Atypical endo-β-1,4-mannannases are necessary for normal
glucomannan synthesis in Arabidopsis

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ABSTRACT

The molecular mechanisms underlying the synthesis and secretion of large cell wall

polysaccharides in plant cells are not fully understood. In this study, we report that two

atypical endo-β-1,4-mannanases (MANs), which are not secreted and do not degrade

glucomannan in the cell wall, play a novel role in glucomannan synthesis. Among the six

MANs in Arabidopsis, AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 contain a transmembrane (TM) domain at

their N-terminal region instead of a signal peptide. Subcellular localization using MAN

protein fused with fluorescent protein demonstrated that AtMAN2 localizes to the Golgi

apparatus in vascular and interfascicular fiber cells. We found that an Arabidopsis *man2*

man5 double mutant lost 65% of glucomannan in the cell walls of the inflorescence stem.

Immunostaining revealed that the double mutant retained a small amount of glucomannan

in the vacuole instead of secreting it to the cell walls. Arabidopsis possesses another

atypical MAN, AtMAN6, with an HDEL retention signal at its C-terminus. However,

mutation of AtMAN6 did not affect glucomannan content in the cell walls, suggesting

distinct functions for these MANs. This study revealed that the function of AtMAN2 and

AtMAN5 is necessary for normal glucomannan synthesis. We suggest that these *man*

mutants point to an uncharacterized transport pathway in plant cells, through which

glucomannan is trafficked to the vacuole instead of the cell walls.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Cell wall polysaccharides are synthesized from building block nucleotide sugars by the

action of glucosyltransferases, but other factors facilitating the synthesis and secretion of

large polysaccharides without aggregation remain to be identified. Here, we focused on

the importance and functions of two atypical Arabidopsis endo-β-1,4-mannanases that

have a transmembrane domain instead of a secretion signal, and which are widely

distributed in angiosperms but have not been well characterized. Arabidopsis mutants

impaired in these endo-β-1,4-mannanases lost 65% cell wall glucomannan, indicating that

the hydrolysis by these enzymes is necessary for normal synthesis. Enhanced retention of

glucomannan inside cells in the mutant hints at a transport route to deliver glucomannan

to the vacuole.

INTRODUCTION

Plant cell wall polysaccharides constitute the largest biomass carbon reservoir on earth, thus understanding the mechanism for their synthesis is indispensable for their efficient production and utilization (1). Large polysaccharides are synthesized by glycosyltransferases from building block nucleotide sugars (2), but its molecular mechanism has not been fully understood. It is well-known that proteins undergo quality control in which unfolded proteins are removed from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and degraded by 26S proteasome in the cytosol (3). On the other hand, how aggregation of large cell wall polysaccharides is avoided during the synthesis and how they are processed if they do aggregate in plant cells are still unknown.

Mannan polysaccharides are cell wall polysaccharides widely distributed in land plants. They commonly possess a backbone composed of β-1,4-mannose (β-1,4-Man) and/or β-1,4-glucose (β-1,4-Glc), while the backbone sequences and decorations are diverse (4-6). The backbones of mannan polysaccharides can take on a two-fold structure, in which the sugar residues turn at 180° resulting in a straight ribbon structure suitable for cellulose binding (7, 8). Mannan polysaccharides without decoration tend to become insoluble, probably as a result of intermolecular hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interaction (9, 10).

The backbones of mannan polysaccharides are synthesized from GDP-Man and GDP-Glc by the action of specific glycosyltransferases, called cellulose-synthase like A (CslA) proteins (11, 12, 13). In Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana*), CslA2 synthesizes the backbone for β-galactoglucomannan (β-GGM) with alternating β-1,4-Man and β-1,4-Glc

residues, whereas ClsA9 makes the backbone for acetylated GGM (AcGGM) with a

random sequence of β-1,4-Man and β-1,4-Glc residues (in the following parts,

glucomannan includes β-GGM and AcGGM) (7, 8, 14). Supporting the importance of

factors involved in the building block generation and the backbone synthesis reactions,

Arabidopsis *vitamin c defective1*, *konjac1*, *csla2, and csla9* mutants exhibit a decrease in

glucomannan content (12, 14-16). Subsequently, the backbones undergo decoration with

α-galactose by mannan α-galactosyltransferase and/or acetyl groups by mannan *O*-

acetyltransferase, with which the solubility of glucomannan increases (6, 17-19).

MANNAN SYNTHESIS-RELATED (MSR) proteins are other factors shown to affect

the glucomannan content, although their molecular functions are still obscure (20). The

identification of additional factors is important for understanding the molecular

mechanism of glucomannan synthesis and secretion.

Endo-β-1,4-mannanase (MAN) is one of the conserved cell wall enzymes in plants,

belonging to the glycoside hydrolase 5 family (21). The physiological importance of

MANs have been extensively studied in seed germination and fruit ripening (22, 23).

Based on the domains, motifs, and sequence similarity, plant MANs may be classified

into several types (Fig. 1A) (24). Arabidopsis secreted type MANs, AtMAN3 and

AtMAN7, hydrolyze cell wall glucomannan to contribute to cadmium-tolerance via

activation of phytochelatin and glutathione synthesis (25, 26). AtMAN6 is a HDEL-type

MAN with a C-terminal HDEL signal, which is a retrograde transport signal back from

the Golgi apparatus to the ER (27). AtMAN6 and its poplar (*Populus trichocarpa*)

orthologue, PtrMAN6, are specifically localized in vessel cells and presumed to release

GGM oligosaccharides as signaling molecules, which negatively regulate secondary cell

wall formation in the vessel and interfascicular fiber cells (28, 29). On the other hand,

AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 are the other type of MANs with a transmembrane (TM) domain

instead of a signal peptide in the N-terminal region, designated TM-type MANs here.

Recombinant AtMAN2 expressed in *Escherichia coli* shows hydrolytic activity toward

mannan polysaccharides and lacks transglycosylation activity (30), but its physiological

importance and functions remain to be studied.

This study focused on the importance and functions of the TM-type MANs, AtMAN2

and AtMAN5, comparing them with another atypical MAN, AtMAN6, in glucomannan

synthesis and secretion. The analysis of Arabidopsis loss-of-function mutants showed that

AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 are necessary for normal glucomannan synthesis, and in this

respect different from AtMAN6. We found that the impairment of normal synthesis was

accompanied by retention of relatively large glucomannan aggregates in the vacuole.

These findings provide new insights into the synthesis and secretion of plant cell wall

polysaccharides.

RESULTS

TM-type MANs are conserved in angiosperms

In Arabidopsis, two TM-type MANs, AtMAN2 (AT2G20680) and AtMAN5

(AT4G28320), are highly related in their amino acid sequences (identity, 83%), while

AtMAN6 (AT5G01930) is the sole HDEL-type MAN (Fig. 1A). TM-type MANs can be

found in other angiosperms including amborella (*Amborella trichopoda*) and rice (*Oryza*

sativa), forming a clade apart from the secreted type MANs in the phylogenetic tree (Fig.

1B). On the other hand, *Physcomitrium patens* (a moss species) and *Marchantia*

polymorpha (a liverwort species) lack this type. The HDEL-type MANs also formed a

different clade, which did not include MANs from *P. patens* and *M. polymorpha*. The

distribution and phylogenetic relationships suggest that the TM-type MANs have

functions differently from the secreted and the HDEL-type MANs.

Loss of glucomannan in *man2 man5* double mutants

To examine the importance of AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 and differentiate their role from

AtMAN6, we analyzed the glucomannan content of an Arabidopsis *man2-1 man5-1*

double mutant and compared it with the wild-type plant (WT), *man6-1*, and *man2-1*

man5-1 man6-1 and *man2-2 man5-1 man6-1* triple mutants. These mutants did not show

significant growth defects (Fig. S1). Based on their expression patterns (Fig. S2) (31), the

changes in cell walls from the bottom part of inflorescence stems where secondary cell

wall thickening occurs, were analyzed. The cell walls were fractionated into water soluble

fraction (soluble fraction), alkali extractable fraction (alkali fraction), and cellulose

fractions (Fig. 2A), and the sugar composition of these fractions was determined by high-

performance anion-exchange chromatography with pulsed amperometric detection

(HPAEC-PAD) (Fig. S3). Although MANs are hydrolytic enzymes acting on mannan

polysaccharides (30), the *man2-1 man5-1* double mutant unexpectedly lost more than

65% mannose in these cell wall fractions (Fig. 2B). As other hemicelluloses and pectin

rarely have mannose residues in Arabidopsis (4, 14, 32), this result indicates that the

double mutant lost a large part of its glucomannan. It has been reported that AtMAN6

negatively regulates secondary cell wall thickening (29), but neither mannose content nor

the sugar content proportion of cell wall fractions was changed in the *man6-1* mutant.

The Arabidopsis inflorescence stem has two different glucomannans, β-GGM and

AcGGM, which are synthesized by CslA2 and CslA9, respectively (7, 8, 14). The

influence of the loss of TM-type MANs on these GGMs was evaluated by polysaccharide

analysis using carbohydrate gel electrophoresis (PACE) (Fig. S4). Here, β-GGM and

AcGGM included in the stem cell walls were hydrolyzed into oligosaccharides by a

microbial MAN, CjMAN26A, separated, and detected. The *man2-1 man5-1* double and

the triple mutants with *man6* showed almost no GBGAGM and GBGM oligosaccharides

from β-GGM and no GGM and GMM from AcGGM, so they were similar to the *csla2-2*

csla9-2 double mutant in this respect (14) (Fig. 2C, S4). These results demonstrate that

the TM-type MANs are necessary for the normal synthesis of both β-GGM and AcGGM

in the inflorescence stem. The results also suggested that AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 function

redundantly for the glucomannan synthesis.

Retention of glucomannan in the vacuole

The change in the accumulation of glucomannan in vascular and interfascicular fiber cells

in *man* mutants was also observed in cross-sections of inflorescence stems. The

glucomannan localized in these cells was detected with LM21 antibody specific to

glucomannan. Consistent with the results of the cell wall analysis (Fig. 2), the cell wall

glucomannan signals were almost lost in the *man2-1 man5-1* double and the triple mutants

(Fig. 3A). Xylan, together with cellulose, is a major component of secondary cell walls,

but neither immunostaining of xylan nor the sugar composition of cell wall fractions (Fig.

S5) pointed to compensatory changes in the mutants. The TM-type MANs do not seem

to influence the content of other cell wall polysaccharides in the inflorescence stem.

The *man2-1 man5-1* double mutant lost cell wall glucomannan but instead showed the

glucomannan signals inside cells (Fig. 3B). Given that the double mutant is impaired in

the synthesis of glucomannan, the intracellular signals are presumed to stem from a small

amount of glucomannan that aggregated influencing the synthesis and failed to be

secreted. Based on the mannose content in the cell wall fractions compared with WT, the

amount of glucomannan inside cells was small. Interestingly, although the *man6* mutation

did not influence the glucomannan content alone, it enhanced this retention of

glucomannan in *man2-1 man5-1* (Fig. 3B). Given that AtMAN6 negatively regulates

secondary cell wall thickening as reported (28), the *man6* mutation might have positively

regulated the synthesis of secondary cell wall components including glucomannan

resulting in more aggregates inside cells. To identify such glucomannans retained inside

cells, immunoelectron microscopy was conducted. In this experiment, the glucomannans

in the ultrathin cross sections from the inflorescence stem of *man2-1 man5-1 man6-1*

were recognized by LM21 as the primary antibody and visualized with a secondary

antibody conjugated to gold particles. In the triple mutant, relatively large clusters of gold

particles were found in the vacuole (Fig. 3C). Although only as weak signals, such

clusters were also found in WT. Consistent with immunostaining and cell wall analysis,

there were fewer gold particles in the cell walls of the triple mutant, confirming the loss

of glucomannan in the cell walls.

Tissue and subcellular localization of AtMAN2 and AtMAN6 differ

The tissue and subcellular localization of AtMAN2 was investigated using transgenic

Arabidopsis harboring *pMAN2::MAN2TM-mNeon* in which the fluorescent protein

mNeonGreen sequence was inserted right behind the TM domain in the genomic *AtMAN2*

sequence (Fig. S6). To compare, we also generated *pMAN6::MAN6signal-mNeon* in

which the mNeonGreen sequence was inserted after the signal peptide into the genomic

AtMAN6 sequence. In this experiment, the top part of the inflorescence stem was chosen

for observation because we found strong mNeonGreen signals there. The MAN2TM-

mNeon signal was widely observed in the vascular and fiber cells of inflorescence stems

(Fig. 4A-I), and this was substantially different from MAN6signal fluorescence, which

was limited to developing vessels (Fig. 4J-R, S6). The MAN2TM-mNeon signal was

localized in the Golgi apparatus, suggesting that AtMAN2 functions in the Golgi

apparatus. The MAN6signal fluorescence were spread in the vessel cells, indicating its

localization in the ER or the vacuole. C-terminal fusion of AtMAN6 with green

fluorescence protein has been used previously to show that AtMAN6 localizes on the

plasma membrane (PM), but in that study, as in this, AtMAN2 and AtMAN6 were found

in substantially different locations, suggesting that they have different molecular

functions (29).

DISCUSSION

MANs are novel factors necessary for glucomannan synthesis

The present study has identified AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 as factors necessary for normal

glucomannan synthesis in Arabidopsis, to work along with VTC1 and KJC1 generating

GDP-Man, CslAs catalyzing the glucomannan backbone synthesis, and MSRs (12, 14-16,

20). Based on the distribution of orthologues, it is likely that many angiosperms utilize

TM-type MANs in glucomannan synthesis.

The requirement of polysaccharide degrading enzymes for polysaccharide synthesis

presents an apparent paradox. Yet this is not the first example: among other plant

glycoside hydrolases, the membrane-associated GH9 endo-β-1,4-glucanase

KORRIGAN1 (KOR1) is well known for its role in cellulose synthesis (33). The

Arabidopsis *kor1* mutant suffers severe defects in the synthesis of cellulose,

demonstrating the importance of this protein. The sea squirt *Ciona intestinalis* and

bacteria such as *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* and *Acetobacter xylinum* also require endo-

β-1,4-glucanases for their cellulose synthesis. These enzymes belong to the GH 6 and 8

families and are thus distinct from KOR1 (34-36). These facts imply that hydrolytic

activity of endo-β-1,4-glucanases is important to facilitate the cellulose synthesis. The

present study describes an instance of another version of this paradox in polysaccharide

synthesis, after the case of endo-β-1,4-glucanase in cellulose synthesis. We suggest that

this paradox may represent a general mechanism in plant cells to prevent the aggregation

of newly synthesized cell wall polysaccharides.

Putative molecular functions of AtMAN2 and AtMAN5

Previous research has shown that AtMAN2 lacks transglycosylation activity (30). MAN2TM-mNoen localizes in the Golgi apparatus in the vascular and interfascicular fiber cells (Fig. 4). Based on these facts, we suggest that glucomannan probably undergoes hydrolysis rather than transglycosylation by AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 in the Golgi apparatus. The drastic decrease in the glucomannan content in the double and triple mutants implies that the synthesis by CslAs nearly stops. The alternative, that only secretion is impaired in the mutants, while the glucomannan synthesis by CslA2 and CslA9 is maintained, does not seem likely, because in this case the glucomannan must have been collected in any fraction (Fig. 2B). We cannot specify the molecular functions of these MANs in detail, but it is conceivable that large glucomannan molecules before decoration easily aggregate during synthesis, which may cause the chain elongation reaction by CslAs to stop. This problem may be alleviated through partial hydrolysis by these MANs. It is also probable that AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 facilitate the release of glucomannan from CslA proteins by partial hydrolysis during synthesis, enabling its proper loading into the secretion pathway. The impairment of this process may slow down or stop the glucomannan synthesis by CslAs and result in the formation of aggregates that are transported to the vacuole.

Another atypical MAN, AtMAN6, has been reported to negatively regulate secondary cell wall thickening by localizing to the plasma membrane and releasing oligosaccharides from cell wall glucomannan as signaling molecules (28, 29). The different impacts on the glucomannan content and subcellular localization strongly suggest that AtMAN2 and

AtMAN5 play roles distinct from AtMAN6. The clear functional differences, despite their

high sequence similarity, between secreted MANs, MAN2/MAN5, and MAN6 highlight

the complexity of glucomannan synthesis and degradation processes in plants.

Transport of glucomannan to the vacuole

Undecorated hemicellulose polysaccharides such as xyloglucan, xylan, and mannan

polysaccharides tend to form insoluble aggregates due to the straight ribbon-like structure

of their backbones, which is suitable for intermolecular interaction. In xyloglucan, the

importance of galactose-side chains to avoid aggregation has been shown (37-39). The

Arabidopsis *murus3* (*mur3*) mutant, which lacks galactose-side chains on its xyloglucan,

suffers intracellular aggregation of xyloglucan in the roots, resulting in growth defects. In

this case, the aggregates likely accumulated in the Golgi apparatus leading to the

disruption of cellular trafficking in young tissues. However, the defects caused by *man2*

and *man5* mutations differ from those observed for *mur3* mutants. First, the *man* mutants

did not show any growth defects, suggesting that AtMAN2 and AtMAN5 are more

important in the formation of secondary cell walls than in the formation of the primary

cell walls. Second, the glucomannan was retained in the vacuole, which was also observed

in WT to a lesser extent in our previous study (Fig. 3) (40). Therefore, the transport of

glucomannan to the vacuole is likely a normal reaction to avoid serious disruption of

intracellular trafficking in tissue rapidly synthesizing hemicellulose for secondary cell

walls. Thus, plant cells likely have a transport route to deliver cell wall polysaccharides

to the vacuole not to the cell walls (41). Clarifying this mechanism will presumably

require the identification of as yet unknown factors involved in this transport.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Arabidopsis mutants and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Col-0 was used in this study. The T-DNA insertion lines

SALK_0383344 (*man2-1*), SALK_016450 (*man2-2*), SALK_059047 (*man5-1*), and

SALK_129977 (*man6-1*) were provided by the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center.

The double and triple mutants were generated by crosses between these mutants. The

genotypes of the mutants were determined using specific primers (Fig. S7 and Table S1).

The *csla2-2 csla9-2* and *msr1-1 msr2-1* double mutants had been obtained in our previous

studies (14, 20, 42). Arabidopsis seeds were sterilized and sown on Murashige and Skoog

(MS) medium in 0.8% (w/v) agar. After stratification at 4 °C in the dark for 2 days, the

seeds were germinated and grown under continuous light (cold cathode fluorescent lamp;

Biomedical Science) at 23 °C for 10 days, then on rockwool fiber for 4 weeks under

continuous light at 23 °C.

Phylogenetic analysis

The amino acid sequences of MANs from various plants were collected using Basic Local

Alignment Search Tool in NCBI (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) (Table S2). The

signal peptide and transmembrane region were detected using the SignalP 6.0 and

TMHMM-2.0 programs, respectively (43-45). The alignments of amino acid sequences

were performed by the MUSCLE program in MEGA software (version 11; 46) with

default parameters. The phylogenetic trees were generated using the maximum likelihood

method with 100 bootstraps.

Cell wall fractionation and sugar composition analysis

The bottom part of first inflorescence stem 2 weeks after bolting (approximately 50 mg)

was homogenized with mortar and pestle in water (Fig. S8). After centrifugation at 10,000

x g at 4°C for 5 min, the supernatant was collected as the soluble fraction. The precipitate

was suspended in 0.4 mL of 4 M potassium hydroxide containing 0.04% (w/v) $NaBH_4$ at

25°C. After centrifugation at 10,000 x g at 4 °C for 5 min, the supernatant was collected.

This extraction was repeated. The combined supernatant (0.8 mL) was neutralized with

0.4 mL of glacial acetic acid and collected as the alkali fraction. The precipitate was

washed with 98% (v/v) ethanol, 2% (v/v) acetic acid twice, lyophilized for 24 h,

hydrolyzed with 72% (v/v) sulfuric acid at 4 °C for 1 h and 8% (v/v) sulfuric acid at

100 °C for 4 h, and then collected as the cellulose fraction. Total sugar composition and

quantity of the above fractions were determined using the phenol sulfuric acid procedure

(47).

For sugar composition analysis, the alkali fraction was dialyzed against water at 4 °C

for 2 days. The soluble and alkali fractions were hydrolyzed into monosaccharides with

2 M trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) at 121 °C for 1 h, then lyophilized to remove TFA. The

cellulose fraction after the hydrolysis with sulfuric acid was neutralized with barium

carbonate and desalted with Dowex beads (Dowex 50WX8, Dow Chemical).

Monosaccharide composition was determined by HPAEC-PAD using a Dionex ICS-

5000+ liquid chromatograph (Thermo Fisher Scientific) fitted with a CarboPac PA-1

column (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and a pulsed amperometric detector (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) as described previously (15).

PACE

Alcohol-insoluble residue (AIR) was prepared from the bottom part of Arabidopsis

inflorescence stems (fresh weight, 100 mg) according to Yu et al. (7). Glucomannans were

extracted from the AIR with 1 mL of 4 M potassium hydroxide solution by shaking at

1,000 rpm at room temperature for an hour. After centrifugation at 15,000 x g for 15

minutes, the supernatant was collected. To collect remaining glucomannans, the pellet

was suspended in 1 mL of water. After centrifugation, the supernatant was collected. The

supernatants were combined and applied to a PD-10 column (Cytiva) to exchange the

solvent with 50 mM ammonium acetate buffer (pH 6.0). The eluted fraction was used as

the KOH fraction.

Glucomannans in the KOH fraction were hydrolyzed into specific oligosaccharides

with a commercial endo-β-1,4-mannanase, CjMan26A (1 unit, E-BMACJ, Megazyme),

from *Cellvibrio japonicus* in 50 mM ammonium acetate buffer (pH 6.0) at 37 °C

overnight (Fig. S4). After the reaction, the enzyme was denatured by heating at 100 °C

for 15 minutes. The oligosaccharides were derivatized with 8-aminonapthalene-1,3,6-

trisulphonic acid, resuspended in urea, and separated by electrophoresis as described (6,

14). Gels were visualized using a G-Box (Syngene, Cambridge, UK) with a

transilluminator with long-wave tubes emitting at 365 nm and a shortpass (500 to 600

nm) detection filter. Mannose and β-1,4-mannooligosaccharides (Man$_{2-6}$, Megazyme)

were used as standards.

Immunostaining of glucomannan in the mutants

The glucomannan and xylan in the inflorescence stems were observed using specific

antibodies. The bottom part of inflorescence stems (the lowest one-sixth portion) was

fixed with 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde and 0.6% (v/v) glutaraldehyde at 4 °C for 3 h. The

fixed samples were dehydrated through a graded ethanol series, embedded in Technovit

7100 (Nisshin EM, Tokyo, Japan) using a graded series of ethanol and Technovit 7100

mixtures, and solidified with Technovit hardener (Nisshin EM) at 60 °C for 12 h. Sections

were sliced to a thickness of 10 μm using a microtome (RM2125RT; Leica, Tokyo, Japan)

equipped with a disposable steel blade (C35; Feather, Osaka, Japan).

To remove acetyl groups from polysaccharides, the cross-sections were treated with 50

mM NaOH at 25 °C for 30 min. The sections were then washed with phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS) containing 137 mM NaCl, 10 mM Na$_2$HPO$_4$, 2.7 mM KCl, and 1.8 mM

KH$_2$PO$_4$ (pH 7.4) and then blocked in PBS containing 0.3% (w/v) blocking milk (Sigma-

Aldrich, Tokyo, Japan) for 30 min. Then, the sections were incubated for 1.5 h with

antibodies against glucomannan (LM21, Kerafast, Shirley, MA; dilution 1:5) or xylan

(LM10, Kerafast; dilution 1:5) in PBS with blocking milk. After washing three times with

PBS, the sections were incubated for 1 h with Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated anti-mouse

IgM for LM21 (abcam, Cambridge, UK; dilution 1:100) or Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated

anti-mouse IgG for LM10 (abcam; dilution 1:100) in PBS with bovine serum albumin.

The sections were washed three additional times with PBS.

The cross sections were imaged with a microscope (ECLIPSE Ci-L Plus, Nikon, Japan)

at 405 nm for Calcofluor White and at 488 nm for specific antibodies.

Immunoelectron microscopy

Immunoelectron microscopy to detect the glucomannan localization was performed

according to Atsuzawa et al. (48). The bottom part (the lowest one-sixth portion) and

upper part (the highest one-sixth portion) of the inflorescence stems of WT and the *man2-*

1 man5-1 man6-1 mutant were fixed with 2% (v/v) gultaraldehyde in 50 mM potassium

phosphate (pH 6.8) at room temperature for 3 h. After washing with 100 mM lysine in 50

mM potassium phosphate (pH 6.8) the samples were dehydrated in a graded series of

ethanol. The tissues were embedded in LR White resin (Electron Microscopy Sciences,

USA) and polymerized by heating at 60 °C. Ultrathin sections of 100 nm thickness were

cut on an UltracutN ultramicrotome (Nissei, Japan) and collected on nickel grids coated

with polyvinyl formvar membrane.

Ultra-thin sections were immersed in 50 mM NaOH at room temperature for 30 min

and washed with Tris-HCl buffer (TBS: 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl,)

containing 0.05% Triton X-100 (TBS/Tx). They were treated with blocking solution (10

mg/ml bovine serum albumin in TBS) at room temperature for 60 min, and they were

incubated with LM21 antibody at 1:500 dilution at 4 °C overnight. After washing with

TBS/Tx, the sections were incubated with a solution of 10 nm gold particles conjugated

with goat anti-rat IgG (BBI solutions, UK) as the secondary antibody at a 1:30 dilution

for 1 h at room temperature and washed with TBS/Tx. Specimens were observed with a

transmission electron microscope (H-7500, Hitachi, Japan) at an accelerating voltage of

80 kV after staining with uranyl acetate and lead citrate.

Transgenic plants expressing MAN-mNeonGreen

The DNA fragments of *genomic AtMAN2 and AtMAN6* genes and mNeonGreen were

amplified from Arabidopsis genomic DNA and template *mNeonGreen* (Addgene,

#189976), respectively, using the primer sets listed in Table S1. The DNA fragments were

assembled and subcloned into the binary vector pBGGN (Inplanta Innovation, Yokohama,

Japan) with DNA assembly kit (Gibson) to yield the constructs, *pMAN2::MAN2TM-*

mNeon/pBGGN and *pMAN6::MAN2signal-mNeon/pBGGN* (Fig. S6). These constructs

were introduced into the *man2-1 man5-1 man6-1* triple mutants by an Agrobacterium-

mediated (*Rhizobium radiobacter*, EHA105 strain) method (49).

Observation of tissue and subcellular localization of MAN-mNeonGreen proteins

Cross sections were excised from the top part of the inflorescence stems of the transgenic

plants harboring *pMAN6::MAN2signal-mNeon* (line #3) or *pMAN6::MAN2signal-mNeon*

(line #3) and stained with 6.34 μM fixable analog of N-(3-triethylammoniumpropyl)-4-

(6-(4-(diethylamino) phenyl) hexatrienyl) pyridinium dibromide, FM 4-64FX

(ThermoFisher). The confocal images were obtained using a Zeiss LSM800 (Zeiss, Jena,

Germany) with a Plan-Apochromat 63×/1.4 oil immersion objective lens. FM 4-64FX

was excited at 561 nm and detected between 400 and 645 nm. Fluorescence signals from

mNeonGreen were detected after excitation at 488 nm and detected between 410-546 nm.

Autofluorescence was excited at 488 nm and detected at 550-700 nm. Transmitted

photomultiplier tube (T-PMT) images were also captured during confocal imaging.

Author Contributions: T.K. and P.D. designed the research. A.K., E.S., Y.Y., H.T., N.N.,

K.A., Y.K., D.T., and T.K. performed research. E.S., Y.Y., D.T., Y.K., and T.K. analyzed

the data. H.T., Y.K., D.T., P.D., and T.K. wrote the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Supporting Information

Table S1. Primers used for genotyping and plasmid construction.

Table S2. List of MAN sequences in the phylogenetic analysis.

Fig. S1. Growth phenotypes of *man* mutants

Fig. S2. Expression patterns of *AtMAN2*, *AtMAN5*, and *AtMAN6* genes.

Fig. S3. Monosaccharide composition of the soluble, alkali, and cellulose fractions.

Fig. S4. Oligosaccharides detected by PACE.

Fig. S5. Glucomannan and xylan accumulation in *man* mutants.

Fig. S6. Transgenic plants expressing MAN2TM-mNeon and MAN6signal-mNeon.

Fig. S7. T-DNA insertion sites and genotyping of man mutants.

Fig. S8. Cell wall fractionation from inflorescence stems.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Distribution of TM-type MANs in plants.

(A) Schematic model of AtMAN proteins. The signal peptide and transmembrane region

were identified by using SignalP 6.0 and TMHMM 2.0 programs, respectively. (B)

Phylogenetic tree of plant MANs. Phylogenetic relationships of MANs from Arabidopsis

and other plants including *S. moellendorffii*, *P. patens*, and *M. polymorpha* were analyzed

with MEGA software (version 11.0). Rice OsMAN5 and poplar PtrMAN6 indicated with

pink dots have HHEL and HDDL sequences at the C-terminus instead of HDEL,

respectively. SmMAN2 with the orange dot has a TM domain in the N-terminal region

that its neighbor, SmMAN3, lacks. MAN sequences from angiosperms are shown in black

whereas those from other organisms are in blue. Amt, amborella; Lj, *Lotus japonicus*; Mp,

M. polymorpha; Os, rice; Pp, *P. patens*; Sm, *S. moellendorffii*. AnMAN5A from

Aspergillus nidulans was used as the outgroup. Numbers in the nodes represent bootstrap

values. The bar indicates substitutions per site. The accession numbers and abbreviated

names for these sequences are listed in Table S2.

Figure 2. Glucomannan content in *man* mutants.

(A) Relative sugar content of cell wall fractions in the *man* mutants. Sugar content of

soluble, alkali, and cellulose fractions from the bottom part of inflorescence stems was

quantified by the phenol-sulfuric acid method. (B) Mannose content of cell wall fractions.

The content was calculated based on the sugar content and the monosaccharide

composition of cell wall fractions (Fig. S3). The values are shown in weight per gram

fresh weight (g fw). Data are mean values with standard deviation (three biological

replicates). Different letters indicate significant differences determined with the Tukey

HSD test ($p < 0.05$). (C) Change in β-GGM and AcGGM. GGMs included in the cell

walls of the bottom part of inflorescence stems were hydrolyzed into specific

oligosaccharides such as MGM, GBGM, (GA)$_2$GM (Fig. S4), which were labelled with

a fluorescent compound then separated in the gel. Here, *man* mutants were compared with

WT, *csla2-2 csla9-2* double mutants known to lack stem glucomannans, and the *msr1-1*

msr2-1 double mutant with reduced glucomannan (14, 20). The triple mutant #1, *man2-1*

man5-1 man6-1; the triple mutant #2, *man2-2 man5-1 man6-1*. Blue circle, glucose; green

circle, mannose; yellow circle, galactose. The oligosaccharide structures are shown on

the right. The results for control reactions are shown in Fig. S4.

Figure 3. Glucomannan in the cell walls and the vacuole.

(*A*) Reduced glucomannan in the inflorescence stem. Cross sections from the bottom part

of first inflorescence stem of *man* mutants were compared with WT. The images for bright

field, calcofluor staining, and glucomannan signals with LM21 antibody are shown. The

bar indicates 50 μm. (*B*) Magnified images of vascular cells. The merged images of

calcofluor staining, and glucomannan signals are shown. Arrowheads indicate relatively

strong glucomannan signals found inside cells. The bar indicates 10 μm. (*C*)

Representative images of immunoelectron microscopy. Ultrathin sections prepared from

the bottom and upper parts of the inflorescence stem of WT and the *man2-1 man5-1*

man6-1 mutant were observed. Glucomannan was detected with LM21 antibody. The

gold particles found in the cell walls are shown as red dots and those in the cytoplasm

including the vacuole are represented as blue dots. CP, chloroplast; CW, cell wall; V,

vacuole. The bars indicate 1 μm.

Figure 4. Tissue and subcellular localization of AtMAN2TM-mNeon and

AtMAN6signal-mNeon proteins in Arabidopsis.

Vascular cells expressing MAN2TM-mNeon (A-I) and developing vessels expressing

MAN6signal-mNeon (J-R) in the top part of the inflorescence stem were observed with

a confocal microscope. Images for mNeonGreen (A, E, J, N), autofluorescence (B, F, K,

O), FM 4-64FX staining (G, P), and T-PMT (C, H, L, Q) were obtained and merged (D,

I, M, R). Scale bars are 100 μm in A-D and J-M and 5 μm in E-I and M-R. The

pMAN2:MAN2TM-mNeon and *pMAN6:MAN6signal-mNeon* constructs, the images of a

longitudinal section for AtMAN6signal-mNeon, and the recovery of the glucomannan

accumulation in *man2-1 man5-1 man6-1* with *pMAN2::MAN2TM-mNeon* are shown in

Fig. S6.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4