Comparative Proteomic Profiling of Receptor Kinase Signaling Reveals Key Trafficking Components Enforcing Plant Stomatal Development

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Highlights:

• An atlas of ERECTA receptor kinase interactome and proximitome

• Proximity labeling identifies clathrin-associated proteins as ERECTA partners

• PICALM adaptors mediate both constitutive and ligand-induced ERECTA endocytosis

• Loss of *PICALM* impairs proper stomatal patterning

ABSTRACT

Receptor kinases are pivotal for growth, development, and environmental response of plants. Yet,

their regulatory mechanisms and spatial dynamics are still underexplored. The ERECTA-family

receptor kinases coordinate diverse developmental processes, including stomatal development.

To understand the proteomic landscape of the ERECTA-mediated signaling pathways, we here

report comparative analyses of the ERECTA interactome and proximitome by epitope-tagged

affinity-purification (ET-AP) and TurboID-based proximity labeling (TbID-PL) mass-spectrometry,

respectively. While ET-AP successfully recovered receptor complex components (e.g., TOO

MANY MOUTHS), TbID-PL effectively captured transient associations with the components of

endosomal trafficking, *i.e.* clathrin-mediated endocytosis (CME) machinery. We further identify

that specific subfamily members of phosphatidylinositol-binding clathrin assembly proteins

(PICALMs) interact with and synergistically regulate ERECTA internalization. Mutations of these

PICALMs impair ERECTA endocytosis and lead to excessive stomatal clustering. Taken together,

our work provides a proteomic atlas of the ERECTA signaling network and suggests that timely

removal of receptor kinase by the endocytosis machinery is essential for active signal transduction

enforcing stomatal patterning.

INTRODUCTION

Receptor kinases (RKs) constitute one of the largest gene families in plants, playing a
fundamental role in orchestrating growth, development, environmental response and immunity[1-6].
Among them, those with an extracellular leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domain comprise the largest
subgroups, with well-studied members including a phytohormone brassinosteroid receptor
BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE1 (BRI1)[7] and innate immunity receptor FLAGELLIN
SENSING2 (FLS2)[8]. The ERECTA family of three LRR-RKs, ERECTA (ER), ERECTA-LIKE1
(ERL1), and ERL2 regulate multiple aspects of developmental processes, including epidermal
patterning, organ morphogenesis, vascular differentiation, and meristem activity[9,10]. The
functional redundancy and synergy among these receptors are evident from the severe
developmental defects observed in *er erl1 erl2* triple mutants, which exhibit increased stomata
density and clustering, reduced plant stature and arrested inflorescence[11,12]. The pleiotropic
nature of ERECTA signaling is mediated by interactions with EPIDERMAL PATTERNING
FACTORs (EPFs) and EPF-LIKEs (EPFLs), a diverse family of endogenously secreted peptides
that enable spatiotemporal regulation of receptor signaling[13-16].

ERECTA fine-tunes stomatal development by balancing the proliferation and differentiation of
stomatal initial cells, meristemoid mother cells (MMCs), and dividing precursor cells called
meristemoids[12,17]. Studies in the past decade revealed the signal transduction pathways mediated
by ERECTA in a few developmental contexts[10]. Specifically, EPF2 is secreted from early stomatal-
lineage cells and binds to ERECTA to inhibit excessive stomatal formation. STOMAGEN/EPFL9
acts as an antagonistic peptide and competes with EPF2 for receptor binding, promoting stomatal
differentiation[15,18,19]. This ensures a tightly regulated developmental balance. ERECTA requires
its co-receptor TOO MANY MOUTHS (TMM) for selective ligand recognition[20-22]. Unlike ERECTA,
TMM lacks a cytoplasmic kinase domain and therefore does not directly participate in intracellular
signal transduction. Instead, ligand-activated ERECTA interacts with co-receptors, including
BRI1-ASSOCIATED KINASE1/SOMATIC EMBRYOGENESIS RECEPTOR KINASE3
(BAK1/SERK3) and related SERKs, which trans-phosphorylate and activate ERECTA[23,24].
Receptor-like cytoplasmic kinases (RLCKs), BRASSINOSTEROID-SIGNALING KINASE 1
(BSK1) and BSK2 also function downstream likely as a signaling scaffold that bridges ERECTA-
mediated signaling to the MAP kinase cascade via YODA[25].

The swift turnover of activated receptors involves multiple layers of control, with receptor
endocytosis playing a crucial role in modulating signaling intensity, duration, and spatial
distribution[26]. Plant RKs undergo both constitutive and ligand-induced endocytosis. For example,
it has been reported that BRI1 undergoes constitutive and ligand-induced endocytosis while
subcellular trafficking of ligand-activated BRI1-BAK1 complex has also been documented[27,28].
FLS2 undergoes rapid internalization upon ligand perception[29,30]. Accumulating evidence shows
that both BRI1 and FLS2 are internalized via clathrin-mediated endocytosis (CME)[28,31]. A recent
study demonstrated that one of the ERECTA-family members, ERL1, undergoes ligand-induced
endocytosis, and trafficking initially to multivesicular bodies (MVBs) and then to late endosomes
for vacuolar degradation. EPF1 peptide promotes TMM-dependent ERL1 internalization, whereas
STOMAGEN inhibits ERL1 endocytosis by retaining the receptor in the endoplasmic reticulum,
providing an additional layer of receptor regulation[32]. No specific components for ERL1
endocytosis are known. Given the functional overlap between ERL1 and ERECTA, it is plausible
that ERECTA undergoes similar endocytic regulation, although its intracellular trafficking
mechanisms remain poorly understood.

The interactome of LRR-RLKs has been extensively profiled, revealing an integrated network of
extracellular receptor-ligand interactions[33]. While proteomic studies have advanced our
understanding of RK signaling, its regulatory mechanisms and dynamic signaling processes still
remain a challenge. Conventional affinity purification-mass spectrometry has been instrumental
in identifying RK interactors[34,35]. However, it has inherent limitations in detecting transient or weak
interactions, leaving a significant portion of the RK intracellular network unresolved[36]. TurboID-
based proximity labeling (TbID-PL) has emerged as a powerful approach for mapping low-
abundant and transient interactors with high spatial and temporal resolution[37-40]. Here, we employ
a parallel proteomic approach using epitope-tagged affinity-purification (ET-AP) and TbID-PL
from the same biological samples to construct a comprehensive proteomic map of the ERECTA
signaling network. In addition to the canonical ERECTA signaling components, we identify a suite
of adaptor and accessory proteins linked to CME[41]. Among these, we discover that PICALMs, key
regulators of CME, associate with ERECTA and play a crucial role in receptor internalization and
homeostasis. Functional characterization of *picalm* mutants uncovers excessive stomatal
numbering and clustering, phenocopying higher-order *erecta* family loss-of-function mutants.
Collectively, our study establishes a proteomic atlas of the ERECTA signaling network and
highlights the significance of CME-mediated receptor dynamics in maintaining robust RLK
signaling and proper stomatal development.

RESULTS

Comparative proteomic profiling of ERECTA-associated proteins

To unravel the full proteomic landscape of ERECTA-mediated cellular receptor signaling, it is

imperative to simultaneously profile both the ERECTA-interacting proteome (*i.e.* those proteins

that tightly associate with ERECTA) and proximity proteomes (*i.e.* those proteins in the close

vicinity of ERECTA receptor complexes). To achieve this goal, we performed parallel epitope-

tagged affinity purification (ET-AP) and TurboID-based proximity labeling (TbID-PL) from the

same Arabidopsis seedling extracts (see Methods; Figure 1A). For this purpose, we generated a

transgenic Arabidopsis seedlings expressing *ERECTA-HA-TbID* fusion protein under the control

of the native ERECTA promoter in the *erecta* null allele, *er-105*. The expression of an ERECTA-

HA-TbID fusion protein fully rescued the characteristic inflorescence and stomatal patterning

defects of *er-105*, validating its biological functionality (Figure S1). Notably, immunoblot analysis

verified the efficient biotinylation of proximal proteins in TbID-PL experiments and the successful

isolation of the fusion protein (Figures 1B, S2).

Through the parallel proteomics approaches, we identified 715 proteins via TbID-PL and 278

proteins via ET-AP, with 50 proteins shared between the two approaches (Figure 1C, E, Table

S3). We first examined the proteomes specifically enriched by each approach. TbID-PL

prominently enriched transient and membrane-associated interactors, including proteins involved

in CME, most notably phosphatidylinositol-binding clathrin assembly protein (PICALM) family

members, the TPLATE complex, and dynamin-related protein (DRP) family proteins (Figure 1E).

On the other hand, ET-AP exclusively detected TOO MANY MOUTHS (TMM), a known regulator

of stomatal patterning that forms a stable receptor complex with ERECTA[22] (Figure 1E). It is

important to note that TMM is an LRR-RLP with an extracellular and transmembrane region but

lacking any recognizable cytoplasmic domain[42]. Since TbID was fused to the cytoplasmic domain

of ERECTA (Figure 1A), the absence of TMM biotinylation by ERECTA TbID-PL indicates that

the plasma membrane environment was preserved during labeling. Lastly, both approaches

effectively captured ERECTA itself, along with shared interactors like auxin efflux transporters

PIN3 and PIN7, hinting at a molecular link between ERECTA and auxin-mediated plant growth

control[43,44].

Consistent with our finding that TbID-PL preferentially captures dynamic and transient interactors

of the RK ERECTA, the identified proteins are significantly enriched in Gene Ontology (GO)

categories related to "protein targeting to membranes", "vesicle-mediated transport", and
"intracellular protein transport and endocytosis" (Figure 1F). Additional enriched categories
include "plant epidermis morphogenesis", "cell recognition", "cell division and cytokinesis", and
"ATP hydrolysis and biosynthesis", likely reflecting the broad range of biological processes
mediated by the ERECTA signaling. Subcellular localization analysis further revealed that
ERECTA-associated proteins are predominantly enriched at the plasma membrane and cytosol
(Figure 1D, Table S6), underscoring the spatial specificity of TbID-PL in detecting proximal
proteins. Together, these findings highlight the complementary strengths of TbID-PL and ET-AP
in defining the ERECTA-associated proteome. Specifically, our results indicate that TbID-PL
exhibits higher sensitivity in detecting transient and dynamic interactors, whereas ET-AP identifies
stable extracellular complexes, thereby providing a comprehensive view of ERECTA-associated
proteomic landscapes.

Optimized TbID-PL enhances detection of ERECTA-signaling components and reveals
compartment-specific proteomic profiles
Extensive genetic studies have identified the downstream components of ERECTA signal
transduction pathways[23,25,45-47]. However, we did not detect many such components through the
ET-AP and TbID-PL, possibly due to their low abundance. It is increasingly recognized that TbID-
PL in plants faces significant background noise owing to the endogenous biotin pools within plant
cells[48,49]. To improve the detection of biologically-relevant proximitome while minimizing
background noise, we optimized the labeling strategy by comparing the biotinylated proteomes of
ERECTA-HA-TbID seedlings treated with exogenous biotin (with biotin, 1hour) to a mock treated
control (without biotin, 1hour) (Figure 2A, Figure S2C; see Methods). This approach effectively
captured BAK1[23], the transient co-receptor of ERECTA as well as the downstream MAPKKK,
YODA[45] (Figure 2B, Table S4).

To enhance the membrane proximitome signals, we next performed microsomal fractionations,
which retained higher levels of full-length ERECTA with reduced biotinylation background signals
(Figure S2D). Through the ERECTA membrane TbID-PL, we are able to detect the membrane-
attached receptor-like cytoplasmic kinase BSK1, which likely relays the ERECTA signaling[25]
(Figure 2B, Table S5). We additionally detected the LRR-RK HAESA-LIKE1 (HSL1), which has
been shown to be expressed in stomatal-lineage cells and modulate stomatal development[50]
(Figure 2B). Notably, the endocytosis components PICALM4A and PICALM4B are robustly and
consistently detected in all four TbID-PL conditions. Additional consistent ERECTA TbID-PL

interactors include several RKs, TMK4[51], HERK1[52], LIK1[53], as well as ANGUSTIFOLIA, which is

a component of stomatal polarity complex[54], and the blue-light receptor PHOT1[55] (Figure 2C, D).

Together, our multilayered strategies of TbID-PL procedures effectively capture ERECTA

signaling components, enable detection of compartment-specific proximitomes, and establish the

core sets of proteins at the proximity of ERECTA that could guide future explorations.

ERECTA interacts with the PICALM family of clathrin-mediated endocytosis (CME)

components

Our ERECTA TbID-PL highlights the CME components as transient interactors of ERECTA. While

ERECTA-family RKs are known to undergo endocytosis, no specific components that recognize

ERECTA as a cargo have been identified[32,56,57]. To explore the subcellular regulatory dynamics

of ERECTA, we first analyzed its association with the CME machinery by constructing a

landscape of the ERECTA network using STRING database analysis[58] (see Methods). The

network grouped ERECTA-associated proteins into distinct functional categories: internalization

and protein trafficking, exocytosis, motor protein function, and stomatal development (Figure 2E).

Remarkably, none of the components other than the category of stomatal development have been

shown to directly interact with ERECTA, while they are overwhelmingly detected through TbID-

PL.

Among the newly identified ERECTA associatome, several CME-related components, notably

PICALM3, PICALM4A, and PICALM4B, captured our attention for their highly selective

enrichment (Figures 1-3). Importantly, PICALMs are known to function as adaptor proteins for

specific cargos but not required for general endocytosis[59]. To gain insight into their potential

relevance in stomatal development, we re-analyzed single-cell transcriptomic data[60] and found

that several PICALMs from Group 1 and Group 2 are differentially expressed across stomatal

lineage cells (Figure 3A, B). We therefore postulated that PICALMs may represent the yet

unidentified adaptors for ERECTA. To address this hypothesis, we first surveyed the protein-

protein interactions of ERECTA cytoplasmic domain (ERECTA-CD) and members of PICALM-

family throughout their five evolutionary subgroups[61] (Figure 3B), using *in vitro* translated proteins

in the Amplified Luminescent Proximity Homogeneous Assay Screen (AlphaScreen assay)[62]

(Figure 3C; See Methods). Indeed, we detected the highest interactions (*i.e.* normalized binding

activity) of ERECTA-CD with PICALM3 (Subgroup 1) and PICALM4A (Subgroup 2a) followed by

PICALM1A (Subgroup 1), consistent with their expression patterns in stomatal lineage cells.

Additionally, PICALM2A, 4B, 5A, and 6 exhibited positive but weaker interactions with ERECTA-

CD (Figure 3C). We further performed Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assays and demonstrated

that ERECTA indeed interacts with PICALM3, PICALM4A, and PICALM4B in Arabidopsis

protoplasts (Figure 3D). Combined, these findings establish PICALM family members of CME as

in vivo interactors of ERECTA, thereby implicating them in the endocytosis of ERECTA.

PICALMs co-localize with ERECTA and regulate its endocytosis

To elucidate the roles of PICALMs in ERECTA subcellular dynamics, we first examined co-

localization of ERECTA with PICALM proteins and endocytic markers in stomatal lineage cells.

Under mock conditions, ERECTA-YFP colocalized with both PICALM4A and *AtML1 promoter-*

driven RCI2A, a plasma membrane marker, across stomatal lineage cells (Figure 4A, B). Upon

treatment with Brefeldin A (BFA), which inhibits ADP-ribosylation factor guanine-nucleotide

exchange factor (ARF-GEF) activity and induces endosomal compartments (known as "BFA

bodies")[63], ERECTA-YFP accumulated within the BFA bodies in epidermal cells. Notably,

ERECTA-YFP co-accumulated with PICALM4A-RFP, but not with RCI2A, in BFA bodies, where

PICALM4A-RFP signals appear to encapsulate ERECTA-YFP, suggesting PICALM-mediated

recruitment of ERECTA into endosomal structures (Figure 4A, blue arrows; 4B; video 1).

ERECTA-YFP also partially colocalized with the trans-Golgi network (TGN) marker SYP43-RFP

and the early endosome marker ARA6-RFP at plasma membrane under mock conditions (Figure

4C). Following BFA treatment, ERECTA-YFP accumulated in endosomal compartments

containing these markers, indicating its trafficking through the TGN and early endosomal

pathways (Figure 4C). Additionally, ERECTA-YFP co-localized with the late endosome marker

ARA7-RFP under mock and wortmannin-treated conditions (Figure 4D), suggesting its

progression through late endosomal compartments. In contrast, its association with the vacuolar

membrane marker SYP22-RFP was limited (Figure 4D). These results demonstrate that PICALM-

mediated CME facilitates the dynamic trafficking of ERECTA-YFP from plasma membrane

through the TGN and early-to-late endosomal compartments.

To understand the role of PICALMs in ERECTA internalization, we assessed the formation of

ERECTA-YFP-positive BFA bodies in 'wild-type' (*ERECTApro::ERECTA-YFP in er-105*)

seedlings under BFA treatment (Figure 5A), compared with the *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* higher-order

mutant background. In WT epidermal cells, ERECTA-YFP formed numerous BFA bodies,

particularly in stomatal lineage ground cells (SLGCs) and developing pavement cells (PCs),

suggesting elevated endocytic activity in these cell types (Figure 5A upper panel; 5B). Strikingly,

in the *pcalm1a; 1b; 4a; 4b* mutant background, the number of ERECTA-YFP-positive BFA bodies

is significantly reduced (Figure 5A lower panel, 5C), suggesting a marked impairment in ERECTA

internalization.

We next tested whether PICALMs are required for ligand-induced internalization of ERECTA. In

WT, treatment with exogenous mEPF2 peptide triggered cytoplasmic accumulation of ERECTA-

YFP puncta, overlapping with FM4-64, suggesting a ligand-activated endocytosis. This response

was largely reduced in *picalm* mutants, where ERECTA-YFP remained predominantly plasma

membrane-localized (Figure 5D, upper panel, 5E). Wortmannin (Wm) treatment induced

ERECTA-YFP accumulation in enlarged late endosomes (Wm bodies) in WT, and co-treatment

with mEPF2 + Wm further enhanced this effect. In contrast, *picalm* mutants showed minimal

ERECTA-YFP accumulation in Wm bodies under both conditions (Figure 5D, lower panel, 5F),

indicating impaired endocytic trafficking to late compartments. Together, these findings show that

PICALMs are required for both constitutive and ligand-induced endocytosis of ERECTA,

underscoring their role as cargo adaptors essential for receptor internalization and intracellular

trafficking.

***PICALMs* redundantly enforce stomatal patterning by maintaining ERECTA homeostasis**

The association and co-localization of PICALM family members with ERECTA during CME

(Figures 1-4), together with impaired ERECTA internalization observed in *picalm* mutant (Figure

5), prompted us to investigate their functional roles in ERECTA-mediated stomatal development.

For this purpose, we first examined if the *picalm* mutants exhibit stomatal patterning defects.

Compared to wild type, *picalm* seedlings displayed escalating stomatal patterning defects,

characterized by increased stomatal number and clustering, with the higher-order mutant

(*picalm1a;1b;4a;4b*, *picalm1a;1b;3;4a;4b*) exhibiting a more severe phenotype than the single

(*picalm3*), double (*picalm1a;1b*, *picalm4a;4b*), or triple (*picalm3;4a;4b*) mutants (Figure 6A).

Importantly, the stomatal clustering phenotype resembles that of the *erecta*-family mutants[12]

(Figure S3). Quantitative analysis confirmed a significant increase in stomatal index and clustering

across multiple *picalm* mutants (Figure 6B, C), indicating that *PICALMs* are required for proper

stomatal patterning. To further explore the genetic relationship between PICALMs and ERECTA,

we generated a *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b;er-105* quintuple mutant and compared its phenotype to the

erecta null mutant, *er-105*. Both mutants exhibited comparable increases in stomatal and

meristemoid indices, with no significant additive effects in the quintuple mutant (Figure 6D, 6E).

This epistatic relationship suggests that PICALMs likely function within the ERECTA signaling

pathway, potentially facilitating its proper localization and functional complex formation.

To conceptualize this mechanism, we propose a model in which PICALMs, particularly PICALM4A,

4B, and PICALM3 act as cargo-specific adaptors that direct ERECTA into CME for proper

functional complex formation and signal transduction (Figure 6F). In *picalm* mutants, impaired

CME possibly causes ERECTA mislocalization or rerouting to noncanonical degradation

pathways, leading to disrupted signal transduction and abnormal stomatal development (Figure

6G).

DISCUSSION

In this study we comprehensively mapped the ERECTA signaling network in Arabidopsis using a

dual proteomic strategy, ET-AP and TbID-PL. Our findings not only recovered stable ERECTA

receptor complex components but also identified a dynamic cohort of transient, low-abundance

interactors, notably CME components such as PICALMs. Functional characterization of PICALMs

demonstrates their essential role in ERECTA internalization and protein homeostasis, with higher-

order *picalm* mutants phenocopying the excessive stomatal number and clustering observed in

ERECTA-family loss-of-function mutants. A previous study has demonstrated ligand-induced

endocytosis of the ERECTA-family member, ERL1[32], however, the specific adaptors facilitating

this process remained unknown. Our work identifies the components of CME that recognize

ERECTA as a cargo and further emphasizes that CME-mediated receptor dynamics are

indispensable for ERECTA receptor kinase-mediated stomatal patterning (Figure 6).

While proteomic profiling has been increasingly utilized to uncover receptor kinase interactors[64,65],

many challenges still persist that hamper the identification of low-abundance or transient

interactors without disrupting the native protein complex in the membrane environment. Our

optimized, combinatorial approach using ET-AP and TbID-PL enabled the detection of both

known components of the ERECTA signal transduction pathways as well as previously

undetected components. Technically, the exclusive detection of TMM by ET-AP, but not by TbID-

PL (Figure 1) highlights the preservation of the native plasma membrane environment during

proximity labeling, ensuring the reliability of our *in vivo* proteomic data. Our refined TbID-PL

enriched low-abundance signaling components like BSK1 and YODA (Figure 2), which are

otherwise difficult to detect using conventional methods. ERECTA regulates diverse roles in

development and environmental response[9,66], and as such, the identification of additional

interactors not previously associated with the ERECTA pathways, such as LIK1 and TMK4

(Figures 1, 2), may pave a path for future investigations of signal crosstalk.

The exclusive identification of CME components by TbID-PL highlights the transient nature of

their interactions with the receptor kinase (Figure 1). For example, the PICALM members,

PICALM1A, PICALM3, and PICALM4s, associate with ERECTA to varying degrees, and exhibit

unequal redundancy in enforcing stomatal patterning (Figure 6A-C). Unlike metazoan

counterparts, which comprise only four members in humans, the PICALM family is vastly

expanded in plants, with 18 members in Arabidopsis[67]. These AtPICALMs contain a conserved

ANTH (AP180 N-terminal homology) domain, which is essential for binding to phosphatidylinositol

lipids and clathrin, facilitating cargo endocytosis[67]. However, their slight structural differences may

enable them to interact with the same cargo with different affinity, as we observed for ERECTA

(Figure 3C), and/or alternatively, with distinct sets of membrane cargos or adaptor proteins. In

fact, a recent study suggests that PICALM1A and PICALM1B interact with R-SNAREs and clathrin

at the plasma membrane, where they regulate R-SNARE recycling to support plant growth[59].

Additionally, PICALM5A and PICALM5B are required for CME during pollen tube elongation by

maintaining tip localization of ANXUR, a receptor kinase sensing cell wall integrity[68]. PICALM4A

(also known as ECA4) has also been shown to act synergistically with other clathrin adaptor

protein EPSIN to support apical cell growth in pollen tubes[69]. Moreover, PICALM4A/ECA4 has

been implicated in the endocytosis of both the brassinosteroid receptor BRI1 and the ABA

exporter ABCG25 in roots[70]. In addition to stomatal patterning defects, we observed that higher-

order *picalm* mutations confer broader developmental defects, including reduced fertility and

impaired root elongation (Figure S5). Therefore, these PICALM subfamily members identified

through TbID-PL likely regulate additional clients beyond ERECTA.

We observed cell-type specific differences in ERECTA internalization across the epidermis, with

notably high internalization activity in developing stomatal lineage ground cells (SLGCs) and

pavement cells, and low levels in meristemoids (including MMCs) and GMCs (Figure 5A-B, 5D-

E). It is well established that ERECTA perceives EPF2 and restricts the initiation of stomatal cell

lineages via MAP Kinase-mediated degradation of SPCH proteins[16,17,19,71,72]. High activity of

ERECTA internalization in the SLGCs and pavement cells suggests that ERECTA signaling is

actively restraining their division potential, therefore limiting their re-entry into stomatal cell

lineages. This view is supported by the recent report that SPCH protein levels determine whether

SLGCs undergo asymmetric division or differentiate into mature pavement cells, a decision

impacted by EPF-signaling neighboring cells[73]. The EPF-ERECTA-family ligand-receptor system

is known to function in both autocrine and juxtacrine signaling[74,75]. How PICALMs-mediated

endocytosis influences these distinct modes of peptide-receptor signaling is an interesting future

question. We also observed that while ERECTA co-localized with PICALM4A at the plasma

membrane in stomatal lineage cells, it was notably absent from the cell plates of dividing guard

mother cells (GMCs) (Figure 3C). In contrast, another ERECTA-family receptor, ERL1, was

present at the cell plates and co-localized with PICALM4A in these dividing cells (Figure S7). This

spatial divergence suggests that PICALM4A may differentially associate with ERECTA-family

members depending on subcellular context or developmental stage. Notably, the enhanced

stomatal clustering phenotype observed in the *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b;er-105* combination mutant,

compared to *er-105* alone, further supports the notion that PICALMs may mediate trafficking of

multiple ERECTA-family receptor kinases.

During the EPF ligand recognition by ERECTA family receptors, the EPF1/2 antagonist

Stomagen/EPFL9 triggers stalling of ERL1 in the endoplasmic reticulum, likely owing to

dysregulated receptor retrieval from the plasma membrane[32]. The process likely involves the

endoplasmic reticulum-resident chaperone complex SDF2-ERdj3B-BiP, which facilitates proper

translocation of ERECTA-family RKs from the endoplasmic reticulum to plasma membrane[76,77].

In the epidermis of WT seedling, we occasionally observed ERECTA localized to endoplasmic

reticulum in addition to plasma membrane (Figure S6), suggesting the timely retrieval of ERECTA

via a specific internalization pathway may serve as a regulatory checkpoint to maintain receptor

homeostasis and proper signaling output.

Our observations also imply that the subcellular dynamics of ERECTA may be coupled with its

post-translationally modifications. Specifically, EPF2-induced activation of ERECTA triggers its

phosphorylation by coreceptor BAK1, followed by ubiquitination via the U-box E3 ligases PUB30

and PUB31, to attenuate signaling[24]. This process likely promotes to ubiquitination-dependent

internalization of ERECTA, consistent with prior findings that ubiquitination promotes BRI1

endocytosis and enables its recognition at the trans-Golgi network/early endosomes (TGN/EE)

for vacuolar targeting[78]. Consistently, a very recent study identified specific ubiquitination sites of

ERECTA and further demonstrated that ligand-activated ubiquitination triggers the endocytosis of

ERECTA[79]. In that study, the high accumulation of ubiquitination-deficient mutant version of

ERECTA at the plasma membrane conferred the inhibition of stomatal development, indicative of

the overly activated ERECTA signaling due to failed attenuation. In contrast, we here revealed

that the loss-of-function mutations of *PICALM* sub-family members perturbs the endocytosis of

ERECTA and result in stomatal clustering (Figures 5, 6), indicating that ERECTA signaling

pathway is defective in the absence of *PICALMs*. This apparent paradox, whereby defective

endocytosis of ERECTA lead to opposite signaling outcomes, raises interesting question about

the multiple layers of regulation imposed by receptor trafficking. We speculate that the activation

of ERECTA receptor complex requires the formation of membrane subdomains reinforced by the

PICALM mediated cargo sorting and vesicle formation. In such a case, PICALMs may facilitate

the assembly of signaling-competent receptor-coreceptor complexes within specific plasma

membrane nanodomains. Alternatively, this early activation process can be mechanistically

distinct from the later step of ubiquitination-mediated internalization and eventual degradation of

ERECTA that attenuate signaling. It is likely that different endocytic routes downstream of

PICALMs versus ubiquitination direct ERECTA toward distinct subcellular fates. Additionally,

PICALMs may generally facilitate endocytic trafficing, and if so the *picalm* higher-order mutants

could disrupt additional factors that impact ERECTA signaling as well as stomatal development.

These findings collectively support the model that ERECTA signal output is not solely dictated by

receptor abundance, but rather by its dynamic partitioning into specialized membrane domains

and intracellular compartments. Further understanding of ERECTA receptor trafficking provides

a foundation for future research into how membrane dynamics shape cellular differentiation and

patterning. Looking forward, our proteomic atlas provides an example for dissecting other RLK

networks, particularly those governing environmental responses where trafficking may modulate

signaling plasticity.

Limitations of the study

Due to technical reasons, our TbID-PL approaches lack ligand-induced proteomic profiling with

exogenously synthesized EPFs, making it challenging to distinguish receptor dynamics before

and after ligand perception. However, under native conditions we used, plant cells endogenously

secreted EPF peptides, leading to continuous inhibition of excess stomatal development.

Therefore, our profiling most likely captured a pool of ERECTA-family receptors, including both

ligand-activated and inactivated states. Furthermore, ligand-induced interactors such as BAK1

were also identified, supporting the validity of our approach.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, P.B., K.U.T.; Experimental Design, P.B., T.U., E.M.M., K.U.T.; Performance of experiments, P.B., C.K., K.E., A.N.; Bioinformatics Analysis, P.B., O.P., E.M.M.; Visualization, P.B., E.M.M., K.U.T.; Essential materials and tools, P.B., A.N., T.S., T.U.; Writing- Original Draft, P.B. and K.U.T.; Writing- Review & Editing, P.B., C.K., T.U., K.E., O.P., E.M.M., K.U.T; Project Administration, K.U.T.; Funding Acquisition, T.U., K.E., E.M.M., K.U.T.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

446 **RESOURCE AVAILABILITY**
447
448 **Lead contact**
449 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed and will be
450 fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Keiko U. Torii (ktorii@utexas.edu).
451
452 **Materials availability**
453 Plasmids and transgenic plants generated in this study will be available from the lead contact
454 upon request.
455
Data and code availability
• The mass spectrometry data generated for the proteomic analysis in this study have been
deposited to the ProteomeXchange consortium via the partner repository MassIVE
(https://massive.ucsd.edu/ProteoSAFe/static/massive.jsp) with the dataset identifier:
MSV000096929. Original western blot images are being deposited at Texas Dataverse.
• This paper does not report original code.
• Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available
from the lead contact upon request
464
EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS
The *Arabidopsis thaliana* Columbia (Col-0) ecotype was used as wild-type control. Loss-of-
function T-DNA insertion mutants were obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center
(ABRC) at The Ohio State University. Higher-order mutants were generated through genetic
crosses of single and double mutants, with genotypes confirmed by PCR. Transgenic *Arabidopsis*
lines expressing HA-TbID-tagged or fluorescently tagged proteins were generated via the floral
dipping method using *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* GV3101::pMP90. Information of recombinant
DNA constructs used for plant transformation is provided in Table S1. Primer sequences used for
genotyping, cloning, and plasmid construction are listed in Table S2. A complete list of mutants
and transgenic lines is included in the Key Resources Table. Seedlings and adult plants were
grown in a controlled long-day growth chamber (16 hours light/8 hours dark) at 22 °C during the
light phase and 20 °C during the dark phase.
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479 **METHOD DETAILS**
480
Plant materials and growth condition
Arabidopsis Col-0 was used as the wild-type control in this study. The following materials have
been published previously: *er-105, erl1-2, erl2-1, er-105;erl1-2, er-105;erl2-1, erl1-2;erl2-1, er-*
105;erl1-2;erl2-1 [11]; *ARA6pro::ARA6-mRFP, ARA7pro::mRFP-ARA7, SYP22pro::SYP22-mRFP,*
SYP43pro::SYP43-mRFP [80]. The following Arabidopsis mutants were obtained from Arabidopsis
Biological Resource Center (ABRC): *picalm1a* (SALK_043625); *picalm1b* (GABI_026G05);
picalm2b (SALK_032696), *picalm3* (WiscDsLoxHs184_04D); *picalm4a* (WiscDsLox442D1);
picalm4b (SAIL_418_A409); Higher-order mutants of *PICALM* family are generated through
genetic crosses, including double mutant *picalm1a;1b*, *picalm4a;4b*, triple mutant *picalm3;4a;4b*,

quadruple mutant *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b*, and quintuple *picalm1a;1b;3;4a;4b*, *picalm1a;1b;2b;3;4b*.
Arabidopsis seeds were surface sterilized with 2.5 % sodium hypochlorite solution, stratified at
4 °C in darkness for two days, and then germinated on half-strength Murashige-Skoog (1/2 MS)
medium plates for 8-10 days before imaging or transplanting to soil pots. The 1/2MS medium (pH
5.7) contains 1.0 % sucrose, 1x Gamborg′s Vitamins (Sigma, Cat # G1019), and 0.75 % agar.
Plants were grown in a controlled growth room under a long-day cycle of 16 hours light (22 °C)
and 8 hours dark (20 °C).
497

Plasmid constructions and plant transformation
The *ERECTA-TurboID* construct pPFB11 (*ERECTApro::ERECTA-HA-TbID*) and the negative
control pPFB36 (*ERECTApro::Lti6B-HA-TbID*) were generated using a MultiSite Gateway cloning
strategy. Entry vectors containing the *ERECTA* promoter and entry vectors containing either
ERECTA- or *Lti6B-HA-TbID* fusions were recombined into the R4pGWB501 destination vector [81].
For protoplast expression, genomic coding sequences of *PICALM3*, *PICALM4A*, and *PICALM4B*
were PCR-amplified from Col-0 genomic DNA and cloned into the pYBA-1132 vector (35S::C-
terminal EGFP, NCBI Accession: KF876796) via *BamHI* and *KpnI* restriction sites. Additionally,
the genomic coding sequence of *ERECTA* was cloned into the pHBT-2xHA vector using *BamHI*
and *StuI* restriction sites. To generate constructs for the AlphaScreen assay, coding sequences
(CDSs) of *PICALM* family genes (*PICALM1A*, *PICALM2B*, *PICALM3*, *PICALM4A*, *PICALM4B*,
PICALM5A, *PICALM6*, *PICALM8*, *PICALM9B*, *PICALM10B*) and the cytoplasmic kinase domain
of *ERECTA* (ER-KD) were PCR-amplified from Col-0 cDNA. The amplified CDSs were cloned
into pENTR/D-TOPO entry vectors and recombined into the destination vectors pEU-E01-GW-
bls-STOP[82] and pEU-E01-AGIA-GW-STOP[83]. GFP expressed from pEU-E01-AGIA-GW-STOP
served as a negative control. Two additional constructs used for subcellular localization and
complementation experiments, *PICALM3pro::PICALM3-TagRFP-pGWB559* and
PICALM4apro::PICALM4a-mRFP-pGWB1, were generated by Gateway cloning. A full list of
plasmids and primers used is provided in Tables S1 and S2. Stable transgenic plants were
generated using Agrobacterium tumefaciens (GV3101::pMP90) -mediated floral dipping method[84].
At least 20 independent T1 transformants were analyzed for each construct. Stable transgenic
lines were identified by segregation analysis for single-locus insertion (3:1 segregation ratio).
520

Confocal microscopy imaging
Confocal imaging for stomatal phenotyping was conducted using a Leica SP5-WLL microscope
equipped with a 20x dry objective lens. Cotyledons from 8 dpg *Arabidopsis* seedlings were stained
with 1.0 mg/mL propidium iodide (PI) (Sigma, Cat # P4864) for 1 min to visualize cell outlines.
The abaxial epidermis was imaged using an excitation wavelength of 561 nm and an emission
detection range of 590-659 nm. Z-stack images spanning the full depth of the epidermal cell layers
were captured and processed using Fiji/ImageJ software (http://fiji.sc/Fiji). Maximum intensity
projections were generated, and representative images were false-colored and adjusted for
brightness and contrast using Adobe Photoshop 2022. For subcellular co-localization and
internalization analyses, fluorescent signals were captured using the Leica SP5-WLL with a 63x
water immersion objective, or the Leica Stellaris 8 FALCON microscope with 40 x or 63 x oil
immersion objectives operated in TauGating mode. Fluorescence excitation/emission settings
were optimized for specific fluorophores as follows: YFP (514 nm excitation, 520-550 nm

emission), mRFP (584 nm excitation, 600–650 nm emission), and TagRFP (555 nm excitation,
565–650 nm emission). For exogenous chemical treatments, four-day old Arabidopsis seedlings
were pre-stained in ultrapure water containing 5 µM FM4-64 (Thermo Scientific, Cat. # T3166) for
10min. Following staining, seedlings were immersed in ½ MS liquid medium supplemented with
30 µM BFA (30 mM stock in ethanol), 30 µM Wortmannin (30 mM stock in DMSO), or 50 µM
cycloheximide (100 mg/mL stock in DMSO). Seedlings were vacuum infiltrated for 1 min to
facilitate chemical uptake and subsequently incubated for 60 mins prior to imaging. For EPF2
ligand-induced internalization analyses, recombinant mEPF2 peptide was purified and refolded
to retain its bioactivity. After confirming its bioactivity, the peptide was added into 1/2MS liquid
medium, with or without 30 µM Wortmannin. Seedlings were incubated for 90min followed by 8
µM FM4-64 staining before imaging.
545
Sample preparation for proximity labeling
TurboID-based proximity labeling assays were conducted following previously described
procedures with modification[37,38,40]. Seeds of *ERECTApro::ERECTA-HA-TbID* transgenic lines
were surface-sterilized with 70% ethanol and sown on filter paper (90 mm, Cytiva Whatman™,
Cat # 09-853A) placed on 1/2 MS medium plates. Five-day-old seedlings grown under long-day
conditions were harvested and transferred to a flask for biotin treatment. To optimize labeling
conditions, a range of biotin solutions (0, 5, 20, 50, 100, and 250 µM) and incubation durations (0,
15 mins, 30 mins, 1 hr, 2 hrs, 3 hrs) were tested. Optimal conditions for the ERECTA-TurboID PL
assay were determined to be an incubation with 50 µM biotin for 1 hr at room temperature. To
terminate the PL reaction, seedlings were rinsed five times with ice-cold water to remove excess
biotin, gently blotted dry with laboratory Kimwipes, and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen.
Frozen samples were ground into a fine powder under liquid nitrogen for protein extraction. All
experiments were performed in three independent biological replicates.
Approximately 2.0 mL of the finely ground samples were homogenized in 2.5 mL of ice-
cold protein lysis buffer (100 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 10 % glycerol, 20 mM Sodium fluoride,
1.5 mM Sodium orthovanadate, 2 mM Sodium molybdate, 1 mM PMSF, 1 % Triton x-100, 1x
Protease inhibitor cocktail) in a 5.0 mL LoBind tube (Eppendorf, 0030108302). The mixture was
incubated on a rotor wheel at 4 °C for 30 min and then sonicated four times at 4 °C for 30s with
90s intervals on a high setting using a Bioruptor 300 (Diagenode). Next, the homogenized
samples were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 10 mins at 4 °C to remove cell debris. Approximately
2.5 mL of the supernatant was processed through a PD-10 desalting column (Cytiva, Cat # 17-
0851-01) using the gravity flow protocol to remove excess free biotin. Approximately 3.5 mL of
protein extract was collected, and the protein concentration was determined using the Bradford
assay (Bio-Rad). The protein extracts were divided equally for the analysis of the ERECTA
proximitome and interactome. For proximitome, 1.7 mL of lysate (approximately 5.5 mg of protein)
was transferred to a new 2.0 mL LoBind tube (Eppendorf, 0030108450) and incubated with 100
µL of pre-equilibrated streptavidin magnetic beads (Thermo Scientific, Cat # 88817) at 4°C for 18
hrs on a rotor wheel. The streptavidin magnetic beads, enriched with biotinylated proteins, were
sequentially washed three times with protein lysis buffer, followed by washes with 1 M KCl, 0.1 M
Na$_2$CO$_3$, 2 M urea, and 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). One-tenth of the beads were used for Western
blot analysis, and the remaining beads were frozen for subsequent analysis. Similarly, the second
portion (5.5 mg of protein), was incubated with 100 µL of pre-equilibrated anti-HA magnetic beads

(Thermo Scientific, Pierce™, Cat # 88837) under the same conditions. The anti-HA magnetic
beads were washed three times with protein lysis buffer and three times with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH
8.0). One-tenth of the beads were used for Western blot analysis, and the remaining beads were
frozen for subsequent analysis.
582
LC-MS sample preparation
Biotinylated proteins bound to streptavidin magnetic beads were processed for mass
spectrometry analysis using an on-bead trypsin digestion protocol. The streptavidin magnetic
bead samples, previously stored at -80 °C, were thawed and washed three times with 50 mM
Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.0) to remove excess detergents and salts. An equal volume of
trifluoroethanol (TFE) was added to denature the proteins and expose trypsin cleavage sites.
Tris(2-carboxyethyl) phosphine (TCEP) was added to a final concentration of 5 µM, and the
mixture was incubated at 55°C for 45 mins to reduce disulfide bonds. After cooling to room
temperature, iodoacetamide (15 mM final concentration) was added to alkylate cysteine residues
and prevent the reformation of disulfide bonds. This reaction was conducted in the dark at room
temperature for 30 mins and quenched with 7 mM dithiothreitol (DTT). For trypsin digestion, the
mixture was diluted with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 2 mM $CaCl_2$ and 2.0 µg MS-grade
trypsin (Thermo Scientific, Cat # 90058). The digestion reaction was incubated at 37 °C for 5 hrs
with end-to-end rotation and terminated by adding formic acid to a final concentration of 1% (v/v).
Protein complexes enriched with anti-HA magnetic beads were eluted by washing the beads three
times with 0.1 M glycine (pH 2.5), followed by separation of the supernatant from the bead pellet.
The eluate was neutralized with 1M Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.0) and subjected to the same trypsin
digestion protocol as described above. After trypsin digestion, the supernatant was separated
from the bead pellet and concentrated using a vacuum concentrator (Vacufuge plus, Eppendorf).
The sample was desalted using C18 pipette tips (Thermo, Cat # 60109-412), dried in a SpeedVac,
and resuspended in buffer (5 % acetonitrile, 95 % LC-MS grade water with 0.1 % formic acid) for
liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis.
605
Mass spectrometry data analysis
Raw MS/MS spectra were acquired using a Thermo Orbitrap Fusion Lumos mass spectrometer
and processed using Proteome Discoverer (version 2.3) following the PWF_Basic_SequestHT
workflow with the Percolator node for peptide spectrum match (PSM) validation. The processing
settings included trypsin digestion with up to two missed cleavages, static modifications of
carbamidomethyl cysteine, dynamic modifications of oxidized methionine, and protein N-terminal
modifications of acetylation and/or methionine-loss. Mass spectra were searched against the
Arabidopsis thaliana (ARATH) reference proteome, TurboID, and common contaminants
(downloaded from https://www.uniprot.org). High-confidence PSMs, peptides, and proteins were
all filtered at a false discovery rate of < 5%. Individual RAW files were processed to generate .msf
files, which were reprocessed together using the CWF_Basic workflow with Merge Mode set to
"Do Not Merge" to generate a single consensus file for comparative analysis. Proteins significantly
associated with ERECTA bait were identified by calculating $\log_2$ fold-changes and Z-scores based
on observed PSMs between experimental and control conditions, using the R package diffprot
(https://github.com/rachaelcox/diffprot.git).
621

Protein Interaction network construction

Proteins significantly enriched in the TurboID-PL and ET-AP datasets (Table S3, S4 and S5) were selected and mapped to the STRING database (https://string-db.org/) using a medium confidence score threshold (interaction score ⩾ 0.4). The resulting protein-protein interaction (PPI) network was visualized in Cytoscape (version 3.9.1)[85], with edges representing both experimentally determined and computationally predicted interactions (e.g., gene neighborhood, fusions, and co-occurrence). Node colors were used to distinguish the proteomic approaches, while node size reflected interaction degree. Functional clusters were manually curated to highlight key biological processes, including internalization, exocytosis, and stomatal development, based on Gene Ontology (GO) annotations and pathway analysis.

Protoplast transfection assay

The isolation and transfection of Arabidopsis protoplasts were performed with minor modifications to the protocol as previously described[86]. Arabidopsis Col-0 plants were grown under short-day conditions (8 hrs light at 22 °C/ 16 hrs dark at 20 °C). For protoplast isolation, rosette leaves from 4-week-old plants were cut into 0.5-1.0 mm strips and digested in an enzymatic solution containing 1 % Cellulase R10 (Yakult Honsha, Japan), 0.2 % Macerozyme R10 (Yakult Honsha, Japan), 0.4 M mannitol, 20 mM KCl, 20 mM MES, 10 mM $CaCl_2$, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, and 0.1 % BSA. Digestion was carried out with gentle shaking (40 rpm) for 3 hrs in the dark. The protoplasts were collected by filtering the solution through a 70 μm nylon mesh (Corning, Cat # 352350) and washed three times with W5 solution (154 mM NaCl, 125 mM CaCl2, 5 mM KCl, 5 mM glucose, 2 mM MES, pH 5.7) to remove residual enzymes. The protoplasts were resuspended in MMG solution (400 mM mannitol, 15 mM MgCl2, 4 mM MES, pH 5.7) for transfection. For PEG-mediated transfection, 200 μL of protoplast suspension ($5 × 10^5$ cells/mL) was mixed with 10-15 μg of plasmid DNA in a 1.5 mL Eppendorf LoBind tube. The mixture was incubated with an equal volume of freshly prepared PEG solution (40% PEG 4000 w/v, 0.2 M mannitol, 0.1 M CaCl2) for 10 minutes at room temperature. Transfection was stopped by adding double volume of W5 solution, followed by gentle centrifugation to pellet the protoplasts. The protoplasts were resuspended in W5 solution and incubated in the dark for 12 hours at plant growth room.

Co-Immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assays

The Co-IP assay was conducted with minor modifications to the protocol[87]. Protoplast samples were suspended in 1.0 mL of ice-cold Co-IP buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 % Triton X-100, 3 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, 1 x protease inhibitor cocktail) in a 1.5 mL LoBind tube. The samples were centrifuged at 13000 rpm for 10 mins at 4 °C to remove cell debris. A 45 μL aliquot of the supernatant was mixed with 15 μL of 4× Laemmli buffer and saved as the input sample. The remaining supernatant was transferred to a new 1.5 mL LoBind tube containing 20 μL of GFP-Trap magnetic agarose (ChromoTek, Cat # gtma-100) and incubated on an end-to-end rotor at 4 °C for 1 hr. After incubation, the GFP-Trap agarose beads were separated using a magnetic rack and washed three times with Co-IP buffer, followed by a final wash with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). The beads were resuspended in 30 μL of 50 mM Tris-HCl and mixed with 10 μL of 4 x Laemmli buffer. The mixture was boiled for 5 min and analyzed by immunoblotting.

AlphaScreen-based protein-protein interaction assay

The AlphaScreen assay is a robust proximity-based approach to detect biomolecular interactions
in vitro[62]. It relies on the energy transfer between donor and acceptor beads brought into proximity
by the binding of tagged proteins, resulting in a luminescent signal proportional to the interaction
strength. The promoter, CDS, and terminator regions of the *PICALM-bls*, *AGIA-ERendo*, and
GFP-AGIA constructs were amplified via PCR with SPu and AODA2306 primers and used as
templates for *in vitro* transcription and translation in a wheat germ cell-free system (No Cat # CFS-
TRI-1240, CellFree Sciences, Japan). Biotinylation at the biotin ligation site (bls) was performed
enzymatically with BirA biotin ligase and 0.5 µM d-biotin (No Cat # 04822-04, Nacalai Tesque,
Japan) as previously described[88]. Protein synthesis was confirmed by immunoblotting with HRP-
conjugated anti-AGIA (1:10,000) and anti-biotin (1:1,000, Cell Signaling Technology) antibodies.
AlphaScreen reactions were performed with slight modifications to the protocol[89]. A 15 µL reaction
containing AlphaScreen buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 0.1% Tween-20, 1 mg/mL BSA), 1 µL
monobiotinylated PICALMs, and 1 µL AGIA-tagged ER-KD or GFP was incubated at 26°C for 1
hour in an Optiplate-384 plate (Revvity). A 10 µL detection mixture containing streptavidin-
conjugated donor beads, protein A-conjugated acceptor beads, and anti-AGIA antibody in
AlphaScreen buffer was then added. After an additional 1-hour incubation at 26°C,
chemiluminescence signals were measured using an EnVision 2105 multimode plate reader
(Revvity).
684

Immunoblot analysis
Protein samples were resolved on 8 - 10% SDS-PAGE gels and transferred to PVDF membranes
(BioRad Cat # 1620177). Membranes blocked in 5% nonfat milk in TBST for 1 hr at room
temperature, followed by overnight incubation at 4 °C with primary antibodies, including anti-HA
(1:5000, Abcam, Cat # Ab18181), anti-GFP (1:5000, Invitrogen, Cat # 33-2600), anti-RFP (1:2000,
ChromoTek, Cat # pabr1), and anti-ACTIN (1:10,000, Abcam, Cat # Ab230169). After washing,
membranes were incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (1:10,000, Jackson
ImmunoResearch Labs, Cat # 112-035-003 for rat, Cat # 115-035-062 for mouse) for 1 hr at room
temperature. For PL samples, membranes were incubated with horseradish peroxidase conjugate
streptavidin (1:5000, Invitrogen, Cat # S911). Protein bands were detected using
chemiluminescence ECL substrate and imaged with a Bio-Rad ChemiDoc system.
696

697   **qRT-PCR analysis**
698   Total RNA extraction, first-strand cDNA synthesis and qRT-PCR were performed as previously
699   described[74]. Gene expression levels were quantified using relative $2^{-\Delta CT}$ method with the
700   Arabidopsis *ACT2* (AT3G18780) as the endogenous reference for normalization. Primer
701   sequences used were listed in Table S2.
702

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS
To quantitatively analyze the stomatal phenotypes of mutants and complementation lines, the
abaxial side of Arabidopsis cotyledons was imaged using confocal microscopy. The images were
used to classify and count different epidermal cell types. The stomatal index, defined as the
number of stomata divided by the total number of epidermal cells, was calculated. The stomatal
cluster index, representing the proportion of stomatal groups with two or more adjacent stomata,
were calculated as the ratio of stomata in cluster groups to the total number of stomata. For each

genotype, 18 - 20 cotyledons encompassing over 1500 epidermal cells were analyzed to ensure
statistical robustness. To quantitatively analyze the AlphaScreen results, the mean
chemiluminescence signals from three replicates were calculated and compared between
ERECTA and GFP reactions. For mass spectrometry data, protein fold-changes were calculated
as log2-transformed ratios of normalized PSMs between experimental and control conditions.
Protein enrichment significance was assessed using a one-sided Z-test[90] with a 95% confidence
threshold ($z \geqslant 1.645$). *p*-values were calculated using the pnorm function in R (version 4.2.2) and
adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate correction
as previous described[91]. Statistical analyses and data visualization were performed using R. For
the two-sample comparison, either student's t-test or Welch's t-test were performed. For the
multiple sample comparison, one-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey HSD test was performed. The
corresponding *p*-values and sample size (n) are provided in the respective figure legends.
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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Comparative proteomic profiling of ERECTA-associated proteins.

(A) Schematic representation of the experimental workflow for profiling ERECTA-associated

proteins using TbID-PL and ET-AP. Parallel enrichments of biotinylated proteins and HA-tagged

protein complexes were subjected to mass spectrometry analysis.

(B) Immunoblot validation of ERECTA and its associated proteins. Streptavidin-HRP (SA-HRP)

(top) confirms successful biotinylation of proximal proteins via TbID-PL. α-HA immunoblot (middle)

verifies the expression and enrichment of ERECTA-HA-TbID. Ponceau S staining (bottom)

indicates loading control.

(C) Venn diagram of identified proteins reveals 665 unique to TbID-PL, 228 unique to ET-AP, and

50 shared proteins.

(D) Subcellular localization of TbID-PL enriched proteins, showing enrichment at the plasma

membrane and cytosol, with additional representation in endomembrane compartments.

(E) Scatterplot comparing protein enrichment between TbID-PL and ET-AP. Notable components

of clathrin-mediated endocytosis (CME), such as PICALMs, DRPs, and TPLATE complex

members, are preferentially captured by TbID-PL. In contrast, stable receptor partners like TMM

are enriched via ET-AP. Some auxin transporters (PIN3, PIN7) are recovered in both methods.

(F) GO-term enrichment of TbID-PL-identified proteins reveals overrepresentation of membrane

trafficking, endocytosis, protein localization, and epidermal development terms. Circle size

represents fold enrichment; color indicates false discovery rate (FDR) values.

Figure 2. Optimized TbID-PL enhances detection of ERECTA-associated signaling
components and compartment-specific proteomes.

(A) Scatterplot showing differential enrichment of biotinylated proteins in ERECTA-TbID-PL with
biotin versus without biotin treatments. Several known ERECTA signaling components, including
BAK1, YODA (MAPKKK4) are identified (orange) alongside clathrin-mediated endocytosis
proteins (e.g., PICALM4A, PICALM4B) identified (green) in Figure 1.

(B) Scatterplot comparing enrichment between microsomal and cytosolic fractionation in TbID-PL
proteomes. Membrane-attached receptor-like cytoplasmic kinase BSK1 is predominantly
enriched in the microsomal fraction, while CME components (e.g., PICALM4A, 4B) and ERECTA
are detected in both fractions.

(C) Venn diagram showing overlap among TbID-PL datasets derived from comparisons of
ERECTA-HA-TbID vs *er-105*, +biotin vs -biotin, and microsomal vs cytosolic fractions. Seven
candidates are consistently detected across all comparisons.

(D) Heatmap showing normalized enrichment (log2 z-scores) of the top 7 consistently identified
ERECTA-proximal proteins across four TbID-PL conditions. These include ERECTA itself,
PICALM4A/B, and kinases implicated in receptor signaling (LIK1, HERK1, TMK4), as well as
ANGUSTIFOLIA and PHOT1.

(E) STRING network analysis of ERECTA-associated proteins identified by TbID-PL (green),
optimized TbID-PL (orange), or ET-AP (blue). Proteins are clustered into major functional
categories: internalization/protein trafficking, exocytosis, motor proteins, and stomatal
development. ERECTA, CME components (PICALMs, TPLATE, DRPs), and signaling partners
(e.g., BAK1, YODA, TMM) are highlighted. Node size reflects interaction confidence.

Figure 3. ERECTA selectively interacts with PICALM family of clathrin-mediated
endocytosis (CME) components.

(A) Dot plot showing transcriptional expression of Arabidopsis PICALM family genes across
stomatal lineage cell types from re-analyzed single-cell RNA-seq data. PICALM1, PICALM3,
PICALM4A, and PICALM4B are present across different stages of stomatal lineage cells.
PICALM1, PICALM4A, and PICALM4B are highly enriched in guard mother cell (GMC), guard
cell (GC) stages, while PICALM2B and PICALM3 are highly enriched in stomatal lineage ground
cells (SLGCs). The distinct expression of PICALMs suggest their potential roles in different stage
of stomatal development. Dot size indicates proportion of expressing cells; dot color reflects
expression levels.

(B) Phylogenetic tree of Arabidopsis PICALM family members. PICALM3 (Group 1, blue) and PICALM4A/B (Group 2a, green) cluster into distinct clades with high proximity to ERECTA based on TbID-PL. The phylogenetic tree illustrates evolutionary relationships and potential functional specialization within PICALM family.

(C) Confocal microscopy showing subcellular colocalization of endogenous promoters-driven ERECTA-YFP and PICALM4A-RFP in cotyledon epidermal cells at multiple stomatal lineage stages. M, meristemoid; GMC, guard mother cell; GC, guard cell. Scale bars, 10 μm. ERECTA-YFP colocalizes with PICALM4A-RFP at the plasma membrane in stomatal lineage cells, except at cell plates for dividing cells.

(D) *In vitro* protein-protein interacting assay between ERECTA and PICALM family proteins. ERECTA cytoplasmic domain and PICALMs were *in vitro* translated for the AlphaScreen assay. Quantification of normalized binding activity (right) confirms the preferential binding for PICALM3, PICALM4A, and PICALM1A. Boxplots represent mean with SD from three biological replicates and significance was assessed by unpaired t-test.

(E) Co-immunoprecipitation assays validating interactions between ERECTA and PICALM proteins transiently co-expressed in Arabidopsis protoplasts. Immunoblot analysis confirmed *in-vivo* binding of ERECTA-HA to PICALM3-GFP, PICALM4A-GFP, and PICALM4B-GFP, as shown in the red-boxed lanes.

Figure 4. ERECTA-YFP co-localizes with PICALM4A and endosomal markers in stomatal-lineage cells.

(A) Confocal microscopy showing colocalization of ERECTA-YFP with PICALM4A-RFP under mock and BFA-treated conditions. In untreated cells, both proteins localize to the plasma membrane. Brefeldin A (BFA) treatment results in BFA-induced endosomal compartments, where PICALM4A-RFP encapsulates and colocalizes with ERECTA-YFP (arrowheads).

(B) Confocal microscopy showing that ERECTA-YFP does not colocalize with the plasma membrane marker RCI2A-mCherry in BFA bodies. Under BFA treatment, ERECTA-YFP is redistributed to endosomal compartments (arrowheads), while RCI2A-mCherry remains at the plasma membrane, indicating selective internalization of ERECTA.

(C) Confocal microscopy imaging of ERECTA-YFP with the trans-Golgi network (TGN) marker SYP43-RFP (top) and the plasma membrane/early endosome marker ARA6-RFP (bottom). Under mock conditions, ERECTA-YFP localizes to the plasma membrane and partially colocalizes with SYP43 and ARA6 (arrowheads). Following BFA treatment, ERECTA-YFP colocalized with both

SYP43-RFP and ARA6-RFP in BFA-induced endosomal compartments, confirming its trafficking

through the TGN and early endosomes.

(D) Confocal microscopy showing colocalization of ERECTA-YFP with the late endosome marker

ARA7-RFP and the vacuolar membrane marker SYP22-RFP. Under mock conditions, limited

colocalization is observed. Upon wortmannin treatment, ERECTA-YFP co-localizes with ARA7-

RFP in these enlarged endosomes, indicating ERECTA's progression toward late endosome and

vacuoles.

Figure 5. PICALM proteins regulate ERECTA internalization.

(A) Confocal images of ERECTA-YFP internalization in WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutants under

mock and BFA treatment. In WT, BFA induces the formation of ERECTA-YFP–positive

endosomal compartments (BFA bodies, arrowheads). Whereas the number of BFA body is

markedly reduced in the *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutant, indicating impaired endocytic recycling.

(B) Quantification of the number of cells with BFA bodies across stomatal lineage stages in WT.

ERECTA-YFP endocytic activity is enriched in pavement cells (PCs) and stomatal lineage ground

cells (SLGCs).

(C) Box plot quantifying the number of BFA bodies per cell under mock and BFA treatments in

WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutants. WT shows a significant increase in BFA bodies upon

treatment, while *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutant exhibits no significant response.

(D) Confocal microscopy images showing ERECTA-YFP internalization in response to mEPF2

peptide, wortmannin, or their combination in WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutants. In WT, mEPF2

triggers endocytic accumulation of ERECTA-YFP that overlaps with FM4-64, and Wm enlarges

late endosomes containing ERECTA-YFP. These responses are strongly reduced in the

picalm1a;1b;4a;4b mutant (arrowheads).

(E) Quantification of mEPF2-induced ERECTA-YFP puncta in WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b*

mutants shows impaired ligand-triggered ERECTA endocytosis in the mutant.

(F) Quantification of ERECTA-YFP positive Wm bodies per cell in WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b*

mutant. Wm-induced accumulation is significantly reduced in the mutant, indicating defective

trafficking to late endosomes.

Figure 6. *PICALMs* are required for proper stomatal patterning

(A) Confocal images of abaxial epidermis from wild-type (WT) and various *picalm* single, double,

and higher-order mutants. WT plants exhibit normal stomatal development, whereas *picalm*

mutants exhibit increased stomatal index with varying degrees of stomatal clustering. Scale bars,

40 µm.

(B) Quantification of stomatal index in WT and *picalm* mutants. Box plots show a significant

increase in stomatal index in *picalm* mutants compared to WT. Statistical analysis was determined

using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test.

(C) Stomatal cluster index analysis in WT and *picalm* mutants. Stomatal clusters are categorized

by size (e.g., two, three, or four stomata per cluster), highlighting a dramatic rise in clustering

frequency in higher-order *picalm* mutants.

(D) Confocal images of abaxial epidermis from WT, *er-105*, *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b*, and the quintuple

mutant *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b;er-105*. The quintuple mutant shows similar stomatal numbering and

clustering to *er-105*. Scale bars, 40 µm.

(E) Quantification of combined stomatal and meristemoid index. The *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b;er-105*

quintuple mutant exhibits values comparable to *er-105*, indicating that PICALMs act in the same

genetic pathway as ERECTA.

(F) Proposed model of the ERECTA receptor internalization facilitated by PICALM proteins.

ERECTA is internalized through CME involving adaptor proteins such as PICALM3, PICALM4A,

and PICALM4B, along with the AP2 complex and TPLATE. Internalized receptors are sorted via

early endosomes or the trans-Golgi network (TGN) for recycling, or trafficked to vacuoles for

degradation. In *picalm* mutants, defective CME impairs receptor pool balance, disrupting stomatal

patterning. The secretion of newly synthesized ERECTA and trafficking to late

endosomes/vacuoles remain unresolved in *picalm* mutants.

(G) Representative images comparing stomatal patterning in WT, *picalms, er,* and *er; erl1; erl2*

mutants. *picalm* mutants phenocopy *er* family mutants, displaying increased stomatal number and

clustering, supporting a functional link between CME regulation and ERECTA-mediated signaling.

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Figure 1. Comparative proteomic profiling of ERECTA-associated proteins.
(A) Schematic representation of the experimental workflow for profiling ERECTA-associated proteins using TbID-PL and ET-AP. Parallel enrichments of biotinylated proteins and HA-tagged protein complexes were subjected to mass spectrometry analysis.
(B) Immunoblot validation of ERECTA and its associated proteins. Streptavidin-HRP (SA-HRP) (top) confirms successful biotinylation of proximal proteins via TbID-PL. α-HA immunoblot (middle) verifies the expression and enrichment of ERECTA-HA-TbID. Ponceau S staining (bottom) indicates loading control.
(C) Venn diagram of identified proteins reveals 665 unique to TbID-PL, 228 unique to ET-AP, and 50 shared proteins.
(D) Subcellular localization of TbID-PL enriched proteins, showing enrichment at the plasma membrane and cytosol, with additional representation in endomembrane compartments.

(E) Scatterplot comparing protein enrichment between TbID-PL and ET-AP. Notable components
of clathrin-mediated endocytosis (CME), such as PICALMs, DRPs, and TPLATE complex
members, are preferentially captured by TbID-PL. In contrast, stable receptor partners like TMM
are enriched via ET-AP. Some auxin transporters (PIN3, PIN7) are recovered in both methods.
(F) GO-term enrichment of TbID-PL-identified proteins reveals overrepresentation of membrane
trafficking, endocytosis, protein localization, and epidermal development terms. Circle size
represents fold enrichment; color indicates false discovery rate (FDR) values.
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Figure 2. Optimized TbID-PL enhances detection of ERECTA-associated signaling
components and compartment-specific proteomes.
(A) Scatterplot showing differential enrichment of biotinylated proteins in ERECTA-TbID-PL with
biotin versus without biotin treatments. Several known ERECTA signaling components, including
BAK1, YODA (MAPKKK4) are identified (orange) alongside clathrin-mediated endocytosis
proteins (e.g., PICALM4A, PICALM4B) identified (green) in figure 1.
(B) Scatterplot comparing enrichment between microsomal and cytosolic fractionation in TbID-PL
proteomes. Membrane-attached receptor-like cytoplasmic kinase BSK1 is predominantly
enriched in the microsomal fraction, while CME components (e.g., PICALM4A, 4B) and ERECTA
are detected in both fractions.
(C) Venn diagram showing overlap among TbID-PL datasets derived from comparisons of
ERECTA-HA-TbID vs *er-105*, +biotin vs -biotin, and microsomal vs cytosolic fractions. Seven
candidates are consistently detected across all comparisons.
(D) Heatmap showing normalized enrichment (log2 z-scores) of the top 7 consistently identified
ERECTA-proximal proteins across four TbID-PL conditions. These include ERECTA itself,
PICALM4A/B, and kinases implicated in receptor signaling (LIK1, HERK1, TMK4), as well as
ANGUSTIFOLIA and PHOT1.
(E) STRING network analysis of ERECTA-associated proteins identified by TbID-PL (green),
optimized TbID-PL (orange), or ET-AP (blue). Proteins are clustered into major functional
categories: internalization/protein trafficking, exocytosis, motor proteins, and stomatal
development. ERECTA, CME components (PICALMs, TPLATE, DRPs), and signaling partners
(e.g., BAK1, YODA, TMM) are highlighted. Node size reflects interaction confidence.
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Figure 3. ERECTA selectively interacts with PICALM family of clathrin-mediated endocytosis (CME) components.
(A) Dot plot showing transcriptional expression of Arabidopsis PICALM family genes across stomatal lineage cell types from re-analyzed single-cell RNA-seq data. PICALM1, PICALM3, PICALM4A, and PICALM4B are present across different stages of stomatal lineage cells. PICALM1, PICALM4A, and PICALM4B are highly enriched in guard mother cell (GMC), guard cell (GC) stages, while PICALM2B and PICALM3 are highly enriched in stomatal lineage ground

cells (SLGCs). The distinct expression of PICALMs suggest their potential roles in different stage
of stomatal development. Dot size indicates proportion of expressing cells; dot color reflects
expression levels.
(B) Phylogenetic tree of Arabidopsis PICALM family members. PICALM3 (Group 1, blue) and
PICALM4A/B (Group 2a, green) cluster into distinct clades with high proximity to ERECTA based
on TbID-PL. The phylogenetic tree illustrates evolutionary relationships and potential functional
specialization within PICALM family.
(C) Confocal microscopy showing subcellular colocalization of endogenous promoters-driven
ERECTA-YFP and PICALM4A-RFP in cotyledon epidermal cells at multiple stomatal lineage
stages. M, meristemoid; GMC, guard mother cell; GC, guard cell. Scale bars, 10 µm. ERECTA-
YFP colocalizes with PICALM4A-RFP at the plasma membrane in stomatal lineage cells, except
at cell plates for dividing cells.
(D) *In vitro* protein-protein interacting assay between ERECTA and PICALM family proteins.
ERECTA cytoplasmic domain and PICALMs were *in vitro* translated for the AlphaScreen assay.
Quantification of normalized binding activity (right) confirms the preferential binding for PICALM3,
PICALM4A, and PICALM1A. Boxplots represent mean with SD from three biological replicates
and significance was assessed by unpaired t-test.
(E) Co-immunoprecipitation assays validating interactions between ERECTA and PICALM
proteins transiently co-expressed in Arabidopsis protoplasts. Immunoblot analysis confirmed *in-*
vivo binding of ERECTA-HA to PICALM3-GFP, PICALM4A-GFP, and PICALM4B-GFP, as shown
in the red-boxed lanes.
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Figure 4. ERECTA-YFP co-localizes with PICALM4A and endosomal markers in stomatal-lineage cells.

(A) Confocal microscopy showing colocalization of ERECTA-YFP with PICALM4A-RFP under mock and BFA-treated conditions. In untreated cells, both proteins localize to the plasma membrane. Brefeldin A (BFA) treatment results in BFA-induced endosomal compartments, where PICALM4A-RFP encapsulates and colocalizes with ERECTA-YFP (arrowheads).

(B) Confocal microscopy showing that ERECTA-YFP does not colocalize with the plasma membrane marker RCI2A-mCherry in BFA bodies. Under BFA treatment, ERECTA-YFP is redistributed to endosomal compartments (arrowheads), while RCI2A-mCherry remains at the plasma membrane, indicating selective internalization of ERECTA.

(C) Confocal microscopy imaging of ERECTA-YFP with the trans-Golgi network (TGN) marker SYP43-RFP (top) and the plasma membrane/early endosome marker ARA6-RFP (bottom). Under mock conditions, ERECTA-YFP localizes to the plasma membrane and partially colocalizes with SYP43 and ARA6 (arrowheads). Following BFA treatment, ERECTA-YFP colocalized with both SYP43-RFP and ARA6-RFP in BFA-induced endosomal compartments, confirming its trafficking through the TGN and early endosomes.

(D) Confocal microscopy showing colocalization of ERECTA-YFP with the late endosome marker ARA7-RFP and the vacuolar membrane marker SYP22-RFP. Under mock conditions, limited colocalization is observed. Upon wortmannin treatment, ERECTA-YFP co-localizes with ARA7-RFP in these enlarged endosomes, indicating ERECTA's progression toward late endosome and vacuoles.

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Figure 5. PICALM proteins regulate ERECTA internalization.
(A) Confocal images of ERECTA-YFP internalization in WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutants under
mock and BFA treatment. In WT, BFA induces the formation of ERECTA-YFP–positive
endosomal compartments (BFA bodies, arrowheads). Whereas the number of BFA body is
markedly reduced in the *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutant, indicating impaired endocytic recycling.
(B) Quantification of the number of cells with BFA bodies across stomatal lineage stages in WT.
ERECTA-YFP endocytic activity is enriched in pavement cells (PCs) and stomatal lineage ground
cells (SLGCs).
(C) Box plot quantifying the number of BFA bodies per cell under mock and BFA treatments in
WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutants. WT shows a significant increase in BFA bodies upon
treatment, while *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutant exhibits no significant response.
(D) Confocal microscopy images showing ERECTA-YFP internalization in response to mEPF2
peptide, wortmannin, or their combination in WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b* mutants. In WT, mEPF2
triggers endocytic accumulation of ERECTA-YFP that overlaps with FM4-64, and Wm enlarges
late endosomes containing ERECTA-YFP. These responses are strongly reduced in the
picalm1a;1b;4a;4b mutant (arrowheads).
(E) Quantification of mEPF2-induced ERECTA-YFP puncta in WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b*
mutants shows impaired ligand-triggered ERECTA endocytosis in the mutant.
(F) Quantification of ERECTA-YFP positive Wm bodies per cell in WT and *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b*
mutant. Wm-induced accumulation is significantly reduced in the mutant, indicating defective
trafficking to late endosomes.
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Figure 6. *PICALMs* are required for proper stomatal patterning

(A) Confocal images of abaxial epidermis from wild-type (WT) and various *picalm* single, double, and higher-order mutants. WT plants exhibit normal stomatal development, whereas *picalm* mutants exhibit increased stomatal index with varying degrees of stomatal clustering. Scale bars, 40 μm.

(B) Quantification of stomatal index in WT and *picalm* mutants. Box plots show a significant increase in stomatal index in *picalm* mutants compared to WT. Statistical analysis was determined using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test.

(C) Stomatal cluster index analysis in WT and *picalm* mutants. Stomatal clusters are categorized
by size (e.g., two, three, or four stomata per cluster), highlighting a dramatic rise in clustering
frequency in higher-order *picalm* mutants.
(D) Confocal images of abaxial epidermis from WT, *er-105*, *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b*, and the quintuple
mutant *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b;er-105*. The quintuple mutant shows similar stomatal numbering and
clustering to *er-105*. Scale bars, 40 µm.
(E) Quantification of combined stomatal and meristemoid index. The *picalm1a;1b;4a;4b;er-105*
quintuple mutant exhibits values comparable to *er-105*, indicating that PICALMs act in the same
genetic pathway as ERECTA.
(F) Proposed model of the ERECTA receptor internalization facilitated by PICALM proteins.
ERECTA is internalized through CME involving adaptor proteins such as PICALM3, PICALM4A,
and PICALM4B, along with the AP2 complex and TPLATE. Internalized receptors are sorted via
early endosomes or the trans-Golgi network (TGN) for recycling, or trafficked to vacuoles for
degradation. In *picalm* mutants, defective CME impairs receptor pool balance, disrupting stomatal
patterning. The secretion of newly synthesized ERECTA and trafficking to late
endosomes/vacuoles remain unresolved in *picalm* mutants.
(G) Representative images comparing stomatal patterning in WT, *picalms, er,* and *er; erl1; erl2*
mutants. *picalm* mutants phenocopy *er* family mutants, displaying increased stomatal number and
clustering, supporting a functional link between CME regulation and ERECTA-mediated signaling.
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