1 **Plasmodesmal closure elicits stress responses**
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16
17 **Abstract**
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Plant cells are connected to their neighbors via plasmodesmata facilitating the
exchange of nutrients and signaling molecules. During immune responses,
plasmodesmata close, but how this contributes towards a full immune response is
unknown. To investigate this, we developed two transgenic lines with which we could
induce plasmodesmal closure independently of immune elicitors, using the over-active
CALLOSE SYNTHASE3 allele *icals3m* and the C-terminus of PDLP1 to drive callose
deposition at plasmodesmata. Induction of plasmodesmal closure increased the
expression of stress responsive genes, salicylic acid accumulation and resistance to
Pseudomonas syringae DC3000. More homogeneous plasmodesmal closure using
icals3m also led to the accumulation of starch and sugars, decreased leaf growth, as
well as hypersusceptibility to *Botrytis cinerea*. Based on the profile of responses, we
conclude that plasmodesmal closure itself activates stress signaling, raising questions
of what signals mediate this response and whether these responses occur in all
circumstances when plasmodesmata close.

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34 Keywords: plasmodesmata / defense / callose / stress signaling
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Introduction

Plants are multicellular organisms, with almost every plant cell cytoplasmically connected to its neighbors. While most plant cells are equipped with machinery to respond autonomously to a range of stress signals, optimal responses involve the regulation of this cytoplasmic connectivity between cells. This is particularly evident in immune signaling; most cells produce the receptors that perceive microbial threats and can activate appropriate responses, but the degree of connectivity to neighboring cells is a critical part of the full immune response (Lee et al. 2011; Faulkner et al. 2013). Indeed, if plants cannot regulate the cytoplasmic connectivity between cells, they are more susceptible to infection by a range of pathogenic microbes. Despite this observation, we don't yet understand how cell-to-cell connectivity contributes to an overall immune response.

Cytoplasmic connectivity between plant cells is established via membrane-lined bridges called plasmodesmata. Plasmodesmata are dynamic structures and the oscillation in their aperture, i.e., closing and opening, allows control over the flux of soluble molecules between cells. We broadly assume that many molecules that move through plasmodesmata, including plant hormones, mRNAs, and proteins, are information carriers and that aperture changes thus impact cell-to-cell communication. Indeed, if an immune response involves the production of soluble defense-associated molecules, their passage through plasmodesmata could transmit critical information to neighboring (or distant) naïve cells.

Plant immune responses include a decrease in plasmodesmal aperture, which reduces cell-to-cell movement of molecules (as recently reviewed by Wang et al. 2021b; German et al. 2023; Alazem and Burch-Smith 2024). Plasmodesmal aperture is regulated via callose deposition and degradation at the plasmodesmal neck by callose synthases (CalS) and β-glucanases respectively (Levy et al. 2007; Vatén et al. 2011). The decrease in plasmodesmal aperture in response to stress is a process activated by signaling cascades mediated by specific machinery. For example, LYSM-CONTAINING GPI-ANCHORED PROTEIN 2 (LYM2; Faulkner et al. 2013) and CALMODULIN-LIKE 41 (CML41; Xu et al. 2017) specifically mediate plasmodesmal responses to the microbial elicitors chitin and flg22 respectively, and PLASMODESMATA LOCATED PROTEIN 5 (PDLP5) integrates these responses, as

well as plasmodesmal responses triggered by the defense hormone salicylic acid (SA;
Wang et al. 2013; Tee et al. 2023b). The observation that *lym2* mutants cannot close
their plasmodesmata in response to chitin but execute normal chitin-triggered mitogen-
activated protein kinase (MAPK) activation and apoplastic ROS production (Faulkner
et al. 2013) indicates that plasmodesmal signaling cascades can act independently of
other immune responses. This independence of response suggests that whether
plasmodesmata are open or closed might be informed by another layer of cellular
regulation.

It has been observed that plasmodesmal permeability decreases upon PAMP
perception within 30 min (Xu et al. 2017) and is still detected after 24 hours (Lim et al.
2016; Li et al. 2021). Both PAMP perception and pathogen infection initiate a wide
array of defense responses making it challenging to identify the specific contribution
of plasmodesmal closure to immunity. Further, in the context of an infection, many
pathogens deploy effectors targeting plasmodesmata that suppress plasmodesmal
closure (e.g. Aung et al, 2020; Tomczynska et al. 2020; Li et al. 2021; Ohtsu et al.
2024), further complicating the analysis of the role of plasmodesmata in host immune
execution in an infection context.

Whether plasmodesmata can close or not during immune responses determines
whether a full defense response can be executed but untangling how plasmodesmal
closure contributes to overall immunity is a complex problem. To begin to address this
we have simplified the question and asked what cellular responses are triggered by
plasmodesmal closure, and how closing plasmodesmata affects elements of an
immune response. We generated two genetic tools with which we can induce
plasmodesmal closure independently of an immune or stress elicitor. By identifying
what responses are trigged by plasmodesmal closure in both tools, we found that
plasmodesmal closure itself instigates a subset of stress responses including
transcriptional reprogramming and salicylic acid (SA) production. This raises further
questions regarding how this contributes to the orchestration of immune responses,
how plasmodesmal closure triggers stress responses and whether these stress
responses occur during the broad range of physiological processes during which
plasmodesmata close.

Results

Genetic tools induce plasmodesmal closure independent of a physiological elicitor

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To manipulate plasmodesmal closure independently of external signals we generated
two transgenic lines in which estradiol application can induce callose deposition at
plasmodesmata. First, we exploited the *icals3m* overactive *CalS3* allele (Vatén et al.
2011) that enhances callose deposition at plasmodesmata; *icals3m* has been used
extensively as a tool to understand symplastic connection in development (e.g.,
Paterlini et al. 2021; Ross-Elliott et al. 2017; Sevilem et al. 2012; Wu et al. 2016; Yadav
et al. 2014) but less is known about its effect on immunity. As a callose synthase, this
enzyme acts terminally in the plasmodesmal-associated callose deposition pathway.
Secondly, we utilized the observation that a synthetic construct of the fluorescent
protein mCherry fused between the PDLP1 signal peptide, and the PDLP1
transmembrane domain and cytoplasmic tail, also promotes callose deposition at
plasmodesmata (Caillaud et al. 2014). We fused these two transgenes independently
to the *XVE* chimeric transcription activator and *LexA* operator (Zuo et al. 2000) and
transformed them into *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 to create two different inducible
tools, named LexA::icals3m and LexA::PD-Plug respectively. To identify functional
transgenic lines, we performed qPCR, copy number analysis and/or live imaging
(Supplemental Table 1; Supplemental Fig. S1).

To functionally characterize the selected LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m lines, we
first measured callose deposition by quantitative live cell imaging of aniline blue
stained plasmodesmal callose 24 hours (h) post estradiol treatment. At this timepoint,
both LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m showed greater accumulation of callose at PD
when compared to the DMSO treatment, although there was a greater response in
LexA::icals3m (Fig. 1a; Supplemental Fig. S2) suggesting that this line can deposit
more callose at plasmodesmata than LexA::PD-Plug. To determine whether increased
callose deposition perturbed plasmodesmal permeability, we used microprojectile
bombardment assays of *35S::GFP* to measure GFP flux between cells in DMSO or
estradiol treated leaves. While estradiol treatment did not impact GFP flux in
comparison to DMSO in wild-type Col-0 plants, we found that estradiol induction of
either transgene reduced GFP flux between cells, indicating plasmodesmal aperture
was reduced and cell-to-cell connectivity decreased (Fig. 1b-c; Supplemental Data Set
1). The extent of GFP flux was significantly less in induced LexA::icals3m compared
to induced LexA::PD-Plug (Fig. 1c). From these results, we conclude that estradiol

induces plasmodesmal callose deposition, and plasmodesmal closure in both LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m, but not Col-0.

We noted that the data obtained from GFP mobility assays indicates that induced LexA::PD-Plug displays heterogeneous plasmodesmal closure; while there is an increase in the population of cells that exhibit plasmodesmal closure in induced tissues, a subset of the population of cells remain connected to their neighbors (Fig. 1c; Supplemental Fig. S3). This is reminiscent of the data obtained from GFP mobility assays of leaves treated with elicitors such as chitin and flg22 (Cheval et al. 2020; Tee et al. 2023). By comparison, induced LexA::icals3m displays a more homogenous response in which low variance in cell-to-cell movement is observed (Fig. 1c; Supplemental Fig. S3), similar to transgenic lines such as the PDLP1-overexpressor (Tee et al. 2023).

To further characterize the selected LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m lines, we profiled the timing of plasmodesmal callose deposition across an extended timeline. Significant plasmodesmal callose accumulation following estradiol treatment was first detected at 24 h post treatment in both LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m, and was sustained up to 72 h post treatment (Supplemental Fig. S4). Despite differences in the degree of plasmodesmal closure, these transgenic lines allow us to manipulate plasmodesmata independently of both endogenous and non-endogenous signals and investigate plant responses to plasmodesmal closure.

Plasmodesmal closure triggers stress transcriptional responses and salicylic acid production

As pathogens are capable of manipulating plasmodesmal aperture during infection, it is difficult to determine whether plants sustain immune-associated plasmodesmal closure when challenged with a pathogen over time. Thus, we examined callose deposition in response to infection by *Pseudomonas syringae* DC3000 (*Pst* DC3000) mutant strain *hrcC*[-] that does not secrete effectors that manipulate plasmodesmal aperture. We found that plasmodesmal callose was deposited throughout the leaf at 24 h, 48 h and 72 h post infection (hpi), and significantly increased at 48 and 72 hpi (Supplemental Fig. S5). This indicates that sustained plasmodesmal closure occurs throughout an infection context.

To investigate the impact of sustained plasmodesmal closure on leaf tissue, we next
characterized the transcriptional profile of this process using RNAseq, identifying
transcriptional changes at 12 h, 24 h, 48 h and 72 h following DMSO or estradiol
treatment in LexA::icals3m and LexA::Plug. Preliminary analysis of the data first
revealed that a critical driving factor of variance was time (Supplemental Fig. S6).
Therefore, all subsequent analyses were performed within single time points. We
assessed the effect of estradiol relative to DMSO treatment within a genotype,
identifying differentially expressed genes (DEGs). The greatest response was in Col-
0 at 12 h, where estradiol led to the downregulation of over a thousand genes
(Supplemental Fig. S7). We checked whether estradiol influenced plasmodesmal
associated callose deposition in Col-0, but no change was detected (Supplemental
Fig. S8). The presence of shared estradiol-responsive DEGs in Col-0 and the
transgenic genotypes supports the possibility of an early estradiol specific response
not correlated to transgene induction. The number of these shared estradiol-induced
DEGs detected was dramatically reduced after 24 h (Supplemental Data Set 2;
Supplemental Fig. S7), suggesting secondary transcriptional effects of estradiol are
negligible after this point.

To further validate our tools, we assessed the transgene induction across the sampling
period; both PD-Plug transcripts (as indicated by read counts of mCherry) and icals3m
transcripts (as indicated by read counts of CalS3) were upregulated compared to
controls by 12 h post estradiol treatment and remained significantly elevated at 72 h
(Supplemental Fig. S9). Specifically, the PD-Plug transgene was induced to a level
comparable to other highly expressed genes such as photosynthetic gene *RBCS1A*
(AT1G67090; Supplemental Data Set 3). To determine that the upregulation of the
transgenes did not induce ER stress from high levels of ectopic protein production, we
examined the expression of genes known to be ER stress markers, defined as either
ER stress sensors or unfolded protein response (UPR) effectors (Beaugelin et al.
2020). Of the 13 genes examined, only *BIP3* (AT1G09080) was significantly
upregulated in estradiol treated LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m at 72 h
(Supplemental Fig. S10), suggesting that transgene expression in these lines does not
induce ER-stress. We also investigated gene expression changes specific to the
induction of each transgene by using a likelihood-ratio test (Supplementary Data Set
4; Supplemental Fig. S11). At both 12 h and 24 h, we found no genes uniquely

upregulated in the estradiol treated samples from either LexA::PD-Plug or LexA::icals3m. At 48 h, 28 and five genes were uniquely upregulated in estradiol treated LexA::PD-Plug and estradiol treated LexA::icals3m respectively. At 72h, 33 genes were differentially upregulated in estradiol treated LexA::icals3m alone; there were no genes differentially upregulated exclusively in estradiol treated LexA::PD-Plug at 72 h.

While both the *icals3m* and *PD-Plug* transgenes have different modes of action as proteins, we reasoned that the genes that are commonly up- or down-regulated following induction are associated with their common effect on plasmodesmata and likely to indicate core responses to plasmodesmal closure. To identify genes uniquely upregulated when plasmodesmata are closed, we defined two different groups for comparison: plasmodesmal state closed (estradiol treated LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m) and plasmodesmal state open (DMSO treated LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m, and all Col-0 samples). A likelihood-ratio test was performed on these two groupings at each time point to identify genes that were significantly differentially expressed only in the closed plasmodesmal state (Fig. 2a; Supplemental Fig. S12; Supplemental Data Set 5-8) and observed that the number of upregulated DEGs increased over time, suggesting that the longer plasmodesmata remain closed, the greater the cellular response. Notably, the number of differentially expressed genes that was shared between LexA::icals3m and LexA::PD-Plug in the grouping of plasmodesmal state closed was greater than the number of up-regulated DEGs specific to each line (Fig. 2a). A GO term analysis identified that genes upregulated when plasmodesmata are closed at 48 and 72 h are enriched in defensive processes (Fig. 2b; Supplemental Fig. S13). These include response to bacterium, oomycetes, chitin and fungus, regulation of systemic acquired resistance, and response to salicylic acid (SA).

As response to SA at 72 h was the most significantly enriched GO term in the entire analysis, we further explored this by analyzing DEGs related to SA to determine what aspects of SA signaling were impacted when plasmodesmata were closed (Fig. 2c; see Supplemental Data Set 9 for associated references; Vlot et al. 2008; Seyfferth et al. 2014; Yang et al. 2015; van Butselaar and Van den Ackerveken 2020) and found both SA biosynthesis/catabolism and SA response pathways were significantly upregulated at 48 and 72 h. To confirm that the transcriptional signature of SA is a

consequence of the activation of SA synthesis when plasmodesmata are closed, we measured SA content in Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icalsm3 72 h post DMSO and estradiol treatment. We found induced plasmodesmal closure increased SA content in both LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m, with induced LexA::icals3m having a greatly increased SA content, being three-fold higher when compared to DMSO treatment (Fig. 2d). Previous studies have shown pathogen-induced SA accumulation is associated with the suppression of jasmonic acid (JA) signaling (e.g. Spoel et al. 2003). While GO terms associated with JA signaling and response were enriched amongst DEGs associated with 48 and 72 h PD closure (Fig. 2b, Supplemental Fig. S14), we could not quantify any differences in JA content in tissue when PD were closed (Supplemental Fig. S14). Overall, plasmodesmal closure leads to the upregulation of transcriptional defense responses, and SA synthesis and accumulation, independent of an immune stimulus.

Plasmodesmal closure differentially impacts pathogen resistance and immune responses

Plants that lack plasmodesmata-specific immune signaling machinery and cannot close their plasmodesmata in response to pathogen infection, show increased susceptibility to different pathogenic microbes (Lee et al. 2011; Faulkner et al. 2013; Xu et al. 2017). To determine whether an inverse correlation exists for induced plasmodesmal closure we examined the susceptibility of induced, transgenic lines to the bacterial, biotrophic pathogen *Pst* DC3000. We inoculated expanded leaves of Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m plants 72 h post DMSO or estradiol treatment (Fig. 3a) and found that induction of both transgenes reduced bacterial growth 3 days post infection (dpi). Thus, plasmodesmal closure is correlated with enhanced resistance to *Pst* DC3000. Next, we assayed for resistance to the fungal necrotroph, *Botrytis cinerea*. In contrast with *Pst* DC3000 infection, we found induction of the PD-Plug transgene had no impact on *B. cinerea* infection when compared to the disease caused in Col-0 plants, but induction of *icals3m* increased susceptibility to *B. cinerea* (Fig. 3b; Supplemental Fig. S15). This indicates that plasmodesmal closure specifically does not enhance resistance in all infection contexts.

Overall susceptibility is driven by multiple components of host defense responses, and
plasmodesmal closure is a key immune response to the pathogen associated
molecular patterns (PAMPs) flg22 and chitin. To determine if plasmodesmal closure
in our transgenic lines influences other PAMP responses, we assessed the activation
of MAPK signaling and ROS production by flg22 in induced LexA::icals3m and
LexA::Plug. When we assayed for flg22-triggered MAPK phosphorylation in mature
leaves and seedlings of both lines following estradiol treatment, we saw no difference
in the timing or magnitude of the response when compared to Col-0 (Fig. 3c;
Supplemental Fig. S16). By contrast, while induction of *LexA::PD-Plug* did not perturb
the flg22-triggered ROS burst in either mature leaves or seedlings (Fig. 3d,e), when
we assayed for the same response in LexA::icals3m, induction of the transgene
reduced the flg22-triggered ROS burst in mature leaves (Fig. 3d) and increased the
response in seedlings (Fig. 3e). To determine whether there were differences in
general basal cellular ROS levels that might explain this observation, we stained
estradiol treated Col-0 and LexA::icals3m leaves with H_2DCFDA but observed no
quantitative differences between the genotypes or treatments (Supplemental Fig.
S17), indicating plasmodesmal closure itself does not alter basal ROS cellular levels.

These results indicate that plasmodesmal closure differentially influences the
outcomes of host interactions with different pathogenic microbes, possibly correlated
with differences in pathogen lifestyle. Increased resistance to *Pst* DC3000 is not
associated with enhanced MAPK activation or, given that our pathoassays were
performed on mature leaves, changes in ROS burst responses. Further, our ROS data
raises the possibility that plasmodesmal closure differentially interacts with immune
responses in different developmental stages.

Plasmodesmal closure induces sugar accumulation and growth defects

As plasmodesmata connect the phloem to cells in young sink tissues and allow sugar
translocation, we expect that plasmodesmal closure might reduce the flux of sugars to
growing tissues and limit growth. Alternatively, activation of defense processes can
negatively regulate growth and therefore it is possible that plasmodesmal closure
impairs growth by one or both pathways. Indeed, several transgenic lines known for
constitutive plasmodesmal closure such as *PDLP1, PDLP5* and *PDLP6*

overexpressors (Thomas et al. 2008; Lee et al. 2011; Li et al. 2024) exhibit a significant retardation in growth. Thus, we explored whether sustained plasmodesmal closure reduced growth in induced LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m. In 9-day old seedlings, we applied either DMSO or estradiol treatment and measured the first true leaves (Fig. 4a) six days post treatment. We found that while estradiol reduced leaf growth in both Col-0 and LexA::PD-Plug in comparison to the DMSO treated seedlings, the estradiol-induced growth reduction was greater in LexA::icals3m relative to LexA::PD-Plug and Col-0. Alongside reduced leaf size, we observed yellowing and chlorosis on the cotyledons of estradiol treated LexA::icals3m (Supplemental Fig. S18).

Plasmodesmal closure might be expected to restrict photoassimilate distribution between source and sink tissue; a reduction in plasmodesmal permeability and rosette size has been documented in *Arabidopsis* alongside a significant accumulation of soluble sugars and starch (e.g., in the MOVEMENT PROTEIN 17 *MP17* overexpressor, *CHOLINE TRASPORTER-LIKE 1 cher1* mutant, *PDLP5* and *PDLP6* overexpressors; Kronberg et al. 2007; Kraner et al. 2017; Li et al. 2024). Therefore, we quantified sugar accumulation in source tissues following plasmodesmal closure, measuring the sucrose, fructose, glucose, and starch content of source leaves of plants 72 h post treatment. These data reveal a significant increase in all four sugars in estradiol treated LexA::icals3m samples (Fig. 4b). Reasoning that an increase in sugar content might down-regulate photosynthesis, we used chlorophyll fluorescence imaging to infer photosynthetic yield and found there was no difference in photosynthetic yield of PSII (as indicated by Y(II)) after 72 h in Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m between the DMSO or estradiol treatments (Table 1). As there were no changes in the photosynthetic yield that correlated with the increase in sugar content in induced LexA::icals3m, we next hypothesized that plasmodesmal closure and sugar accumulation might activate the expression of sugar transporters and starch biosynthesis genes to reduce the concentration of soluble sugars in the cytosol. However, out of 125 genes known to be sugar and starch related (Supplemental Data Set 10; Büttner and Sauer 2000; Williams et al. 2000; Chen et al. 2010; Monroe and Storm 2018; Abt and Zeeman 2020; Preiser et al. 2020; Smith and Zeeman 2020; David et al. 2022; Bavnhøj et al. 2023), only the transporter *SENESCENCE-ASSOCIATED GENE 29 (SAG29)/SUGARS WILL EVENTUALLY BE EXPORTED TRANSPORTERS 15 (SWEET15)* was significantly upregulated when

plasmodesmata are closed, in LexA::icals3m at 48h and 72 h (Supplemental Fig. S19,

S20). AT3G20460 was differentially expressed in LexA::icals3m estradiol treatment at

72 h and is proposed to be a monosaccharide transporter (Johnson et al. 2006).

However, this gene was downregulated in response to plasmodesmal closure and as

the function of this gene is not yet well characterized it is difficult to speculate on any

possible role in the sugar/starch phenotype (Johnson et al. 2006). These results

indicate that while plasmodesmal closure induces starch and soluble sugar

accumulation, it does not perturb photosynthesis or the expression of sugar

transporters.

We reasoned that sugar accumulation might induce osmotic stress and so to test

whether sugar accumulation impairs growth and induces senescence in

LexA::icals3m, we simultaneously induced plasmodesmal closure and lowered the

light intensity by shading the plants to reduce photosynthesis and thus starch and

sugar content (Law et al. 2018). We observed that shade conditions reduced growth

in all plants, even Col-0, compared to the light grown plants after 14 days of this light

regime (Supplemental Fig. S21). However, estradiol treatment of LexA::icals3m had a

further size reduction in comparison to the DMSO treatment (Fig. 4c). While

senescence of cotyledons was still evident, it was not as severe as that induced in

normal light conditions (Supplemental Fig. S21). This suggests that while

plasmodesmal closure induces starch and sugar accumulation, this does not impair

growth or singularly induce senescence, and that these phenotypes are regulated by

other consequences of plasmodesmal closure.

SA does not mediate plasmodesmal-induced effects on growth and resistance

Given we detected that plasmodesmal closure increases SA and this could induce the

observed senescence and reduction in growth in LexA::icals3m, we sought to test if

there is a causal relationship. To test the hypothesis that SA accumulation reduces

size and/or induces senescence, we crossed LexA::icals3m with plants that

constitutively express *NahG*, the bacterial SA hydroxylase that degrades SA (Gaffney

et al. 1993; Delaney et al. 1994; Friedrich et al. 1995; NahG×icals3m). We observed

a significant reduction in leaf size as well as senescence observed in the cotyledons

after 14 days post plasmodesmal closure in both LexA::icals3m and NahG×icals3m

plants (Fig. 4c and Supplemental Fig. S21), indicating that SA accumulation is not the cause of these phenotypes. Like LexA::icals3m, NahG×icals3m plants showed reduced growth and mild cotyledon senescence when grown in shade conditions, suggesting that SA does not contribute to the effects of plasmodesmal closure observed in these conditions.

Lastly, we utilized the NahG×icals3m cross to investigate whether plasmodesmal closure enhances pathogen resistance to *Pst* DC3000 by accumulation of SA. We inoculated LexA::icals3m and NahG×icals3m plants 72 h post DMSO or estradiol treatment (Fig. 4d) and found DMSO treated NahG×icals3m had the highest level of bacterial growth 3 days post infection (dpi). However, estradiol treatment of both LexA::icals3m and NahG×icals3m reduced bacterial growth suggesting that SA accumulation is not the primary cause of the increased resistance induced by plasmodesmal closure.

Discussion

Plants initiate a suite of defense responses when challenged by a microbial threat. Plasmodesmal closure is an early reaction, initiated within 30 minutes of perceiving pathogen-derived molecules and stress-associated signals including SA and hydrogen peroxide (Xu et al. 2017; Cheval et al. 2020; Tee et al. 2023b), and is critical for the execution of a full response. Thus, we reason that plasmodesmal closure regulates a range of downstream processes. However, considering the plethora of responses elicited during immunity, and the array of elicitors that trigger plasmodesmal closure via converging signaling pathways (Tee et al. 2023b), it is challenging to identify what specific contribution plasmodesmal closure makes to the overall execution of immunity. Using lines with which we can induce plasmodesmal closure independently of biotic elicitors, we explored what occurs when plasmodesmata close without other co-incident processes and determined that plasmodesmal closure itself induces stress.

Transcriptional profiling of responses to plasmodesmal closure identified transcriptional signatures of defense responses associated with SA production and signaling. It has long been known that constitutive over-production of the plasmodesmal protein PDLP5 closes plasmodesmata and leads to high levels of SA (Wang et al. 2013). However, as *PDLP5* transcriptionally responds to SA, it is viewed

as a stress response element (Wang et al. 2013). We have previously shown that

microbial elicitors, flg22 and chitin, also require PDLP5 to elicit plasmodesmal closure

(Tee et al. 2023b) posing a potential model in which plasmodesmal closure is first

initiated upon pathogen perception, leading to the accumulation of SA at

plasmodesmata to create a feedback loop to sustain closure.

The accumulation of SA when plasmodesmata are closed might be elicited directly or

indirectly. SA accumulates to higher levels in induced LexA::icals3m (Fig. 2d), in

parallel with an increase in sugars (Fig. 4c) and correlated with greater plasmodesmal

closure observed in this line relative to LexA::PD-Plug (Fig. 1c). It is possible that the

increase in sugar content induces osmotic stress or another process that feeds into

SA signaling, and therefore that these stress responses are secondary to

plasmodesmal closure. Further, the combined increase in sugar content and SA might

explain our pathoassay data; the necrotrophic pathogen *B. cinerea* might be able to

access increased intracellular sugar stores and be unimpeded by SA defense

pathways (Ferrari et al. 2003; El-Oirdi et al. 2011), while *Pst* DC3000 might be unable

to access intracellular sugars and is impeded by SA (Velásquez et al. 2017; Wilson et

al. 2017; Howlader et al. 2020). However, as inducing plasmodesmal closure still

enhanced resistance to *Pst* DC3000 in the SA deficient NahG×icals3m plants (Fig.

4d), this indicates SA is only part of plasmodesmal stress response for inducing

resistance.

Increasingly there is evidence that sugar is critical for coordinating defense in

Arabidopsis, where specific elevations in glucose-6-phosphate enhance defense

responses before a pathogen invasion (Yamada et a. 2024). Sugars can induce

specific signal transduction pathways, with some studies finding that increasing source

leaf carbohydrate content leads to a feedback loop of decreasing photosynthetic yield

(Araya et al. 2006). Additionally, an inverse relationship between plasmodesmal

aperture and the expression/activity of sugar transporters has been reported (Ruan et

al. 2001; Zhang et al. 2017; Liu et al. 2022) suggesting that cells maintain the capability

to transport sugars between cells by balancing plasmodesmal aperture with

transporter activity (Zhang et al. 2017). On this basis, we might expect that induction

of LexA::icals3m would activate a compensatory mechanism for sugar distribution.

However, we only observed that one sugar transporter was upregulated in induced

LexA::icals3m, SAG29/SWEET15, which is also activated by SA during the process

of leaf senescence (Seo et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2021a). Therefore, while this may be a component of the senescing phenotype observed in induced LexA::icals3m, the increased expression of this transporter does not counteract the intracellular sugar accumulation observed (Chen et al. 2015). Furthermore, when we reduced the SA, sugar and starch content that occurs in LexA::icals3m, impaired growth and senescence still occurred (Fig. 4c and Supplementary Fig. S21). This indicates there is another yet to be determined mechanism that governs these processes in response to plasmodesmal closure. Irrespective, the question arises whether cellular mechanisms that perceive an increase in soluble sugars are incapacitated when plasmodesmata are closed and cells are isolated.

The variance in multiple sets of experimental data suggest that physiological plasmodesmal responses are heterogeneous within a tissue, i.e., not all cells close their plasmodesmata in response to an elicitor such as chitin or flg22 (Faulkner et al. 2013; Xu et al. 2017; Cheval et al. 2020; Tee et al. 2023b). Our transgenic lines show two different patterns of plasmodesmal response: we see variability in GFP mobility in the induced LexA::PD-Plug line that resembles physiological data sets despite homogeneous induction of the transgene (Supplemental Fig. S1), while data from induced LexA::icals3m exhibits much lower variance (Supplemental Fig. S3). This suggests that LexA::icals3m induces plasmodesmal closure more homogeneously than in LexA::PD-Plug, with more cells becoming isolated from their neighbors than occurs physiologically. This greater homogeneity of plasmodesmal closure in LexA::icals3m correlates with the responses measured in most of the assays performed in this study, with effects on disease resistance, growth, ROS burst, sugar and SA accumulation all greater in magnitude in, or only detected in, LexA::icals3m relative to LexA::PD-Plug. Thus, our data suggests that we have detected some of these effects only when they have been elicited in more cells. However, an alternative possibility is that some responses to plasmodesmal closure occur only when a threshold of isolated cells is reached, which would imply that responses to plasmodesmal closure is a tissue level response, and that connectivity is a population-level parameter. Further, that we observe homogeneous cellular isolation can result in undesired outcomes suggests a degree of heterogeneity is optimal for overall physiology.

In this study we have induced plasmodesmal closure to isolate it from other immune responses and study its effects. For this to be a useful pursuit, we needed to determine whether induced plasmodesmal closure mimics physiological plasmodesmal closure. We reasoned that during an infection, the exposure of cells to PAMPs is likely to be a sustained process suggesting that prolonged plasmodesmal closure can occur during infection. This is supported by our findings that plasmodesmal callose deposits were increased 72 h post *Pst hrcC⁻* infection (Supplemental Fig. S4). Beyond this, we have identified that immune-independent plasmodesmal closure triggers stress-associated responses, raising the question of whether these responses occur when cells are isolated in any context, including developmental transitions. In many investigations of developmental transitions, *icals3m* is used to induce ectopic plasmodesmal closure at different cell boundaries and our data indicates that this is also likely to block the distribution of sugars to, or from, targeted cells and activate defense. Thus, phenotypes that arise from blocking plasmodesmata at a critical developmental transition must be interpreted with these factors in mind.

We have found that plasmodesmal closure triggers stress responses. This suggests that cellular isolation is a stress-inducing state and, conversely, that connection to neighboring cells is essential for optimal growth-associated cellular functions. Thus, understanding how a cell responds when it becomes isolated from its neighbors, and why cell-to-cell connectivity regulates homeostatic cellular processes, is key to understanding how plants function as multicellular organisms.

Methods

Plant material

All *Arabidopsis thaliana* used in this study is in the Columbia-0 ecotype background. For assays on mature plants, *Arabidopsis* plants were grown at 10 h light at 22 °C, on soil or for the RNA-seq experiment, on Murashige and Skoog (MS) 1% sucrose 0.8% agar in 50 mm diameter petri dishes for 4–5 weeks. For MAPK and ROS measurement assays on seedlings, seeds were germinated on MS 1% sucrose 0.8% agar at 16 h light at 22 °C and grown for 8 days, then 10 seedlings were transferred per well on a 6-well plate together with 8 mL of liquid MS and grown for an additional 7 days.

Confocal microscopy

Microprojectile bombardment, transgene induction visualization and aniline blue plasmodesmal callose measurements utilized confocal microscopy (LSM Zeiss 800). RFP/mCherry was excited with a 561-nm DPSS laser and collected at 600 to 640 nm, GFP/H_2DCFDA was excited with a 488-nm argon laser and collected at 505 to 530 nm, and aniline blue was excited with a 405-nm UV laser and collected at 430 to 550 nm.

Microprojectile bombardment

Microprojectile bombardment of *35S::GFP* was performed as described in (Tee et al. 2022). 24 h after DMSO or estradiol treatment, 5-week-old leaves were co-bombarded with pB7WG2.0.RFP$_{ER}$ and pB7WG2.0.GFP. Bombardment sites were then imaged 16 h after using confocal microscopy with a 20× water dipping objective (W N-Achroplan 20×/0.5).

Generation of transgenic lines and induction of transgene

The *LexA::icals3m* construct is as described (Bellandi et al. 2022). The *LexA::PD-Plug* construct was assembled into a binary vector via Golden Gate cloning; first the 'PD-Plug' sequence was created by fusing the PDLP1 signal peptide and the PDLP1 transmembrane domain and cytoplasmic tail to the N- and C-termini of mCherry respectively (Caillaud et al. 2014). This synthetic peptide was inserted downstream of the *LexA* promoter sequence and upstream of a NOS terminator and assembled into the backbone of pICSL0022013 containing the *Nos::BAR::Nos* selection cassette and *Act2::XVE::Act2* cassette.

LexA::PD-Plug and *LexA::icals3m* constructs were transformed into the Col-0 *Arabidopsis* background and screened with phosphinothricin (10 µg/mL concentration) or kanamycin selection (50 µg/mL concentration) respectively. For induction of the transgene in all experiments (with the exception of size phenotyping), leaves were painted on both the abaxial and adaxial side with either 0.1% DMSO (mock treatment) or 20 µM β-Estradiol 17-acetate (estradiol treatment) containing 0.01% Silwet L-77 in ddH$_2$O, using a fine paint brush. For size phenotyping, seedlings were sprayed with the above specified DMSO or estradiol treatment.

Plasmodesmal callose measurements

24 h post treatment with either DMSO or estradiol, expanded leaves of 5-week-old

plants were infiltrated with 1% aniline blue in PBS buffer (pH 7.4) then imaged using

confocal microscopy from the abaxial side using a 63× water immersion objective

(Plan-Apochromat 63×/1.20). Z-stacks from multiple areas from a given treated leaf,

with a minimum of three biological replicates per genotype and treatment were

collected. An automated image analysis pipeline to quantify aniline blue-stained

plasmodesmata is available at (Johnston et al. 2022).

Quantitative PCR

To determine transgene expression, *Arabidopsis* T2 seedlings were grown on MS 1%

sucrose 0.8% agar with phosphinothricin (10 µg/mL concentration) or kanamycin (50

µg/mL concentration), for 21 days in 16 h light at 22 °C. Leaves from each line was

treated with DMSO or estradiol as above and harvested 48 h later in liquid nitrogen.

Samples were homogenized in a GenoGrinder 2100, with RNA extracted, DNase

treatment, first strand cDNA synthesis and qPCR performed as previously described

(Bellandi et al. 2022). Genes tested are *icals3m*/*CalS3* (using primers

AGGACGTTACTTCATGGCGG and GGCTCCGGGAATACAGTCTG) and the

housekeeper *AtUBQ10* (using primers AGTCTACTCTTCACTTGGTCCTGC and

GCCCCAAAACACAAACCACCAAAG). Normalized relative quantities (NRQs) were

generated using the qBase model (Hellemans et al. 2008).

Pseudomonas syringae infection assays

Three leaves from 4–5-week-old plants were treated with DMSO or estradiol. After 72

h, leaves were infiltrated with 5×10^4 cfu/mL *Pseudomonas syringae* DC3000 and

harvested 72 h later. Each leaf was harvested with a 5 mm corer and the three leaves

from a single plant combined as a sample. Leaf tissue was homogenized with 1 mL

ddH$_2$O for 2 mins at 1200 rpm in a GenoGrinder 2100. 5 µL of multiple 10-fold dilutions

were plated out with three technical replicates per plant sample, then incubated for 48

h at 28 °C with colony counts determined from countable dilutions. Four independent

experiments with five plants per treatment/genotype per experiment was performed.

To determine plasmodesmal associated callose deposits after *Pseudomonas syringae*

DC3000 *hrcC*$^-$ (*hrcC*$^-$) infection, a culture at an OD of 0.2 was prepared. Leaves from

5-week-old Col-0 plants were infiltrated either with H$_2$O (mock) or *hrcC*$^-$, and then

imaged 24 h, 48 h or 72 h post treatment. Aniline blue staining was performed as per

the above plasmodesmal callose measurements with the exception that 0.1% aniline
blue was used. 3-4 z-stacks from multiple areas per leaf was performed, with eight
biological replicates per treatment/timepoint collected. Only callose deposits at
plasmodesmata were analyzed.

Botrytis cinerea infection assays

B. cinerea spores were applied to leaves from 4–5-week-old plants 72 h post DMSO
or estradiol treatment. *B. cinerea* spores were harvested and adjusted to a
concentration of 2.5×10^5 spores/mL in 0.25× potato dextrose broth and incubated at
room temperature for 2 h with continual shaking for spore germination. Leaves were
adhered to 1.5% agar H_2O plates, and droplets of 2 µL spore suspensions were placed
in between the mid vein and leaf edge on each side. Plates were sealed with parafilm
and incubated in a cabinet set at 22 °C with 10 h light. Developing disease lesions
were photographed 2 dpi and measured using FIJI. Each prepared plate had four
leaves per genotype and treatment, and the average lesion area was calculated per
genotype/treatment in a given plate, defined as a single biological replicate. Three
independent experiments were conducted with a minimum of five biological replicates
per genotype/treatment.

MAPK activation assays

MAPK activation assays were performed on leaf discs from expanded leaves of 5-
week-old plants or on 15-day-old seedlings 72 h post treatment with DMSO or
estradiol. Samples were harvested 0, 5 mins, 15 mins, 30 mins and 45 mins post 100
nM flg22 treatment, and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Frozen samples were
homogenized via 90 seconds of shaking (1100 rpm) in a GenoGrinder 2100, then 500
µL protein extraction buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA pH
8.0, 10% glycerol, 0.5% NP40 IGEPAL® CA-630, protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma)
1:100, phosphatase inhibitor (Sigma) 1:200, 1 mM $Na_2MoO_4 \times 2H_2O$, 1mM NaF, 1.5
mM activated Na_3VO_4, 5 mM DTT, 1mM PMSF) was added and the sample left to mix
for 30 mins at 4 °C. Samples were centrifuged at max speed for 10 mins at 4 °C,
supernatant transferred to a new tube and re-centrifuged at max speed for another 10
mins at 4 °C. The resulting supernatant was incubated at 95 °C for 15 mins with
Laemmli buffer, then proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to

Immuno-blot® PVDF membrane. Proteins were detected using p44/42 MAPK (1:2000;

Cell Signaling Technologies, #9102) and α-Rabbit-HRP (1:10000, Sigma, A0545).

ROS burst measurements

ROS assays were performed on leaf discs taken from 5-week-old plants or 15-day-old

seedlings 72 h post DMSO or estradiol treatment. Leaf discs were first floated on H_2O

overnight; the following day water was removed, then 20 µg/mL HRP and 6 µM L-012

was added, with or without 100 nm flg22. The same was performed for seedlings

except liquid media was removed before adding the HRP and L-012.

Chemiluminescence was recorded using a Varioskan Flash (Thermo Fisher) over 45

mins, with the total luminescence emitted used for analysis.

General ROS quantification

594 20 µM H_2DCFDA (Thermo Fisher) was syringe infiltrated into expanded leaves of 5-

595 week-old plants 72 h post DMSO or estradiol treatment, and confocal microscopy was

596 performed on the abaxial side of the leaf. Z-stacks were taken from four areas of a

597 given leaf from four plants per genotype/treatment. Quantification of fluorescence was

598 performed in FIJI using a sum projection.

RNA-seq

Two mature leaves per 5-week-old plant were DMSO or estradiol treated, and

harvested 12 h, 24 h, 48 h and 72 h post treatment. Each biological replicate contained

four plants (i.e., 8 leaves), with three biological replicates for each

genotype/treatment/time point. Leaves were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, then

homogenized via 90 seconds of shaking (1100 rpm) in a 2100 Geno/Grinder (Spex

SamplePrep, USA). Total RNA was extracted using the RNEasy Plant Mini Kit

(QIAGEN, Germany) and eluted into 60 µl of water. Purified RNA was treated with the

TURBO DNA-free kit (Thermo Fisher, USA). RNA quantification and library

construction was conducted by Novogene Co., Ltd (Beijing). RNA quality and quantity

were access via 1% agarose gel, NanoPhotometer ® spectrophotometer (IMPLEN,

USA), and the RNA Nano 6000 Assay Kit for the Bioanalyzer 2100 System (Agilent

Technologies, USA). Libraries were constructed using 0.4 µg of RNA and the

NEBNext ® UltraTM RNA Library Prep Kity for Illumina (NEB, USA). mRNA was

purified via poly-T magnetic beads. Fragmentation, cDNA synthesis, and NEBNext

Adaptor hybridization were performed according to manufacturer's instructions and
purified with the AMPure XP system (Beckman Coulter, USA). Index-coded samples
were clustered on a cBot Cluster Generation System using TruSeq PE Cluster Kit v3-
cBot-HS (Illumina, USA) and sequenced on an Illumina Novaseq platform to generate
150bp paired-end reads with a sequencing depth of 10 million reads per sample. All
sequencing data are available on GEO at GSE248301.

Bioinformatic analyses

Adaptors and low-quality (phred33<20) reads were trimmed from the data using
TrimGalore v0.5.0 (Krueger et al. 2021) and Cutadapt v1.7 (Martin 2011). RNA quality
was accessed using FastQC v0.11.8 (Babraham Bioinformatics - FastQC A Quality
Control tool for High Throughput Sequence Data) and MultiQC v.1.7 (Ewels et al.
2016). The data was mapped against the *Arabidopsis* reference genome (TAIR10;
NCBI Refseq GCA_000001735.1) using HISAT2 v2.1.0 (Kim et al. 2019). Mapped
reads were sorted using Samtools v1.4.1 Sort (Danecek et al. 2021). Transcript
assembly was completed using Stringtie v1.3.3 (Pertea et al. 2015) and gene counts
(see Supplemental Data Set 3 and 11 for gene count matrix and metadata
respectively) were extracted using the built-in python wrapper, prepDE.py available at
http://ccb.jhu.edu/software/stringtie/dl/prepDE.py. Principle component analysis was
conducted using DEseq2, ggplot2 (Wickham 2016), ggConvexHull, and TidyVerse
(Wickham et al. 2019) in R (R Core Team 2022). Differentially expressed genes were
determined using DEseq2 (Love et al. 2014) in R. Genes with less than 10 counts
across all samples were excluded from the analysis. The data was subset by
timepoints, and Wald Tests or Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRT) were performed based on
comparisons of interest. Wald Tests were used to extract DEGs based on differences
between treatment or genotype. LRT were used to extract genes differentially
expressed based on difference between closed plasmodesmata (induced/estradiol
treated LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m combined) and open plasmodesmata
(uninduced/DMSO treated LexA::PD-Plug, uninduced/DMSO treated LexA::icals3m,
and DMSO and estradiol treated Col-0). LRT was used in this way to determine genes
uniquely up- or down-regulated in the inducible lines treated with estradiol.
Differentially expressed genes from the Wald Test were designated if the log2 fold
change (lfc) was greater than |1.5| and adjusted p-value<0.05. Differentially expressed

genes from the LRT were considered significant if the adjusted p-value was less than
0.05. LRT significantly differentially expressed genes were clustered using Lasso2
(Lokhorst et al. 2021) and DEGreports v1.36.0 (Pantano 2023) and normalized read
counts plotted using ggplot2 and pheatmaps v1.0.12 (Kolde 2019). Genes involved in
Salicylic Acid biosynthesis/catabolism and response were determined based on a
Wald Test of open plasmodesmata versus closed plasmodesmata with a lfc cut-off of
+/-0.5 and adjusted p-value of 0.05 (Supplemental Data Set 12). Gene ontology
enrichment analysis was conducted based on differentially expressed genes.
Enrichment was conducted in TopGo v2.52.0 (Alexa and Rahnenfuhrer 2023) based
on TAIR10 GO terms, with a topgoFisher cut-off of $p<0.05$. GO terms were plotted in
ggplot2. GO parent terms were determined using the Revigo's (Supek et al. 2011)
redundancy feature (cut-off 0.7) and utilized to extract defense-specific enriched GO
terms.

Transgene Mapping

Transgenes were mapped by generating a pseudo-genome consisting of the
Arabidopsis TAIR genome as well as the transgene of interest (mCherry) using SeqKit
v0.9.1 (Shen et al. 2016) and STAR v2.5a (Dobin et al. 2013). The reads were then
mapped and sorted by coordinates to the pseudo-genome using STAR v2.5a. The
data was processed the same as previously described using Samtools and Stringtie.
Gene counts of mCherry (Supplemental Data Set 13) and CalS3 (Supplemental Data
Set 14) were extracted using DESeq2 and plotted in ggplot2.

Size phenotyping

9-day-old seedlings of Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug and LexA:: icals3m were finely sprayed
with treatments DMSO or estradiol and 6 days later, the first two true leaves were
adhered to a microscope slide and images taken on a Leica M205 FA stereo
microscope. Leaf area was measured using FIJI. For the shade experiments, 10-day-
old seedlings of Col-0, LexA::icals3m, NahG and NahG×icals3m were finely sprayed
with treatments of DMSO or estradiol and either kept at normal light conditions (80
$\mu mol/m^{-2}/s^{-1}$) or a shaded lid was placed on top reducing the light intensity to $9\ \mu mol/m^{-2}/s^{-1}$.
An additional spray was performed 7 days post the initial treatment, and 14 days
post treatment the first two true leaves were adhered to a microscope slide and images
taken on a Axio Zoom V16 light microscope. A leaf measurement macro developed

using FIJI was used to measure the leaf area; the average between the two true leaves

per plant was calculated, and the relative size was calculated by dividing the average

of the DMSO control in each condition/genotype for each sample.

Sugar and starch measurements

Leaf tissue was harvested in liquid nitrogen from plants 72 h post treatment of either

DMSO or estradiol (3 leaves from 5-week-old plants), with sugars and starch

separately extracted from approximately 100 mg total leaf tissue as described by

(Smith and Zeeman 2006). Frozen tissue was homogenized for 2 mins at 1200 rpm in

a GenoGrinder 2100. Samples were further homogenized in 1 mL of 0.7 M cold

perchloric acid and then centrifuge at max speed 4 °C for 5 min. The supernatant was

transferred to process for sugar, while the pellet was kept on ice for starch

quantification. For sugar, 600 µL supernatant was transferred to a new 1.5 mL tube,

and neutralization buffer (2 M KOH, 400 mM MES) was added to achieve a pH of 6-7.

The sample was then spun at max speed for 4 min and supernatant recovered. Soluble

sugars were quantified by enzymatic assay in technical triplicates by monitoring NADH

production absorbance at 340 nm in a 96-well format using an Omega FLUOstar

microplate reader. Each sample was added to 50 µL of buffer (50 mM HEPES NaOH

pH 7.4-7.6, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 1mM ATP, 1 mM NAD, 1.4 U Hexokinase), topped with H_2O

to a total volume of 198 µL. An initial A_{340} reading was taken, before adding glucose-

6-phosphate dehydrogenase for a kinetic reading to determine glucose content,

followed by adding phosphoglucose isomerase to determine fructose content, followed

by invertase to determine sucrose content. To determine starch content, the sample

pellet was first washed by adding 1 mL H_2O and vortexing, followed by centrifugation

for 3 mins at 3,000 ×g. Supernatant was removed, then pellet washed again by adding

1 mL 80% ethanol and vortexing, followed by centrifugation for 3 mins at 3,000 ×g;

this ethanol wash was repeated for a total of three washes. Excess ethanol was

evaporated, then resuspended with 750 µL of H_2O. 2 × 200 µL of each sample was

transferred to a new screw cap tube and incubated at 95 °C for 12 minutes. The

samples were left to briefly cool to room temperature (~5 min), then one aliquot was

digested by incubation with α-amylase (10 U) and amyloglucosidase (1.26 U) in 0.1045

M sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.8) for two hours at 37 °C, alongside the other aliquot

serving as the non-digested control (i.e., containing only the 0.1045 M sodium acetate

buffer and two hour 37 °C incubation). Starch content was quantified through

enzymatic assay of the digested aliquot sample by monitoring NADH production as

per the above glucose measurement. Technical triplicates were performed for each

digested sample, alongside a single technical replicate for the non-digested sample.

Starch content was calculated from the glucose assay values in mg per gram of fresh

weight of sample.

Hormone measurements

Leaves from 5-week-old plants were treated with DMSO or estradiol and harvested 72

h post treatment and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen; per biological replicate, a minimum

of six leaves from a minimum of three plants were pooled together to obtain between

150-220mg of fresh tissue weight. Frozen tissue was homogenized for 2 × 2 mins at

1200 rpm in a GenoGrinder 2100. 300 µL of buffer (10% methanol, 1% acetic acid in

H_2O) containing an internal standard of 1 µM salicylic acid-d4 (SA-$_{d4}$, Merck) and 500

nM jasmonic acid-d5 (JA-$_{d5}$, Cayman Chemicals) was added, mixed well with a vortex

then left to mix at 4 °C for 20 mins. Samples were centrifuged for 25 mins at 4°C at

15,000 RCF, and the supernatant recovered. The pellet was re-extracted with another

300 µL buffer without the internal standard, mixed and centrifuged as before, with the

resulting supernatant combined with the first recovered supernatant. The total

supernatant was centrifuged at 4 °C for 10 mins at max speed, and each sample was

then run for analysis. Quantification was performed on an Acquity UPLC attached to

a Xevo TQS tandem mass spectrometer (Waters). Separation was on a 50×2.1mm

2.6µM Kinetex EVO C18 column (Phenomenex) using the following gradient of

acetonitrile (solvent B) versus 0.1% formic acid in water (solvent A), run at 600 µL.min-

1 and 35°C: 0 min, 10% B; 2 min, 80% B; 2.15 min, 80% B; 2.2 min, 10% B; 3.4 min,

10% B. The injection volume was 5 µL. Salicylate was quantified by negative mode

electrospray, monitoring the transition *m/z* 137→65 (and for the internal standard the

corresponding transition 141→97) while jasmonate was monitored at the transition *mz*

209→59 (and for the internal standard the corresponding transition 214→62) at 16V

collision energy. Spray chamber conditions were 1.5kV spray voltage, 500°C

desolvation temperature, 900 L.hr^{-1} desolvation gas, 150 L.hr^{-1} cone gas, and 7 bar

nebulizer pressure. Results were processed using TargetLynx software V4.1 SCN876

(2012).

Chlorophyll fluorescence measurements

Chlorophyll fluorescence measurements were performed using an Imaging-PAM
chlorophyll fluorometer and ImagingWin software application (Walz). The effective
PSII quantum yield as indicated by Y(II) was taken following a 30 min dark adaptation
of leaves from 5-week-old plants 72 h post DMSO or estradiol treatment. Four leaves
per treatment/genotype were measured in a given run, with 8 runs in total over two
independent experiments.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using RStudio 2021.09.01 Build 351/R version
4.0.3. Data presented as boxplots have the middle line indicating the median, the box
representing the upper and lower quartiles, and the whiskers indicating the minimum
and maximum values with 1.5× interquartile range. For bootstrap analyses, data were
analyzed using *medianBootstrap* (Johnston and Faulkner 2021) or *medianBootstrap2*
(Tee et al. 2023a). Pathoassays, basal ROS quantification, and chlorophyll
fluorescence measurements were analyzed using a linear-mixed effects model using
the R package, *lmerTest*. For pathoassays the random effect was 'independent
experiment repeat'; for the basal ROS quantification the random effect was 'biological
replicate'; for chlorophyll fluorescence measurements the random effect was
'experimental run'. Size phenotyping, starch, sucrose, glucose and fructose
measurements were analyzed using a linear model. All ANOVAs specified are ANOVA
Satterthwaite's Method, and significant differences between factors were determined
by post hoc Tukey HSD using the R package, *emmeans*. Salicylic acid quantification
was analyzed using a Mann-Whitney test.

Data availability

Raw counts for bombardment data generated for this study (Fig. 1C and Supplemental
Fig. S3) is available in Supplemental Data Set 1. Additional raw counts for
bombardment data for Supplemental Fig. S3 are sourced from Cheval et al. 2020 and
Tee et al. 2023b. RNAseq data has been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus
under the accession code GSE248301, with further analysis included in Supplemental
Data Sets as specified in-text.

Supplemental Data Sets

Supplemental Data Set 1: Data for number of cells showing GFP within a genotype/treatment

Supplemental Data Set 2: Background response to estradiol: differentially regulated genes in response to estradiol treatment shared across all genotypes

Supplemental Data Set 3: Gene count matrix from the RNAseq analysis

Supplemental Data Set 4: Genes differentially expressed in category specified, identified by a likelihood ratio test analysis

Supplemental Data Set 5: Genes differentially expressed in response to 12h plasmodesmal closure identified by a likelihood ratio test analysis

Supplemental Data Set 6: Genes differentially expressed in response to 24h plasmodesmal closure identified by a likelihood ratio test analysis

Supplemental Data Set 7: Genes differentially expressed in response to 48 h plasmodesmal closure identified by a likelihood ratio test analysis

Supplemental Data Set 8: Genes differentially expressed in response to 72h plasmodesmal closure identified by a likelihood ratio test analysis

Supplemental Data Set 9: Genes identified from the literature as associated with salicylic acid biosynthesis, catabolism and response

Supplemental Data Set 10: Genes identified from the literature as associated with the synthesis and transport of soluble sugars and starch

Supplemental Data Set 11: Metadata related to the gene count matrix

Supplemental Data Set 12: Log2 fold change of genes associated with SA that are differentially expressed at 12h, 24h, 48h and 72h

Supplemental Data Set 13: Gene counts of mCherry from pseudo-genome GEO GSE248301

Supplemental Data Set 14: Gene counts of CalS3 from pseudo-genome GEO GSE248301

Author Contributions

CREDIT authorship breakdown:

Conceptualization – all authors

Data curation – EET, ABr, DP, HRT

Formal analysis – EET, ABr, DP, HRT

Funding acquisition – CF

Investigation – EET, ABr, DP, HRT, CW, ABe

Methodology – EET, ABr, DP, HRT, CW, ABe, CF

Project administration – CF

Resources – DP, ABr, CF

Supervision – CF

Validation – EET, ABr, DP, HRT

Visualization – EET, ABr, DP, HRT

Writing – original draft – EET, HRT, CF

Writing – review & editing – EET, ABr, DP, HRT, CW, ABe, CF

Disclosure and competing interests statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figures

Figure 1. Characterization of plasmodesmal status in induced LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m tissue. A) Quantification of aniline blue-stained plasmodesmata-associated callose in 5-week-old plants of LexA::PD-Plug (PD-Plug) or LexA::icals3m (icals3m) 24 h post DMSO or estradiol treatment. Datapoints represent the average of the total PD intensity/plasmodesmata (PD) per image, with n ≥ 14 per genotype/treatment. Bootstrap analysis indicates significant differences between DMSO and estradiol treatment in PD-Plug and icals3m, as indicated by *** $p < 0.001$. **B)** Example micrographs of bombardment sites showing movement of GFP from transformed cells indicate cell-to-cell connectivity of uninduced (DMSO) versus restricted cell connectivity in induced (estradiol) leaves of PD-Plug and icals3m. **C)** Quantification of microprojectile bombardment data showing GFP movement into neighboring cells. Leaves of 5-week-old plants were bombarded after 24 h treatment of DMSO or estradiol; n ≥ 62 bombardment sites. Bootstrap analysis with significant differences indicated by a, b and c, with $p < 0.01$. Scale bar = 200 µM.

Figure 2. Plasmodesmal closure triggers stress transcriptional responses and salicylic acid related changes. A) Likelihood ratio test analysis determined number (indicated by n) of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) significantly differed between plasmodesmal status (i.e., PD State closed or open), and matches the cluster pattern of upregulated in closed state in comparison to open state at 12, 24, 48 and 72 h post treatment. Hierarchical clustering grouped together plasmodesmal state of open (i.e., estradiol treated LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m) and closed (DMSO treated LexA::PD-Plug, LexA::icals3m and Col-0, and estradiol treated Col-0). Expression normalized by row (z-score). **B)** Top 15 defense GO terms enriched over time when plasmodesmata are closed. **C)** Expression of genes related to the salicylic acid biosynthesis/catabolism and response over time when plasmodesmata are closed (i.e., in estradiol treated LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m). **D)** Quantification of salicylic acid in 5-week-old plants after 72 h DMSO or estradiol treatment, n ≥ 6 per genotype/treatment. Significant differences between treatment within a genotype analyzed using Mann-Whitney test denoted by ** $p < 0.01$, or *** $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 3. Plasmodesmal closure differentially impacts pathogen resistance and immune responses. A) Bacterial growth ($\log_{10}$ CFU/cm^2 leaf area) of *Pst* DC3000 3 dpi on uninduced and induced tissue of 4–5-week-old plants of Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug (PD-Plug) and LexA::icals3m (icals3m). Tissue was treated with DMSO (uninduced) or estradiol (induced) 72 h prior to infection. 4 independent experiments were conducted, with 5 plants per treatment/genotype; N = 20. Independent factors genotype and treatment were significant, with a significant interaction between the two (ANOVA; F = 16.6, df = 2, P < 0.0001; F = 67.0, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 8.2, df = 2, P < 0.001). Significant differences denoted by a and b, p < 0.0001. **B)** The average area of *Botrytis cinerea* disease lesions 2 dpi in leaves of 5-week-old plants of induced and uninduced Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m. Tissue was treated with DMSO (uninduced) or estradiol (induced) 72 h prior to infection, with N = 16-17 for all genotypes/treatment combined from three independent repeats. Independent factors genotype and treatment were significant with a significant interaction between the two (ANOVA; F = 24.4, df = 2, P < 0.0001; F = 52.7, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 57.0, df = 2, P < 0.0001). Significant differences denoted by a and b, p < 0.0001. **C)** Western blot detection of MAPK-activation by flg22 treatment in leaf discs from expanded leaves of 4–5-week-old plants of Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug and LexA::icals3m collected 72 h post DMSO or estradiol treatment. Minute timings of tissue harvest are denoted, and Coomassie blue staining shown below as loading controls. **D)** Average relative light units (RLU) generated from ROS production in response to flg22 in leaf discs of 5-week-old plants. Leaves were treated with estradiol or DMSO 72 h prior to flg22 treatment and data is combined from two independent experiment with N = 95 per genotype/treatment. Significant differences between treatment determined by bootstrap analysis, with significant differences denoted by **, p < 0.01. **E)** Average RLU generated from ROS production in response to flg22 in seedlings. Plants were

1195   treated with estradiol or DMSO 72 h prior to flg22 treatment, with N ≥ 80 per
1196   genotype/treatment. Significant differences between treatment determined by
1197   bootstrap analysis, with significant differences denoted by **, p < 0.01.

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Figure 4. Plasmodesmal closure induces sugar accumulation and impairs leaf growth. A) Leaf area of first two true leaves 6 days post treatment (DMSO or estradiol) of Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug (PD-Plug) and LexA::icals3m (icals3m). Independent factors genotype and treatment were significant, with a significant interaction between the two (ANOVA; F = 82.4, df = 2, P < 0.0001; F = 445.0, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 104.2, df = 2, P < 0.0001). Significant differences denoted by a, b and c, p < 0.0001. n = 40. **B)** Starch, sucrose, glucose and fructose content in leaves of 5-week-old plants 72 h post DMSO or estradiol treatment. Independent factors genotype and treatment were significant, with a significant interaction between the two for each metabolite (ANOVA; *starch* F = 4.7, df = 2, P < 0.05, F = 9.2, df = 1, P < 0.05; F = 11.4, df = 2, P < 0.01; *sucrose* F = 26.2, df = 2, P < 0.0001; F = 25.8, df = 1, P < 0.001; F = 26.7, df = 2, P < 0.0001; *glucose* F = 70.0, df = 2, P < 0.0001; F = 74.4, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 79.3, df = 2, P < 0.0001; *fructose* F = 28.0, df = 2, P < 0.0001; F = 30.4, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 28.8, df = 2, P < 0.0001). Significant differences denoted by a and b, p < 0.01. **C)** Relative leaf area of true leaves 14 days post initial treatment (DMSO or estradiol) in light or shade conditions of Col-0, icals3m, NahG and NahG×LexA::icals3m (NahG×icals3m). Independent factors treatment, genotype and shade condition were significant, with a significant interaction between the pairs and all three (ANOVA; F = 105.5, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 84.5, df =3, P < 0.0001; F = 940.8, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 100.0, df = 3, P < 0.0001; F = 44.4, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 53.9, df = 3, P < 0.0001; F = 53.7, df = 3, P < 0.0001). Significant differences denoted by * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, and *** p < 0.001. **D)** Bacterial growth (log$_{10}$ CFU/cm^2 leaf area) of *Pst* DC3000 3 dpi on uninduced and induced tissue of 4–5-week-old plants. Tissue was treated with DMSO (uninduced) or estradiol (induced) 72 h prior to infection. 4 independent experiments were conducted, with 5 plants per treatment/genotype; N = 20. Independent factors treatment and genotype were significant, with no significant interaction between the two (ANOVA; F = 42.6, df = 1, P < 0.0001; F = 75.8, df = 1, P

1228 < 0.0001; F = 0.4, df = 1, P =0.5). Significant differences denoted by a, b and c, p <
1229 0.0005.

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Tables

Table 1. Photosynthetic yield as indicated by Y(II) following DMSO or estradiol
treatment of leaves of Col-0, LexA::PD-Plug (PD-Plug) and LexA::icals3m
(icals3m). Pooled average of Y(II) ± SD, with a biological replicate data averaged from
4 leaves per treatment/genotype on a given experimental run where N = 8, combined
from two independent experiments. Independent factors genotype and treatment were
not significant, with no significant interaction between the two (ANOVA; F = 1.3, df =
2, P = 0.29; F = 1.2, df = 1, P = 0.29, F = 0.1, df = 2, P = 0.92).

	Col-0	PD-Plug	icals3m
DMSO	0.79±0.02	0.78±0.02	0.78±0.02
estradiol	0.79±0.01	0.78±0.01	0.79±0.01

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