the dimer interface of the Arabidopsis TRAPPII
complex (marked in green in Fig. 2E; Garcia *et al*, 2020; Kalde *et al*, 2019). Interestingly, BIN2
interacts with the plant-specific C-terminal domain of AtTRS120, while MAP65-3 interacts with
plant-specific C-terminal domains of the TRAPPII-specific subunits CLUB and AtTRS120 (Steiner
et al, 2016). This presents intriguing implications regarding the potential role of the AtSK-TRAPPII
module in meeting the unique demands of endomembrane traffic in plants.

The observation that the *trappii* "decision" phenotype was not shared by *echidna* mutants raises
the question as to what facet of TGN function is required for responses to additive stress.
ECHIDNA and TRAPPII have been shown to have overlapping roles in basal TGN functions such
as secretion (Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). In addition, ECHIDNA regulates ER stress and immunity
whereas TRAPPII has roles in cytokinesis and in the establishment of cell polarity that appear to
be independent of ECHIDNA (Liu *et al*, 2023; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). In the literature, there are
few examples of null mutants that are associated with the TGN and that have a positive influence
on growth. One such example is ZmBet5L1 (Zhao *et al*, 2023), which encodes a core subunit of
the TRAPPII complex (Kalde *et al*, 2019; Thellmann *et al*, 2010). Null alleles of ZmBet5L1 enhance
root growth also in the absence of stress (Zhao *et al*, 2023). The TRAPPII complex has two distinct
molecular functions: it acts as a tethering complex and as a Rab-GTPase guanine nucleotide

exchange factor (Rab-GEF). Rab-GEFs act as central cellular switches that turn GDP-bound inactive Rab-GTPases to active GTP-bound forms (Elliott *et al*, 2020). Rab-GTPase cascades are crucial for the development of polarity and directional growth in plants and play a vital role in facilitating physiologically dynamic functions (Elliott *et al*, 2020). AtTRAPPII is thought to be a GEF for the TGN-associated RabA-GTPases, a highly expanded class with 26 members (Kalde *et al*, 2019; Elliott *et al*, 2020). The TRAPPII interactome contains not only Rabs in the A class, but also other classes of Rab GTPases such as RabF1, which is involved in stress responses (Yin *et al*, 2017). In contrast to ECHIDNA, which is required for the biogenesis of secretory vesicles and for growth generically, as a putative Rab-A GEF TRAPPII has an ability to mediate all the highly diverse facets of TGN function. In a judgement-decision model for plant behavior, judgment is a composite of discrimination, assessment, recognition, and categorization (Karban & Orrock, 2018). In this context, it is interesting that the most expanded Rab GTPase family is TGN-associated, suggestive of a tremendous degree of discrimination, specialization and subcompartmentalization at the TGN.

Our study highlights the possible relevance of the AtSKs-TRAPPII interaction for adaptive growth decisions (Fig. 8). Shaggy-like kinases such as BIN2 integrate a vast number of signaling pathways and, together with receptor complexes at the cell surface, comprise a surveillance system fine-tuned to both biotic and abiotic cues (Lv & Li, 2020; Planas-Riverola *et al*, 2019; Youn & Kim, 2015; Li *et al*, 2021; Song *et al*, 2023). Via the cytosol, the AtSKs would then transmit this information by mediating the phosphorylation status of the TRAPPII complex. TRAPPII would, in turn, mediate TGN function. As an early endosome, the TGN is a central hub in the flow of information to and from the cell surface. It is also intimately connected to the late endosome (or the pre-vacuolar compartment) and to the Golgi, which provides complex polysaccharides as building blocks for the deposition of new cell wall. Thus, the AtSK-TRAPPII interaction would integrate all levels of cellular organization. We posit that signal integration and decision-making occur at the AtSK-TRAPPII interface and that, downstream of TRAPPII, Rab GTPase cascades are implicated in implementing decisions reached at the AtSK-TRAPPII module (Fig. 8). Sorting and trafficking decisions at the TGN would enable plants to respond to developmental or environmental signals via differential growth or various forms of movement.

Plants exhibit plasticity in their growth, meaning they can adjust their growth patterns in response to environmental cues such as light, temperature, and nutrient availability. It has been argued that plant phenotypic plasticity "is the result of signal integration - a process that requires cell-cell communication, and that results in adaptive forms of movement not to be interpreted as automatic and programmed" (Garzón & Keijzer, 2011). Movement in plants involving organ bending require

the polar distribution of morphogens such as auxin. This, in turn, requires the polarized localization

of auxin transporters such as PINs. The Arabidopsis TRAPPII complex has been shown to play a

pivotal role in a variety of sorting decisions including the polar localization of PIN2 proteins (Qi *et*

al, 2011; Rybak *et al*, 2014; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). How environmental or developmental cues

regulate the cargo composition and sorting of TGN vesicles remains unclear. Future experiments

will explore the impact of the TRAPPII phosphorylation status on protein sorting, cell polarity, and

on the Rab specificity of TRAPPII as a putative GEF. The presence of the TOR kinase in the

TRAPPII interactome is intriguing, as TOR integrates information about nutrient and energy

availability, and has recently been shown to regulate actin dynamics as a function of ATP levels

(Dai *et al*, 2022); it is tempting to speculate that TOR could provide information on nutrient and

energy levels to the AtSK-TRAPPII "decision" module. In plants, the Trans-Golgi Network (TGN)

plays a critical role in the relay of information between the cell surface and intracellular

compartments. An AtSK-TRAPPII interaction would instruct the TGN, a central and highly

discriminate cellular hub, as to how to mobilize and allocate resources to optimize survival under

limiting or adverse conditions.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Lines and growth conditions

All the lines used in this study are listed in Table S1. Seedling-lethal mutants were propagated as hetero- or hemi-zygotes. Insertion lines were selected via the TAIR and NASC web sites (Swarbreck *et al*, 2008). Plants were grown in the greenhouse under controlled temperature conditions and with supplemental light, or under controlled growth chamber conditions at the TUMmesa ecotron (16/8 h photoperiod at 180 µmol m^{-2}s^{-1}). Seed were surface sterilized, stratified at 4°C for two days and plated on ½ MS medium supplemented with 1% sucrose and B5 Vitamins (Sigma; https://www.sigmaaldrich.com). Plates were incubated at 22°C in constant light (80 µmol m^{-2}s^{-1}). The root tips of five-day-old plate-grown seedlings were used for confocal microscopy. Seven-day-old plate-grown seedlings were used for co-immunoprecipitation.

Co-immunoprecipitation (IP)

For CLUB/AtTRS130:GFP we used 3 g of inflorescences per IP experiment. For TRS120-GFP, 3 g of light-grown seedlings were harvested at day 7. For bikinin treatment, seedlings were treated for 30 min with 25 µM bikinin at day 7; mock treatments were conducted in parallel.
Co-immunoprecipitation experiments were carried out as described previously (Rybak *et al*, 2014). Briefly, seedling lysates were incubated with GFP-trap beads (Chromotek). After washing away all non-binding proteins, 70 µl 2x NuPAGE LDS + 25 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) buffer (ThermoFisher, US) was added and boiled at 70°C for 10 min to denature the bait and all interaction partners.
In-gel trypsin digestion was performed according to standard procedures (Shevchenko *et al*, 2006). Briefly, the samples were run on a NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris Protein Gel (Thermofisher Scientific, US) for 3 min. Subsequently, the still not size-separated single protein band per sample was cut out of the gel, reduced (50 mM DTT), alkylated (55 mM chloroacetamide) and digested overnight with trypsin (trypsin-gold, Promega). The resulting peptides were analysed by mass spectrometry. More detailed information on the mass-spectrometric data acquisition is provided in the supporting method section.

Molecular techniques and site directed mutagenesis (SDM)

For subcloning for expression in *E.coli* or yeast, we used cDNA clones developed by the plant genome project of RIKEN Genomic Sciences Center (Seki *et al*, 1998, 2002). Non-phosphorylatable and phosphomimetic TRS120 phosphosite variant constructs (SαA, SβA, SγA, SαβA, SαγA, SβγA, SαβγA and SαD, SβD, SγD, SαβD, SαβγD)) were generated using the GATEWAY® cloning system and site-specific primers (see supplementary methods for substituted amino acids and used primers). TRS120-T2 cDNA sequences (spanning amino acids 499-1187; Rybak *et al*, 2014) were used as SDM template for protein expression in *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*; kinase assays) and in yeast (Y2H). For *in planta* experiments (confocal microscopy, IP-MS), the genomic construct P$_{TRS120}$::TRS120-GFP (Rybak *et al*, 2014) was used as an SDM template. TRS120 phosphovariants were introduced into plants via *Agrobacterium* mediated transformation (see supplementary methods for further details).

Yeast two-hybrid (Y2H)

Y2H pairwise tests were performed as described in Altmann *et al*, 2018. Briefly, open reading frames (ORFs) encoding CLUB/AtTRS130 truncations (C2, C3), TRS120 truncations (T1, T3) and BIN2 were transferred by Gateway cloning into the GAL4 DNA-binding domain (DB) encoding Y2H vector pDEST-pPC97, and subsequently transformed into the yeast strain Y8930. These constructs were screened by yeast mating against a TRS120-T2 truncation and its phosphomutants TRS120-T2- SαD, SβD, SγD, SαβD and SαβγD fused to the Gal4 activation domain (AD) in the yeast strain Y8800. Interaction was assayed by growth on selective plates using the *HIS3* reporter, and using 1 mM 3-Amino-1,2,4-triazole (3-AT) to suppress background growth. All candidate interactions were verified by pairwise one-on-one mating in four independent experiments. Only pairs scoring positives in all four assays were considered as *bona fide* interaction partners.

In vitro kinase assays

Glutathione S-transferase (GST)-BIN2 (Li & Nam, 2002) and GST-T2-TRS120 phosphovariants were expressed in *Escherichia coli* (Rosetta-gami™ strain) under constant shaking for 20 h at 25°C or 20 h at 18°C, respectively. The expressed proteins were affinity purified with GST-tags. After sonication of the samples in 1x PBS, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mg/ml lysozyme and 1% Triton X-100, the bacterial cell rests were centrifuged for 30 min at 16,000 g. Supernatants were incubated for 2 h with Glutathione Sepharose® 4 Fast Flow Beads (GE Healthcare) while rotating. After washing the samples five times, the GST tagged proteins were eluted with 10 mM glutathione and concentrated by ultra-filtration.

In vitro kinase assays with radiograph readout were performed as described previously (Kim *et al*, 2012), with some adaptations. In short, ca. 0.1 µg GST-BIN2 and ca. 0.5 µg of a GST-T2-TRS120 phosphovariant were incubated in 20 mM Tris pH 7.5, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 100 µM ATP and 10 µCi ATP[γ-^{32}P] for 3 h at 22°C in motion. The kinase reaction was stopped by adding 2x SDS sample buffer and by boiling the samples for 10 min. Protein phosphorylation was analyzed by autoradiographs and SDS-PAGE.

In vitro kinase assays with mass-spectrometry readout were performed to determine specific phosphorylation sites. For each reaction, 10 µg of substrate (TRS120-T2) and different dilutions of the kinase (1:5, 1:10, 1:100) were incubated for 15, 30, and 120 min in a kinase buffer (20 mM Tris HCl, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM ATP). For the negative controls, one sample with the highest kinase concentration and the longest incubation time was incubated in a kinase buffer without ATP. For the kinase dead control, the kinase was heat-inactivated prior to the incubation with its substrate. To stop the reaction, samples were heated at 95°C for 5 min. After reduction (10 mM DTT), alkylation (55 mM CAA) and protein digestion (trypsin-gold, Promega) the resulting peptides were purified using self-packed StageTips (C18 material, 3M Empore) and analyzed by mass spectrometry. More detailed information can be found in the supporting methods.

LC-MS/MS data acquisition and analysis

Generated peptides were analyzed on a Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLCnano system coupled to a Q-Exactive HF-X mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in data-dependent acquisition mode. Peptide identification and quantification was performed using the software MaxQuant

(version 1.6.1.0) (Cox & Mann, 2008; Tyanova *et al*, 2016a) with its built-in search engine
Andromeda (Cox *et al*, 2011) and an *Arabidopsis thaliana* reference database (Araport). Perseus
(Tyanova *et al*, 2016b) and Python 3.0 were used for statistical data analyses. For a targeted
analysis of the kinase assay data set, MS1 chromatograms from selected phosphopeptides were
extracted and analyzed using the Skyline software (MacLean *et al*, 2010). For detailed information
about LC-MS/MS data acquisition and analysis see supporting methods.
584

Light and electron microscopy

Light and electron microscopy
For scanning electron microscopy, a Zeiss (LEO) VP 438 microscope was operated at 15 kV.
Fresh seedlings were placed onto stubs and examined immediately in low vacuum. Confocal
microscopes used for imaging were an Olympus (www.olympus-ims.com) Fluoview 1000 confocal
laser scanning microscope (CSLM) and a Leica (www.leica-microsystems.com) SP8 Hyvolution
CSLM. 40x and 60x water immersion 0.9 numerical aperture objectives (Olympus) were used.
Imaging data were acquired using LAS-X software (Leica) and FV10-Ver.2.6.0 software
(Olympus). The following excitation and emission parameters were used for the respective
fluorescent proteins: YFP 514 nm excitation, 525-575 nm emission; GFP 488 nm excitation, 500-
550 nm emission; and FM4-64 emission at 640 nm. 10-day-old seedlings were stained with
modified pseudo-Schiff propidium iodide staining (Truernit *et al*, 2008). Excitation Laser was set
to 488 nm. The Emission was detected at 520 nm. The junction between the meristematic and
elongation zones was determined by marking the first cell in a single cortex cell file that was double
the length of the previous cell (González-García *et al*, 2011). For seedling images, a Leica S APO
stereo microscope with a Leica MC170 HD camera was used.
600

Differential growth decision assay

Differential growth decision assay
The differential growth decision experiment was performed as described by Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022.
In brief, seeds were surface sterilized using a brief 80% ethanol rinse followed by 15 min
incubation in sterilization buffer (0.01% SDS, 3% NaOCl). After 5 washes in mQ water, seeds
were resuspended in 0.15% agar and stratified in the dark at 4°C for 7 days to break seed
dormancy. Afterwards, seeds were plated on squared plates with exactly 45 ml ½ MS medium
supplemented with B5 Vitamins (Sigma). Culture media for TRS120 phosphomutants was
additionally supplemented with 50 µg/ml kanamycin to select for transgenic seedlings. For -0.4
MPa water deficit, media plates were infused with sterile-filtrated 45 ml 2x PEG-6000 (Merck
group; dissolved in liquid ½ MS media) for exactly 24 h at RT and afterwards the PEG-solution
completely decanted. Seeds were plated at the interface between the culture media and sterilized
plastic strips on the media such that, upon germination, only the root touched the agar. For water
stress, seeds in each biological replicate were sown on two plates for technical replicates which
were pooled for analysis. After plating plates were sealed with breathable tape. Plates for dark
conditions were wrapped with two layers of thick aluminum foil. All plates were incubated for 10
days at 22°C with permanent light (80 µmol m^{-2}s^{-1}). Note that the plates were negatively inclined
by 4° to promote root growth on the media surface rather than in the agar.
After incubation of 10 days seedlings were transferred onto cold 1.2% agar plates, scanned at
1200 ppi and saved as tiff files. Hypocotyl and root lengths were analyzed with Fiji - ImageJ using
the free-hand-tool. The ratio was calculated as hypocotyl length divided by root length.

Root and hypocotyl responses to water deficit in the dark (abbreviated as darkW) were
computed as

$$\frac{\text{organ length in the dark}}{\text{organ length under darkW}}$$

624
625 And for the ratio:

$$\text{ratio adjustment} = \frac{\left(\frac{\text{hypocotyl}}{\text{root}}\right)\text{dark}}{\left(\frac{\text{hypocotyl}}{\text{root}}\right)\text{darkW}}$$

627 Due to variability between PEG lots and PEG plates (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022), we normalized each
628 mutant to the corresponding wild-type ecotype (see Table S1) on the same plate. Thus, the
629 normalized ratio adjustment to water stress in the dark (darkW) was computed as follows:

$$RQ_{ratio} = \frac{\text{ratio adjustment mutant}}{\text{ratio adjustment wild-type}}$$

631
$RQ_{hypocotyl}$ and RQ_{root} as well as light versus dark responses were computed in a similar fashion.
These normalized organ and ratio adjustments were referred to as response quotients (RQ) to
light-to-dark or dark-to-darkW conditions. The mean RQ_{ratio} of at least three biological replicates
(i.e. the seed stocks from different mother plants) is shown. Responses were considered to be
attenuated for $RQ_{ratio} < 0.8$, normal in the 0.8-1.2 range, and enhanced for $RQ_{ratio} > 1.2$. For volcano
plots we plotted the mean RQ_{ratio} on the X axis and the median P_{ratio}-value on the Y axis. Organ
and ratio adjustments for light-to-dark comparisons were computed as organ length (or ratio) in
the light divided by organ length (or ratio) in the dark. P-values were computed with the Student's
T-test. Responses were considered to be insignificant for P-values ≥ 0.05 and attenuated for P-
values ≥ 0.00001. The median P-value for at least three replicates is shown in the volcano plots.
642

643 Germination assay under osmotic stress
For germination curve experiments, surface-sterilized seeds were stratified in the dark at 4°C for
two days. Seeds were plated on ½ MS media supplemented with 0.05% B5 Vitamins (Sigma) and
either 0 mM, 200 mM, or 400 mM mannitol (Millipore). Approximately 100 seeds were plated per
condition. Plates were incubated at 22°C under constant light conditions (80 µmol m^{-2}s^{-1}) and
rotated every day. Seed germination rates were recorded every 24 h. Seeds were scored as
germinated when the radicle emerged. Data were obtained for three biological replicates, each
with three technical replicates.
651

652 Western blot analysis
Standard Western blot analysis was performed according to Sambrook *et al*, (1989). 7.5% SDS-
PAGE gels (Mini-PROTEAN TGX gels, Bio-Rad) were blotted onto PVDF Immobilon-FL
membranes (Millipore). Polyclonal rabbit anti-GFP antibody (1:2000; A11122, Invitrogen) was
used as primary antibody. As secondary antibody, we used a goat anti-rabbit Horseradish
peroxidase-conjugated antibody (1:6000; Pierce, Thermo Scientific) together with the SuperSignal
West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate (Thermo Scientific). To check for equal loading, blots
were stained with Coomassie (10% acetic acid, 50% methanol, 0.25% Coomassie Blue R-250)
and subsequently destained (10% acetic acid, 50% methanol).

Statistical analysis and image processing

False discovery rates, determined with the standard two-tailed t-test, were set at a cut-off of 1. Images taken with the Leica SP8 microscope were deconvolved using the built-in Huygens Scientific deconvolution software (www.leica-microsystems.com) operated in 2D. For consistency in quantitative analyses, we selected cortical root tip cells, at a height of 6-22 cells above the quiescent center in the root apical meristem. Images were processed with Adobe photoshop (www.adobe.com) and GIMP (https://www.gimp.org) and analysed with Image J (https://imagej.nih.gov). Statistical analyses were performed in RStudio. Figures were created with RStudio's ggplot2 package and assembled with Inkscape (https://inkscape.org).

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Data deposition

Mass spectrometry data have been deposited with the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRoteomics IDEntification (PRIDE) partner repository (Perez-Riverol *et al*, 2019) or the Mass Spectrometry Interactive Virtual Environment data repository (MassIVE; http://massive.ucsd.edu). The CLUB-GFP IP-MS data can be accessed with the dataset identifier PXD013016. The proteomics raw data, MaxQuant search results and used protein sequence databases for the other datasets can be accessed using the MassIVE data set identifier [pending]. All targeted proteomic raw data and Skyline analysis files have been deposited to Panorama Public (Sharma *et al*, 2014, 2018) [pending].

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Author contributions

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Methodology: MA, CL, BA, CHP, PFB, CW, AS, NK, ASM, BB, CM, EF, FFA

Investigation: CW, MA, BA, MAM, AS, NK, ASM, RR, CHP, BB, CM, EF, FFA

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    FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. The TRAPPII interactome.

A. Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis of the TRAPPII interactome. Depicted are fold

enrichments of GO terms of level 0 as bar plots colored by significance level. The data are derived

from an analysis of IP-MS from inflorescences with the TRAPPII-specific subunit CLUB-GFP as

bait (see Fig. 1B; Kalde *et al*, 2019). Terms are grouped by manually annotated super-categories.

Metabolic processes were excluded for simplification. Note that the super categories organization

(9) and traffic/transport (12) make up the majority of GO terms (21/49) and that response to

stimulus (11) comprises the second largest category. Cutoffs were set at 1.5 for fold-change and

0.003 for the *P*-value, which was adjusted for the false discovery rate.

B. IP-MS with the TRAPPII-specific subunit CLUB-GFP as bait (Kalde *et al*, 2019). Inflorescences

were used. Each protein was present in all three biological replicates. The ratio (or fold-change)

was calculated for each protein as the average intensity of the signal in the experiment divided by

its average intensity in the soluble GFP empty vector control. The *P*-value (depicted along a

negative log10 scale) is plotted against the signal ratio. Dotted grey lines represent cutoffs: *P*-

value < 0.02 and Ratio > 8 or > 5. Note that TRAPPII subunits (light blue for core TRAPP; dark

blue for TRAPPII-specific subunits; the AtTRS130/CLUB-GFP TRAPPII-specific bait is depicted

as an open circle) are in the upper right field, indicating high abundance and good reproducibility.

AtSKs (magenta), MAP65-1 (orange) and Rab A2a GTPase (green) are all in the upper middle

field; these may be transient interactors of TRAPPII. Note that AtSKs (AtSK11/12/32) are more

significant than validated interactors such as MAP65 and RabA2a (Kalde *et al*, 2019; Steiner *et*

al, 2016).

C. Yeast two-hybrid assays of interactions between BIN2 and TRAPPII subunits. BIN2 was fused

to the GAL4 DNA-binding domain (DB) and TRAPPII subunits and truncations thereof (CLUB$^{1-417}$,

CLUB$^{392-1260}$, CLUB$^{792-1260}$, TRS120$^{1-800}$, TRS120$^{499-1187}$ and TRS120$^{750-1187}$; referred to below as

CLUB-C1, -C2, -C3 and TRS120-T1, -T2, -T3) to the GAL4 activation domain (AD). As negative

control, the BIN2-DB construct was tested with the empty AD vector. Interactions were verified by

pairwise one-on-one mating in four independent replicate experiments. The panels are from

different plates. The results show interactions between BIN2 and AtTRS120$^{499-1187}$ wild-type. BIN2

bound specifically to the TRAPPII subunit TRS120 (TRS120$^{499-1187}$ / T2 truncation) and not with

other TRAPPII subunits or truncations. In a total of > 2400 pairwise tests, BIN2 was the only kinase

we found that interacted with a TRAPP subunit. The Y2H did not detect AtTRS130/CLUB-BIN2

interaction shown in Fig. 1B, which shows co-purified proteins that can include indirect - as

opposed to binary - interactors. Related to Fig. S1.

Figure 2. GSK3/AtSK sites in TRAPPII and binary interactions.

A. TRAPPII-specific truncations for yeast two-hybrid were based on phylogenetic analysis (Steiner

et al, 2016). Conserved sequences are depicted in red, intermediate degrees of conservation in

orange, and plant-specific sequences are in green. All three GSK3 sites found to be

phosphorylated *in vivo* (delineated by a blue rectangle) reside in the plant-specific moiety of

TRS120-T2 (green).

B. GSK3 sites in TRS120-T2. The α-phosphosite of AtTRS120 spans amino acid positions S922

and S923, the β-phosphosite amino acids S971-S975 and the γ-phosphosite amino acid residue

S1165. The canonical GSK3 consensus sequence is: (pS/pT)*XXX*(S/T), and the β-phosphosite

fits this definition (see underlined SXXXS). Even though they are annotated as GSK3 sites in the

PPSP (https://www.phosphosite.org) database, the α-phosphosite deviates somewhat with

SXXXXS, and the γ-phosphosite deviates completely. Amino acids in red were mutated to A or D

via site-directed mutagenesis. Amino acids highlighted in yellow were found to be phosphorylated

in vivo and these were all serines (see Fig. S2).

C, D. Mapping of GSK3/AtSK sites on an Alphafold structural prediction (Jumper *et al*, 2021;

Varadi *et al*, 2022) of AtTRS120. A lateral view (C) and a frontal perspective (D) are shown. Note

that all three GSK3/AtSK sites reside in unstructured, flexible and accessible regions of the

protein.

E. The Arabidopsis TRAPPII complex consists of six shared core subunits (light blue) and three

TRAPPII-specific subunits (CLUB/AtTRS130, AtTRS120 and the plant-specific subunit TRIPP),

and forms a dimer with plant-specific domains (green) at the predicted dimer interface (Garcia *et*

al, 2020; Kalde *et al*, 2019). A Rab-GTPase (beige) is shown to bind core-TRAPP subunits at the

approximate location of the putative GEF catalytic site, based on yeast models (Cai *et al*, 2008;

Thomas *et al*, 2019).

F. Yeast two-hybrid assays of interactions between BIN2 and TRAPPII truncations (CLUB-C2,

CLUB-C3, TRS120-T1, TRS120-T3), as positive controls, fused to the GAL4 DNA-binding domain

(DB) and TRS120-T2 truncation and its phosphomutants TRS120-T2 SαD, SβD, SγD, SαβD and

SαβγD fused to the GAL4 activation domain (AD). As negative control, the BIN2-DB construct was

tested with the empty AD vector. Interactions were verified by pairwise one-on-one mating in four

independent replicate experiments; for the control (Co) only one representative example is shown.

The panels are from different plates. The results show interactions between BIN2 and AtTRS120-

T2 wild-type and phosphovariants; there was, however, no reproducible interaction if all three
target sites were phosphomimetic. Related to Fig. S1-S5.

Figure 3. *In vitro* AtSK kinase assays with TRS120 as bait.

A. *In vitro* kinase assays using GST:AtSK11 (72 kDa) and GST:TRS120-T2 (100 kDa). The

change of phosphosignal is shown in a representative autoradiograph (upper panel) and the

loaded protein amount in the corresponding CBB (lower panel). Non-phosphorylated variants were

used as negative controls. The means $\pm$SD of phosphosignals were normalized to the protein

amount; nonmutated TRS120-T2 WT is set at 1.0 (right panel); n = 3 independent experiments; *:

$P<0.05$ paired two-sided student's t-test; TRS120-T2-Sαβγ A versus TRS120-T2 WT).

B. AtTRS120-T2 has highly (red) and moderately (orange) conserved sequences, as well as plant-

specific sequences (green). Three GSK3 sites (referred to as α, β, γ; see Fig. 2B) can be found in

the plant-specific T2 domain.

C. Kinase assays were performed *in vitro* with mass-spectrometry readout. One member of each

shaggy-like kinase clade (AtSKs; see Fig. S3A) was used with the TRS120-T2 truncation as

substrate. Dilution series are depicted in different shades of blue. AtSKs in clades I-III differentially

phosphorylate the substrate at three GSK3 consensus sites (with a preference for the γ site) in a

time-dependent and concentration-dependent manner. A clade IV AtSK did not phosphorylate at

all. Samples incubated for 120 min in a kinase buffer without ATP, or samples in which the kinase

was heat inactivated, served as negative controls. The numbers in grey in each plot denote the

number of times the phosphorylation event was seen in the given number of independent

replicates. Note the higher intensity of the TRS120-γ peptide, especially for Clade I/SK11 (1e8 for

TRS120-γ versus 1e6 for TRS120-α and TRS120-β on the Y axis). Related to Fig. S1-S6.

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Figure 4. Role of the TRAPPII complex versus ECHIDNA in hypocotyl/root tradeoffs.

Seedlings were germinated on ½ MS in the dark (dark) or in dark with -0.4MPa water stress

(darkW). **A.** Col-0 (wild-type). **B.** BR signaling mutant *bin2-3bil1bil2* triple knockout (from Kalbfuß

et al, 2022). **C.** *club-2*, a null *trappii* mutant. **D.** *trs120-4*, a null *trappii* allele. **E.** *echidna* null allele,

impaired in TGN structure and function. At least 3 experiments were performed for each line, and

a representative one is shown here on the basis of RQ and *P*-values. **F.** Violin plot for a direct

comparison between *trs120-4* and the corresponding wild-type (Col-0; in the same experiment

and on the same PEG plates) showing that the response to a shift from dark to darkW seen in the

wild-type was not observed in *trs120-4*. **G.** Normalized response quotient RQ$_{ratio}$. Each replicate

is represented by a dot. Note that the triple *bin2-3bil1bil2* knock out, *trs120-4* and *club-2* had

attenuated responses (magenta arrows). **H.** Volcano plot with the mean RQ$_{ratio}$ depicted on the X

axis and the median *P*-value of the response on the Y axis (negative log scale; a median of all

replicates was used). The area shaded in grey on the red line (green arrow) is where wild-type

ecotypes would theoretically map onto the plot. Mutants in the lower left quadrant (peach shading)

were considered to have a "confused decision phenotype" (see text). *trs120-4* mutants mapped to

the lower left quadrant and qualified as decision mutants on two counts: (i) a consistently opposite

hypocotyl response (red asterisk in D), (ii) failure to adjust the hypocotyl/root ratio to darkW (the

ratio for darkW is the same as for dark in panel D), translating into a non-significant *P*-value for

the ratio response (H). The number (n) of seedlings measured per condition is in grey below the

mean $\pm$SD bar graphs. *P*-values were computed with a two-tailed student's t-test and are

represented as follows: *: P<0.05; **: P<0.01; ***: P<0.001; ****: P<0.0001; *****: P<0.00001.

Mutant alleles and the corresponding ecotypes are described in Table S1. See related Fig. S7.

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Figure 5. Cell elongation in *trappii* hypocotyls under additive stress.

A. Col-0 wild-type.

B. *club-2,* null *trappii* allele.

C. *trs120-4,* null *trappii* allele*.*

Seedlings were germinated in the light, or in the dark with (darkW) or without (dark) water stress

(PEG -0.4MPa). The cellular growth parameters width and height were measured based on SEM

images. The cell surface area was calculated as the product of cell width and length. The *trappii*

mutants, *club-2* and *trs120-4*, showed the opposite hypocotyl cell height and cell surface

adaptations to dark-to-darkW conditions (red asterisks in B and C) than the wild-type control.

Representative SEM images of seedlings grown under the specified conditions are shown

(scalebar = 20 µm). The sample size (n) is given as the number of cells/ number of seedlings that

were analyzed in grey below the graph. Shown are means $\pm$SD. *P*-values were computed with a

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P<0.00001.

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Figure 6. Root meristem properties of *trappii* mutants under single versus additive stress conditions. Seedlings were grown in the light (orange), dark (black) or dark with -0.4MPa water stress (darkW; blue).

A-D. Col-0 wild-type.

E-H. *trs120-4* null mutant.

(A-C) and (E-G) confocal micrographs of mPS-PI stained root tips under different environmental conditions; black arrows mark the junction between the meristematic and elongation zones.

D, H. 10 days after incubation, the cell lengths were measured in single cortex cell files, starting at the cortex/endodermis initials. The fitted lines were generated with Local Polynomial Regression Fitting with the 'loess' method in R; grey shading designates the 95 percent confidence interval. Cell lengths of consecutive cells as a function of cell number from the quiescent centre (QC); the green arrows point to the steep slope under the dark condition and steeper slope under darkW condition - the initiation of elongation - in the wild-type (D); magenta arrows point to flatter, unadjusted slopes under dark versus darkW in *trappii* (*trs120-4*) mutants (H). The sample size (n) is given as the number of cells/ number of seedlings that were analyzed in panels (D,H). Scale bar is 50 μm.

Figure 7. Responses of TRS120 phosphovariants to osmotic or additive stress.

Phosphovariants of P$_{TRS120}$::TRS120-GFP (Rybak *et al*, 2014) were in *trs120-4* homozygous backgrounds with the exception of the TRS120-SαβγD variant in panels A-C, which was in a hemizygous *trs120-4*/+ background.

A-C. Germination of TRS120 phosphovariants under osmotic stress**.** Effect of A) 0 mM, B) 200 mM and C) 400 mM mannitol on seed germination of the TRS120-SαβγA, the TRS120-SαβγD mutants and the following controls: Col-0 wild-type; the ABA deficient mutant *aba2-1* and the ABA PP2C co receptor triple knock-out line *hab1-1 abi1-2 pp2ca-1*. The non-phosphorylatable TRS120-SαβγA mutation increased seed germination on higher mannitol concentrations, whereas the phosphomimetic TRS120-SαβγD decreased seed germination. Shown are the means ± SD of three technical replicates. Similar results were obtained in three independent biological replicates. Stars indicate statistical significance compared to the wild-type Col-0 calculated with a two-tailed student's t-test (*: P<0.05; **: P<0.01; ***: P<0.001; ****: P<0.0001; *****: P<0.00001). DAS: days after stratification.

D-F. Response quotients (RQ) of A) the hypocotyl, B) the root and C) the hypocotyl/root ratio of the non-phosphorylatable TRS120-SαβγA and the phosphomimetic TRS120-SαβγD mutants for

dark-to-dark with water stress (-0.4MPa, darkW) adaptation. The divergent hypocotyl and root responses of TRS120-SαβγA and TRS120-SαβγD mutants resulted in a strong hypocotyl/root ratio phenotype under darkW conditions compared to the TRS120-WT control. TRS120-SαβγA showed an enhanced ratio adaption, whereas TRS120-SαβγD mutants had an attenuated ratio response. RQ response quotients are normalized to the rescue mutant TRS120-WT (P_{TRS120}::TRS120-GFP in *trs120-4/trs120-4*). A value of 1 (vertical red line) corresponds to an identical adaptation to darkW conditions as the rescue mutant. Dots represent biological replicates, of which there were a total of four primary transformants per line. Mean RQ values are given on the right.

Figure 8. Flow diagram suggesting how BIN2 might mediate plant adaptive responses by phosphorylating the TRAPPII complex.

Shaggy-like kinases such as BIN2 integrate a vast number of signaling pathways and, together with receptor complexes at the cell surface, comprise a surveillance system fine-tuned to both biotic and abiotic cues (Lv & Li, 2020; Planas-Riverola *et al*, 2019; Youn & Kim, 2015; Li *et al*, 2021; Song *et al*, 2023). BIN2 resides at the plasma membrane and in the cytosol and TRAPPII resides at the cytosol and in the TGN (Qi *et al*, 2011; Naramoto *et al*, 2014; Rybak *et al*, 2014; Ravikumar *et al*, 2018). We propose that, in the cytosol, the BIN2-TRAPPII interaction serves in the relay of information from the PM to the TGN. As an early endosome, the TGN is a central hub in the flow of information to and from the cell surface. It is also intimately connected to the late endosome (or the pre-vacuolar compartment) and to the Golgi. Thus, the AtSK-TRAPPII interaction would integrate all levels of cellular organization. We posit that signal integration and decision-making occur at the AtSK-TRAPPII interface and that, downstream of TRAPPII, Rab GTPase cascades are implicated in implementing decisions reached at the AtSK-TRAPPII module.

In the lower panel we show one example of an adaptive growth decision in 10-day-old seedlings (Col-0 wild-type). Bar plots depict hypocotyl (green) versus root (beige-brown) lengths. Light: light grown seedling with a short hypocotyl and a long root. Dark: a seedling germinated in the dark with a long hypocotyl and a short root. DarkW: Water deprivation in the dark; the hypocotyl is shorter and the root longer than under dark conditions. The dotted green arrow (dark, darkW) represents the incentive for hypocotyl elongation in search of light and the brown arrow (darkW) the incentive for root growth in search of water. Thus, darkW is a "conflict of interest" scenario in which hypocotyl and root growth have competing interests (Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). Figure created with BioRender.

1131 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

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Figure S1. Selected brassinosteroid signaling components in CLUB:GFP IP-MS.

Figure S2. Fragment ion mass spectra of AtTRS120 phosphopeptides found in TRS120:GFP

IP-MS.

Figure S3. Fragment ion mass spectra of AtSK/GSK3 kinases found in TRS120:GFP IP-MS.

Figure S4. BIN2 phosphorylates TRS120 preferentially at the Sγ site.

Figure S5. Pharmacological inhibition of TRAPPII phosphorylation by AtSKs *in vivo.*

Figure S6. Cytokinesis and protein sorting in *bin2-1.*

Figure S7. Response to additive stress: response quotients and volcano plots.

Figure S8. Light responses in *bin2*, *trappii* and *echidna* mutants.

Figure S9. Characterization of TRS120:GFP phosphovariants.

Figure S10. Localization of TRS120:GFP phosphovariants.

Figure S11. The etiolation response in TRS120 phosphovariants.

Figure S12. Role of TRS120 phosphorylation status on adaptive growth responses under

additive stress conditions.

Table S1. Mutant lines used in this study.

Table S2. Selected brassinosteroid signaling proteins in the CLUB interactome.

Supporting Methods.

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Figure 1. The TRAPPII interactome.
A. Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis of the TRAPPII interactome. Depicted are fold enrichments

of GO terms of level 0 as bar plots colored by significance level. The data are derived from an analysis of IP-MS from inflorescences with the TRAPPII-specific subunit CLUB-GFP as bait (see Fig. 1B; Kalde *et al*, 2019). Terms are grouped by manually annotated super-categories. Metabolic processes were excluded for simplification. Note that the super categories organization (9) and traffic/transport (12) make up the majority of GO terms (21/49) and that response to stimulus (11) comprises the second largest category. Cutoffs were set at 1.5 for fold-change and 0.003 for the *P*-value, which was adjusted for the false discovery rate.

B. IP-MS with the TRAPPII-specific subunit CLUB-GFP as bait (Kalde *et al*, 2019). Inflorescences were used. Each protein was present in all three biological replicates. The ratio (or fold-change) was calculated for each protein as the average intensity of the signal in the experiment divided by its average intensity in the soluble GFP empty vector control. The *P*-value (depicted along a negative log10 scale) is plotted against the signal ratio. Dotted grey lines represent cutoffs: *P*-value < 0.02 and Ratio > 8 or > 5. Note that TRAPPII subunits (light blue for core TRAPP; dark blue for TRAPPII-specific subunits; the AtTRS130/CLUB-GFP TRAPPII-specific bait is depicted as an open circle) are in the upper right field, indicating high abundance and good reproducibility. AtSKs (magenta), MAP65-1 (orange) and Rab A2a GTPase (green) are all in the upper middle field; these may be transient interactors of TRAPPII. Note that AtSKs (AtSK11/12/32) are more significant than validated interactors such as MAP65 and RabA2a (Kalde *et al*, 2019; Steiner *et al*, 2016).

C. Yeast two-hybrid assays of interactions between BIN2 and TRAPPII subunits. BIN2 was fused to the GAL4 DNA-binding domain (DB) and TRAPPII subunits and truncations thereof (CLUB$^{1-417}$, CLUB$^{392-1260}$, CLUB$^{792-1260}$, TRS120$^{1-800}$, TRS120$^{499-1187}$ and TRS120$^{750-1187}$; referred to below as CLUB-C1, -C2, -C3 and TRS120-T1, -T2, -T3) to the GAL4 activation domain (AD). As negative control, the BIN2-DB construct was tested with the empty AD vector. Interactions were verified by pairwise one-on-one mating in four independent replicate experiments. The panels are from different plates. The results show interactions between BIN2 and AtTRS120$^{499-1187}$ wild-type. BIN2 bound specifically to the TRAPPII subunit TRS120 (TRS120$^{499-1187}$ / T2 truncation) and not with other TRAPPII subunits or truncations. In a total of > 2400 pairwise tests, BIN2 was the only kinase we found that interacted with a TRAPP subunit. The Y2H did not detect AtTRS130/CLUB-BIN2 interaction shown in Fig. 1B, which shows co-purified proteins that can include indirect - as opposed to binary - interactors. Related to Fig. S1.

Figure 2. GSK3/AtSK sites in TRAPPII and binary interactions.

A. TRAPPII-specific truncations for yeast two-hybrid were based on phylogenetic analysis (Steiner *et al*, 2016). Conserved sequences are depicted in red, intermediate degrees of conservation in orange, and plant-specific sequences are in green. All three GSK3 sites found to be phosphorylated *in vivo* (delineated by a blue rectangle) reside in the plant-specific moiety of TRS120-T2 (green).

B. GSK3 sites in TRS120-T2. The α-phosphosite of AtTRS120 spans amino acid positions S922 and S923, the β-phosphosite amino acids S971-S975 and the γ-phosphosite amino acid residue S1165. The canonical GSK3 consensus sequence is: (pS/pT)*XXX*(S/T), and the β-phosphosite fits this definition (see underlined

SXXX<u>S</u>). Even though they are annotated as GSK3 sites in the PPSP (https://www.phosphosite.org) database, the α-phosphosite deviates somewhat with <u>S</u>XXXX<u>S</u>, and the γ-phosphosite deviates completely. Amino acids in red were mutated to A or D via site-directed mutagenesis. Amino acids highlighted in yellow were found to be phosphorylated *in vivo* and these were all serines (see Fig. S2).

C, D. Mapping of GSK3/AtSK sites on an Alphafold structural prediction (Jumper *et al*, 2021; Varadi *et al*, 2022) of AtTRS120. A lateral view (C) and a frontal perspective (D) are shown. Note that all three GSK3/AtSK sites reside in unstructured, flexible and accessible regions of the protein.

E. The Arabidopsis TRAPPII complex consists of six shared core subunits (light blue) and three TRAPPII-specific subunits (CLUB/AtTRS130, AtTRS120 and the plant-specific subunit TRIPP), and forms a dimer with plant-specific domains (green) at the predicted dimer interface (Garcia *et al*, 2020; Kalde *et al*, 2019). A Rab-GTPase (beige) is shown to bind core-TRAPP subunits at the approximate location of the putative GEF catalytic site, based on yeast models (Cai *et al*, 2008; Thomas *et al*, 2019).

F. Yeast two-hybrid assays of interactions between BIN2 and TRAPPII truncations (CLUB-C2, CLUB-C3, TRS120-T1, TRS120-T3), as positive controls, fused to the GAL4 DNA-binding domain (DB) and TRS120-T2 truncation and its phosphomutants TRS120-T2 SαD, SβD, SγD, SαβD and SαβγD fused to the GAL4 activation domain (AD). As negative control, the BIN2-DB construct was tested with the empty AD vector. Interactions were verified by pairwise one-on-one mating in four independent replicate experiments; for the control (Co) only one representative example is shown. The panels are from different plates. The results show interactions between BIN2 and AtTRS120-T2 wild-type and phosphovariants; there was, however, no reproducible interaction if all three target sites were phosphomimetic. Related to Fig. S1-S5.

Figure 3. *In vitro* AtSK kinase assays with TRS120 as bait.
A. *In vitro* kinase assays using GST:AtSK11 (72 kDa) and GST:TRS120-T2 (100 kDa). The change of phosphosignal is shown in a representative autoradiograph (upper panel) and the loaded protein amount in the corresponding CBB (lower panel). Non-phosphorylated variants were used as negative controls. The means ±SD of phosphosignals were normalized to the protein amount; nonmutated TRS120-T2 WT is set at 1.0 (right panel); n = 3 independent experiments; *: $P<0.05$ paired two-sided student's t-test; TRS120-T2-SαβγA versus TRS120-T2 WT).

B. AtTRS120-T2 has highly (red) and moderately (orange) conserved sequences, as well as plant-specific sequences (green). Three GSK3 sites (referred to as α, β, γ; see Fig. 2B) can be found in the plant-specific T2 domain.

C. Kinase assays were performed *in vitro* with mass-spectrometry readout. One member of each shaggy-like kinase clade (AtSKs; see Fig. S3A) was used with the TRS120-T2 truncation as substrate. Dilution series are depicted in different shades of blue. AtSKs in clades I-III differentially phosphorylate the substrate at three GSK3 consensus sites (with a preference for the γ site) in a time-dependent and concentration-dependent manner. A clade IV AtSK did not phosphorylate at all. Samples incubated for 120 min in a kinase buffer without ATP, or samples in which the kinase was heat inactivated, served as negative controls. The numbers in grey in each plot denote the number of times the phosphorylation event was seen in the given number of independent replicates. Note the higher intensity of the TRS120-γ peptide, especially for Clade I/SK11 (1e8 for TRS120-γ versus 1e6 for TRS120-α and TRS120-β on the Y axis). Related to Fig. S1-S6.

Figure 4. Role of the TRAPPII complex versus ECHIDNA in hypocotyl/root tradeoffs.
Seedlings were germinated on ½ MS in the dark (dark) or in dark with -0.4MPa water stress (darkW). **A.** Col-0 (wild-type). **B.** BR signaling mutant *bin2-3bil1bil2* triple knockout (from Kalbfuß *et al*, 2022). **C.** *club-2*, a null *trappii* mutant. **D.** *trs120-4*, a null *trappii* allele. **E.** *echidna* null allele, impaired in TGN structure and function. At least 3 experiments were performed for each line, and a representative one is shown here on the basis of RQ and *P*-values. **F.** Violin plot for a direct comparison between *trs120-4* and the corresponding wild-type (Col-0; in the same experiment and on the same PEG plates) showing that the response to a shift from dark to darkW seen in the wild-type was not observed in *trs120-4*. **G.** Normalized response quotient RQ$_{ratio}$. Each replicate is represented by a dot. Note that the triple *bin2-3bil1bil2* knock out, *trs120-4* and *club-2* had attenuated responses (magenta arrows). **H.** Volcano plot with the mean RQ$_{ratio}$ depicted on the X axis and the median *P*-value of the response on the Y axis (negative log scale; a median of all replicates was used). The area shaded in grey on the red line (green arrow) is where wild-type ecotypes would theoretically map onto the plot. Mutants in the lower left quadrant (peach shading) were considered to have a "confused decision phenotype" (see text). *trs120-4* mutants mapped to the lower left quadrant and qualified as decision mutants on two counts: (i) a consistently opposite hypocotyl response (red asterisk in D), (ii) failure to adjust the hypocotyl/root ratio to darkW (the ratio for darkW is the same as for dark in panel D), translating into a non-significant *P*-value for the ratio response (H). The number (n) of seedlings measured per condition is in grey below the mean ±SD bar graphs. *P*-values were computed with a two-tailed student's t-test and are represented as follows: *: P<0.05; **: P<0.01; ***: P<0.001; ****: P<0.0001; *****: P<0.00001. Mutant alleles and the corresponding ecotypes are described in Table S1. See related Fig. S7.

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A. Col-0 wild-type.
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Seedlings were germinated in the light, or in the dark with (darkW) or without (dark) water stress (PEG -
0.4MPa). The cellular growth parameters width and height were measured based on SEM images. The cell
surface area was calculated as the product of cell width and heigth. The *trappii* mutants, *club-2* and *trs120-
4*, showed the opposite hypocotyl cell height and cell surface adaptations to dark-to-darkW conditions (red
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specified conditions are shown (scalebar = 20 µm). The sample size (n) is given as the number of cells/
number of seedlings that were analyzed in grey below the graph. Shown are means ±SD. *P*-values were
computed with a two-tailed student's t-test and are represented as follows: ***: P<0.001; ****: P<0.0001;
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Figure 6. Root meristem properties of *trappii* mutants under single versus additive stress conditions. Seedlings were grown in the light (orange), dark (black) or dark with -0.4MPa water stress (darkW; blue).

A-D. Col-0 wild-type.

E-H. *trs120-4* null mutant.

(A-C) and (E-G) confocal micrographs of mPS-PI stained root tips under different environmental conditions; black arrows mark the junction between the meristematic and elongation zones.

D, H. 10 days after incubation, the cell lengths were measured in single cortex cell files, starting at the cortex/endodermis initials. The fitted lines were generated with Local Polynomial Regression Fitting with the 'loess' method in R; grey shading designates the 95 percent confidence interval. Cell lengths of consecutive cells as a function of cell number from the quiescent centre (QC); the green arrows point to the steep slope under the dark condition and steeper slope under darkW condition - the initiation of elongation - in the wild-type (D); magenta arrows point to flatter, unadjusted slopes under dark versus darkW in *trappii* (*trs120-4*) mutants (H). The sample size (n) is given as the number of cells/ number of seedlings that were analyzed in panels (D,H). Scale bar is 50 µm.

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A-C. Germination of TRS120 phosphovariants under osmotic stress**.** Effect of A) 0 mM, B) 200 mM and C) 400 mM mannitol on seed germination of the TRS120-SαβγA, the TRS120-SαβγD mutants and the following controls: Col-0 wild-type; the ABA deficient mutant *aba2-1* and the ABA PP2C co receptor triple knock-out line *hab1-1 abi1-2 pp2ca-1*. The non-phosphorylatable TRS120-SαβγA mutation increased seed germination on higher mannitol concentrations, whereas the phosphomimetic TRS120-SαβγD decreased seed germination. Shown are the means ± SD of three technical replicates. Similar results were obtained in three independent biological replicates. Stars indicate statistical significance compared to the wild-type Col-0 calculated with a two-tailed student's t-test (*: P<0.05; **: P<0.01; ***: P<0.001; ****: P<0.0001; *****: P<0.00001). DAS: days after stratification.

D-F. Response quotients (RQ) of A) the hypocotyl, B) the root and C) the hypocotyl/root ratio of the non-phosphorylatable TRS120-SαβγA and the phosphomimetic TRS120-SαβγD mutants for dark-to-dark with water stress (-0.4MPa, darkW) adaptation. The divergent hypocotyl and root responses of TRS120-SαβγA and TRS120-SαβγD mutants resulted in a strong hypocotyl/root ratio phenotype under darkW conditions compared to the TRS120-WT control. TRS120-SαβγA showed an enhanced ratio adaption, whereas TRS120-SαβγD mutants had an attenuated ratio response. RQ response quotients are normalized to the rescue mutant TRS120-WT (P_{TRS120}::TRS120-GFP in *trs120-4/trs120-4*). A value of 1 (vertical red line) corresponds to an identical adaptation to darkW conditions as the rescue mutant. Dots represent biological replicates, of which there were a total of four primary transformants per line. Mean RQ values are given on the right.

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