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Influence of Arabidopsis PIP2s on PIP1s and their regulation at the protein level

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Table of content

| | |
|--|----|
| Table of content | 2 |
| Summary | 6 |
| Abbreviations | 7 |
| List of figures and tables | 10 |
| Tables | 10 |
| Figures | 11 |
| 1 Introduction | 12 |
| 1.1 Importance of aquaporins | 12 |
| 1.2 Structure and selectivity of aquaporins | 12 |
| 1.3 Aquaporins in plants | 14 |
| 1.4 Classification | 15 |
| 1.4.1 Expression and localization of PIPs in <i>Arabidopsis</i> | 16 |
| 1.4.2 Trafficking and interaction of PIPs | 17 |
| 1.4.3 Regulation of aquaporins and therefore water permeability of membranes ... | 18 |
| 1.4.4 PIP2-dependent PIP1 regulation | 19 |
| 1.5 Protein degradation pathways | 20 |
| 1.5.1 ER-associated degradation (ERAD)..... | 20 |
| 1.5.2 Autophagy related degradation | 22 |
| 1.6 Aims of this work | 23 |
| 2 Results | 24 |
| 2.1 Where does the interaction between PIPs take place? | 24 |
| 2.2 Is the interaction with PIP2s sufficient to protect PIP1s from degradation?..... | 26 |
| 2.2.1 Expression and localization of BFP-PIP2 EGFP-PIP1..... | 26 |

| | | |
|-------|--|----|
| 2.2.2 | Influence of the mutated PIP2 diacidic motif on the localization of PIP1s and PIP2s and PIP1 protein stability | 27 |
| 2.3 | Can PIP2;3 or PIP2;7 prevent degradation of PIP1s in the absence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2? | 33 |
| 2.3.1 | PIP2;3..... | 33 |
| 2.3.2 | PIP2;7..... | 35 |
| 2.4 | Which degradation pathway is involved in PIP1 degradation in the absence of PIP2s? | 36 |
| 2.4.1 | Influence of the proteasome inhibitor syringolin A on PIP protein level | 36 |
| 2.4.2 | PIP1 protein degradation in the presence of proteasome inhibitor (MG132) and/or protein biosynthesis inhibitor (CHX) | 38 |
| 2.4.3 | PIP1 protein level in different degradation mutant backgrounds | 40 |
| 2.5 | When does the degradation take place? | 41 |
| 2.5.1 | Expression and localization of newly generated mEosFP-PIP1 lines | 42 |
| 2.5.2 | Photoconversion capability of mEosFP-PIP1..... | 43 |
| 2.5.3 | Recovery of green mEosFP-PIP1 signal 1h after photoconversion | 46 |
| 3 | Discussion | 48 |
| 3.1 | The role of interaction in PIP1 and PIP2 co-regulation | 48 |
| 3.2 | Regulation of PIP1s relies on PIP2s' amino acid sequence | 50 |
| 3.3 | Degradation of PIP1s in the absence of PIP2s | 51 |
| 3.3.1 | Progress in determining the degradation pathway | 51 |
| 3.3.2 | Time point of degradation (exocytosis rate)..... | 54 |
| 3.4 | Potential physiological role of co-regulation..... | 55 |
| 4 | Outlook | 57 |
| 5 | Material and Methods | 58 |
| 5.1 | Material | 58 |
| 5.1.1 | Plant material | 58 |

| | | |
|---------|---|----|
| 5.1.2 | Bacteria..... | 60 |
| 5.1.3 | Kits | 61 |
| 5.1.4 | Media..... | 61 |
| 5.1.5 | Buffer..... | 62 |
| 5.1.6 | Chemicals..... | 63 |
| 5.1.7 | Antibiotics..... | 64 |
| 5.1.8 | Enzymes..... | 64 |
| 5.1.9 | Antibodies | 65 |
| 5.1.10 | Primer | 65 |
| 5.1.11 | Vectors and plasmids | 67 |
| 5.1.12 | Instruments | 69 |
| 5.1.13 | Internet tools and software | 70 |
| 5.2 | Methods..... | 71 |
| 5.2.1 | Plant methods | 71 |
| 5.2.1.1 | Cultivation on soil | 71 |
| 5.2.1.2 | Cultivation on plates | 71 |
| 5.2.1.3 | Generation of multiple mutants and backcrossing of single mutants | 72 |
| 5.2.1.4 | Generation and characterization of transgenic lines..... | 72 |
| 5.2.2 | Molecular methods | 73 |
| 5.2.2.1 | Isolation of genomic DNA (CTAB method)..... | 73 |
| 5.2.2.2 | Polymerase chain reaction..... | 73 |
| 5.2.2.3 | Agarose gel electrophoresis..... | 74 |
| 5.2.2.4 | Extraction of DNA from agarose gels..... | 74 |
| 5.2.2.5 | Gibson Assembly | 74 |
| 5.2.2.6 | BP reaction (Gateway) | 74 |
| 5.2.2.7 | LR reaction (Gateway)..... | 75 |

| | | |
|----------|--|-----|
| 5.2.2.8 | Preparation of chemically competent E. coli DH5 α cells..... | 75 |
| 5.2.2.9 | Transformation of chemically competent E. coli DH5 α cells..... | 75 |
| 5.2.2.10 | Preparation of electro competent A. tumefaciens GV3101 pMP90..... | 76 |
| 5.2.2.11 | Transformation of electro competent A. tumefaciens GV3101 pMP90 | 76 |
| 5.2.2.12 | Plasmid isolation | 76 |
| 5.2.2.13 | Restriction digestion | 76 |
| 5.2.2.14 | DNA sequencing..... | 77 |
| 5.2.2.15 | PCR-based mutagenesis..... | 77 |
| 5.2.2.16 | Agrobacterium tumefaciens mediated plant transformation | 78 |
| 5.2.2.17 | Protoplast isolation..... | 78 |
| 5.2.2.18 | PEG-mediated transient protein expression | 79 |
| 5.2.3 | Biochemical methods | 79 |
| 5.2.3.1 | Microsomal fraction isolation | 79 |
| 5.2.3.2 | Determination of protein concentration with Bradford..... | 80 |
| 5.2.3.3 | ELISA..... | 80 |
| 5.2.3.4 | Degradation assay (CHX and MG132)..... | 81 |
| 5.2.4 | Microscopy | 82 |
| 5.2.4.1 | Ratiometric bimolecular fluorescence complementation (rBiFC) | 82 |
| 5.2.4.2 | Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) | 83 |
| 5.2.4.3 | Corrected fluorescence recovery after photoconversion (cFRAPc) | 84 |
| 6 | Appendix | 85 |
| 7 | References | 94 |
| 8 | Acknowledgements | 105 |

Summary

Aquaporins are channel proteins that facilitate water flow across membranes and can be found in all three domains of life. In plants they play an important role in adapting to different environmental stimuli. A subgroup of aquaporins, localized to the plasma membrane, is called plasma membrane intrinsic proteins (PIP). The genome of *Arabidopsis thaliana* includes thirteen PIPs divided into PIP1s (5 isoforms) and PIP2s (8 isoforms) and it has been shown that they can be regulated for example by post-translational modifications such as phosphorylation and removal from the plasma membrane. Previous studies in our laboratory revealed a role of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 on the post-translational regulation of PIP1s, where the absence of these two PIP2 isoforms led to a reduction in the PIP1 protein level. However, the mechanism behind the co-regulation was still unclear as in when this degradation is taking place and which pathway is involved.

Interaction between PIP1;1 and PIP2;1/PIP2;2 takes place as early as at the endoplasmic reticulum as was shown by bimolecular fluorescence complementation studies. Therefore, regulation of the PIP1s could already happen before routing to the plasma membrane. Moreover, the specificity of the co-regulation was assessed by complementing the *pip2;1 pip2;2* mutant with different PIP2 hybrid constructs demonstrating a dependency on the amino acid sequence rather than the expression pattern.

In addition, some preliminary studies were performed to determine the time point of degradation in the absence of PIP2;1/PIP2;2. For this purpose corrected fluorescence recovery after photoconversion (cFRAPc) was optimized for analyzing the PIP proteins. However, first tests over the time course of one hour revealed no measurable exocytosis of PIP1;2, showing that a longer observation period will be necessary in future investigations. To prevent the roots from drying the implementation of additional methods is required.

Evidence for the involvement of the proteasomal degradation in the down-regulation in the presence and even more pronounced in the absence of PIP2;1/PIP2;2 could be gathered by performing inhibitor (MG132) studies on protoplasts. On the other hand, no change in the PIP1 protein level could be detected in mutants deficient in autophagy or ERAD, leading to the assumption that compensation by other degradation pathways was taking place in the degradation mutants.

Abbreviations

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| ABTS | 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) |
| AHA1 | activator of 90 kDa heat shock protein ATPase homolog 1 |
| Ala | alanine |
| ar/R | aromatic/arginine |
| Asn | Asparagine |
| Asp | aspartic acid |
| ATG | autophagy-related protein |
| BFP | blue fluorescence protein |
| BHT | butylated hydroxytoluene |
| BiFC | bimolecular fluorescence complementation |
| BSA | bovine serum albumin |
| BT toxin | <i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i> toxin |
| cDNA | complementary DNA |
| cFRAPc | corrected fluorescence recovery after photoconversion |
| CHX | cycloheximide |
| CNX | calnexin |
| COFRADIC | combined fractional diagonal chromatography |
| CRT | calreticulin |
| CTAB | cetyltrimethylammoniumbromid |
| C-terminus | carboxyl-terminus |
| ddH ₂ O | double distilled water |
| DM | <i>pip2;1 pip2;2</i> double mutant |
| DMSO | dimethyl sulfoxide |
| DNA | deoxyribonuclei acid |
| Doa10 | degradation of alpha factor |
| DTT | dithiothreitol |
| <i>E. coli</i> | <i>Escherichia coli</i> |
| EDTA | ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid |
| EGFP | enhanced green fluorescence protein |
| ELISA | enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay |
| ER | endoplasmic reticulum |
| ERAD | ER-associated degradation pathway |
| EtOH | ethanol |

| | |
|------------|--------------------------------------|
| EYFP | enhanced yellow fluorescence protein |
| Gent | gentamicin |
| GIP | GlpF-like intrinsic proteins |
| Glu | glutamic acid |
| GUS | β -glucuronidase |
| h | hour |
| HIP | hybrid intrinsic protein |
| His | histidine |
| Hrd | HMG-CoA reductase degradation |
| Htm1 | homologous to mannosidase 1 |
| Hyg | hygromycin |
| LB | lysogeny broth |
| Leu | leucine |
| mEosFP | monomeric Eos fluorescence protein |
| MES | 2-(N-morpholino)-ethanesulfonic acid |
| MF | microsomal fraction |
| min | minute |
| MIP | membrane intrinsic protein |
| mRFP | monomeric red fluorescence protein |
| MS | Murashige and Skoog |
| NBR | nonbleached region |
| NIP | NOD26-like intrinsic protein |
| NPA | asparagine-proline-alanine |
| N-terminus | amino-terminus |
| OD | optical density |
| PAS | preautophagosomal structure |
| PBS | phosphate-buffered saline |
| PCR | polymerase chain reaction |
| PE | phosphatidylethanolamine |
| PIP | plasma membrane intrinsic protein |
| PM | plasma membrane |
| PMSF | phenylmethane sulfonyl fluoride |
| PMT | photomultiplier |
| Pro | proline |
| qRT-PCR | quantitative real-time PCR |
| RB | rich broth, Luria-Bertani |
| Rif | rifampicin |

| | |
|-------|--|
| ROI | region of interest |
| ROS | reactive oxygen species |
| rpm | revolutions per minute |
| RT | room temperature |
| sec | second |
| Ser | serine |
| SIP | small basic intrinsic protein |
| SNARE | soluble N-ethylmaleimide sensitive factor attachment protein receptors |
| Spec | spectinomycin |
| TIP | tonoplast intrinsic protein |
| TSPO | translocator protein |
| UPR | unfolded protein response |
| UV | ultraviolet |
| v/v | volume per volume |
| Val | valine |
| w/v | weight per volume |
| WT | wild type |
| XIP | uncategorized X intrinsic protein |
| Yos9 | osteosarcoma 9 |

List of figures and tables

Tables

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 1: PIP1 – PIP2 combinations | 27 |
| Table 2: Influence of syringolin A on PIP1 protein levels | 37 |
| Table 3: Plant lines used in this work, which were ordered or already present in the lab | 58 |
| Table 4: Plant lines generated in this work | 59 |
| Table 5: Bacteria strain | 60 |
| Table 6: Applied kits | 61 |
| Table 7: Media used for growing bacteria or plants | 61 |
| Table 8: Prepared buffers | 62 |
| Table 9: Chemicals | 63 |
| Table 10: Antibiotics | 64 |
| Table 11: Enzymes | 64 |
| Table 12: Antibodies | 65 |
| Table 13: Genotyping primer for the WT allele | 65 |
| Table 14: Genotyping primer for insertion | 65 |
| Table 15: Primer used for mutagenesis | 66 |
| Table 16: Primer used for cloning | 66 |
| Table 17: Vectors | 67 |
| Table 18: Plasmids | 68 |
| Table 19: Instruments | 69 |
| Table 20: Internet tools and software | 70 |
| Table 21: growth conditions on plates | 72 |
| Table 22: PCR program used for mutagenesis | 77 |
| Table 23: Inhibitors used for the degradation assay | 81 |
| Table 24: Microscope settings for rBiFC | 82 |
| Table 25: Microscope settings for FRAP | 83 |
| Table 26: Microscope settings for cFRAPc | 84 |

Figures

| | |
|--|----|
| Figure 1: Structure of aquaporins. | 13 |
| Figure 2: The three different water routes through plant tissues. | 14 |
| Figure 3: Phylogenetic tree of the 35 Arabidopsis thaliana MIPs. | 15 |
| Figure 4: Reduction of the PIP1 protein level in pip2 mutants. | 20 |
| Figure 5: Putative degradation pathways for PIP1s. | 21 |
| Figure 6: Interaction of PIP1;1 and localization of different PIP combinations in protoplasts. | 25 |
| Figure 7: Diacidic mutant of BFP-PIP2;1 in the EGFP-PIP1;1 line. | 28 |
| Figure 8: Diacidic mutant of BFP-PIP2;1 in the EGFP-PIP1;2 line. | 29 |
| Figure 9: FRAP experiments to estimate the intracellular labelling of BFP-PIP2;1. | 30 |
| Figure 10: FRAP experiments to estimate the intracellular labelling of BFP-PIP2;1. | 31 |
| Figure 11: Complementation of the pip2;2 mutant with PIP2;3. | 34 |
| Figure 12: Complementation of the pip2;2 mutant with PIP2;7. | 35 |
| Figure 13: Influence of proteasomal degradation on the PIP1;1 protein. | 39 |
| Figure 14: PIP1 protein level in degradation mutants. | 41 |
| Figure 15: mEosFP tagged PIP1;1 and PIP1;2 lines. | 42 |
| Figure 16: cFRAPc imaging of mEos-PIP1;1. | 44 |
| Figure 17: cFRAPc imaging of mEos-PIP1;2. | 45 |
| Figure 18: Determination of necessary scan number for efficient conversion. | 45 |
| Figure 19: Determination of newly synthesized mEos-PIP1;2 within one hour. | 47 |
| Figure 20: Influence of mutation of PIP2s' diacidic motif on the stability of PIP1s. | 49 |
| Figure 21: Scheme for putative the role PIP2-PIP1 co-regulation. | 56 |
| Figure 22: Vector map of the rBiFC system. | 82 |

1 Introduction

1.1 Importance of aquaporins

Major intrinsic proteins (MIPs) also called aquaporins are water channels that can facilitate the passive movement of water across membranes. They are present in all three domains of life (eukarya, bacteria, archaea) underlining their importance for all living beings. The first hint for water channels was detected at the human red blood cell membrane by Benga *et al.* in 1985, later called aquaporins (Benga and Popescu, 1986). Moreover, it was discovered that aquaporins are present in all fluid-related structures in humans (Laloux *et al.*, 2018) such as kidneys (reviewed by Noda and Sasaki, 2006), sweat glands (reviewed by Nejsun *et al.*, 2002), lacrimal glands (reviewed by Schey *et al.*, 2014), salivary glands and pancreatic cells (reviewed by Delporte, 2014). Humans possess 18 aquaporins, a quite high number compared to the 13 – 15 paralogs usually present in mammals, but still low in comparison to the large quantity of different MIPs in plants.

In contrast to mammals, plants are sessile life forms that have to adjust their water uptake and transport depending on the surrounding environment and occurring biotic and abiotic stresses. To achieve such a tight regulation, plants have developed a wide array of different aquaporins with various functions and localizations within the plant cell.

1.2 Structure and selectivity of aquaporins

Aquaporins are small membrane proteins (23 – 31 kDa) and consist of six transmembrane α -helices (H1-H6) connected by 5 loops (LA-LE) protruding into the cytoplasm or the extracellular space, while both the N-terminus and the C-terminus are facing the cytosolic space (**Figure 1 A**). Loop B and E are partially integrated into the membrane from opposite directions, forming an additional pseudo transmembrane helix. A conserved Asn-Pro-Ala (NPA) motif is present in both loops close to the center of the pore, constituting a filter by hydrogen bond formation for proper positioning of entering molecules (De Groot and Grubmüller, 2001). The protruding asparagines from the NPA motifs form hydrogen bonds with oxygen of the water molecule resulting in a bipolar orientation of the neighboring molecules and preventing proton entry (Sui *et al.*, 2001; Tajkhorshid *et al.*, 2002). The narrowest part of the pore with a diameter of

only about 3 Å presents another layer of selectivity by size exclusion, being just big enough to let a water molecule (2.8 Å) pass (Murata *et al.*, 2000). The ar/R (aromatic/arginine) filter at the extracellular portion of the channel plays a crucial role in selectivity determination (Wallace *et al.*, 2006; Kosinska Eriksson *et al.*, 2013).

Four aquaporin channels interact with each other and thereby form a tetramer, where each monomer retains its water transport function (compare **Figure 1 B**; Daniels *et al.*, 1999). A tetramer can consist of single aquaporin isoforms (homotetramer) or a combination of different isoforms (heterotetramer). The composition can affect the regulation, trafficking and function of the channels in the tetramer (Fetter *et al.*, 2004; Yaneff *et al.*, 2014; Jozefkowicz *et al.*, 2016). A side effect of the assembly of four monomers is the formation of a central pore which might be involved in solute transport (Bertl and Kaldenhoff, 2007; Frick *et al.*, 2013; Zwiazek *et al.*, 2017).

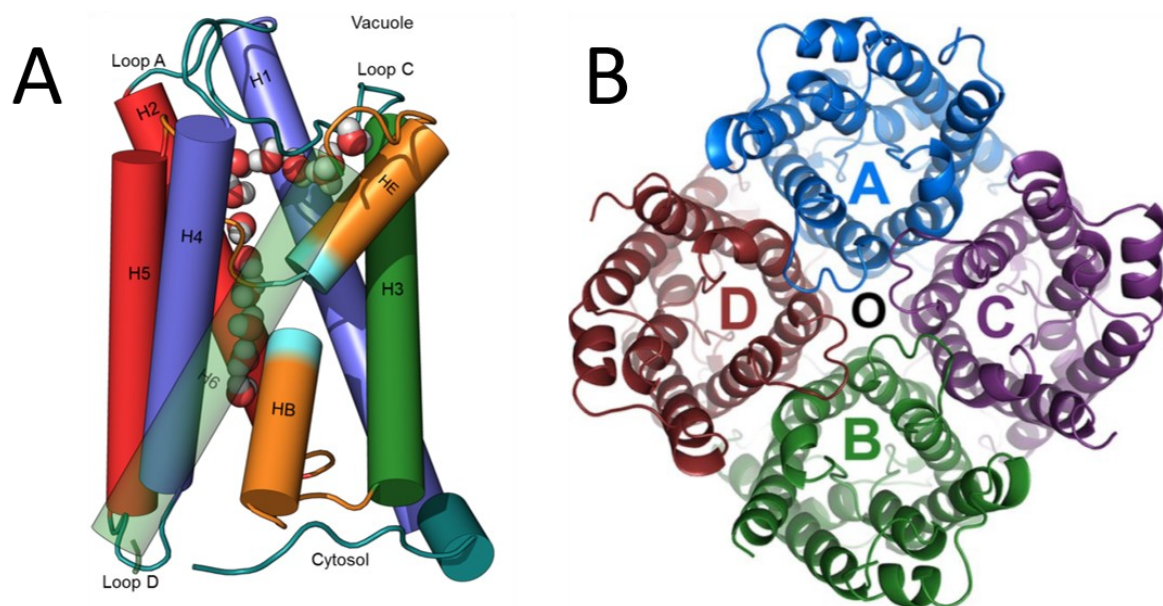


Figure 1: Structure of aquaporins. (A) Representation of the folding of aquaporins with their six transmembrane helices, the connecting loops and the two pore helices (HB and HE). (B) The top view of a tetramer shows the water channel in each monomer (depicted in blue, green, purple and red) is labeled with A – D and the putative central pore is marked with an O. From Kirscht *et al.*, 2016 (© 2016 Kirscht *et al.*) and Horsefield *et al.*, 2008 (© 2008 by The National Academy of Sciences of the USA).

The name aquaporin already implies the role in water permeability, but not only water can permeate through those channels. Over the last years several studies concerning the specificity of MIPs have been performed, revealing a broad spectrum of possible substrates. Small molecules like boric acid (Takano *et al.*, 2006; Tanaka *et al.*, 2008; Ampah-Korsah *et al.*,

2016; Mosa *et al.*, 2016), urea (Liu *et al.*, 2003; Gu *et al.*, 2011; Yang *et al.*, 2015), hydrogen peroxide (Bienert *et al.*, 2006; Tian *et al.*, 2016; Rodrigues *et al.*, 2017), silicic acid (Fauteux *et al.*, 2006; Jian *et al.*, 2006; Mitani *et al.*, 2008; Chiba *et al.*, 2009) and glycerol (Biela *et al.*, 1999; Dean *et al.*, 1999) have been reported to pass membranes through aquaporins. They even have been associated with the permeability of the plasma membrane of gases like ammonia (Holm *et al.*, 2005; Bertl and Kaldenhoff, 2007; Kirscht *et al.*, 2016), O₂ (Zwiazek *et al.*, 2017) and CO₂ (Heckwolf *et al.*, 2011; L. Li *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2016) and ions (Byrt *et al.*, 2017). Substrates can differ between aquaporin isoforms and at the same time one isoform can have several substrates (Perez Di Giorgio *et al.*, 2016).

1.3 Aquaporins in plants

Water is an essential resource for plants needed for processes such as photosynthesis, stability (turgor) or as a solvent for nutrients taken up from soil and to transport them among the different parts of the plant. There are three water routes through plant tissues (compare **Figure 2**; Steudle and Peterson, 1998): apoplastic path (around protoplasts, **A**), symplastic path (mediated by plasmodesmata forming a cytoplasmic continuum, **B**) and transcellular path (across membranes, **C**). Since aquaporins facilitate water movement across membranes, they play an important role in the transcellular path.

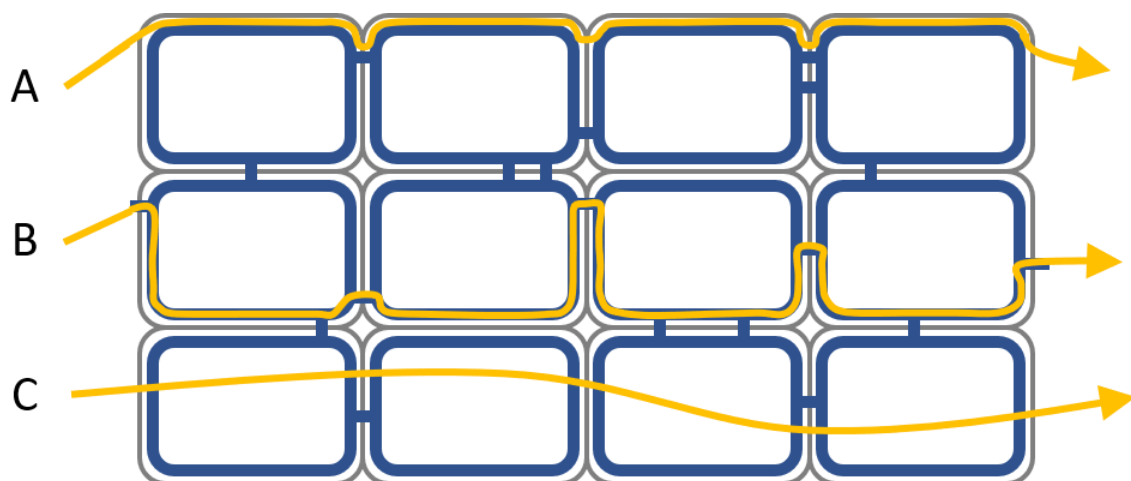


Figure 2: The three different water routes through plant tissues. (A) The apoplastic path describes the water flow around the protoplasts. (B) The symplastic path allows water to travel through plasmodesmata, which connect the cytoplasm of neighboring cells. (C) The transcellular path leads the water across membranes (cell walls: grey; cytoplasmic continuum: blue).

1.4 Classification

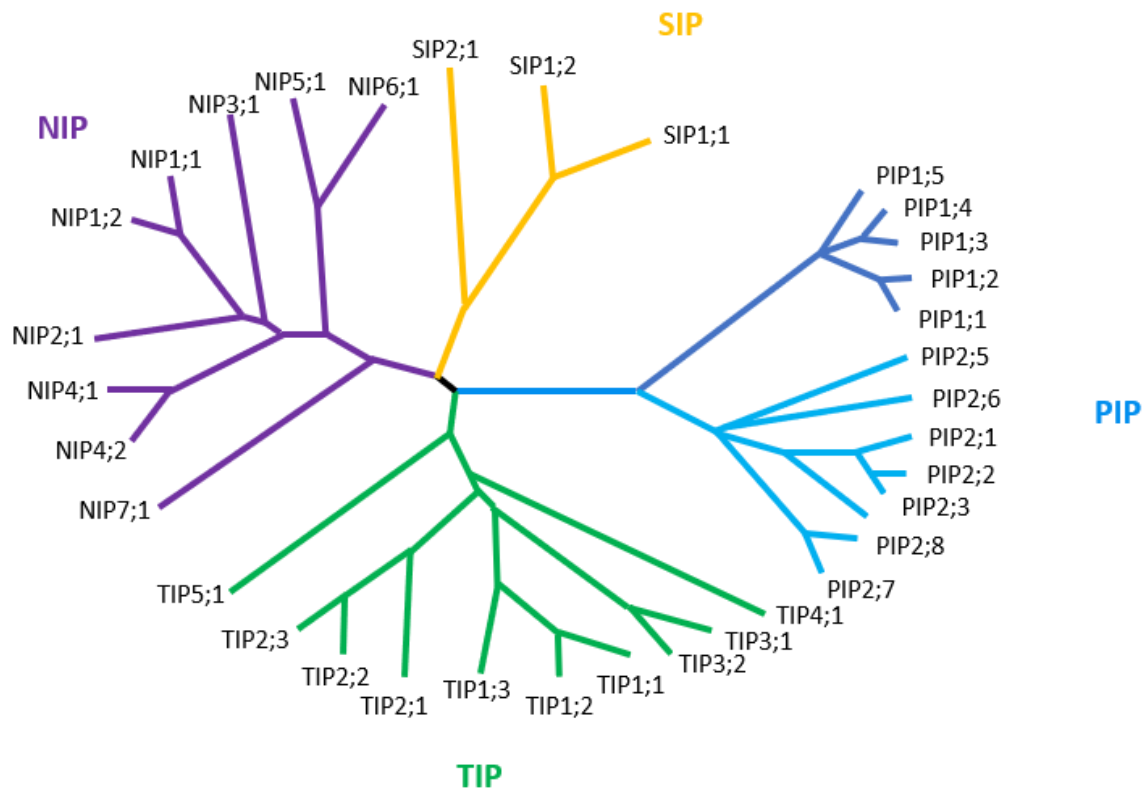


Figure 3: **Phylogenetic tree of the 35 *Arabidopsis thaliana* MIPs.** *A. thaliana* aquaporins can be divided into 4 subgroups: PIPs, TIPs, NIPs and SIPs.

Arabidopsis thaliana has 35 MIP isoforms that can be divided into four subfamilies: plasma membrane intrinsic proteins (PIPs), tonoplast intrinsic proteins (TIPs), NOD26-like intrinsic proteins (NIPs) and the small basic intrinsic proteins (SIPs) (see **Figure 3**; Johanson *et al.*, 2001; Quigley *et al.*, 2002). PIPs are located to the plasma membrane (PM) and can be further divided into PIP1s (five isoforms) and PIP2s (eight isoforms). Together with TIPs (ten isoforms in five subgroups) that are targeted to the tonoplast, they represent the most abundant aquaporins in *Arabidopsis*. The third subfamily are the NIPs, named for their high similarity to nodulin 26, a water channel from soybean connected to osmoregulation in symbiosome membranes (Wallace *et al.*, 2006). It consists of nine isoforms separated into seven groups and a putative localization to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and plasma membrane has been shown (Mizutani *et al.*, 2006; Takano *et al.*, 2006). The final and smallest group is the SIP family with only three isoforms in two groups localized to the ER membrane (Johanson and Gustavsson, 2002; Ishikawa *et al.*, 2005).

In addition, three other subfamilies have been detected: hybrid intrinsic protein (HIPs), GlpF-like intrinsic proteins (GIPs) and the uncategorized X intrinsic protein (XIPs), but they were lost during evolution in some plant lineages such as *A. thaliana* (Gustavsson *et al.*, 2005; Danielson and Johanson, 2008; Gupta and Sankararamakrishnan, 2009; Bienert *et al.*, 2011; Lopez *et al.*, 2012).

1.4.1 Expression and localization of PIPs in *Arabidopsis*

Studies concerning the expression of PIPs revealed diverse patterns regarding different tissues, developmental stages and stress responses. In seeds only *PIP1;2* transcripts were detected, whereas *PIP1;1*, *PIP1;2*, *PIP1;4*, *PIP2;1*, *PIP2;2*, *PIP2;6* and *PIP2;7* were present in two-day-old seedlings (Vander Willigen *et al.*, 2006). The dominant *PIP* transcripts in two-week-old seedlings both in roots and leaves were *PIP1;1*, *PIP1;2* and *PIP2;7* (Jang *et al.*, 2004). Older plants (4 – 6 weeks) showed a high expression of *PIP1;2*, *PIP2;1* and *PIP2;6* in leaves and *PIP1;1*, *PIP2;2* and *PIP2;7* in roots (Alexandersson *et al.*, 2005; Boursiac *et al.*, 2005). Mass spectrometry and targeted proteomics show mainly the same tendencies on the protein level, *PIP2;6* being the exception with high transcription and low protein levels (Santoni *et al.*, 2003; Monneuse *et al.*, 2011). The other *PIP* transcripts and proteins could be detected, but at relatively low amounts (Jang *et al.*, 2004; Alexandersson *et al.*, 2005; Monneuse *et al.*, 2011). Stresses like drought, high salinity and cold lead to a down regulation of most of the PIPs and in contrast to that, an upregulation of some isoforms, hinting at different functions among the aquaporins (Jang *et al.*, 2004; Alexandersson *et al.*, 2005; Monneuse *et al.*, 2011).

The expression patterns of *PIPs* were observed utilizing *PIP* promoter- β -glucuronidase gene fusions. GUS staining could be observed in vascular tissue and bundle sheath cells in the leaves and in the endodermal cells and the stele in the roots under the control of the *PIP2;1* promoter. *PIP2;2* showed a similar localization pattern in the roots, but in addition it is spread to the surrounding mesophyll in leaves (Javot *et al.*, 2003; Da Ines *et al.*, 2010). All leaf tissues were stained for *PIP1;2*, but the expression in roots was confined to the epidermis and the stele as well (Postaire *et al.*, 2010). *PIP2;6* is exclusively localized to the veins, whereas *PIP2;7* shows a more patchy expression in mesophyll cells (Prado *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, it was shown that PIPs are involved in lateral root development (Péret *et al.*, 2012; Zhao, 2013). Most *PIP* transcripts are reduced in response to the rising auxin levels and *PIP2;1* and *PIP2;2* were

excluded from the lateral root tip. In contrast to that, *PIP1;2* and *PIP2;7* were present in the lateral root primordium from the early stages on and were only absent in the regions of highest auxin levels.

The differences in the substrate selectivity, expression, localization and stress responses show the diversity among the aquaporins and their possible role in various physiological processes.

1.4.2 Trafficking and interaction of PIPs

The final destination of PIPs is the plasma membrane and to reach it they follow the secretory pathway. They are synthesized and cotranslationally inserted into the ER and there are two ER export signals known that allow leaving the ER: a diacidic motif (DXE) in the N-terminus and an LxxxA motif in the transmembrane helix 3 (Zelazny *et al.*, 2009; Sorieul *et al.*, 2011; Chevalier *et al.*, 2014). After reaching the Golgi apparatus, BEX5/RabA1b, a regulator of protein trafficking, is required for traveling to the PM (Feraru *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, it has been shown that reaching the PM is dependent on SNAREs (soluble N-ethylmaleimide sensitive factor attachment protein receptors), proteins that are involved in vesicle trafficking, fusion and secretion (Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Besserer *et al.*, 2012; Hachez, *et al.*, 2014). After reaching the PM, PIPs show extremely low lateral diffusion, but undergo constant cycling processes mediated by clathrin and membrane raft pathways (Li *et al.*, 2011).

The tetramer formation of the aquaporins occurs even before trafficking to the PM. The first step is the formation of disulfide bridges between two monomers to form a dimer (Bienert *et al.*, 2012; Jozefkowicz *et al.*, 2013). The assembly into tetramers is dependent on amino acid residues in the transmembrane domains (Berny *et al.*, 2016; Yoo *et al.*, 2016). The tetramer formation is very important, because composition of different monomers does not only affect the function, but additionally the trafficking. There is evidence from several different plant species, that a homotetramer of PIP1s is retained at the ER and that heteromerization with PIP2s converts the ability to reach the plasma membrane, suggesting a co-regulation of the two PIP subfamilies (Zelazny *et al.*, 2007; Mut *et al.*, 2008; Matsumoto *et al.*, 2009; Sorieul *et al.*, 2011; Bienert *et al.*, 2018).

1.4.3 Regulation of aquaporins and therefore water permeability of membranes

The regulation of aquaporins can take place at different levels. First of all, numerous post-translational modifications of aquaporins have been reported, which are linked to their regulation. Among these modifications are methylation (Santoni *et al.*, 2006), protonation (Törnroth-Horsefield *et al.*, 2006), disulfide bond formation (Bienert *et al.*, 2012), S-acylation (Hemsley *et al.*, 2013), deamination (di Pietro *et al.*, 2013), ubiquitination (Lee *et al.*, 2009) and phosphorylation (Johansson *et al.*, 1998; Nuhse, 2004; Daniels and Yeager, 2005; Boursiac, *et al.*, 2008). Several kinases and phosphatases modifying aquaporins have been identified (Johnson and Chrispeels, 1992; Azad *et al.*, 2004; Sjövall-Larsen *et al.*, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2015) and the role on gating was elucidated (Johansson *et al.*, 1998; Guenther *et al.*, 2003).

Moreover, gating itself represents another layer of regulation. The high-resolution structure of spinach SoPIP2;1 in an open and closed conformation was used to propose the gating mechanism of aquaporins (Törnroth-Horsefield *et al.*, 2006; Nyblom *et al.*, 2009). The cytosolic loop D folds under the opening of the channel and a conserved leucine (position 197) enters a cavity close to the entrance. By interaction with His 99, Val 104 and Leu 108, a hydrophobic barrier is created, blocking water from entering the pore. Stabilization of the closed conformation is achieved by a network of hydrogen and ionic bonds connecting the loop D with loop B (Ser 115) and a divalent cation binding site in the N-terminus (Asp 28 and Glu 31). Phosphorylation of Ser 115 in loop B and Ser 274 in the C-terminus leads to a displacement of loop D and helix 5 is turned slightly, resulting in an open conformation.

A third mode of regulation is to prevent water transport activity of aquaporins by removing them from the membrane. Studies revealed an internalization of aquaporins in response to high salinity, reducing their content in the membrane and therefore hydraulic conductivity (Boursiac *et al.*, 2005; Luu *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, accumulation of H₂O₂, a reactive oxygen species (ROS) involved in stress signaling, lead to an increased recycling of PIPs (Boursiac, Boudet, *et al.*, 2008). The phosphorylation state of Ser 283 of PIP2;1 regulates the trafficking, where dephosphorylation results in internalization (Prak *et al.*, 2008). The two known pathways involved in endocytosing aquaporins are the membrane raft-associated pathway and the clathrin-dependent pathway (Dhonukshe *et al.*, 2007; Li *et al.*, 2011; Martinière *et al.*, 2012). Taken together this data suggests that stress induced H₂O₂ and dephosphorylation internalize PIPs to regulate membrane water permeability.

Degradation of aquaporins prevents them from transporting water across membranes and thus can be considered as fourth mode of regulation. The hints about MIP degradation in plants in the literature is scarce, but some suggestions are made for the degradation pathways of AtPIP2;1 and AtPIP2;7. PIP2;1 has been shown to be polyubiquitinated and degraded by the proteasome after overexpression of Rma1, an E3 ubiquitin ligase induced by abiotic stresses (Lee *et al.*, 2009). On the other hand, a lytic vacuole-dependent degradation after dark treatment and PIP2;1 trafficking from the PM to the vacuolar lumen was reported (Kleine-Vehn *et al.*, 2008; Ueda *et al.*, 2016). Recently, Hachez *et al.* (2014) discovered the interaction between TSPO, a multi-stress regulator, and PIP2;7 at the ER and Golgi membranes. They could show that elevated TSPO protein levels resulted in degradation of PIP2;7 by the autophagic pathway. Even though there is limited knowledge about the degradation of aquaporins, there is evidence for the involvement of several degradation pathways for varying environmental conditions and different PIP isoforms.

1.4.4 PIP2-dependent PIP1 regulation

The dependence of PIP1s on PIP2s to reach the plasma membrane and the increased osmotic water permeability in heterotetramers suggest a co-regulation among these two subfamilies (Fetter *et al.*, 2004). Previous studies in our lab (Liu, 2015) revealed a down-regulation of PIP1 proteins in the absence of PIP2;1 in leaves or PIP2;2 in roots (compare **Figure 4**). Quantitative mass spectrometry revealed a down-regulation of all five PIP1 isoforms in the *pip2;1 pip2;2* double mutant (DM) (Zhao, 2013). This observation was further underlined by quantitative ELISA for HA tagged PIP1;1 and PIP1;2 and mean fluorescence measurement for EGFP tagged PIP1s (Liu, 2015). To determine when this down-regulation occurs, qRT-PCR was performed, but no decrease in the *PIP1* transcript levels could be detected in the DM compared to the wild type (Liu, 2015). A His-FLAG tagged ribosomal protein expressed under the control of the *PIP2;2* promoter was introduced into the wild type and DM background to study, whether less *PIP1* mRNAs are bound to the ribosome in the DM in comparison to the wild type. No decrease in ribosome-bound *PIP1* could be detected in the *pip2;1 pip2;2* background compared to the wild type, suggesting that the down-regulation is post-transcriptional and potentially even at the post-translational level (Liu, 2015). PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 might play a role in PIP1 stabilization and their absence leads to ribosome stalls or to degradation of the PIP1 proteins. Since PIP1s might be retained at the ER in the DM, the ER-associated degradation pathway (ERAD) could

be involved. On the other hand, it has been shown that persistent ER stress like protein accumulation leads to the induction of the autophagy and there have been hints for autophagy related degradation of PIP2;7, presenting an alternative pathway for regulation at the protein level (Hachez *et al.*, 2014; Srivastava *et al.*, 2018). Identification of the degradation pathway involved might lead to a better understanding of the PIP2-dependent PIP1 regulation.

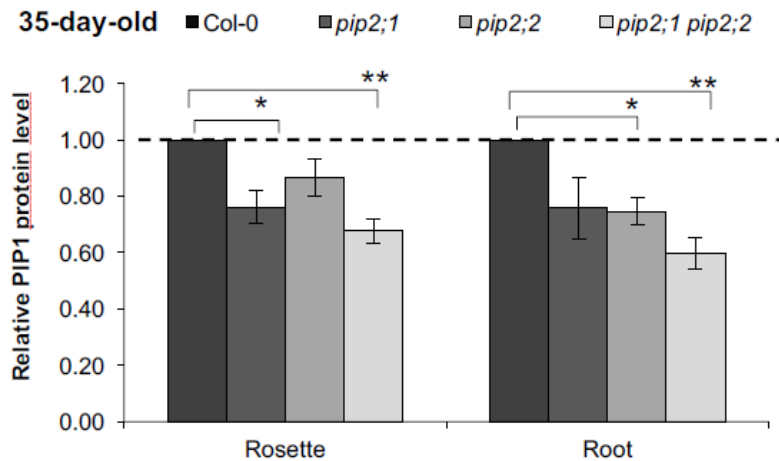


Figure 4: Reduction of the PIP1 protein level in *pip2* mutants. The microsomal fraction of 35-day-old plants was isolated and the PIP1 protein level was determined by an ELISA assay using an anti-PIP1 antibody (detecting all five PIP1 isoforms). Three biological replicates were performed and the standard deviation and significant differences between the lines are shown. Significance was determined by a two-tailed one-sample Student's *t*-test ($p \leq 0.05$: *, $p \leq 0.01$: **; Liu, 2015).

1.5 Protein degradation pathways

The fate of PIP1s in the absence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 is yet unknown. In the following two putative degradation pathways will be described that could be involved in the PIP2-dependent PIP1 protein down-regulation (compare **Figure 5**).

1.5.1 ER-associated degradation (ERAD)

Secretory and membrane proteins enter the secretory pathway at the ER, where glycosylation and folding cycles involving ER chaperon-like CNX (calnexin)/CRT (calreticulin) take place (Hammond *et al.*, 1994; Aebi, 2013). Folding sensors detect unfolded or misfolded proteins and retain them at the ER (Buck *et al.*, 2007; D'Alessio *et al.*, 2010). Htm1 (homologous to mannosidase 1) modifies glycans and thereby stops the folding cycle and marks the misfolded protein for degradation (Clerc *et al.*, 2009).

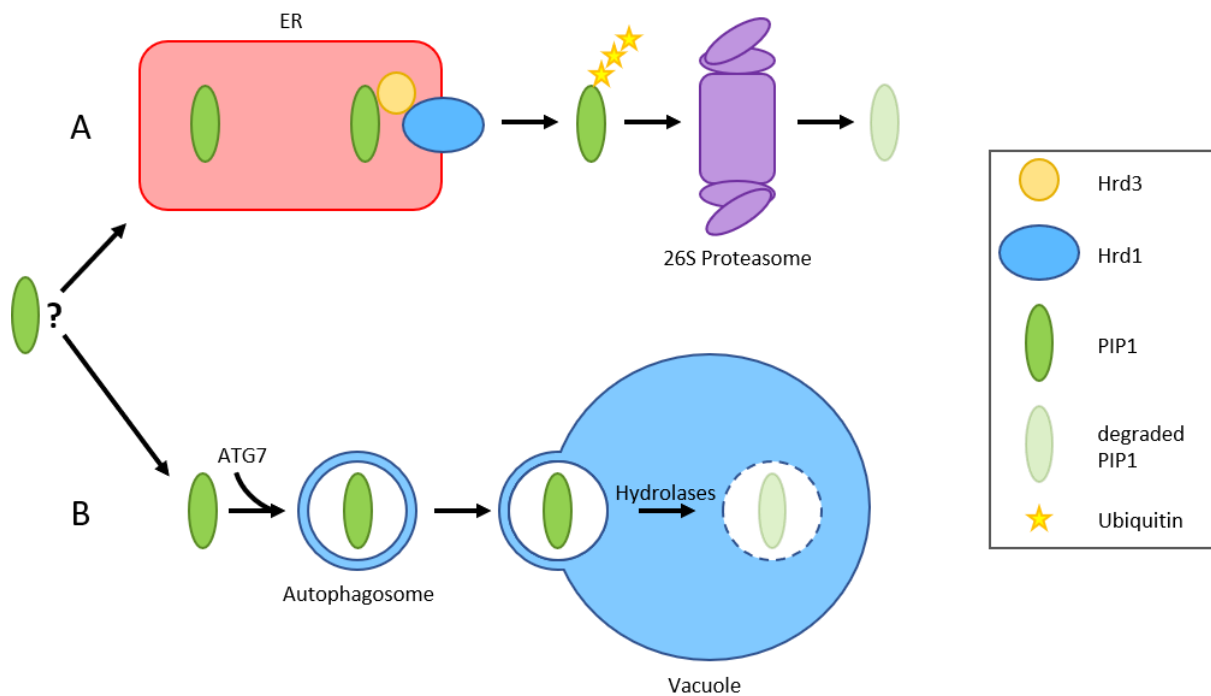


Figure 5: Putative degradation pathways for PIP1s. (A) An accumulation of proteins at the ER leads to stress and therefore the activation of the ER associated degradation pathway. The target protein is recruited by Hrd3 and delivered to Hrd1, which is responsible of translocation into the cytosol and ubiquitination. The ubiquitinated protein is then targeted by the 26S proteasome and degraded. (B) Autophagy is a process to recycle cytosolic cell components and is activated by ATG7, an E1-like enzyme. An autophagosome is developed around the cargo, which then fuses with the vacuole for degradation.

The recognition of ERAD targets involves two proteins: (1) Hrd3 (HMG-CoA reductase degradation 3), which binds to exposed hydrophobic amino acid residues and (2) Yos9 (osteosarcoma 9), decoding the N-glycan ERAD signal (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009). In addition, they transport the ERAD substrates to the membrane-anchored ERAD complex, including a membrane protein with a RING finger-type ubiquitin ligase (E3) activity. Target proteins can be divided into three types, depending on the location of the folding lesion (Vashist and Ng, 2004; Carvalho *et al.*, 2010). The Hrd1 (HMG-CoA reductase degradation 1) complex ubiquitinates proteins with lesions in the ER luminal area (ERAD_L) and the transmembrane segment (ERAD_M), whereas Doa10 (Degradation of alpha 2) is responsible for substrates with lesions in the cytosolic domain (ERAD_C). The catalytic domains of the E3s are on the cytosolic surface of the ER membrane and therefore a retrotranslocation of the client is needed for ubiquitination. Several proteins have been suggested as putative retrotranslocons and the E3 ligase Hrd1 itself was among them (Pilon *et al.*, 1997; Ye *et al.*, 2004; Carvalho *et al.*, 2010; Schoebel *et al.*, 2017). The ubiquitinated targets are subsequently extracted from the ER

lumen and delivered to the cytosolic 26S proteasome for degradation (Wolf and Stolz, 2012). A schematic of this degradation pathway can be seen in **Figure 5 A**.

Most of the proteins involved in ERAD have already been identified in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Rancour *et al.*, 2002; Jin *et al.*, 2007, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2011; Hüttner *et al.*, 2012). It has been shown that the degradation of known ERAD substrates was inhibited in *hrd3a* mutants (Liu *et al.*, 2011; Su *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, an *HRD3A* insertion line can be used to study the involvement of ERAD in the PIP2-dependent degradation of PIP1s.

1.5.2 Autophagy related degradation

Autophagy is a degradation process in which cytoplasmic cell contents are recycled and different types have been described: microautophagy, macroautophagy, chaperone-mediated autophagy and organelle-specific autophagy. The molecular mechanisms of macroautophagy (from now on only called autophagy) are summarized below (compare **Figure 5 B**).

During autophagy, an autophagosome forms around the cargo, which is then transported to the vacuole for degradation. Two ubiquitin-like conjugation systems are required for autophagy, involving two ubiquitin-like proteins: ATG8 (autophagy-related protein 8) and ATG12. Both are activated by ATG7, an E1-like enzyme (Mizushima *et al.*, 1998; Ichimura *et al.*, 2000) and localized to the PAS (preautophagosomal structure) during autophagosome formation, driving membrane expansion and vesicle completion. ATG9 is proposed to deliver the lipids required for this process (Suzuki *et al.*, 2001).

In contrast to the yeast system with only one isoform for each ATG, there are often whole families known in *A. thaliana*, for example ATG8 with nine isoforms (Hanaoka, 2002; Sláviková *et al.*, 2005; Chung, Phillips and Vierstra, 2010; Shin *et al.*, 2014). ATG7 is involved in both conjugation systems and there is only one gene for it in the *A. th.* genome. Mutation of the *ATG7* gene results in autophagy deficiency, supplying an ideal tool to study this degradation pathway (Doelling *et al.*, 2002).

1.6 Aims of this work

The goal of this work was to get a deeper insight into the PIP2-dependent down-regulation of PIP1 by answering the following questions: (1) When is the interaction taking place? (2) When is the degradation of PIP1 in the absence of PIP2s happening? (3) Which pathway is involved in the degradation of PIP1s?

First of all, Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) was used to determine when interaction between different PIP isoforms, especially PIP1s with PIP2s takes place. This approach has the advantage to monitor the cellular localization and the interaction of the proteins of interest at the same time.

In the second part of this thesis the putative stabilizing effect of PIP2 on PIP1 isoforms was analyzed. Mutation of PIP2s' diacidic motif should retain them at the ER and thus make them available for interaction with PIP1s, but not for aiding in trafficking. Therefore, it would be possible to determine whether the interaction as such is sufficient to protect PIP1s from degradation.

A third line of investigation was the specificity of this co-regulation. PIP2;3 and PIP2;7 were expressed under the regulatory elements of *PIP2;2* in the *pip2;1 pip2;2* mutant to analyze whether they can prevent the down-regulation of PIP1s. It can be distinguished, if the specificity depends on the amino acid sequence or the expression pattern.

The fourth topic concerned the degradation mechanism and therefore three approaches were used: (1) previously published and available proteomics data were checked for the influence of degradation inhibitors on PIP protein levels, (2) protoplasts were treated with a proteasome inhibitor and the PIP1;1 level was monitored, and (3) mutants of two different degradation pathways were crossed with *pip2;1 pip2;2* to study the influence on the PIP1 protein level.

The final experiment addressed the question of when the degradation is taking place. PIP1s were tagged with a photoconvertible tag and introduced into the wild type and DM background. Corrected fluorescence recovery after photoconversion (cFRAPc) allows the calculation of the exocytosis rate of the tagged protein and therefore enables to determine, if PIP1s are first traveling to the PM and then degraded or removed before they even reach the plasma membrane.

2 Results

2.1 Where does the interaction between PIPs take place?

It has been shown that some PIP1s need the presence of PIP2s to efficiently reach the plasma membrane which gave rise to the idea that interaction might play a role in the aided trafficking (Zelazny *et al.*, 2007; Sorieul *et al.*, 2011). The transient expression vector pBiFC-2in1-NN generated by Grefen and Blatt (2012) links two proteins of interest with one half of a split enhanced yellow fluorescence protein (EYFP) each. If interaction between the proteins takes place, the EYFP halves will be in close proximity and the fluorescence ability is regained. Moreover, a soluble monomeric red fluorescence protein (mRFP1) is included as a transformation control, to distinguish between unsuccessful transformation and lack of interaction in the absence of a YFP signal. This approach was used to uncover new AtPIP interaction pairs and to determine whether the interaction between the PIPs takes place at the ER or the PM. To prevent interference of endogenous PIPs the *pip1;1 pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2* quadruple mutant was used for protoplast isolation and transient transformation.

PIP1;1 was chosen to perform localization and interaction studies with other PIP members. PIP1;2 can interact with PIP1;1 when co-expressed in protoplasts (**Figure 6A**), but they are mainly present at the ER and cannot reach the PM. In contrast to that, combination of PIP1;1 with PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 (**Figure 6B** and **C**, respectively) leads to correct trafficking and a clear signal at the plasma membrane. In addition to that, weak interaction can be detected within the cell, most likely the ER, showing that heteromerization can also take place before routing to the PM. AHA1 is a H⁺-ATPase localized to the plasma membrane and was used as a negative control in this experimental setup. As expected, the combination of PIP1;1 and AHA1 (**Figure 6D**) leads to no interaction at the PM. A weak signal can be detected in other regions of the protoplast. This can be explained by the high abundance of the transiently expressed proteins which can lead to random collisions triggering the YFP signal without true physical interaction (Kodama and Hu, 2012). Taken together, this experiment presents new AtPIP interaction pairs which have not been shown in the literature so far. Additionally, the signal at the ER supports the notion that PIP2s guide PIP1s to the plasma membrane by physical interaction.

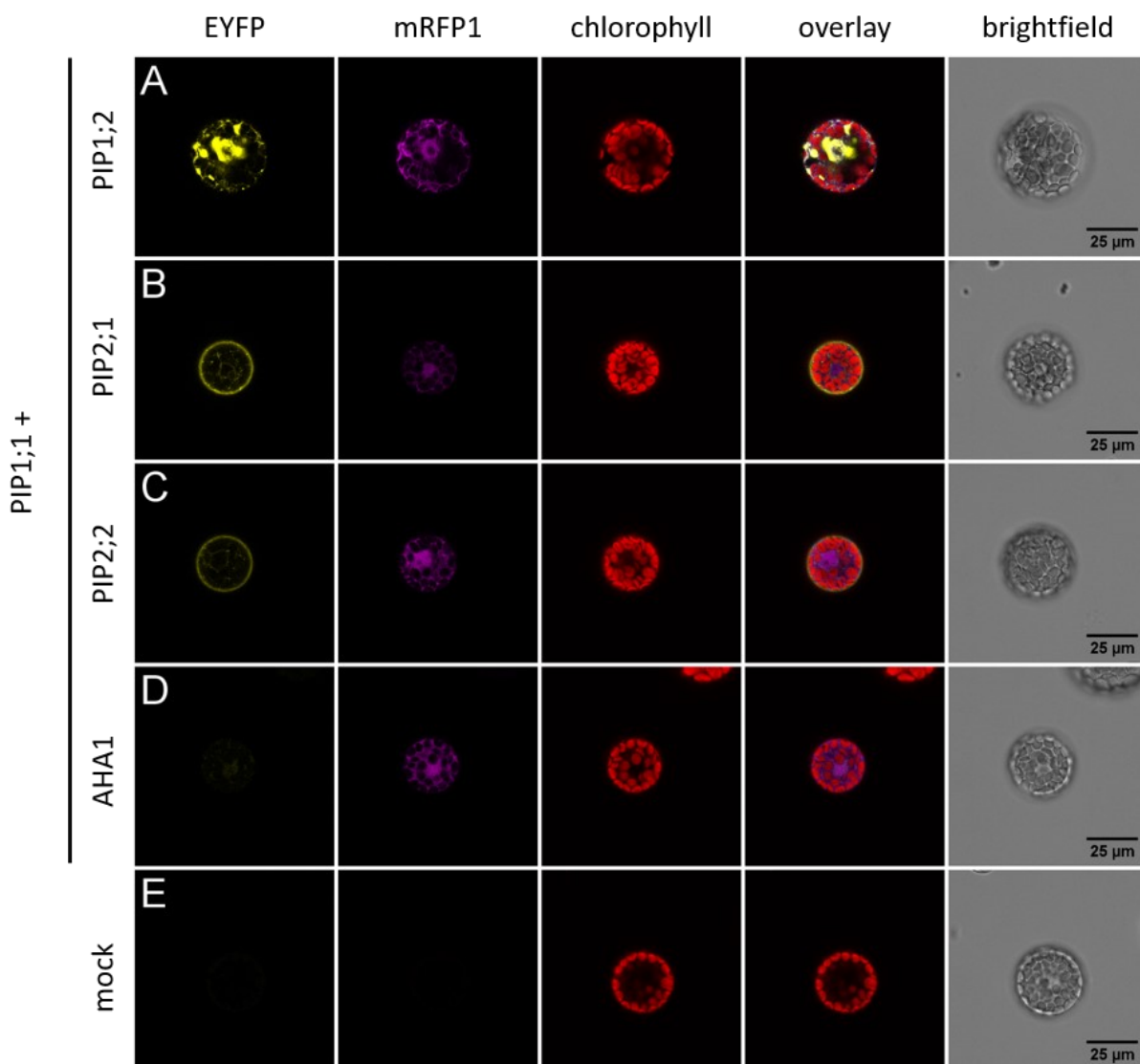


Figure 6: Interaction of PIP1;1 and localization of different PIP combinations in protoplasts. Representative confocal images of pBiFC-2in1-NN destination vectors (Grefen and Blatt, 2012) transiently expressed in *A. thaliana* mesophyll protoplasts of the *pip1;1 pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2* quadruple mutant harboring the indicated combination of PIP or control coding sequences. The vector combines the split-EYFP system (tagging both proteins of interest with one half of EYFP) with a monomeric soluble red fluorescence protein (mRFP1) as a transformation control. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 524 nm/520-550 nm (YFP), 590 nm/600-630 nm (RFP) and 514 nm/650-750 nm (detection of autofluorescence of chlorophyll). EYFPⁿ-PIP1;1 was combined with (A) EYFP^c-PIP1;2, (B) EYFP^c-PIP2;1, (C) EYFP^c-PIP2;2 and (D) EYFP^c-AHA1. (E) Protoplasts transformed with a mock solution (buffer without DNA) were used as a negative control. Four biological replicates were performed.

2.2 Is the interaction with PIP2s sufficient to protect PIP1s from degradation?

It has been shown in previous studies (Da Ines, 2008; Zhao, 2013; Liu, 2015; Jhala, personal communication, 2020) that the absence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 leads to a reduction in the total PIP1 protein level, suggesting a co-regulation of these proteins (compare **Supplemental Figure 1**). Since neither the transcription nor the translation of PIP1s was affected, the regulation had to take place at the post-translational level.

Chapter 2.1 revealed a role of physical interaction between PIP1s and PIP2s to ensure correct trafficking to the plasma membrane, whereas the absence of PIP2s leads to a retention of PIP1s at the ER (**Chapter 2.1**; Zelazny *et al.*, 2007; Sorieul *et al.*, 2011). The aim of the next experiment was concerning the question, if interaction with PIP2s is sufficient to protect PIP1s from degradation or if trafficking to the PM is needed in addition. Zelazny *et al.* (2009) revealed that a diacidic motif (DVE) at the N-terminus of ZmPIP2;1 is responsible for PIP2's ability to exit the ER. A mutation of this motif (D4A/E6A) leads to a partial retention at the ER, providing a tool to study the dependence of PIP1 protection on trafficking.

2.2.1 Expression and localization of BFP-PIP2 EGFP-PIP1

A diacidic motif as described by Zelazny *et al.* can be found at the N-terminus of AtPIP2;1, AtPIP2;2 and AtPIP2;3 in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Since PIP2;3 is expressed at low levels, only PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 were used to study the effect of a mutated diacidic motif of PIP2s on PIP1 proteins. The mutation should lead to a partial retention of PIP2 proteins at the ER, preventing them from guiding PIP1 proteins to the PM, but still being available for interaction. In this experiment the question is addressed, if heteromerization between PIP1s and PIP2s at the ER is sufficient to prevent PIP1 degradation. Visualization of the proteins of interest was achieved by N-terminally tagging them with different fluorescence tags (mTagBFP for PIP2 and EGFP for PIP1). To exclude the influence of endogenous PIP isoforms, multiple mutant lines were used for transformation: *pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2 (EGFP-PIP1;1)* and *pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2 (EGFP-PIP1;2)* to analyze the influence on PIP1;1 and PIP1;2, respectively. Either PIP2;1 or PIP2;2 were added in the mutated (D4A/E6A) or wild-type (WT) modification, resulting in eight different combinations with two independent lines each (compare **Table 1** and EGFP/BFP lines in **Table 4**).

Table 1: PIP1 – PIP2 combinations

| PIP2 | PIP1 | resulting line |
|----------------|--------|---|
| PIP2;1 | PIP1;1 | <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;1, BFP-PIP2;1) |
| PIP2;1 | PIP1;2 | <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2, BFP-PIP2;1) |
| PIP2;1 D4A/E6A | PIP1;1 | <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;1, BFP-PIP2;1 D4A/E6A) |
| PIP2;1 D4A/E6A | PIP1;2 | <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2, BFP-PIP2;1 D4A/E6A) |
| PIP2;2 | PIP1;1 | <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;1, BFP-PIP2;2) |
| PIP2;2 | PIP1;2 | <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2, BFP-PIP2;2) |
| PIP2;2 D4A/E6A | PIP1;1 | <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;1, BFP-PIP2;2 D4A/E6A) |
| PIP2;2 D4A/E6A | PIP1;2 | <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2, BFP-PIP2;2 D4A/E6A) |

Five-day-old roots were examined at the beginning of the root hair zone with the PIP1;1 – PIP2;1 and PIP1;2 – PIP2;1 combinations. PIP2;1 is higher expressed in the endodermis and the pericycle, whereas both PIP1 isoforms are evenly distributed among all root layers (compare **Figure 7 A** and **Figure 8 A**). The subcellular localization of the PIP proteins is in the periphery of the cells, consistent with their expected position at the PM (compare **Figure 7 B** and **Figure 8 B**). Mutation of PIP2;1's diacidic motif should result in a partial retention at the ER. No difference in the localization between the wild-type (WT) and the mutated versions (D4A/E6A) of PIP2;1 can be detected, leading to the assumption that the mutation of the diacidic motif does not play a role in trafficking to the PM. The same is true for the PIP1;1 – PIP2;2 and PIP1;2 – PIP2;2 combinations (**Supplemental Figure 2** and **Supplemental Figure 3**).

2.2.2 Influence of the mutated PIP2 diacidic motif on the localization of PIP1s and PIP2s and PIP1 protein stability

Distinguishing the plasma membrane from the ER can be difficult in plant cells, because the vacuole takes up most of the space within the cell. Sorieul *et al.* (2011) applied a method to distinguish between PM and intracellular localized PIPs by using FRAP. This tool was used in the following experiment to determine localization differences between WT and mutant lines.

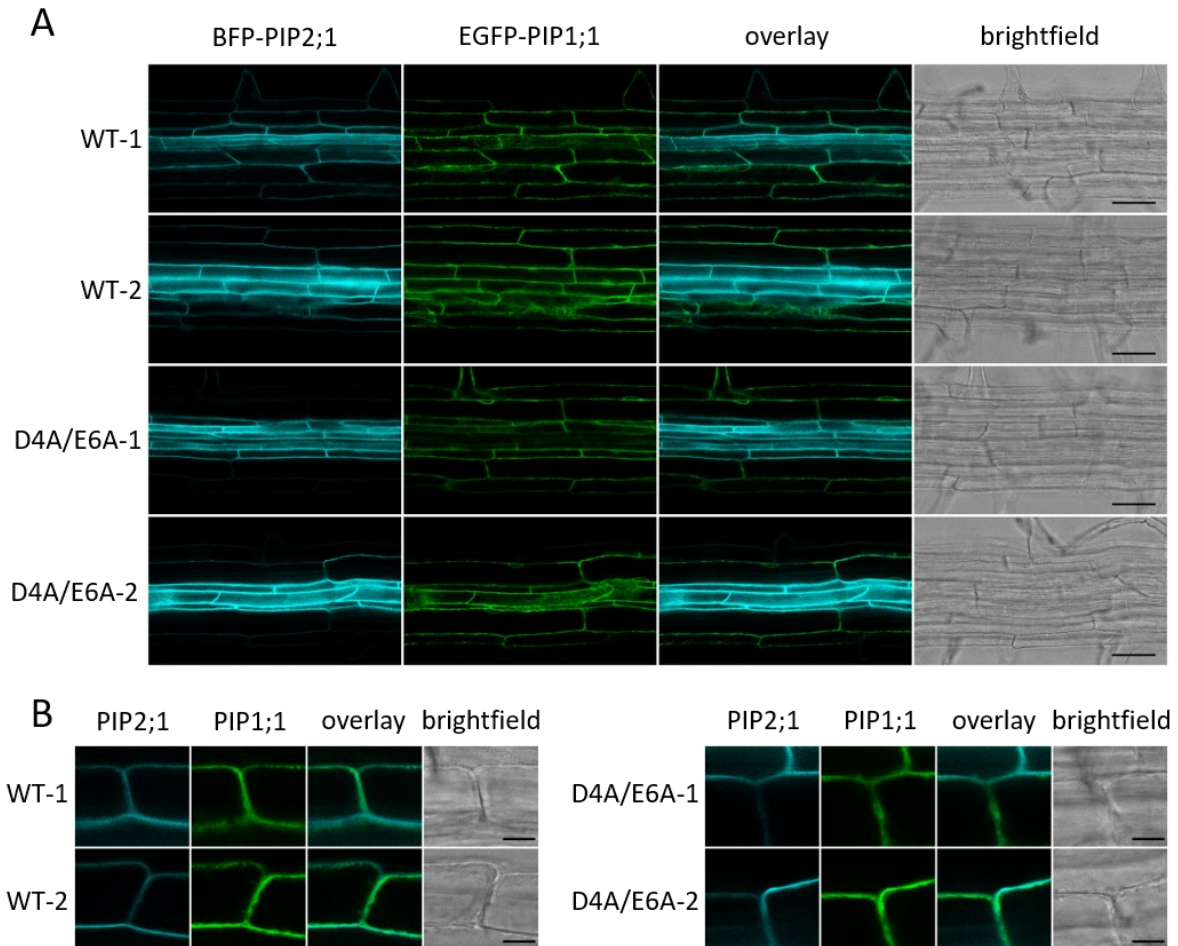


Figure 7: Diacidic mutant of BFP-PIP2;1 in the EGFP-PIP1;1 line. (A) Cross-sections of 5-day-old *A. thaliana* roots expressing BFP-PIP2;1 and EGFP-PIP1;1 were used to analyze the effect of a mutated diacidic motif (D4A/E6A) on the localization of both isoforms. All lines are stable single insertion lines and two independent lines (-1/ -2) were used to exclude the influence of the insertion site. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 405 nm/440-480 nm (BFP) and 488 nm/500-550 nm (EGFP). A four times higher excitation intensity was applied for WT-1 compared to the other roots to image the low signal in this line. Two biological replicates were performed. Scale bars, 50 μ m. (B) Blow ups of (A) were performed to visualize subcellular localization. Scale bars, 10 μ m.

The lateral movement of proteins localized to the PM can differ between proteins. It has been shown by FRAP experiments that the recovery of NIP5;1 and PIPs attached to a fluorescence marker is slow (Takano *et al.*, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2011; Sorieul *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, one can assume that after bleaching a tangential optical section of a cell, the signal recovery is achieved by exocytosis of proteins with an unbleached fluorescence tag. This in turn means that all the proteins migrating into the bleached region of interest (ROI) were intracellular and not in the plasma membrane. With these prerequisites the relative amount of intracellular and PM localized proteins can be estimated.

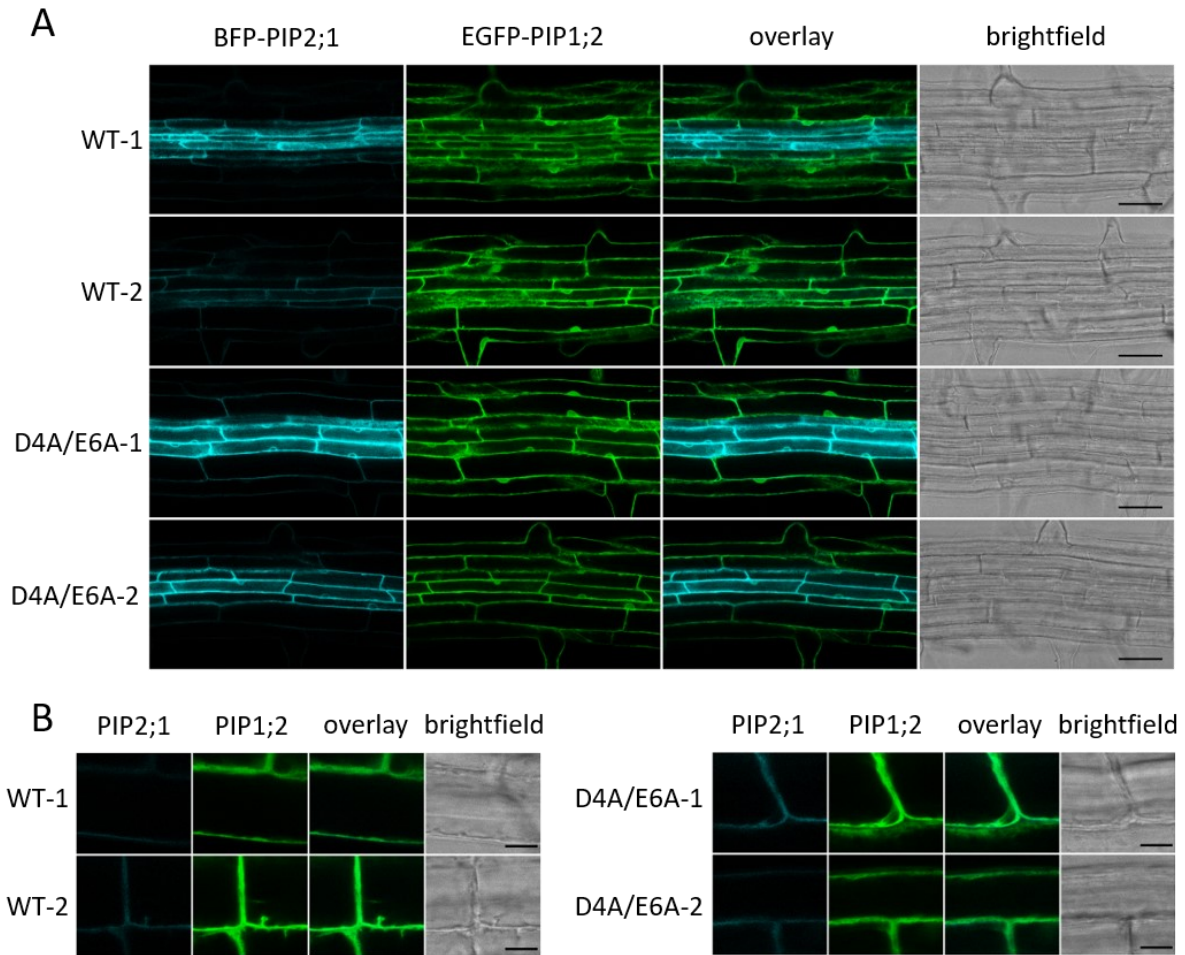


Figure 8: Diacidic mutant of BFP-PIP2;1 in the EGFP-PIP1;2 line. (A) Cross-sections of five-day-old *A. thaliana* roots expressing BFP-PIP2;1 and EGFP-PIP1;2 were used to analyze the effect of a mutated diacidic motif (D4A/E6A) on the localization of both isoforms. All lines are stable single insertion lines and two independent lines (-1/-2) were used to exclude the influence of the insertion site. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 405 nm/440-480 nm (BFP) and 488 nm/500-550 nm (EGFP). Two biological replicates were performed. Scale bars, 50 μ m. (B) Blow ups of (A) were performed to visualize subcellular localization. Scale bars, 10 μ m.

Five-day-old roots expressing wild-type PIP2;1 or the mutant modification were used for FRAP experiments to determine the subcellular localization of the PIP proteins (compare **Figure 9 A** and **B** for the PIP1;1 line and **Figure 10 A** and **B** for the PIP1;2 line). The root cells were imaged before bleaching (t_b), immediately after bleaching (t_a) and 5 min after bleaching (t_s) to monitor the bleaching and recovery effects. For PIP2;1 a large signal reduction could be observed after bleaching in the region of interest (ROI, yellow boxes) and after 5 min signal recovery was detected.

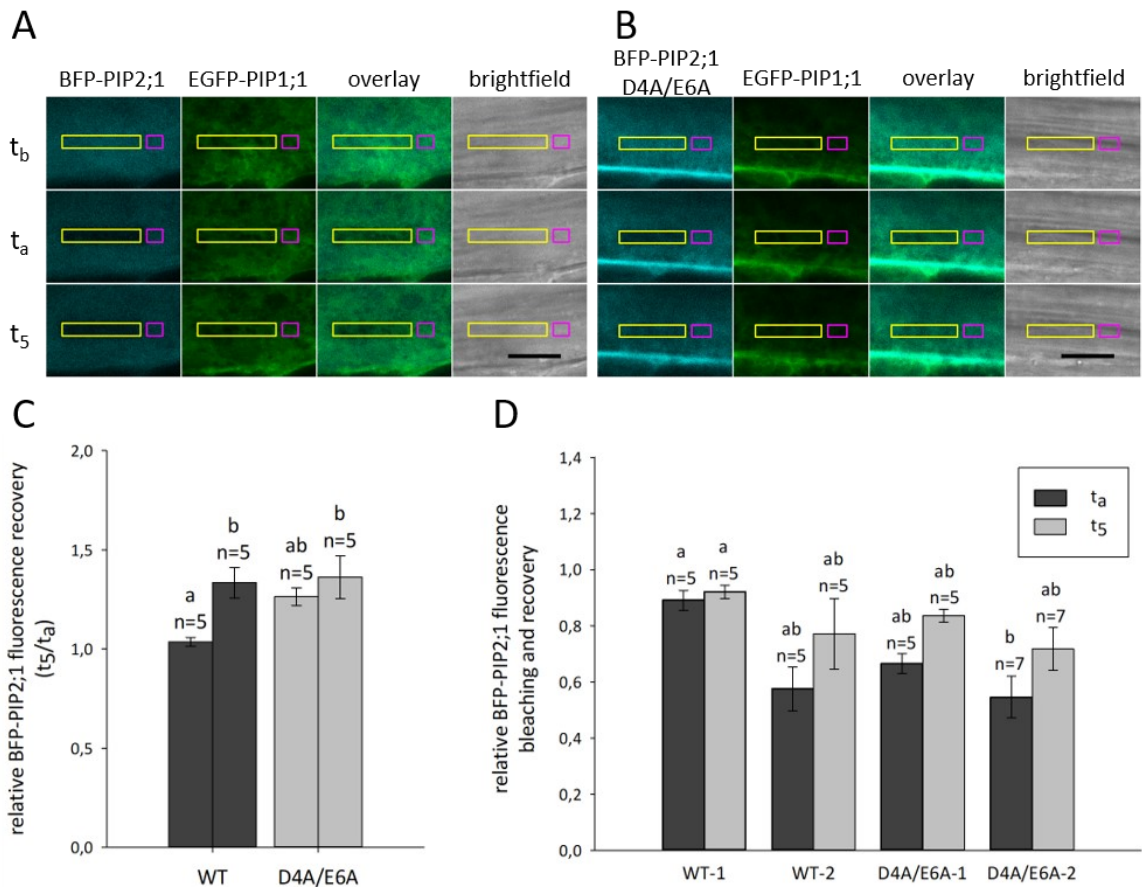


Figure 9: FRAP experiments to estimate the intracellular labelling of BFP-PIP2;1. (A, B) Tangential optical sections of 5-day-old *A. thaliana* root cells expressing EGFP-PIP1;1 and WT or D4A/E6A BFP-PIP2;1 constructs were imaged before (t_b), immediately after (t_a) and 5 min after photobleaching (t_5) the region of interest (ROI, shown by yellow boxes). In addition, a nonbleached region (NBR, shown by magenta boxes) was recorded at all time points to use as a reference to measure photobleaching independent fluorescence intensity changes. All lines are stable single insertion lines and two independent lines (-1/-2, only one displayed as representative) were used to exclude the influence of the insertion site. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 405 nm/440-480 nm (BFP) and 488 nm/500-550 nm (EGFP). Scale bars, 10 μ m. (C) Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching of ROI corresponds to intracellular labeled BFP-PIP2;1 trafficking into the ROI. The ratio of t_5 and t_a (t_5/t_a) gives an estimate of relative intracellular labelling, where "1" means no recovery and thus no intracellular labelling and higher values equal higher amounts of intracellular labelling. Standard error values, the number of independent cells studied (n) and significant differences between the lines are shown. Significance ($P < 0.05$) was determined by Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks with the Dunn's method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure. (D) The success of the bleaching experiment can be judged by calculating the relative fluorescence bleaching (t_a) and recovery (t_5) with t_b as the reference. By displaying these values, one can see, if a high reduction of fluorescence intensity is achieved after photobleaching, which is an essential factor to determine usability. Standard error values, the number of independent cells studied (n) and significant differences between the lines are shown. Significance ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance with the Holm-Sidak method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure.

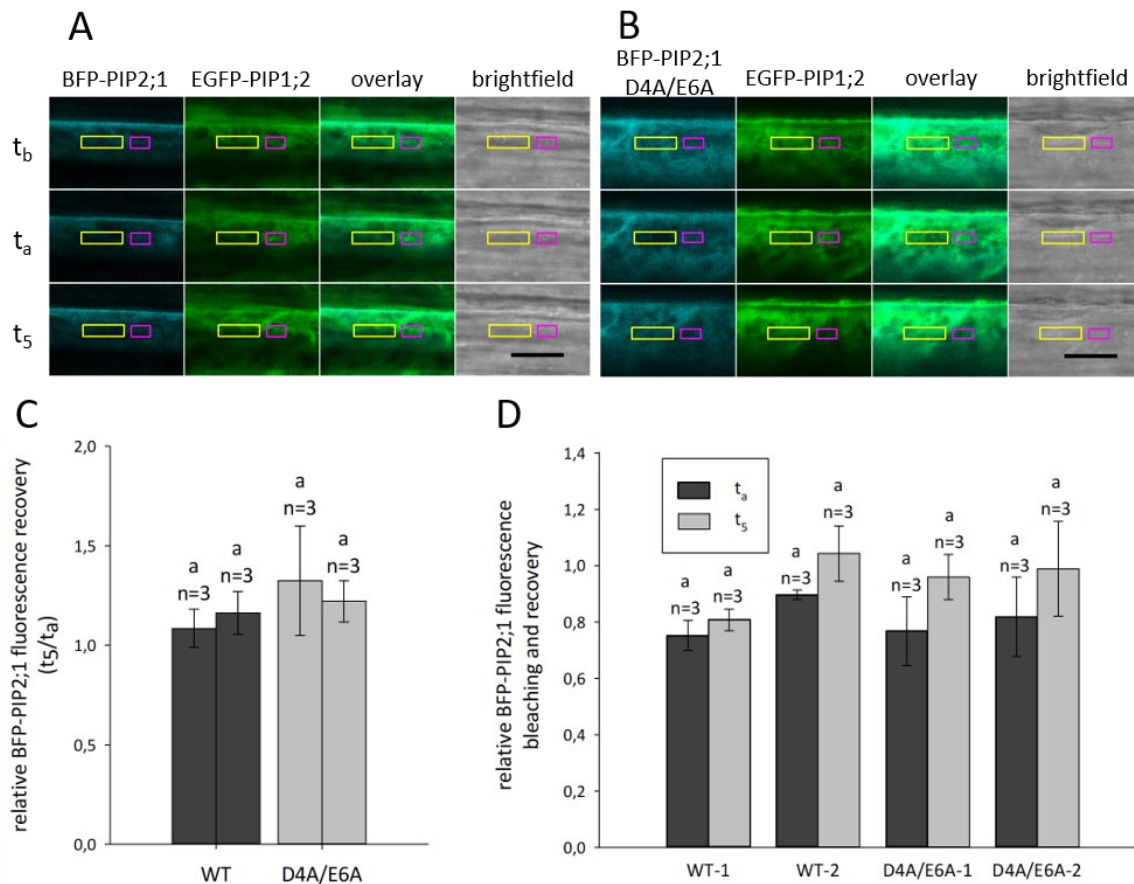


Figure 10: FRAP experiments to estimate the intracellular labelling of BFP-PIP2;1. (A, B) Tangential optical sections of five-day-old *A. thaliana* root cells expressing EGFP-PIP1;2 and WT or D4A/E6A BFP-PIP2;1 constructs were imaged before (t_b), immediately after (t_a) and 5 min after photobleaching (t_5) the region of interest (ROI, shown by yellow boxes). In addition, a nonbleached region (NBR, shown by magenta boxes) was recorded at all time points to use as a reference to measure photobleaching independent fluorescence intensity changes. All lines are stable single insertion lines and two independent lines (-1/-2, only one displayed as representative) were used to exclude the influence of the insertion site. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 405 nm/440-480 nm (BFP) and 488 nm/500-550 nm (EGFP). Scale bars, 10 μ m. (C) Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching of ROI corresponds to intracellular labeled BFP-PIP2;1 trafficking into the ROI. The ratio of t_5 and t_a (t_5/t_a) gives an estimate of relative intracellular labelling, where “1” means no recovery and thus no intracellular labelling and higher values equal higher amounts of intracellular labelling. Standard error values, the number of independent cells studied (n) and the lack of significant differences between the lines are shown. No statistically significant difference ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance. (D) The success of the bleaching experiment can be judged by calculating the relative fluorescence bleaching (t_a) and recovery (t_5) with t_b as the reference. By displaying these values one can see, if a high reduction of fluorescence intensity is achieved after photobleaching, which is an essential factor to determine usability. Standard error values, the number of independent cells studied (n) and the lack of significant differences between the lines are shown. No statistically significant difference ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance.

Sorieul et al. (2011) used the ratio of the bleached to the nonbleached region (ROI/NBR) at the 5 min timepoint to estimate the amount of intracellularly localized proteins. In the present case, data processing according to Sorieul *et al.* was not possible, because the bleaching did

not result in a complete extinction of the fluorescence signal. Therefore, the earlier timepoint t_a had to be taken into consideration to calculate how much the signal had increased within 5 min. Moreover, the imaging process already led to a weak bleaching. To solve this problem, NBR (**Figure 9** and **Figure 10**, magenta boxes) was used as a reference to calculate a corrected mean fluorescence value of the ROI. The relative amount of intracellular localized PIP2;1 in the different lines was compared by the ratio of t_5/t_a , where a higher value equals a higher amount. The results for the PIP1;1 – PIP2;1 combination show that the difference between the independent lines is significant whereas no differences between the wild-type and mutant can be observed (**Figure 9 C**). In addition, the calculated ratio in the EGFP-PIP1;2 lines is similar for the wild-type and mutated PIP2;1, questioning the influence of the diacidic motif on PIP2;1's trafficking (**Figure 10 C**).

A low bleaching efficiency would affect the ratio calculated in **Figure 9** and **Figure 10 C**, because for a signal which is not decreased, no recovery would be expected. In **Figure 9** and **Figure 10 D** t_a and t_5 were set in relation to t_b , to visualize the bleaching and recovery in the different lines. These experiments highlight, that almost no signal reduction could be detected in the first independent PIP2;1 WT line in the PIP1;1 – PIP2;1 combination (WT-1; **Figure 9 D**), proving that it should be excluded from the analysis. The other lines exhibited clear bleaching and recovery patterns and no significant difference between them could be detected.

The same FRAP experiment was performed for the PIP1 - PIP2;2 combinations, with similar results displayed in **Supplemental Figure 4** and **Supplemental Figure 5**. In summary, no significant difference was observed between the WT and mutated diacidic motif, showing that the mutation had no influence on the localization of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2.

The goal of this experiment was to determine whether the degradation of PIP1s can be prevented by the interaction with PIP2s, although less trafficking of the PIP1s to the plasma membrane is taking place. The mutation of the diacidic ER export motif of PIP2s was supposed to result in a changed routing pattern, but no difference to the WT situation was detected. Therefore, no new conclusions can be drawn on the degradation of PIP1.

To further address this question, it might help to adjust the FRAP conditions to achieve complete bleaching. Moreover, a change in the fluorescence tags might be considered, because mTagBFP is very photosensitive and bleaching already occurs during the imaging process. Fluorescence tags with a good balance between photostability and the ability to be efficiently bleached would be the best choice.

2.3 Can PIP2;3 or PIP2;7 prevent degradation of PIP1s in the absence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2?

As described before, there is a decrease of the PIP1 protein level in the absence of PIP2;2 (compare **1.4.4**). To study the PIP2-specific down-regulation two PIP2 isoforms were chosen, PIP2;3 and PIP2;7 with the highest and lowest similarities to PIP2;2, respectively (compare **Supplemental Figure 6**). Constructs were designed with the regulatory regions of *PIP2;2* and the coding sequence of *PIP2;3* or *PIP2;7* and transformed into the *pip2;2* mutant. The generated hybrid lines were used to isolate microsomal fractions and to determine the PIP protein levels by an ELISA-based quantification. The regulatory domains of PIP2;2 ensure similar expression patterns and allow the focus on the different amino acid sequences between the three isoforms. This experimental setup can help to determine if the PIP2;1/PIP2;2-specific PIP1 regulation is dependent on a certain expression pattern and/or on characteristics in the amino acid sequence.

2.3.1 PIP2;3

PIP2;3 shows the highest similarity to PIP2;2 (96.8 % identity, compare **Supplemental Figure 6**), but its expression level is extremely low (Jang *et al.*, 2004; Alexandersson *et al.*, 2005; Monneuse *et al.*, 2011). This might be the reason why PIP2;3 is not able to compensate the loss of PIP2;2 and prevent PIP1s from degradation. To evaluate this theory, the capability of the *PIP2;2_{pro}:PIP2;3:tPIP2;2* hybrid construct to rescue the *pip2;2* mutant phenotype was analyzed. The microsomal membrane fraction of roots of 14-day-old plants were isolated and the protein levels were quantified by ELISA. Two different primary antibodies were used: anti-PIP1, to measure the combined PIP1 protein level and anti-PIP2;1/PIP2;3/PIP2;3, which can detect those three PIP2 isoforms. Two independent single insertion lines were tested and wild type, *pip2;1* and *pip2;1 pip2;2* lines were included as controls. If PIP2;3 could complement the loss of PIP2;2 in the *pip2;1 pip2;2* mutant, the PIP1 protein level in the hybrid lines should be comparable to the *pip2;1* single mutant.

The PIP1 protein level in the *pip2;1 pip2;2* double mutant is significantly reduced compared to the wild type, whereas the *pip2;1* value lies as expected in between (compare **Figure 11 A**). Both independent hybrid lines exhibit increased PIP1 levels, comparable to the *pip2;1* single mutant, indicating that the *PIP2;2_{pro}:PIP2;3:tPIP2;2* hybrid construct can complement the loss

of PIP2;2. To ensure that the increased PIP1 level can be traced back to the higher abundance of PIP2;3, the PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 protein level was analyzed (**Figure 11 B**). The same tendencies in the three control lines could be observed for the PIP2 level, with the highest amount in the wild type and the lowest in the double mutant. The hybrid lines exhibit an elevated amount of PIP2 proteins compared to *pip2;1 pip2;2*, confirming that the increased PIP1 protein level can be linked to the modified expression of PIP2;3.

Taken together, these data confirm that PIP2;3 can protect PIP1 proteins from degradation, if expressed at the same level and with the same expression pattern as PIP2;2.

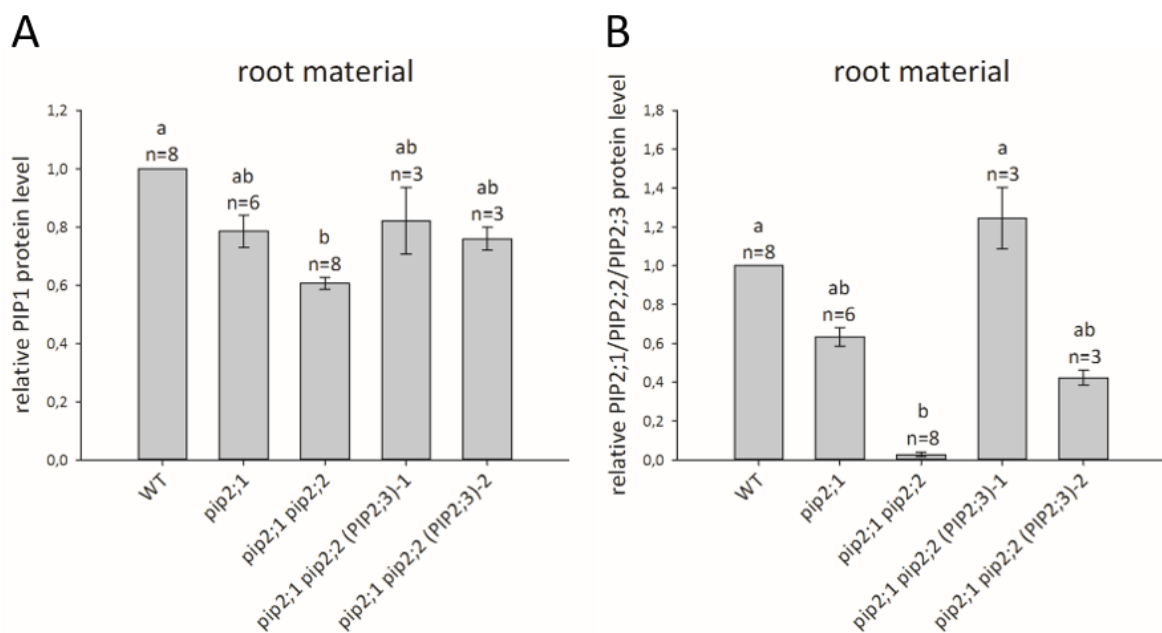


Figure 11: Complementation of the *pip2;2* mutant with PIP2;3. Microsomal fractions of the wild type line and *pip2* mutants with or without complementation with PIP2;3 were isolated from roots of 14-day-old plants grown on vertical ½ MS plates. An ELISA-based quantification using anti-PIP1 antiserum or anti-PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 antiserum was performed to determine the PIP1 and PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 protein levels, respectively. The relative results are displayed with the wild type line as the reference. (A) PIP1 protein levels in roots. (B) PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 protein levels in roots. Standard error values, the number of independent microsomal fractions studied (n) and significant differences between the lines are shown. Significance ($P < 0.05$) was determined by Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks with the Dunn's method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure.

2.3.2 PIP2;7

In contrast to PIP2;2, which is highly abundant in the roots, PIP2;7 is equally present both in leaves and roots, but at a lower total level (Monneuse *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, it has the highest amino acid deviation from PIP2;2 (77.4 % identity, compare **Supplemental Figure 6**). By using the hybrid construct *PIP2;2_{pro}:PIP2;7:tPIP2;2*, PIP2;7's expression pattern should equal PIP2;2's pattern and allow the study of the PIP2 sequence specificity on the PIP1 regulation. The experiment was performed as described in **2.3.1** for PIP2;3. If PIP2;7 could complement the loss of PIP2;2 in the *pip2;1 pip2;2* mutant, the PIP1 protein level in the hybrid lines should be comparable to the *pip2;1* single mutant.

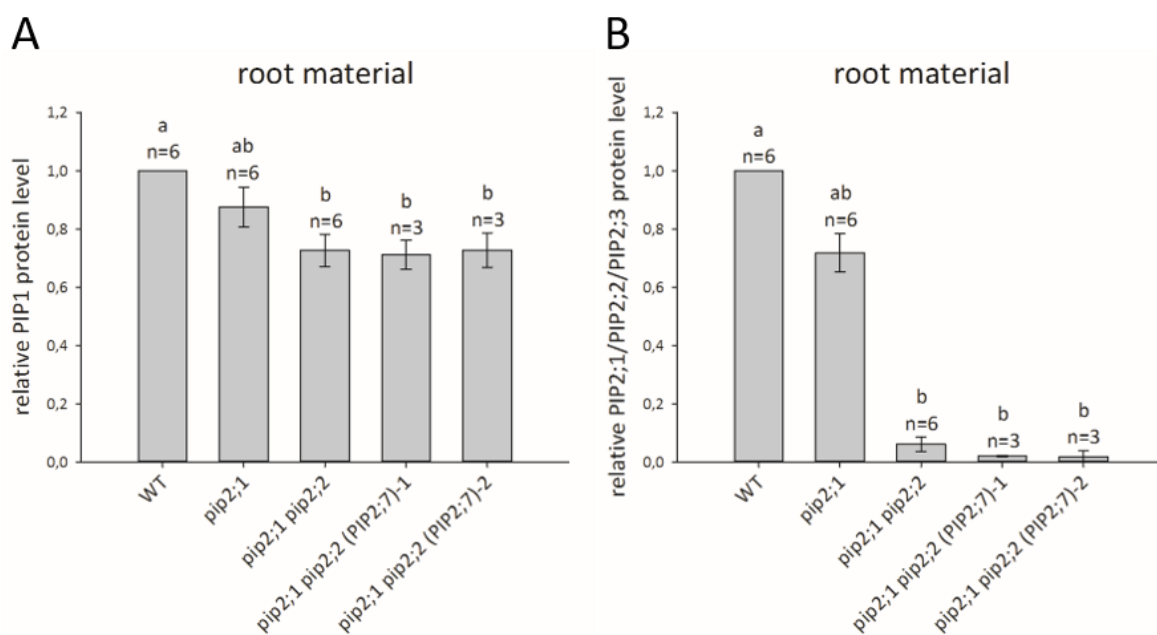


Figure 12: Complementation of the *pip2;2* mutant with PIP2;7. Microsomal fractions of the wild type line and *pip2* mutants with or without complementation with PIP2;7 were isolated from roots of 14-day-old plants grown on vertical $\frac{1}{2}$ MS plates. An ELISA-based quantification using anti-PIP1 antiserum or anti-PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 antiserum was performed to determine the PIP1 and PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 protein levels, respectively. The relative results are displayed with the wild type line as the reference. (A) PIP1 protein levels in roots. (B) PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 protein levels in roots. Standard error values, the number of independent microsomal fractions studied (*n*) and significant differences between the lines are shown. Significance ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance with the Holm-Sidak method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure for (A) and by Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks with the Dunn's method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure for (B).

The PIP1 protein level is significantly reduced in the double mutant compared to the wild type (**Figure 12 A**) with the *pip2;1* mutant in between. The complementation of *pip2;1 pip2;2* with the hybrid construct results in no change at the PIP1 protein level. This leads to the assumption that the differences in the amino acid sequence between PIP2;7 and PIP2;2 prevent PIP2;7 from regulating PIP1. Therefore, expressing PIP2;7 in the PIP2;2 specific pattern is not sufficient to prevent the degradation of PIP1s.

pip2;1 exhibits a reduction of the PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 protein level in comparison to the wild type which is even more pronounced in the double mutant (compare **Figure 12 B**). As expected, no effect for the addition of PIP2;7 in the hybrid lines could be observed in the analysis of the PIP2 protein level, since the used antiserum can only detect PIP2;1, PIP2;2 and PIP2;3.

In summary, these hybrid studies show that the regulation of PIP1s by PIP2s depends not only on specific expression patterns, but also on the amino acid sequence of the PIP2s', as the PIP2;3 hybrid construct could rescue the *pip2;2* phenotype in contrast to the PIP2;7 construct.

2.4 Which degradation pathway is involved in PIP1 degradation in the absence of PIP2s?

Liu (2015) provided evidence that PIP1 proteins are synthesized at the same amount in the wild type and in the *pip2;1 pip2;2* mutant. The difference in the measured protein level in these mutants arises from degradation of PIP1s in the absence of these PIP2s. To determine which degradation pathway is involved different approaches are possible. In this study published proteomics data (PRIDE database) related to degradation was taken into consideration, an inhibitor was used to block the proteasomal degradation and mutants impairing ERAD or autophagy were crossed with *pip2* mutants.

2.4.1 Influence of the proteasome inhibitor syringolin A on PIP protein level

Svozil *et al.* (2014) performed studies on protein changes in response to the inhibition of the 26S proteasome by syringolin A. They isolated proteins of treated and untreated leaves at three different time points (at the end of the day, midnight and the end of the night) and subjected them to mass spectrometry measurements. The fold change of protein levels, where at least 10 spectra were detected, was calculated and the significance was determined by a paired Students's t-test.

Table 2: Influence of syringolin A on PIP1 protein levels. *A. thaliana* plants grown under short-day conditions for 55 days were treated and leaves were harvested after 8 h at the end of the day, at midnight and after 16 h of treatment at the end of the night. Mass spectrometry was performed, but only proteins with at least 10 spectra were taken into consideration. Treated and untreated samples were compared with a paired t-test, showing no significant differences for all found PIP isoforms.

| | end of day | | midnight | | end of night | |
|--------|------------|-------------|----------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
| | p-value | fold change | p-value | fold change | p-value | fold change |
| PIP1;2 | 0.772 | 0.93 | 0.918 | 1.01 | 0.453 | 1.22 |
| PIP1;5 | 0.423 | 0.55 | | | 0.184 | 0.50 |
| PIP2;1 | 0.938 | 1.01 | 0.648 | 1.09 | 0.333 | 1.26 |
| PIP2;2 | 0.423 | 0.72 | | | 0.185 | 1.63 |
| PIP2;6 | 0.915 | 1.01 | 0.995 | 1.00 | 0.240 | 1.12 |
| PIP2;7 | 0.441 | 0.96 | 0.428 | 1.30 | 0.828 | 1.03 |

Eight PIP isoforms were detected in this study, but only six of them met the before mentioned prerequisite (PIP1;3: 9 spectra, PIP1;1: 4 spectra). Fold changes were measured for some isoforms, but no statistically significant differences were detected. At the midnight time point no spectrum of PIP1;5 could be identified in the treated samples and none of PIP2;2 in the control. If proteins were degraded by the 26S proteasome, an inhibition of this pathway should result in an accumulation of these proteins. Interestingly, the fold change seemed to differ more between the PIP isoforms, than between the three observed time points. For example, PIP1;5 showed a decreased amount of protein after treatment with syringolin A, whereas PIP2;1 was slightly increased. The PIP protein levels were not increased as a result of the inhibition of the proteasome for any of the detected PIP isoforms. Therefore, a direct connection between the proteasome pathway and PIP protein degradation could not be identified.

However, the studies of Svozil *et al.* lack an important factor required for achieving the aims of this work, where the focus lies on the degradation pathway of PIP1s in the absence of PIP2s, which were present in this case. The degradation pathway may depend on the availability of PIP2s, leading to the conclusion that involvement of the proteasome cannot be excluded.

2.4.2 PIP1 protein degradation in the presence of proteasome inhibitor (MG132) and/or protein biosynthesis inhibitor (CHX)

The endoplasmic reticulum has a quality-control mechanism to prevent misfolded proteins from exiting the ER and targeting them for degradation by the ER-associated degradation pathway. The proteins are detected, ubiquitinated and transported to the proteasome for disassembly. MG132 is a synthetic peptide aldehyde which inhibits the proteasome activity and blocks the degradation of ubiquitinated proteins (compare **1.5.1**).

As a next step the role of the proteasome in PIP1 degradation in the absence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 was assessed. Therefore, mesophyll protoplasts from four-week-old plants were isolated and treated with MG132. To visualize the protein abundance in the protoplast, a line expressing EGFP tagged PIP1;1 in the *pip1;1* background was used (*pip1;1* (EGFP-PIP1;1)). The loss of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 was achieved in a second line harboring in addition the *pip2;1* and *pip2;2* mutations (*pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2* (EGFP-PIP1;1)). Taken together these lines supply a wild-type-like and a double mutant-like background with a trackable PIP1;1. The isolated protoplasts were treated without or with MG132 and the fluorescence was measured over the time course of 8 h. To exclude the effect of newly synthesized proteins, cycloheximide (CHX), a protein synthesis inhibitor, was added simultaneously.

Figure 13 A shows that blocking of the 26S proteasome leads to a slightly slower degradation rate of PIP1;1 compared to the mock and untreated controls in the wild-type-like situation. This effect is more pronounced in the double mutant-like background (**Figure 13 B**), showing a significant difference in the PIP1;1 protein level between the MG132 treated and untreated protoplasts. These findings indicate an involvement of the ERAD pathway in PIP1;1 protein degradation, especially in the absence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2.

In contrast to the treatment with MG132, there is no change of the PIP1;1 protein level after addition of CHX. The amount of PIP1;1 protein synthesized within the 8 h time span of observation might not have been high enough to result in a detectable change by CHX supplementation. To verify the action of CHX a positive control could be included in future experiments.

Taken together these results suggest an involvement of the ERAD pathway in the degradation of the PIP1;1 protein in the presence and absence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2, but further studies are required to strengthen this theory.

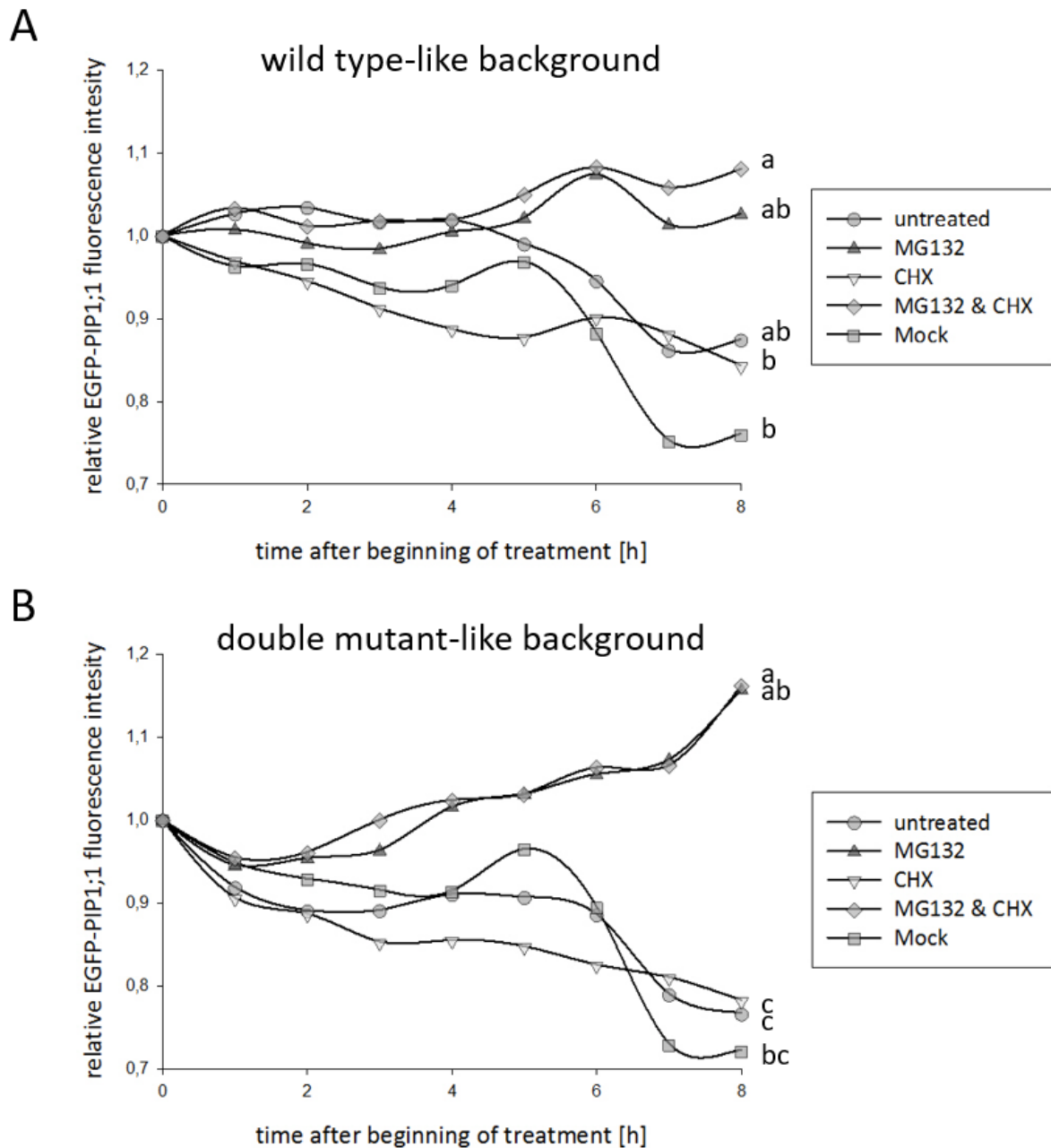


Figure 13: Influence of proteasomal degradation on the PIP1;1 protein. Mesophyll protoplasts were isolated from 4-week-old *pip1;1* (EGFP-PIP1;1) and *pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2* (EGFP-PIP1;1) plants. The fluorescence intensity was measured every hour after treatment with inhibitors (MG132, CHX) or mock (DMSO, EtOH) for 8 h to determine the influence of the proteasome on the PIP1;1 protein level in the wild-type-like (A) and double mutant-like (B) background. The measurement right after inhibitor addition served as a reference (signal intensity for (B) 53 % compared to (A)). Wild type protoplasts were monitored in parallel and the observed fluorescence intensity was used as the background value (17 % compared to the *pip1;1* (EGFP-PIP1;1) signal). Four biological replicates were performed. Statistically significant differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$) were determined by One Way Analysis of Variance with the time as a discrete factor and the Tukey method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure. Corresponding error bars are shown in **Supplemental Figure 7**.

2.4.3 PIP1 protein level in different degradation mutant backgrounds

Autophagy is an important degradation pathway where proteins and whole organelles designated for degradation are enclosed by an autophagosome and transported to the vacuole for further processing. *A. thaliana* has two ubiquitin-like conjugation systems involving two ubiquitin-like proteins, ATG8 and ATG12. Both systems are activated by ATG7, an E1-like enzyme, and can therefore be blocked by the mutation of this single protein (*atg7-1*; Doelling *et al.*, 2002).

ER-associated degradation is a pathway to remove misfolded proteins from the ER (compare **2.4.2**). Hrd3a is an ERAD protein associated with the recognition of target proteins and a defect in this protein (*hrd3a*) leads to the inhibition of misfolded protein degradation and increased UPR (unfolded protein response; Liu *et al.*, 2011).

The degradation of PIP1s in the presence and absence of PIP2s is not necessarily achieved by the same pathway. To distinguish between both cases, not only degradation single mutants were analyzed, but also crossed lines including *pip2;1* and *pip2;2* (degradation mutant x *pip2;1 pip2;2*, compare **Table 4**). The PIP1 protein level was quantified in microsomal membrane fractions of two-week-old plants by ELISA. If a certain degradation pathway plays a role in degrading PIP1, an increased PIP1 protein level is expected. **Figure 14** shows no increase of the PIP1 protein level in any of the single or triple mutant lines, but even a significant decrease for *atg7-1* compared to the wild type. These results indicate no involvement of either ATG7 - dependent or HRD3a-dependent pathways in the degradation of PIP1s.

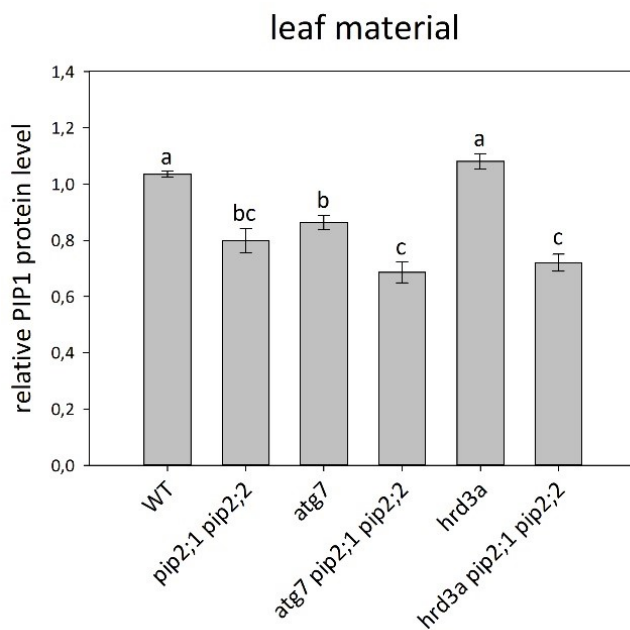


Figure 14: PIP1 protein level in degradation mutants. Microsomal fractions of the wild type line and *pip2* and degradation mutants were isolated from roots of 14-day-old plants grown on vertical $\frac{1}{2}$ MS plates. An ELISA-based quantification using anti-PIP1 antiserum was performed to determine the PIP1 protein levels. The relative results of four independent biological replicates are displayed with the wild type line as the reference. Standard error values and significant differences between the lines are shown. Significance ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance with the Holm-Sidak method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure.

2.5 When does the degradation take place?

It is known that the PIP2-dependent PIP1 regulation takes place on the post-translational level, but is it degraded right after synthesis or first transported to the PM? To address this question, the exocytosis rate can be determined by the cFRAPc (corrected fluorescence recovery of after photoconversion; Luo *et al.*, 2016) method, where the protein of interest is tagged with a photoconvertible fluorescence protein (mEosFP). The conversion from green to red is achieved by irreversible conformational changes in response to excitation with specific wavelengths (405 nm) and results in a shift in the emission wavelength (Wiedenmann *et al.*, 2004; Nienhaus *et al.*, 2006). The fluorescence of a PM region is quantified, the fluorescence protein converted and the fluorescence of both channels is monitored. Synthesis of new proteins that are transported to the PM leads to the recovery in the green channel and can therefore be used to estimate the exocytosis rate. However, other protein movements are taking place, for example endocytosis, reducing the amount of tagged proteins at the plasma membrane and resulting in the calculation of a too low exocytosis rate. The endocytosis rate can be determined by the fluorescence reduction in the red channel and therefore a corrected exocytosis rate is obtained.

In the case of the PIP1s, the exocytosis rate in the presence and absence of PIP2s can be compared to determine if degradation takes place before or after trafficking to the PM.

2.5.1 Expression and localization of newly generated mEosFP-PIP1 lines

To study the exocytosis rate of PIP1s, new transgenic lines had to be generated (mEosFP lines in **Table 4**). PIP1;1 and PIP1;2 were N-terminally tagged with mEosFP and transformed into the *pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2* and *pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2* mutant background, respectively, resulting in a double mutant-like background. To receive the wild-type-like background with the insertion at the same site, crossings were performed with *pip1;1* for *pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2* (mEosFP-PIP1;1) and *pip1;2* for *pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2* (mEosFP-PIP1;2). The following experiments were performed to check the existing lines and optimize conversion settings.

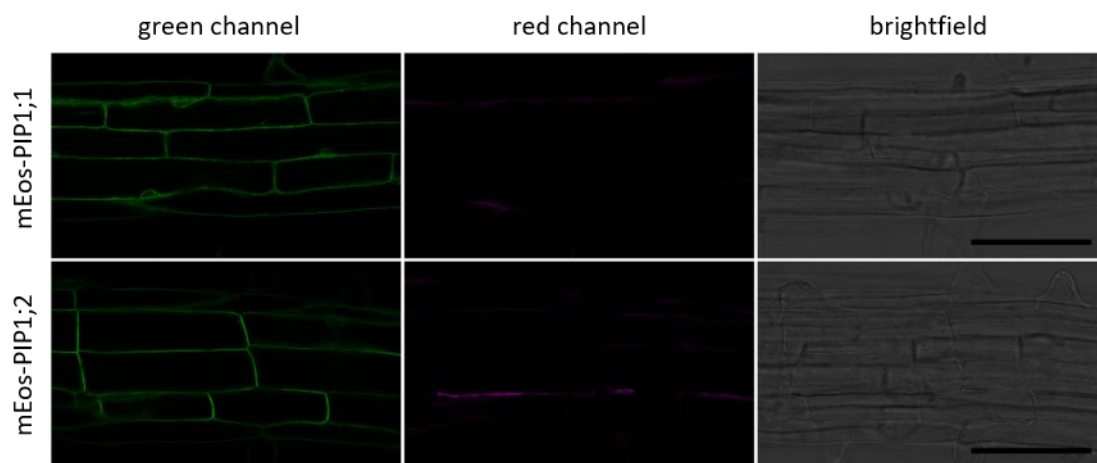


Figure 15: mEosFP tagged PIP1;1 and PIP1;2 lines. Cross-sections of five-day-old *A. thaliana* roots expressing mEos-PIP1;1 or mEos-PIP1;2 in the double mutant-like background were imaged in the green and red channel to assess the localization of both proteins and the signal abundance in the red channel without conversion. Two independent lines were generated for each isoform to exclude the influence of the insertion site and one of each is shown above. All lines are stable homozygous single insertion lines. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 488 nm/500-550 nm (green mEos) and 570 nm/590-680 nm (red mEos). The expression of PIP1;1 was much lower than PIP1;2. To compensate this difference, a 16 times higher excitation intensity was applied for the mEos-PIP1;1 line.

Figure 15 shows the expression of the mEosFP tagged PIP1;1 and PIP1;2, where the mEosFP-PIP1;1 line required a much higher excitation intensity for imaging than mEosFP-PIP1;2, representing a lower protein level for this isoform. PIP1s are localized to the PM and intracellular structures, displayed in the green channel, confirming the expected expression and targeting in these lines. A fluorescence signal was detected in the red channel, even though no conversion was performed, but the signal pattern is different to the one in the green channel.

This leads to the conclusion that the red signal is no bleed-through from the green channel or by ambient light converted mEosFP, but autofluorescence. Since the region of interest can be set at a location where no red signal is present before conversion, the interpretation of the data is not further complicated by autofluorescence and the lines can be used for further experiments.

2.5.2 Photoconversion capability of mEosFP-PIP1

The lines shown in 2.5.1 were tested for their ability to photoconvert. To achieve this, a region of the PM was selected, imaged, converted and then imaged again. The results for PIP1;1 are depicted in **Figure 16 A and B** and in **Figure 17 A and B** for PIP1;2. A significant decrease of the green conformation and increase of the red one can be observed for PIP1;2 but not PIP1;1, indicating that there is a difference between both lines in their ability to photoconvert. To clarify the results, the mean fluorescence intensity before and after the conversion in both channels was measured (compare **Figure 16 C** and **Figure 17 C**), confirming the inability to convert mEosFP-PIP1;1. The green signal is not reduced, whereas the red signal only slightly increased, proving that no efficient conversion had occurred. In contrast to that, conversion was achieved for mEosFP-PIP1;2 (strong mean fluorescence decrease in the green channel, increase in the red channel) where the same settings were applied. Since PIP1;2 shows a higher expression in the root than PIP1;1 and efficient conversion for the attached mEosFP can be performed, only the mEosFP-PIP1;2 line will be used for further studies.

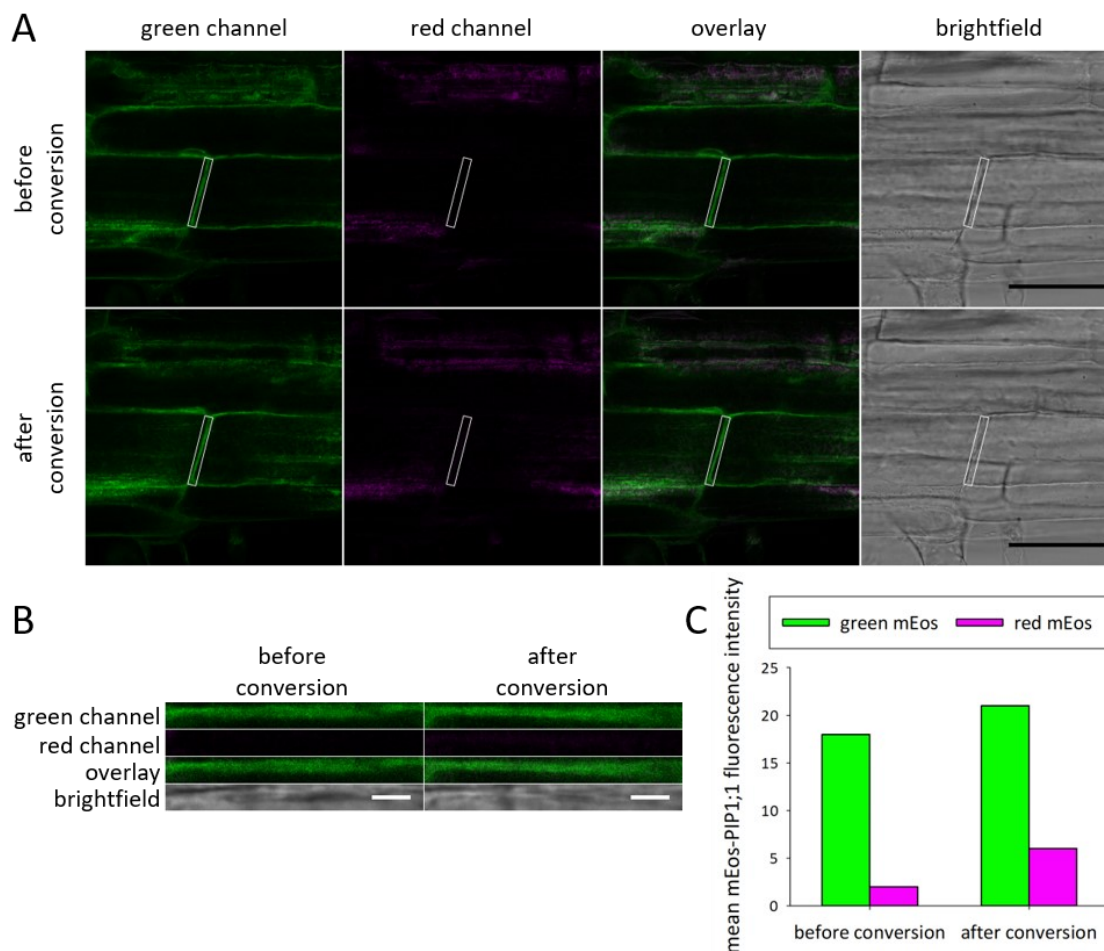


Figure 16: cFRAPc imaging of mEos-PIP1;1. Cross-sections of 5-day-old *A. thaliana* roots expressing mEos-PIP1;1 were used to analyze the localization of PIP1;1 and the ability to photoconvert mEosFP. The line displayed is a stable single insertion line and chosen as a representative for four independent lines. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 488 nm/500-550 nm (green mEos) and 570 nm/590-680 nm (red mEos). (A) For photoconversion a section of the PM was selected (ROI, shown in the white boxes) and scanned twenty times with 50% excitation intensity at 405 nm. The root was imaged before and after scanning. A successful photoconversion shows a shift from green to red, which was not the case for all four independent lines. Scale bars, 50 μ m. (B) is a magnified image of the photoconversion region in (A). Scale bars, 2 μ m. (C) The mean fluorescence intensity of the ROI was measured in the green and red channel at both time points, visualizing the inability to photoconvert mEos in this line.

The photoconversion is achieved by scanning the ROI with 405 nm wavelength several times, leading to a higher amount of converted proteins with each scan, but damaging the samples at the same time. To determine the optimal scan number, the mean fluorescence intensity of the region of interest was measured after each scan in the mEosFP-PIP1;2 line. No change in the intensity between successive scans marks the minimal scan number needed for efficient conversion. As displayed in **Figure 18** the signal remained static after 18 scans. For further experiments a number of 20 scans was chosen to ensure a high conversion rate.

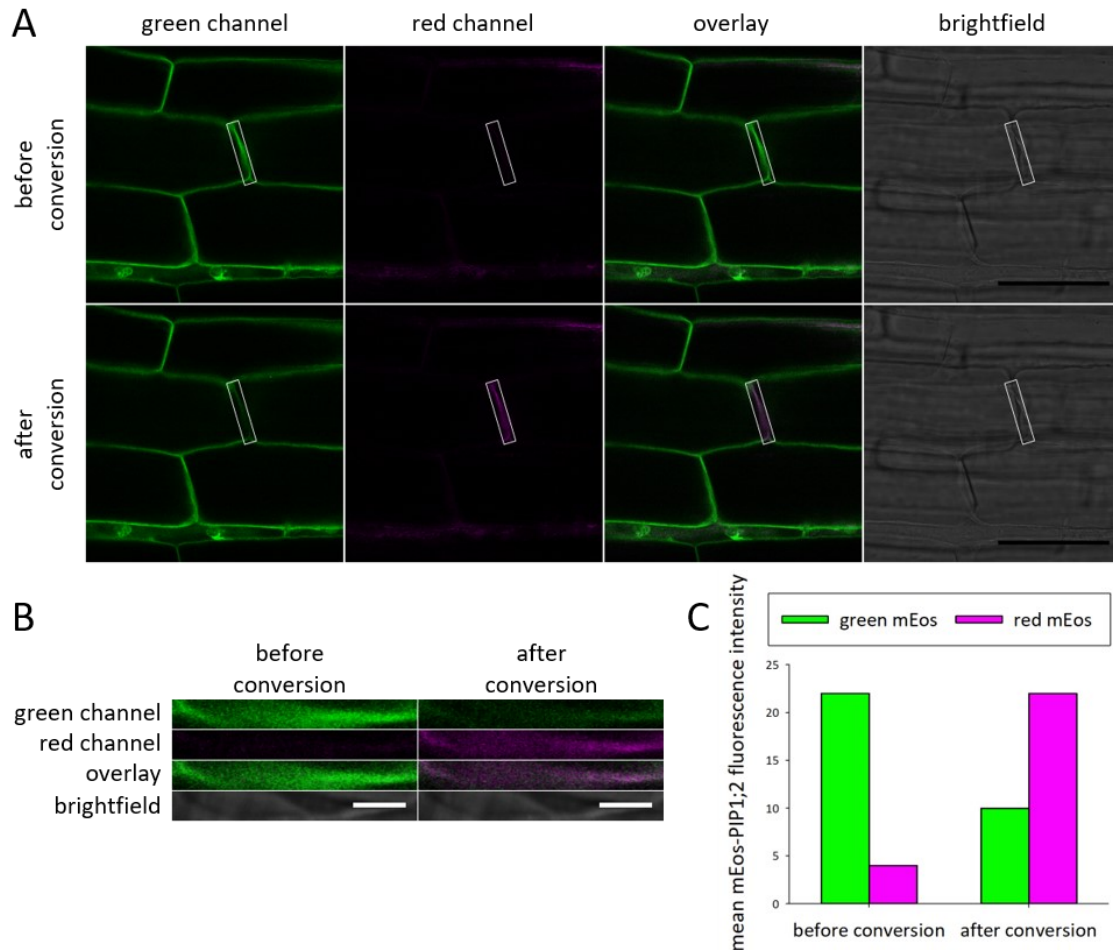


Figure 17: cFRAPc imaging of mEos-PIP1;2. Cross-sections of 5-day-old *A. thaliana* roots expressing mEos-PIP1;2 were used to analyze the localization of PIP1;2 and the ability to photoconvert mEosFP. The line displayed is a stable single insertion line and chosen as a representative for two independent lines. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 488 nm/500-550 nm (green mEos) and 570 nm/590-680 nm (red mEos). (A) For photoconversion a section of the PM was selected (ROI, shown in the white boxes) and scanned twenty times with 50% excitation intensity at 405 nm. The root was imaged before and after scanning. A successful photoconversion shows a shift from green to red, which was the case for both independent lines. Scale bars, 50 μ m. (B) is a magnified image of the photoconversion region in (A). Scale bars, 2 μ m. (C) The mean fluorescence intensity of the ROI was measured in the green and red channel at both time points, visualizing the ability to photoconvert mEos in this line.

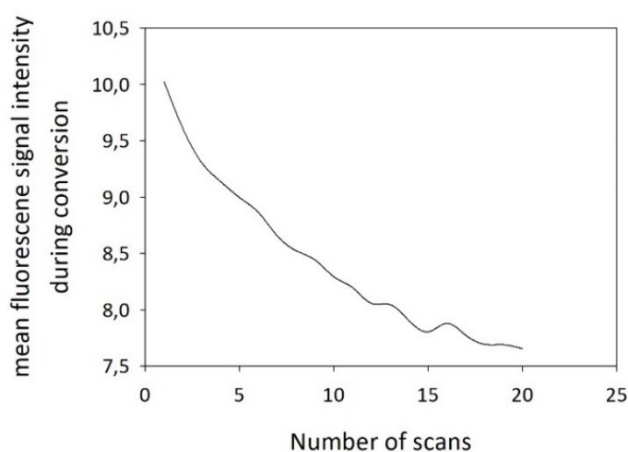


Figure 18: Determination of necessary scan number for efficient conversion. Scanning the region of interest with 405 nm wavelength results in conversion of mEosFP. The fluorescence intensity in the ROI was measured after each scan to determine the optimal scan number for conversion.

2.5.3 Recovery of green mEosFP-PIP1 signal 1h after photoconversion

After photoconverting a region in the plasma membrane, the green signal should recover by the exocytosis of newly synthesized proteins. The aim of this whole experiment is to determine if there is a difference in the exocytosis rate of PIP1;2 in the absence or presence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 and to accomplish this a detectable amount of not converted mEosFP-PIP1;2 has to reach the PM. To get an impression on the time line of PIP1;2 synthesis, a pilot study was performed. A root region was imaged before, immediately after and 1 h after conversion and the mean fluorescence intensity in the green and red channels were recorded. A large root section was converted to ensure that the photoconverted region could be found and reassessed after 1 h.

Figure 19 A shows the root section before, after and 1 h after conversion in both the green and red channel. A clear decrease in the green mEos and increase in the red mEos conformation can be detected after photoconversion but no change after 1 h is visible. The mean fluorescence intensity was measured to quantify the changes. The results displayed in **Figure 19 B** show a significant decrease of the green signal after conversion and no change after 1 h, implying that not enough PIP1;2 was synthesized within 1 h to lead to a detectable recovery. This means that the photoconverted root section has to be measured again after a longer period of time.

Taken together, this chapter provides optimized tools for measuring the exocytosis rate and preliminary results on the kinetics for PIP1;2, where 1 h is not sufficient to observe exocytosis. The next step will be to develop a method to attach the seedlings to coverslips without damaging them to allow longer periods of observation.

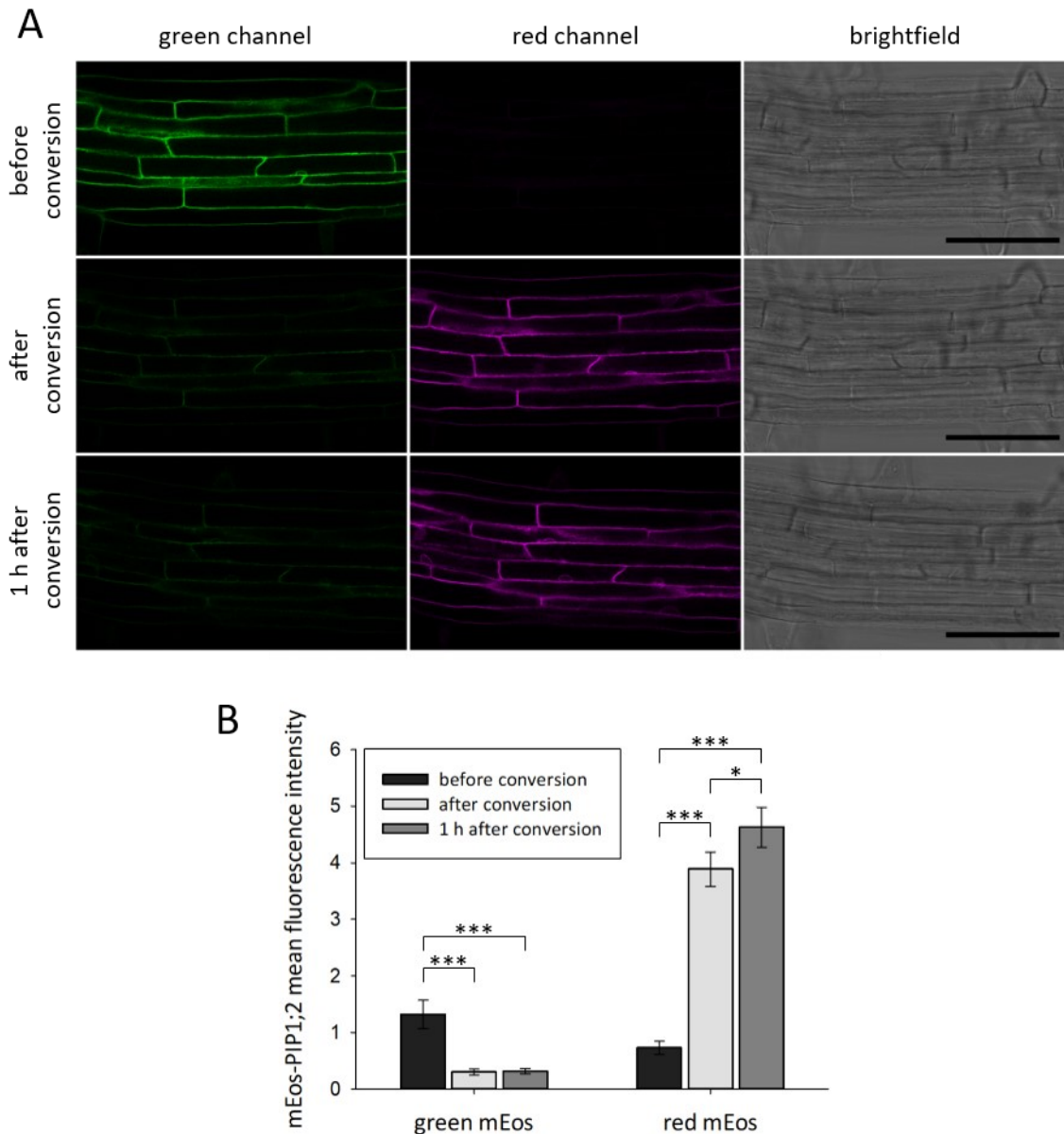


Figure 19: Determination of newly synthesized mEos-PIP1;2 within one hour. Cross-sections of 5-day-old *A. thaliana* roots expressing mEos-PIP1;2 were used to measure the amount of newly synthesized mEos-PIP1;2 within one hour. (A) The visible root section was first imaged (t_0) and then photoconverted by using the microscope's DAPI filter. Both channels were documented right after conversion (t_0) and one hour after conversion (t_5). A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 488 nm/500-550 nm (green mEos) and 570 nm/590-680 nm (red mEos). Scale bars, 100 μ m. (B) The mean fluorescence intensity of the whole root section was measured for both channels at the three time points. The experiment was repeated seven times independently. Standard error values and the significant differences between the time points are shown. The statistically significant difference ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance with the Bonferroni t-test as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure ($p \leq 0.05$: *, $p \leq 0.01$: **, $p \leq 0.001$: ***).

3 Discussion

The interaction between PIPs in plants has been studied in several publications. Especially the dependence of PIP1s on PIP2s to reach the PM and the influence on the water transport activity was addressed (Fetter *et al.*, 2004; Zelazny *et al.*, 2007; Mut *et al.*, 2008; Sorieul *et al.*, 2011; Bienert *et al.*, 2018). In this thesis the focus was on PIP1 regulation on the protein level dependent on PIP2s. Therefore, the role of interaction, the amino acid sequence specificity of PIP2s, the involved degradation pathways and the exocytosis rate of PIP1 were studied.

3.1 The role of interaction in PIP1 and PIP2 co-regulation

In vitro studies showed that ZmPIP2;1 transiently expressed in maize protoplasts reaches the PM whereas ZmPIP1;1 and ZmPIP1;2 remain at the ER. Only co-expression of ZmPIP2;1 with ZmPIP1s lead to a PM localization pattern for ZmPIP1s (Zelazny *et al.*, 2007). To investigate the role of interaction between PIP1s and PIP2s for PIP1 trafficking in *A. thaliana*, BiFC was performed. The interaction studies revealed physical contact between PIP1;2 and PIP2;1/PIP2;2 both at the PM and the ER, supporting the theory that interaction already appears at the ER and plays a key role in the guided trafficking of PIP1;2.

Furthermore, the question was addressed if interaction of PIP2s with PIP1s is enough to protect PIP1s from degradation or if export from the ER is necessary in addition. Therefore, PIP2 mutants were generated with a reduced ER exiting ability. The effect on the PIP1 protein level could answer the question. If interaction as such is sufficient, there should be no change in the PIP1 protein level between the WT and mutated PIP2 line. PIP1 reduction would show that protection is achieved by trafficking to the PM (compare **Figure 20**). The important key part for this experiment was the changed routing for the mutated PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 compared to the WT situation. This difference could not be observed in any of the generated lines (compare **Figure 9**, **Figure 10**, **Supplemental Figure 4** and **Supplemental Figure 5**).

Sorieul *et al.* (2011) showed a clear difference between the WT PIP2;1 and the PIP2;1 with the mutated diacidic motif (D4A/E6A) regarding the trafficking. There are two major differences between the expression system of Sorieul *et al.* and the experiment in this thesis. (1) For the expression of the WT and mutated PIP2s the endogenous promoter was used in this study. In

contrast to that, the Sorieul lab expressed under a double enhanced CaMV35S. (2) Sorieul *et al.* tagged PIP2;1 with GFP, whereas mTagBFP was fused to PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 in this thesis. The aim of this experiment was to determine the effect of the changed routing of PIP2 on the PIP1 protein level. Therefore, the expression of the involved proteins should be as close to the WT situation as possible, preventing the use of an enhanced expression system. Therefore, the retention of PIP2 for Sorieul *et al.* could be a result of the artificial flooding of the system and ER retention might endogenously not play a role. In contrast to that, changing the fluorescence tag might be a viable option for improvement. A high fluorescence intensity and the ability to be used for photobleaching experiments would be prerequisites for choosing a new fluorescence protein. Another factor for optimization could be the mutation of the diacidic motif itself. Sorieul *et al.* showed the highest retention rate for D4A PIP2;1, leading to the assumption that a change from D4A/E6A to D4A would enhance the difference between the WT and the mutated phenotype. Chevalier *et al.* (2014) address the importance of another ER export signal in plant aquaporins. They present the LxxxA export motif located to the third transmembrane domain, essential for trafficking. Mutating both motifs (diacidic and LxxxA) should increase the ER retention rate even further and provide the ideal tool to study the role of interaction in the PIP2-dependent PIP1 regulation.

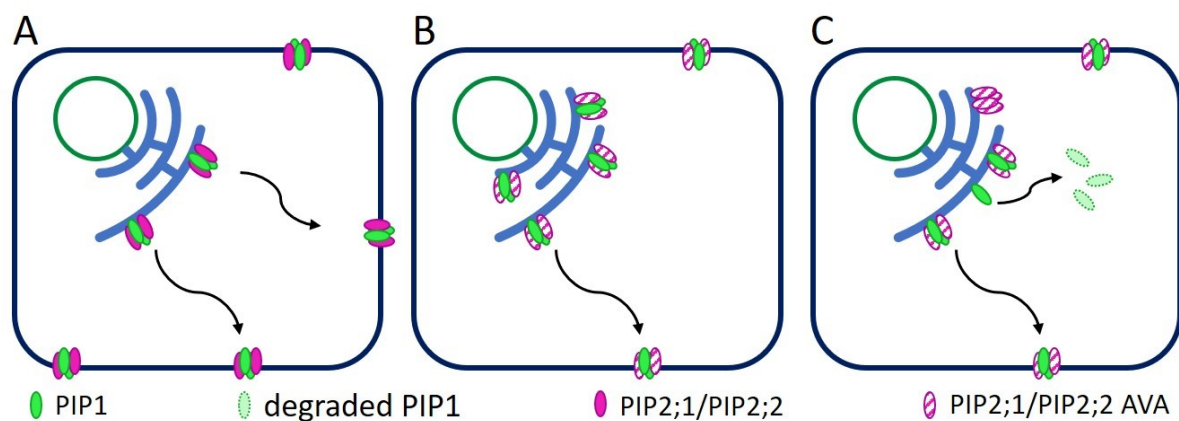


Figure 20: Influence of mutation of PIP2s' diacidic motif on the stability of PIP1s. (A) PIP1s and PIP2s form heterotetramers at the ER (light blue) and travel to the PM (dark blue). If the diacidic motif, responsible for ER exiting, is mutated in PIP2s (AVA), their trafficking to the PM is reduced. This could have two possible consequences for PIP1s: (B) The interaction with PIP2s remaining at the ER is enough to stabilize PIP1s. (C) PIP1s are targeted for degradation as a result of the reduced capacity for trafficking from the ER. The nucleus is depicted in dark green.

In the past it has been shown that on the one hand the ERAD degradation pathway can be activated to prevent accumulation of a certain protein at the ER (Pollier *et al.*, 2013). On the other hand interaction with another protein was shown to prevent degradation (Park *et al.*,

2005; Zschauer *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, both described theories for PIP1 protein regulation (interaction or trafficking, **Figure 20**) are possible options according to the literature.

3.2 Regulation of PIP1s relies on PIP2s' amino acid sequence

The PIP2-dependent down-regulation of PIP1s seems to be connected to PIP2;1 and PIP2;2, since no significant change in the PIP1 protein level was detected in other PIP2 single mutants such as *pip2;3*, *pip2;4* and *pip2;7* (Da Ines and Geist, unpublished data, **Supplemental Figure 1**). Understanding on which factor the co-regulation depends on, the amino acid sequence or the expression pattern, can help to unravel the underlying mechanisms. PIP2;3 shares a high sequence similarity with PIP2;2 but is expressed at low levels, whereas PIP2;7 deviates the most from PIP2;2 and even though it is highly abundant as well, there are differences in the cellular localization patterns between those two isoforms (Da Ines, 2008; Monneuse *et al.*, 2011; Prado *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, the necessary factor for the co-regulation can be determined by expressing *PIP2;3* and *PIP2;7* under the regulatory domains of *PIP2;2* in the absence of PIP2;2 and measuring the resulting PIP1 protein level.

The PIP2;3 hybrid construct can complement the *pip2;2* mutant phenotype, whereas the PIP1 protein level remains unchanged in the PIP2;2_{pro}:PIP2;7:tPIP2;2 hybrid lines (compare **Figure 11** and **Figure 12**, respectively). Therefore, adding ectopic expression of PIP2;7 under the control of the *PIP2;2* regulatory domains was not sufficient to protect PIP1 proteins from degradation and a specific amino acid sequence is required to achieve the regulatory function of PIP2;2. Furthermore, it is sufficient to alter the PIP2;3 expression to increase the PIP1 level and complement the *pip2;2* mutant phenotype, because of the high similarity between PIP2;3 and PIP2;2. Hence, a specific amino acid sequence of PIP2s is required for PIP1 regulation. Switching different regions of PIP2;2 with PIP2;7 and examining the effect on PIP1 could help in determining which domain is necessary for the co-regulation.

The anti-PIP2 antiserum only detects the three related isoforms PIP2;1, PIP2;2 and PIP2;3; thus no change in the measured PIP2 signal is expected when *pip2;1 pip2;2* and the PIP2;7-expressing *pip2;1 pip2;2* are compared (compare **Figure 12**). The protein data related to the PIP2;7 expression is essential to prove that no complementation is taking place even though the PIP2;7 hybrid construct is present. To verify PIP2;7 expression, an antibody for PIP2;7 is needed. Only then a reliable statement can be made.

3.3 Degradation of PIP1s in the absence of PIP2s

The PIP1 protein level is strongly reduced in *pip2;1* and *pip2;2* mutants. No down-regulation of *PIP1s'* transcription and no change in the translation could be observed, indicating a post-translational regulation between those two aquaporin groups (Liu, 2015). Polysome-associated *PIP1* gene expression shows an expression of all five *PIP1* genes in the *pip2;1 pip2;2* double mutant at similar or even higher levels compared to WT (Komal Jhala, unpublished results). Determining the degradation pathway involved in the PIP1 protein down-regulation can help to get an insight into the mechanisms behind that co-regulation.

There is not much known about the degradation of PIP proteins in general, but some studies provide information concerning PIP2;1 and, more recently, PIP2;7 (Kleine-Vehn *et al.*, 2008; Lee *et al.*, 2009; Hachez *et al.*, 2014; Ueda *et al.*, 2016). Rma1, a E3 ubiquitin ligase, is induced by drought stress, ubiquitinates PIP2;1 and prevents the trafficking of PIP2;1 from the ER to the PM. PIP2;1 is subsequently degraded by the 26S proteasome. Moreover, it has been shown that dark treatment and salt stress lead to the targeting of PIP2;1 to the lytic vacuole for degradation. In addition, the autophagy related pathway has been suggested for the stress induced degradation of PIP2;7 dependent on TSPO, a multi-stress regulator. Taken together, the 26S proteasome and autophagy represent viable options for degradation mechanisms involved in the PIP2 dependent PIP1 regulation.

3.3.1 Progress in determining the degradation pathway

The first step in determining the degradation pathway of PIP1 proteins in this thesis was to check proteomics data published in the PRIDE database. Svozil *et al.* treated plants with syringolin, a proteasomal inhibitor, which should result in an increase in the protein level of 26S proteasome targets (Svozil *et al.*, 2014). Several PIP isoforms were detected in this study, but no significant fold change between treated and untreated samples was observed (see **Table 2**). Walton *et al.* (2016) implemented ubiquitin combined fractional diagonal chromatography (COFRADIC) to obtain ubiquitination sites. The resulting ubiquitination site mapping did not include any PIP isoforms. In contrast, however, the additionally performed affinity purification on *35S:HIS6UBQ10* plants revealed ubiquitination of PIP1;2 in four out of six samples. Moreover, ubiquitination has been shown for PIP2;1, proving that the post-translational modification of PIP1s cannot be excluded (Lee *et al.*, 2009). The contrasting

results between the first two studies and Lee *et al.* might arise from the different prerequisites, since the ubiquitination of PIP2;1 was linked to abiotic stress conditions and neither Svozil *et al.* nor Walton *et al.* stressed the plants before sampling. PIP proteins are stable and have a low turnover rate under normal conditions, with higher degradation rates under certain stress conditions such as salt and drought (Liu, 2015; Boursiac *et al.*, 2005; Hachez *et al.*, 2014). The absence of PIPs in the proteasome inhibitor and ubiquitination site studies might therefore be explained by the low amount of PIP isoforms targeted for degradation in unstressed plants being below the detection range of the applied methods.

The second step was to study the influence of MG132 on the PIP1;1 protein level in the absence and presence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2. A difference in the PIP1;1 protein level between treatment with MG132 and mock treated protoplasts could be detected in both background situations, but was more pronounced in the DM. Hence, an involvement of the proteasome in the degradation of PIP1;1 in the presence and particularly in the absence of PIP2s can be suggested. On the other hand, there was a high variation between the four replicates. As described before, stress has a high impact on the regulation of PIP proteins. To exclude the influence of stress on determining the degradation pathway dependent on PIP2s, the expression of stress markers could be measured in addition. Only replicates from plants with a low stress level should be taken into account. Moreover, the low turnover rate of PIPs makes monitoring over a long period of time necessary, but during this time the protoplast physiology changes as they are starting to regenerate cell walls and more severely, to die. Furthermore, the inhibitor might be another challenge, which is not very stable at RT. Prolonged treatment leads to a decreasing amount of functional MG132 and therefore an increased chance to lose the inhibitory effect on the proteasome. Continuously adding fresh MG132 would help to solve this problem. Nevertheless, a significantly slower decrease of the PIP1 protein level could be detected in the presence of MG132, indicating an involvement of the 26S proteasome in the degradation of PIP1;1 in the absence and presence of PIP2s.

The final experiment regarding the protein degradation was the determination of PIP1 protein levels in mutants deficient in autophagy or ERAD. If the affected degradation pathway is responsible for degrading PIP1s, PIP1 protein accumulation in the mutants is expected. No change between the WT and the ERAD mutant can be detected and even a decrease of PIP1 was observed for the autophagy mutant (compare **Figure 14**). The decrease could mean that a factor related to PIP1 degradation is usually degraded by autophagy and that inhibition of

this degradation pathway increases PIP1 protein processing. The more important question for this thesis was the regulation of PIP1 in the DM background, but no change in the protein level can be observed here. This could lead to the assumption that neither autophagy nor ERAD are involved in the PIP2 dependent PIP1 protein degradation, but recent discoveries give rise to explanations why they cannot be excluded.

Losing a degradation pathway can be challenging for the plant. Therefore, it stands to reason that other pathways can take over some of the targets of missing systems. When Svozil *et al.* (2014) inhibited the 26S proteasome an increase in the transcript levels of *NBR1* (Next to BRCA1 gene 1), responsible for targeting polyubiquitinated proteins to the autophagy pathway, and *ATG8a* was measured. This upregulation of autophagy marker genes could be a result of a higher demand on autophagy, degrading some of the proteins intended for the proteasome. A similar discovery was made in the human system by Houck *et al.* (2014), where they studied different mutant forms of a protein degraded in a proteasome dependent manner. A mutant version of GnRHR (a hormone receptor degraded by the proteasome) is resistant to proteasomal degradation and thus subjected to autophagy. Additionally, it has been shown that increased unfolded protein response can compensate the loss of *Hrd3a* (Li *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand, the autophagy deficient mutant *atg5* exhibited increased levels of proteasome sub-units, indicating a compensatory effect (Havé *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, the lack of change in PIP1 protein levels in the degradation mutants could be a result of compensation mechanisms between different degradation pathways. Further crossing to achieve a mutant line deficient in autophagy and proteasomal degradation could help clarify this issue. If PIP1 accumulates in the degradation double mutant, then either or both degradation pathways might be involved. No change in the PIP1 protein level could on one hand be explained by another degradation pathway being responsible for degradation or on the other hand a compensation by a third degradation machinery. However, such a cross between the autophagy and ERAD mutants might not be capable of surviving because two major degradation pathways are deficient. Therefore, a pharmacological approach such as treating the autophagy mutant with a proteasome inhibitor might be a viable alternative.

The ERAD mutant used in this thesis is an insertion line for the *Hrd3a* gene. *Hrd3a* is responsible for *Hrd1* substrate recruitment and should therefore directly interact with PIP1s, if they are degraded by ERAD. Co-immunoprecipitation of *Hrd3a* and its interaction partners might be a viable alternative to analyze the involvement of the proteasomal degradation in

the PIP2-dependent PIP1 down-regulation. Since there are still open questions regarding ERAD in plants, there could be an alternative protein recruiting targets for Hrd1 (Li *et al.*, 2017). If this is the case, the utilization of the *hrd1a hrd1b* double mutant could be a viable alternative. However, a study in yeast revealed a stabilizing role of Hrd3 on Hrd1, where the Hrd1 protein level was strongly reduced in the *hrd3* mutant (Gardner *et al.*, 2000). If the same is true in plants, a *hrd3* mutant would in addition be at least a *hrd1* knock-down mutant and no new insights could be expected from the newly generated *hrd1a hrd1b pip2;1 pip2;2* line.

The difference between the treatment with MG132 and the *hrd3a* mutant studies could be explained by the duration the plant has to cope with the loss of the proteasomal degradation. A knock-out mutant line is deficient in this degradation pathway. Alternative routes for degradation can be activated and continuously take over the role of the absent pathway. In contrast to that, the treatment with an inhibitor like MG132 results in a sudden change in the plant's degradation system. Other routes might be activated as described above, but this process takes time and therefore the change in the PIP1 protein level could still be detected within the first 8 hours after treatment.

In summary, a clear hint for the proteasome-dependent degradation of PIP1;1 in the absence and presence of PIP2s was discovered. By performing the above suggested experiments, the mechanisms behind the PIP2 dependent PIP1 regulation might be further elucidated.

3.3.2 Time point of degradation (exocytosis rate)

Determining when the degradation of PIP1s in the absence of PIP2s is happening would help in finding the degradation pathway involved and get us one step closer to unraveling the mechanics of this co-regulation between the two aquaporin isoforms. The exocytosis rate is a measured value describing the amount of proteins reaching the PM. Therefore, determining this rate in the absence and presence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 can help figuring out when the degradation is taking place. A lower exocytosis rate and no change in the endocytosis rate in the DM background would mean that PIP1s are degraded before reaching the PM.

To get an idea how fast the newly synthesized proteins reach the PM the exocytosis rate for mEos-PIP1;2 in the DM background was measured over a time span of 1 h (**Figure 19**). However, no increase of the unconverted protein at the PM could be detected after 1 h, showing that no quantifiable exocytosis had taken place within this period of time. On the one

hand, the exocytosis rate in the DM background might be so low, that it cannot be detected with this method. The WT background has to be analyzed in comparison to study if exocytosis can be measured in these lines. If this is the case, the consequence would be that the exocytosis rate of PIP1;2 is decreased in the absence of PIP2s, leading to the assumption that PIP1s are degraded before they reach the PM. If there is no exocytosis measurable in the WT background this means that the exocytosis rate of PIP1;2 is so low that it cannot be detected within 1 h. Thus, a system where mEos-PIP1;2 can be observed over a longer period of time would be necessary.

As expected, mean fluorescence of the red conformation increased significantly after conversion, but increased even further within 1 h. Since no additional excitation at 405 nm wavelengths was applied to the material, the increase might have another reason than photoconversion. In **Figure 15** a signal in the red channel was detected before conversion and as described in **2.5.1**, that signal was not caused by a bleed-through from the green channel or conversion by ambient light. It might reflect the damage to the tissue, because of the increased fluorescence after keeping the seedling on the microscope slide covered with a coverslip for 1 h. The roots are quite fragile and immediately damaged upon drying. The roots were continually supplied with liquid $\frac{1}{2}$ MS to prevent desiccation, leading to another kind of stress: hypoxia. Therefore, the increased signal in the red channel might reflect the tissue damage in the roots.

3.4 Potential physiological role of co-regulation

The DM of *pip2;1* and *pip2;2* is an artificial situation for the plant. By studying circumstances where PIP2 protein levels are reduced under natural conditions, the physiological role of the co-regulation between PIP1s and PIP2s might be discovered. It has been observed that such a reduction of most PIP proteins occurs when plants are stressed for example by cold, drought and salt (Jang *et al.*, 2004; Monneuse *et al.*, 2011). It would be interesting to compare the PIP1 protein level in stressed plants of the WT and DM background. If there is a further reduction for the stressed plants in the absence of PIP2;1 and PIP2;2, this would be a hint for an independent role of the co-regulation apart from stress conditions. The alternative outcome would be the same PIP1 protein levels in the WT and DM background. This could be explained by a reduction of PIP2s under the stress condition which leads to a subsequent PIP1 degradation in the WT, resembling the DM phenotype. It is possible that a certain stress signal

can induce PIP2 degradation but has no influence on PIP1s. Therefore, a co-regulation would transmit the signal for degradation from PIP2s to PIP1s and an overall reduction would be achieved (compare **Figure 21**).

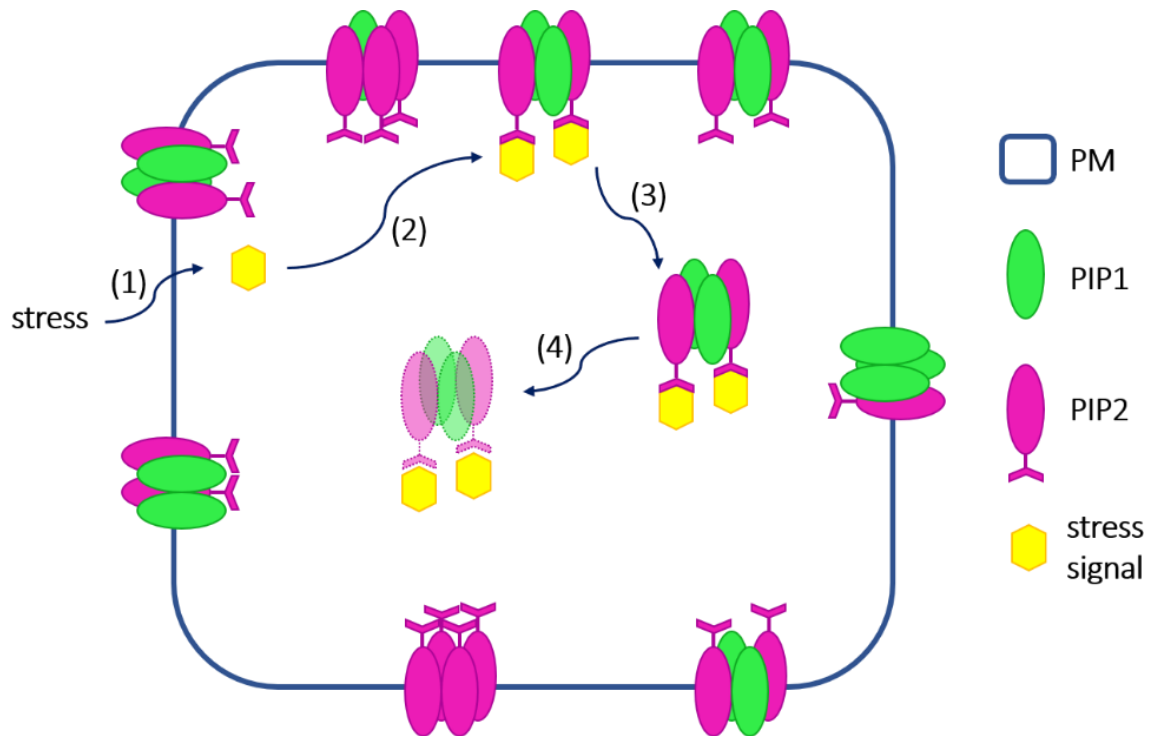


Figure 21: Scheme for the putative role of PIP2-PIP1 co-regulation. If *A. th.* is subjected to stress conditions, a stress signal is produced in the cell (1) and recognized by PIP2 but not PIP1 (2). Signal binding results in a removal of the aquaporin tetramer, containing isoforms of both PIP subgroups, from the PM (3). The endocytosed PIPs are degraded (4) and therefore the PIP protein level is reduced.

4 Outlook

Plants are sessile lifeforms that need to have a tightly regulated water regulation to cope with stresses like drought and heat. One of the key factors to achieve this are aquaporins, water channels which can facilitate the water flow across membranes. The focus in this work was on the co-regulation of PIP1s and PIP2s and the underlying mechanisms to get a better understanding on the control of water flow. The results suggest an ERAD dependent regulation of PIP1s which are directed for degradation in the absence of PIP2 proteins. Specifically, PIP2;1 and PIP2;2 isoforms contribute to this regulation, which can be complemented by highly similar PIP2 like PIP2;3, whereas the more divergent PIP2;7 protein could not replace PIP2;2.

Future work will focus on three main issues: 1) assessing the role of trafficking to the PM in preventing PIP1 down-regulation by studying PIP2 ER exiting mutants (combination of DVE and LxxxA mutations), 2) deepening the knowledge about the mechanisms involved in the PIP2-dependent PIP1 down-regulation by determining the involved degradation pathways (crossing degradation mutants, co-immunoprecipitation of Hrd3a) and the time point of degradation (cFRAPc) and 3) investigating the physiological role of the co-regulation by comparing the PIP2-dependent PIP1 protein level in stressed and unstressed plants.

5 Material and Methods

5.1 Material

5.1.1 Plant material

Table 3: Plant lines used in this work, which were ordered or already present in the lab

| Plant line | Ecotype | Description |
|---|---------|--|
| Wild type | Col-0 | Wild type line |
| <i>pip2;1 pip2;2</i> | Col-0 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line |
| <i>pip1;1 pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> | Col-0 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1 knock-down and plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;2, 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line |
| <i>atg7-1</i> (SAIL) | Col-0 | autophagy related protein 7 knock-out line |
| <i>hrd3a</i> (SALK) | Col-0 | HMG-CoA reductase degradation 3a knock-out line |
| <i>pip1;1</i> (EGFP-PIP1;1) | Col-0 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1 knock-down complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;1 |
| <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;1) | Col-0 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1 knock-down and plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;1 |
| <i>pip1;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2) | Col-0 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;2 |
| <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2) | Col-0 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;2, 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;2 |
| <i>pip2;1 pip2;2 (PIP2;2_{pro}:PIP2;3: tPIP2;2)-1</i> | Col-0 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with a hybrid construct of the PIP2;3 coding region and PIP2;2 regulatory domains (independent line 1) |
| <i>pip2;1 pip2;2 (PIP2;2_{pro}:PIP2;3: tPIP2;2)-1</i> | Col-0 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with a hybrid construct of the PIP2;3 coding region and PIP2;2 regulatory domains (independent line 2) |

Table 4: Plant lines generated in this work

| Plant line | Description | Generated by |
|---|--|--------------|
| <i>pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (<i>PIP2;2_{pro}:PIP2;7:</i> <i>tPIP2;2</i>)-1 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with a hybrid construct of the PIP2;7 coding region and PIP2;2 regulatory domains (independent line 1) | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (<i>PIP2;2_{pro}:PIP2;7:</i> <i>tPIP2;2</i>)-2 | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with a hybrid construct of the PIP2;7 coding region and PIP2;2 regulatory domains (independent line 2) | Floral Dip |
| <i>atg7-1 pip2;1 pip2,2</i> | autophagy related protein 7, plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line | crossing |
| <i>hrd3a pip2;1 pip2;2</i> | EMS-mutagenized BRI1 suppressor 5, plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line | crossing |
| <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (<i>mEos-PIP1;1</i>) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1 knock-down and plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally mEos tagged PIP1;1 | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (<i>mEos-PIP1;2</i>) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;2, 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally mEos tagged PIP1;2 | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (<i>EGFP-PIP1;1, BFP-PIP2;1</i>) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1 knock-down and plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;1 and N-terminally BFP-tagged PIP2;1 | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (<i>EGFP-PIP1;1, BFP-PIP2;1 D4A/E6A</i>) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1 knock-down and plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;1 and N-terminally BFP-tagged PIP2;1 D4A/E6A | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (<i>EGFP-PIP1;1, BFP-PIP2;2</i>) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1 knock-down and plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;1 and N-terminally BFP-tagged PIP2;2 | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (<i>EGFP-PIP1;1, BFP-PIP2;2 D4A/E6A</i>) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1 knock-down and plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;1 and N-terminally BFP-tagged PIP2;2 D4A/E6A | Floral Dip |

| Plant line | Description | Generated by |
|--|--|--------------|
| <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2, BFP-PIP2;1) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;2, 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;2 and N-terminally BFP-tagged PIP2;1 | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2, BFP-PIP2;1 D4A/E6A) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;2, 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;2 and N-terminally BFP-tagged PIP2;1 D4A/E6A | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2, BFP-PIP2;2) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;2, 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;2 and N-terminally BFP-tagged PIP2;2 | Floral Dip |
| <i>pip1;2 pip2;1 pip2;2</i> (EGFP-PIP1;2, BFP-PIP2;2 D4A/E6A) | plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;2, 2;1 and 2;2 knock-out line complemented with N-terminally EGFP tagged PIP1;2 and N-terminally BFP-tagged PIP2;2 D4A/E6A | Floral Dip |

Used insertion lines: *pip1;1* (At3g61430): GABI_437B11, *pip1;2* (At2g45960): SALK_019794, *pip2;1* (At3g53420): SM_3_35928, *pip2;2* (At2g37170): SAIL_169_A03, *atg7-1* (At5g45900): SAIL_11H07/0/2, *hrd3a* (At1g18260): SALK_109430/0/X

5.1.2 Bacteria

Table 5: Bacteria strain

| Strain | Chromosomal genotype | Source | Purpose |
|---|---|--------|-------------------------------------|
| <i>E. coli</i> DH5 α | <i>phoA glnV44 Φ80' lacZ(del)M15 gyrA96 recA1 relA1 endA1 thi-1 hsdR17</i> | Lab | Cloning |
| <i>E. coli</i> DB3.1 | <i>F- gyrA462 endA1 glnV44 Δ(sr1-recA) mcrB mrr hsdS20(rB-, mB-) ara14 galk2 lacY1 proA2 rpsL20(Smr) xyl5 Δleu mtl1</i> | Lab | Maintaining gateway vectors |
| <i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> GV3101 pMP90 | chromosomally encoded resistance against rifampicin and pMP90 (cured, stably inherited Ti plasmid encoding resistance against gentamycin) | Lab | Expression and plant transformation |

5.1.3 Kits

Table 6: Applied kits

| Kit | Company |
|---|--------------------------------|
| Gateway® BP Clonase™ Enzyme Mix, No.11789-013 | Invitrogen, Karlsruhe, Germany |
| Gateway® LR Clonase™ Enzyme Mix, No.11791-019 | Invitrogen, Karlsruhe, Germany |
| QIAprep® Spin Miniprep Kit, No. 27104 | Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany |
| QIAGEN® Plasmid Midi Kit, No. 12143 | Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany |
| QIAquick® PCR Purification Kit, No. 28104 | Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany |
| innuPREP Gel Extraction Kit, No. 845-KS-50300 | Analytik Jena, Jena, Germany |

5.1.4 Media

Table 7: Media used for growing bacteria or plants

| Medium | Composition |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| LB | 1% (w/v) tryptone, 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract, 0.5% (w/v) NaCl, 1.5% (w/v) agar for solid media Adjust to pH 7.0 |
| ½ MS | 2.2 g/L Murashige-Skoog basal salt mixture, 1% (w/v) sucrose Adjust to pH 5.8 with KOH 0.5% (w/v) gelrite for solid media |
| MS + Hyg (hygromycin selection) | 4.3 g/L Murashige-Skoog salts incl. vitamins, 1% (w/v) sucrose, 0.5 g/L MES hydrate adjust to pH 5.7 (with KOH) 1.2% (w/v) phytoagar for solid media after autoclaving: add 30 µg/ml hygromycin to hand warm medium |
| RB | 1% (w/v) Tryptone, 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract, 0.5% (w/v) NaCl, 0.2% (w/v) 1 M NaOH |
| TFB1 (transformation buffer 1) | 100 mM RbCl, 50 mM MnCl ₂ , 30 mM KOAc (potassium acetate), 10 mM CaCl ₂ , 15% (v/v) Glycerin adjust to pH 5.8 (with acetic acid), use 0.45 µm filter to sterilize |

| Medium | Composition |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| TFB2 (transformation buffer 2) | 10 mM MOPS, 75 mM CaCl ₂ , 10 mM RbCl, 15% (v/v) Glycerin adjust to pH 6.5 (with KOH), use 0.45 µm filter to sterilize |

All media were prepared with ddH₂O and autoclaved for sterilization before use. Plant tissue culture grade chemicals were used.

5.1.5 Buffer

Table 8: Prepared buffers

| Buffer name | Composition |
|---|--|
| Enzyme solution (protoplast isolation) | 1-1.5% (w/v) cellulase R10, 0.2-0.4% (w/v) macerozyme R10, 0.4 M mannitol, 20 mM KCl, 20 mM MES (pH 5.7) Incubate at 55 °C for 10 min and cool down to RT 10 mM CaCl ₂ , 0.1% BSA Filter through 0.45 µm syringe filter device |
| W5 (protoplast isolation) | 154 mM NaCl, 125 mM CaCl ₂ , 5mM KCl |
| PEG (protoplast transformation) | 40% (w/v) PEG 4000, 0.2 M mannitol, 100 mM CaCl ₂ Filter through 0.45 µm syringe filter device |
| MMg (protoplast transformation) | 0.4 M mannitol, 15mM MgCl ₂ |
| CTAB | 1.4 M NaCl, 100mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), 20mM EDTA (pH 8), 2% (w/v) cetyltrimethylammoniumbromid (CTAB), 1% (w/v) polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP-40) |
| TE | 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), 1mM EDTA (pH 8) |
| Homogenization buffer (microsomal fraction isolation) | 50 mM Hepes-KOH (pH 7.5), 5 mM EDTA (pH 8), 1 mM phenylmethane sulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 0.01% (w/v) butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT), 2 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 0.5 M sucrose, cComplete™ Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail 1 tablet/ ml |
| Resuspension buffer (microsomal fraction isolation) | 0.33 M sucrose, 5 mM K ₃ PO ₄ (pH 7.8), 4mM KCl, 2mM dithiothreitol (DTT) |
| Carbonate-Bicarbonate buffer (ELISA) | 3.5% (w/v) Na ₂ CO ₃ , 5.6% (w/v) NaHCO ₃ |
| ABTS (ELISA) | 0.1 M citric acid, 0.05% (w/v) 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) (ABTS) |

| Buffer name | Composition |
|--|---|
| Phosphate buffered saline (PBS, ELISA) | 4 mM KH ₂ PO ₄ , 16 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄ , 115 mM NaCl |
| PBS-T (ELISA) | 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20 in PBS |
| PBS-TB (ELISA) | 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20 and 1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS |
| Transformation solution (floral dip) | 5% sucrose, 0.05% Silwet L-77 |
| 50x TAE buffer | 2.0 M Tris, 5.71% (v/v) glacial acetic acid, 50 mM EDTA |

Buffers supplied in kits are not listed.

5.1.6 Chemicals

Common chemicals were from SIGMA, Merck, Serva, Roche or Roth with the highest available purity.

Table 9: Chemicals

| Chemical | Company |
|--|---------------------|
| Phenylmethane sulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) | Sigma |
| Dithiothreitol (DTT) | Roth |
| Butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) | Sigma |
| Cycloheximide (CHX) | Sigma |
| MG132 | Sigma |
| Cellulase "Onozuka" R-10 | Serva |
| Macerozyme R-10 | Serva |
| Bradford reagent | Bio-Rad |
| BSA stock solution (20 mg/ml) | New England Biolabs |
| 2,2'-Azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) (ABTS) | Sigma |
| Cetyltrimethylammoniumbromid (CTAB) | SIGMA |

5.1.7 Antibiotics

Table 10: Antibiotics

| Antibiotic | Stock concentration | Working concentration |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Ampicillin (Amp) | 100 mg/ml (in ddH ₂ O) | 100 µg/ml |
| Spectinomycin (Spec) | 10 mg/ml (in ddH ₂ O) | 100 µg/ml |
| Gentamycin (Gent) | 50 mg/ml (Carl-Roth) | 25 µg/ml |
| Rifampicin (Rif) | 10 mg/ml (in Methanol) | 100 µg/ml |
| Hygromycin (Hyg) | 50 mg/ml (Carl-Roth) | 30 µg/ml |
| Carbenicillin (Car) | 100 mg/ml (in ddH ₂ O) | 100 µg/ml |
| Kanamycin (Kan) | 50 mg/ml (in ddH ₂ O) | 50 µg/ml |

5.1.8 Enzymes

Table 11: Enzymes

| Enzyme | Company |
|---|---------------------|
| Phusion High Fidelity DNA Polymerase, No. M0530 | New England Biolabs |
| iProof High-fidelity™ Phusion Polymerase, No. 1725300 | Bio-Rad |
| MangoTaq™, No. BIO-21083 | Bioline GmbH |
| Gibson Assembly® Master Mix, No. E2611 | New England Biolabs |
| NcoI, No. ER0571 | Thermo Scientific |
| DraIII, No. R3510S | New England Biolabs |
| Bsp1470I, No. ER0931 | Thermo Scientific |
| PvuI, No. ER0621 | Thermo Scientific |
| EcoRV, No. ER0301 | Thermo Scientific |
| Dpnl, No. ER1701 | Thermo Scientific |

5.1.9 Antibodies

Table 12: Antibodies

| Antibody | Species | Dilution | Source |
|--|---------|----------|------------------------------|
| Anti-rabbit-IgG HRP conjugate, No. W401B | mouse | 1:2500 | Promega |
| Anti-PIP1 | rabbit | 1:2000 | Henzler <i>et al.</i> , 1999 |
| Anti-PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 | rabbit | 1:2000 | Da Ines, 2008* |

*An independent antiserum for the same epitope was kindly provided by Christophe Maurel (Montpellier, France, Santoni *et al.*, 2003).

5.1.10 Primer

Primer used for genotyping obtained from SALK-institute:

iSect Primers tool: <http://signal.salk.edu/tdnaprimers.2.html>

Table 13: Genotyping primer for the WT allele

| Plant line | LP primer | RP primer |
|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>atg7-1</i> (SAIL) | CAGCGTGATCTGTGAGAACTG | TTCTTGGAGCTGGTACATTGG |
| <i>hrd3a</i> (SALK) | TTGTCTACGTTGTCTTTCCCG | TGCGTCTATCCATTAAGGCAG |
| <i>pip2;1-2</i> (SM) | AACATATAACGTTGGCAAAAA | TGGTTAAGACAGGGTTAGTCA |
| <i>pip2;2-3</i> (SAIL) | AAGTTATAGAAATGGCCAAAGAC | CTCAAACGTTGGCTGCACTTCTG |

Table 14: Genotyping primer for insertion

| Plant line | Insertion specific primer | RP primer |
|------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| <i>atg7-1</i> (SAIL) | TTCATAACCAATCTCGATACAC | TTCTTGGAGCTGGTACATTGG |
| <i>hrd3a</i> (SALK) | GGTTCACGTAGTGGGCCATC | TGCGTCTATCCATTAAGGCAG |
| <i>pip2;1-2</i> (SM) | CTTATTTAGTAAGAGTGTGGGGTTTTGG | TGGTTAAGACAGGGTTAGTCA |
| <i>pip2;2-3</i> (SAIL) | TTCATAACCAATCTCGATACAC | CTCAGCTATTCCGGCTCTGT |

Table 15: Primer used for mutagenesis

| Name | Mutation | Sequence 5' → 3' |
|--------------|----------------|---------------------------------------|
| PIP2;1_MUT_F | D4 → A/ E6 → A | GGAGAAGGATTTTCAGACAAGAGACTATCAAGATCCG |
| PIP2;1_MUT_R | D4 → A/ E6 → A | GGGAACGGCTGCCACAGCCTTTGCCAT |
| PIP2;2_MUT_F | D4 → A/ E6 → A | GGATTTTCAGACAAGAGACTACGAAGATCCGCC |
| PIP2;2_MUT_R | D4 → A/ E6 → A | CTCAGGTCCTGCCACGGCTTTGGCCAT |

Table 16: Primer used for cloning

| Name | Sequence 5' → 3' | Purpose |
|-----------------------|--|-------------|
| Att_PIP2;1_PRO_F | GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCgaaatg caaatgattggtg | BFP-PIP2;1 |
| PIP2;1_PRO_BFP_R | ccttaatcagctcgctCATagttaacttcttcttcttca | BFP-PIP2;1 |
| PIP2;1_PRO_BFP_F | tgaagaagaagaagttaactATGagcgagctgattaagg | BFP-PIP2;1 |
| BFP_PIP2;1_R | TTCCACATCCTTTGCCATtctgcaccattaagcttgtgcc cagtt | BFP-PIP2;1 |
| BFP_PIP2;1_F | aactggggcacaagcttaatggtgcaggaATGGCAAAGGA TGTGGAA | BFP-PIP2;1 |
| PIP2;1_GW_CO_r | GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGG GTtcgagcatttcttatatgatt | BFP-PIP2;1 |
| PIP2;2_PRO_2;3Hy_GW_F | GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCtggtgtg agatgaagaataaa | BFP-PIP2;2 |
| PIP2;2_PRO_BFP_R | ccttaatcagctcgctCATtctataactttttgttatatat | BFP-PIP2;2 |
| PIP2;2_PRO_BFP_F | atatatacaaaaaagttatagaaATGagcgagctgattaagg | BFP-PIP2;2 |
| BFP_PIP2;2_R | TTCCACGTCTTTGGCCATtctgcaccattaagcttgtgcc ccag | BFP-PIP2;2 |
| BFP_PIP2;2_F | ctggggcacaagcttaatggtgcaggaATGGCAAAGACG TGGAA | BFP-PIP2;2 |
| PIP2;2_3U_2;3Hy_GW_R | GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTacgatct taccaattgacttg | BFP-PIP2;2 |
| PIP1;1_Pro_GW_B1_F | GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTaaagca tggtaaaattggtg | mEos-PIP1;1 |

| Name | Sequence 5' → 3' | Purpose |
|----------------------|--|-------------|
| EosFP_PIP1;1_Pro_R 2 | TAATCGCACTCATatcttcgatctctgtagagag | mEos-PIP1;1 |
| PIP1;1_Pro_EosFP_F 2 | agagatcgaagatATGAGTGCGATTAAGCCAG | mEos-PIP1;1 |
| PIP1;1_EosFP_R 2 | CTCCATtcttcgaccCCGTCTGGCATTGTCAGG | mEos-PIP1;1 |
| EosFP_PIP1;1_F 2 | CAATGCCAGACGGggtgcaggaATGGAAGGCAAGG AAGAAG | mEos-PIP1;1 |
| PIP1;1_TER_GW_B2_R | GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTctctggtg aatgatcaaactt | mEos-PIP1;1 |
| PIP1;2_Pro_GW_B1_F | GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTtgagag gaccgatcatgt | mEos-PIP1;2 |
| EosFP_PIP1;2_Pro_R 2 | taatcgactcatCTCTCTCTCTTTCTCTCTAG | mEos-PIP1;2 |
| PIP1;2_Pro_EosFP_F 2 | aagagagagagagATGAGTGCGATTAAGCCAG | mEos-PIP1;2 |
| PIP1;2_EosFP_R 2 | cttcattcttcgaccCCGTCTGGCATTGTCAGG | mEos-PIP1;2 |
| EosFP_PIP1;2_F 2 | caatgccagacggggtgcaggaATGGAAGGTAAAGAAG AAGATG | mEos-PIP1;2 |
| PIP1;2_TER_GW_B2_R | ggggaccactttgtacaagaaagctgggtATGCCTTGGTAA TTCAGACA | mEos-PIP1;2 |

5.1.11 Vectors and plasmids

Table 17: Vectors

| Vector | Company | Description |
|---------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| pDONR221 | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Donor vector |
| pDONR221-P1P4 | Grefen, University Tübingen | Donor vector |
| pDONR221-P2P3 | Grefen, University Tübingen | Donor vector |
| pBiFC-2in1-NN | Grefen, University Tübingen | 2in1 destination vector |
| pBiFC-2in1-NC | Grefen, University Tübingen | 2in1 destination vector |
| pHGW | Karimi <i>et al.</i> , 2002 | Binary destination vector |

Table 18: Plasmids

| Plasmid | Description |
|-----------------------------|--|
| BFP-PIP2;1_pDONR221 | N-terminally BFP tagged PIP2;1 with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pDONR221 |
| BFP-PIP2;1 D4A/E4A_pDONR221 | N-terminally BFP tagged PIP2;1 D4A/E4A with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pDONR221 |
| BFP-PIP2;2_pDONR221 | N-terminally BFP tagged PIP2;2 with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pDONR221 |
| BFP-PIP2;2 D4A/E4A_pDONR221 | N-terminally BFP tagged PIP2;2 D4A/E4A with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pDONR221 |
| BFP-PIP2;1_pHGW | N-terminally BFP tagged PIP2;1 with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pHGW |
| BFP-PIP2;1 D4A/E4A_pHGW | N-terminally BFP tagged PIP2;1 D4A/E4A with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pHGW |
| BFP-PIP2;2_pHGW | N-terminally BFP tagged PIP2;2 with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pHGW |
| BFP-PIP2;2 D4A/E4A_pHGW | N-terminally BFP tagged PIP2;2 D4A/E4A with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pHGW |
| mEos-PIP1;1_pDONR221 | n-terminally mEos tagged PIP1;1 with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pDONR221 |
| mEos-PIP1;2_pDONR221 | n-terminally mEos tagged PIP1;2 with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pDONR221 |
| mEos-PIP1;1_pHGW | n-terminally mEos tagged PIP1;1 with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pHGW |
| mEos-PIP1;2_pHGW | n-terminally mEos tagged PIP1;2 with endogenous promotor and 3'-UTR in pHGW |
| PIP1;1_pDONR221-P1P4* | PIP1;1 cDNA in pDONR221-P1P4 |
| PIP1;1_pDONR221-P2P3* | PIP1;1 cDNA in pDONR221-P2P3 |
| PIP1;2_pDONR221-P1P4* | PIP1;2 cDNA in pDONR221-P1P4 |
| PIP2;1_pDONR221-P1P4* | PIP2;1 cDNA in pDONR221-P1P4 |
| PIP2;2_pDONR221-P1P4* | PIP2;2 cDNA in pDONR221-P1P4 |
| AHA1_pDONR221-P1P4* | AHA1 cDNA in pDONR221-P1P4 |

| Plasmid | Description |
|------------------------------|--|
| PIP1;1+PIP1;1_pBiFC-2in1-NN* | N-terminally YFP ^N tagged PIP1;1 and N-terminally YFP ^C tagged PIP1;1 in pBiFC-2in1-NN |
| PIP1;1+PIP1;2_pBiFC-2in1-NN* | N-terminally YFP ^N tagged PIP1;1 and N-terminally YFP ^C tagged PIP1;2 in pBiFC-2in1-NN |
| PIP1;1+PIP2;1_pBiFC-2in1-NN* | N-terminally YFP ^N tagged PIP1;1 and N-terminally YFP ^C tagged PIP2;1 in pBiFC-2in1-NN |
| PIP1;1+PIP2;2_pBiFC-2in1-NN* | N-terminally YFP ^N tagged PIP1;1 and N-terminally YFP ^C tagged PIP2;2 in pBiFC-2in1-NN |
| PIP1;1+AHA1_pBiFC-2in1-NC* | N-terminally YFP ^N tagged PIP1;1 and C-terminally YFP ^C tagged AHA1 in pBiFC-2in1-NC |

* Generated by Chen Lui

5.1.12 Instruments

Table 19: Instruments

| Instrument | Type | Company |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|
| Autoclave | EVO 150 | MediTech |
| | HV 50 | HMC |
| Balance | CPA225D | Sartorius |
| | L 2200 P | Sartorius |
| Centrifuge | 5430R | Eppendorf |
| | RC26+ | Sorvall |
| | RC-5B | Sorvall |
| | Rotana 460R | Hettich |
| | Optima L-70 | Beckmann Coulter |
| Rotors (for RC26+) | GS-3 | Sorvall |
| | SS34 | Sorvall |
| | SLA1500 | Sorvall |
| DNA Electrophoresis Unit | Perfect Blue | Peqlab |
| Electroporator | Gene Pulser Electroporation | Bio-Rad |

| Instrument | Type | Company |
|------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| Gel Documentation | Gel Doc 2000 | Bio-Rad |
| Incubator | Innova4340 | New Brunswick Scientific |
| | G25 | New Brunswick Scientific |
| | ELL BM 200 | Memmert |
| Magnetic stirrer | IKA-Combimag Ret | IKA |
| Microscope | TCS SP8 DMI8 CS | Leica |
| Microwave | Micromat | AEG |
| pH measurement | pH523 | WTW |
| Shaker | Polymax 1040 | Heidolph |
| Spectrophotometer | NanoDrop ND-1000 | NanoDrop Technologies |
| | Infinite M1000 Pro | Tecan |
| Thermal cycler | T100 | Bio-Rad |
| | PTC-200 | Marshall Scientific |
| Thermoblock | ThermoMixer F 1.5 | Eppendorf |
| Transilluminator | UV Transilluminator | UVP, Inc. |
| UltraPure water system | UltraClear | Siemens |
| Vacuum concentrator | Univapo 100H | UniEquip |
| Vacuum pump | TRIVAC D2,5E | Leybold |
| Vortexer | Vortex-Genie 2 | Scientific industries |
| Waterbath | Haake DC1 | Labequip |

5.1.13 Internet tools and software

Table 20: Internet tools and software

| |
|---|
| Internet tools and software |
| www.pubmed.com (literature) |
| Vector NTI 9.1.0© 2004 Invitrogen Corporation |
| Fiji (ImageJ) |

Internet tools and software

www.pubmed.com (literature)

Microsoft Office Professional Plus 2010 and 2016

iSect Primer tool <http://signal.salk.edu/tdnaprimers.2.html> (T-DNA primer selection)

SigmaPlot 14

Blast[®] U.S. National Library of Medicine

<http://elisaanalysis.com/app> (ELISA analysis)

5.2 Methods

5.2.1 Plant methods

5.2.1.1 *Cultivation on soil*

A soil (Floragard) and silica sand mixture in a ratio of 8:1 was prepared and poured in 4-well pots aligned in the trays for normal plant growth. After the soil-sand mixture was wetted with water containing BT-toxin (toxic to fly larvae), seeds were placed with a toothpick on the surface of wet soil and stratified for 2 days at 4°C in the dark before transfer into the plant chamber (200 $\mu\text{E}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$ light intensity, 22°C and 60% relative air humidity). To keep the air humidity high in the beginning, the trays were covered with cling film for one week.

Plants for protoplast isolation and stable transformation were grown under short-day conditions (10 h light/ 14h dark cycle). Long-day conditions (16 h light/ 8 h dark cycle) were applied to plants designated for seed amplification, genotyping and crossing.

5.2.1.2 *Cultivation on plates*

Seeds on filter paper were surface sterilized by applying 80% ethanol and letting them dry under the sterile hood. This process was performed two times. The seeds were placed on squared Petri dishes (120 mm x 120 mm x 17 mm Greiner bio-one Germany) containing medium with a sterile toothpick and stratified for 2 days at 4°C in the dark. Afterwards they were transferred to the plant chamber with long-day conditions (16 h light/ 8 h dark cycle, 200 $\mu\text{E}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$ light intensity, 22°C and 60% relative air humidity). Growth periods and the used medium for the different methods are listed in **Table 21**.

Table 21: growth conditions on plates

| experiment | medium | Days of growth |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------|
| Microscopy of roots | ½ MS basal salt mixture | 5 |
| Microsomal fraction isolation | ½ MS basal salt mixture | 14 |
| Characterization of transgenic lines | MS incl. vitamins and 50 µM Hyg | 14 |

5.2.1.3 Generation of multiple mutants and backcrossing of single mutants

To generate multiple mutant lines, plants with the desired single mutations have to be crossed. When plants have developed 5-6 inflorescences they are at the right stage for crossing. To avoid self-fertilization all the immature anthers around the stigma of the recipient flower have to be removed. Afterwards, this stigma was dabbed with pollen obtained from the donor plant. If the pollination was successful, a silique developed that could be harvested, after turning completely yellow. Seeds were dried and planted to obtain the segregating F2 generation. Homozygous multiple mutant plants were selected by isolation of genomic DNA and genotyping (compare 5.2.2.1 and 5.2.2.2).

T-DNA insertion lines were backcrossed with the wild type (Col) using the same method as described above.

5.2.1.4 Generation and characterization of transgenic lines

The constructs were generated by PCR amplification of the desired parts and joined by the Gibson assembly (compare 5.2.2.2 and 5.2.2.5). The GATEWAY system (Invitrogen) was used to get the construct into the pDONR vector (see 5.2.2.6) and then transformed into *E. coli* DH5α (see 5.2.2.9). After verification by sequencing (5.2.2.14), the fragment was cloned into the destination vector (pHGW, provides hygromycin resistance to plants) (compare 5.2.2.7) and transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (see 5.2.2.11).

The *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation was performed using the floral dip method (Clough and Bent, 1998). Selection was carried out by growing the seedlings on plates containing hygromycin (see 5.2.1.2). After selection of successfully transformed plants, segregation analysis was used to identify single insertion lines (3:1 ratio) in the T2 generation. Two independent and homozygous (checked in T3) single insertion lines were selected for each transformation for further characterization.

5.2.2 Molecular methods

5.2.2.1 Isolation of genomic DNA (CTAB method)

Plant tissue was ground and 250 µl CTAB buffer was added. The samples were vortex to mix them properly and then incubated for at least 10 min at 65°C. To remove proteins 200µl chloroform/isoamylalcohol (24:1) were added and vortexed for 1 min. After centrifugation at 13,000 rpm the supernatant was transferred (without disturbing the interphase) into a new vessel. The DNA was precipitated by adding 600 µl 100% ethanol and an incubation step at -20°C for at least 20 min. The DNA was pelleted by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm and 4°C for 10 min. After removing the supernatant, the pellet was washed with 200 µl 70% ethanol, which was removed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm and 4°C for 10 min. The supernatant was removed and the DNA pellet dried at 37°C. 100 µl TE buffer was used to dissolve the genomic DNA and it was stored at -20°C.

5.2.2.2 Polymerase chain reaction

The amplification of DNA fragments from a double stranded DNA template was achieved by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR). This method is based on denaturation, primer annealing and elongation cycles. The annealing temperature and the lengths of the elongation step depend on the used primers (see **5.1.10**) and the polymerase (see **5.1.8**), the enzyme catalyzing the elongation.

In this work three different polymerases were used according to the manufacturer's instructions. To determine the genotype of a plant, genomic DNA was isolated and PCR with the MangoTaq was performed. This enzyme has a high synthesis rate and no proofreading, which makes it a good choice for fast sample processing. To amplify fragments for cloning the iProof High-fidelity™ Polymerase was used, whereas the Phusion High Fidelity DNA Polymerase was employed for PCR-based mutation of plasmids. Both have a lower synthesis rate compared to the MangoTaq, but they have the advantage of the proofreading ability, which improves the accuracy of the copies. This characteristic is necessary, if the amplified fragment is later used for cloning.

5.2.2.3 Agarose gel electrophoresis

DNA samples were separated by size using 1% agarose gels (1 g of highly pure agarose in 100 ml of TAE buffer) supplemented with ethidium bromide. Gels were run at 120-140 V for 30–45 min. DNA was visualized on a UV transilluminator (Bio-Rad Gel Doc 2000).

5.2.2.4 Extraction of DNA from agarose gels

Gel extraction of DNA was performed using the innuPREP Gel Extraction Kit (Analytic Jena) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

5.2.2.5 Gibson Assembly

The Gibson Assembly is a method to combine DNA fragments to one larger fragment. This process can be used to generate fusion constructs for cloning. The Gibson Assembly® Master Mix (New England Biolabs) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions.

5.2.2.6 BP reaction (Gateway)

The Gateway recombination technology was employed for cloning all constructs in this work. The cloning of the fragment of interest into the destination vector was performed by two steps of site-specific recombination reactions, BP and LR cloning.

The BP cloning is achieved with an attB-flanked DNA fragment and an attP containing donor vector to generate an entry clone.

Seventy-five ng of donor vector (pDONR221) were incubated with 50 fmol of attB-sites containing PCR product (ensuring a molar 1:1 ratio) together with 1 µl BP Clonase and 1 µl BP Clonase buffer in a total reaction volume of 5 µl overnight at 25°C (in a thermomixer with heated lid). BP reaction was stopped by adding 0.5 µl Proteinase K and incubating for 10 min at 37°C. 5 µl of the reaction were transformed into *E. coli* DH5α. Four colonies were picked and grown in 5 ml of LB medium at 37°C overnight. After plasmid purification (see **5.2.2.12**) the presence of the insert was verified by restriction digestion and sequencing (see **5.2.2.13** and **5.2.2.14**).

5.2.2.7 LR reaction (Gateway)

The LR cloning is achieved with an attL-containing entry clone and an attR-containing destination vector to generate the final vector.

One hundred ng of entry clone was incubated with an equal molar amount of destination vector and 1 μ l of LR Clonase and 1 μ l of LR Clonase buffer in a total reaction volume of 5 μ l. After incubation at 25°C overnight, LR reaction was stopped by incubating with 0.5 μ l Protease K (37°C, 10 min). Five μ l of the reaction was transformed into *E. coli* DH5 alpha. Five colonies were picked and grown in 5 ml of LB medium at 37°C overnight. The plasmid was isolated and the concentration was determined by spectrophotometry. Plasmids were sequenced (see **5.2.2.14**) and stored at – 20°C.

5.2.2.8 Preparation of chemically competent *E. coli* DH5 α cells

Two hundred and fifty ml of RB media containing 20 mM MgSO₄ were inoculated with 2 ml overnight culture and grown at 37°C under continuous shaking (300 rpm) until an OD₅₉₀ of 0.4-0.6. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 500 rpm at 4°C for 5 min and the pellet was resuspended in 100 ml ice cold TFB1 buffer on ice. After 5 min incubation on ice and a centrifugation step (5000 rpm, 4°C, 5 min), the pellet was resuspended in 6 ml TFB2 buffer. The suspension was stored on ice for 60 min, aliquoted (50 μ l), frozen in liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C.

5.2.2.9 Transformation of chemically competent *E. coli* DH5 α cells

One to five μ l plasmid DNA were added to 50 μ l competent *E. coli* cells thawed on ice. After an incubation of 15 min on ice, a heat shock of 42°C for 30 sec was performed. The vessel was immediately transferred back on ice and 600 μ l LB medium were added. The sample was incubated at 37°C for 1 h with shaking at 450 rpm. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 7,000 rpm for 2 min and resuspended in 50 μ l LB medium. Sterile glass beads were used to distribute the cell suspension on LB agar plates containing the corresponding antibiotics and the bacteria were grown overnight at 37°C.

5.2.2.10 Preparation of electro competent *A. tumefaciens* GV3101 pMP90

Three hundred ml LB media were inoculated with a 2 ml overnight culture of *A. tumefaciens* and grown at 28°C under continuous shaking until an OD₆₀₀ of 0.5-0.7. Afterwards, the bacteria culture was cooled for 30 min on ice, centrifuged at 4°C for 20 min at 4000 rpm and the pellet was resuspended in ice cold 125 ml ddH₂O. The suspension was stored on ice for 60 min and again centrifuged. Subsequently, the pellet was resuspended in 3 ml ice cold 15% (v/v) glycerol, aliquoted (50 µl), frozen in liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C.

5.2.2.11 Transformation of electro competent *A. tumefaciens* GV3101 pMP90

One µl of plasmid DNA were added to 50 µl competent *A. tumefaciens* cells and mixed by gently tapping the vessel. The suspension was transferred to a pre-chilled electroporation cuvette (Bio-Rad, distance electrodes: 0.2 cm) and a pulse (25 µFD capacitance, 1.25 kV voltage, 400 Ω resistance) was applied. Immediately afterwards 2 ml LB medium were added and the cell culture was incubated at 28°C for 1 h at 220 rpm. Bacteria were harvested (7,000 rpm, 2 min) and the pellet was resuspended in 600 µl LB medium. Fifty µl of the suspension was plated on selective LB plates and incubated for 2 days at 28°C.

5.2.2.12 Plasmid isolation

QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit or QIAGEN Plasmid Midi Kit (protoplast transformation) were used to purify plasmid DNA. The manufacturer's instructions were followed and the concentration was measured by spectrophotometry (NanoDrop).

5.2.2.13 Restriction digestion

Restriction digestion was applied in this work to analyze the plasmids obtained from Gateway cloning. Restriction enzymes cutting at the site of the inserted fragment and the vector backbone were used with the appropriate buffer and temperature according to the manufacturer's instructions (New England Biolabs, Thermo Scientific). After digestion, the fragment sizes were checked by agarose gel electrophoresis (see **5.2.2.3**).

5.2.2.14 DNA sequencing

To assess the precise order of nucleotides within a DNA fragment, the isolated plasmid DNA (see **5.2.2.12**) was prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions and processed by Eurofins MWG GmbH (Ebersberg, Germany).

5.2.2.15 PCR-based mutagenesis

A PCR-based mutagenesis can be applied to change single nucleotides of a plasmid's sequence. The first step of this method is to design primer (see **Table 15**) overlapping at the mutation site and perform a PCR (see **5.2.2.2, Table 22**). By restriction digestion with DpnI (50 µl PCR mix, 6 µl 10x Buffer Yellow, 2 µl DpnI, 2 µl ddH₂O) all methylated DNA (template) is cut and only the newly synthesized mutagenized DNA remains as intact plasmid. 3 µl of the digestion reaction were used to transform competent *E. coli* cells (see **5.2.2.9**) and after plasmid isolation (see **5.2.2.12**), the success was checked by sequencing (see **5.2.2.14**).

Table 22: PCR program used for mutagenesis

| temperature | time | step | cycles |
|-------------|--------|--------------|--------|
| 94°C | 3 min | Denaturation | 1 |
| 94°C | 1 min | Denaturation | |
| 52°C* | 1 min | Annealing | 3 |
| 68°C | 8 min* | Elongation | |
| 68°C | 1 h | Elongation | 1 |

* Annealing temperature (should be lower to allow mismatch) and elongation depend on the primer and template

5.2.2.16 *Agrobacterium tumefaciens mediated plant transformation*

For stable transformation (floral dip method; Clough and Bent, 1998) of *A. thaliana* *A. tumefaciens* was used. First a pre-culture was prepared by inoculating a colony in 2 ml LB medium containing antibiotics (Rif, Gent, Spec) and shaking overnight at 28°C and 220 rpm. The pre-culture was added to 300 ml fresh LB medium containing the antibiotics (Rif, Gent, Spec) and again incubated overnight at 28°C at 160 rpm. The cells of the overnight culture were harvested by centrifugation at 7,000 rpm and 4°C for 10 min and as much supernatant as possible was removed. Two ml transformation solution were used to resuspend the pellet thoroughly. OD₆₀₀ was adjusted to 0.8 by diluting the suspension with transformation solution. The siliques of the plants (grown under short-day conditions in big pots until flowering) were removed and the inflorescences were dipped in the transformation solution containing the *A. tumefaciens*. The leaves were dried from the solution to avoid additional stress for the plant. To keep a high relative air humidity the plants were wrapped in clear plastic bags and kept under low light conditions for 24 h. Afterwards, the bag was removed and the plants were put to long-day conditions to allow fast ripening of the seeds. When the siliques were yellow and dry, the seeds (T1) were harvested and transformants were selected by hygromycin selection (see 5.2.1.4).

5.2.2.17 *Protoplast isolation*

Protoplasts were isolated from 4-week-old *A. thaliana* plants grown under short-day conditions according to the Tape-Arabidopsis Sandwich method (Wu *et al.*, 2009). Leaves were fixed with the upper epidermal surface to Magic tape (Scotch M8101233 Klebeband Magic 810). Another strip of Magic tape was attached to the lower epidermal surface and carefully removed to peel away the lower epidermal cell layer. The leaves were transferred to a 6-well-plate containing 4 ml enzyme solution per well. To release the protoplast the leaves were incubated in the dark for 3 h while shaking at 40 rpm. The protoplasts were collected by centrifugation (3 min, 100 x g) and washed two times with buffer W5. After resuspension in 2 ml W5, the protoplasts were counted with a hemocytometer and kept on ice.

5.2.2.18 PEG-mediated transient protein expression

Freshly isolated protoplasts (see 5.2.2.17) were centrifuged (1 min, 100 x g) and resuspended in MMg (concentration: 8×10^5 protoplasts/ml). Fifteen μg plasmid were mixed with 300 μl protoplasts and incubated for 5 min at RT. Three hundred μl PEG were carefully added and mixed by tapping the tube. After an incubation for 20 min at RT, 1 ml W5 was cautiously added and mixed by inverting the tube. The protoplasts were washed twice with W5, resuspended in 1 ml W5 and transferred to a 6-well-plate coated with 1% BSA. After an overnight incubation (14 - 20 h, RT, dark) the protoplasts were ready to be imaged.

5.2.3 Biochemical methods

5.2.3.1 Microsomal fraction isolation

All of the solutions, tubes and equipment were pre-cooled at 4°C before use. 0.5-1 g plant material was ground to a fine powder, mixed with 15 ml homogenization buffer and ground again for 3 min. The homogenate was filtered through two layers of miracloth. The mortar and pestle were rinsed with 15 ml homogenization buffer and filtered the same way resulting in a final volume of 30 ml. After centrifugation at 4°C and 8,000 x g for 10 min, the supernatant was filtered through one layer of miracloth into a Beckmann-Ultra clear tube (rotor SW 28) and centrifuged at 4°C and 110,000 x g for 1 h. The supernatant was carefully removed and 100 μl resuspension buffer was added to the pellet. Afterwards, an incubation on ice for 30 min was performed, the pellet was resuspended in the resuspension buffer and transferred to a douncer. The tube was rinsed with 100 μl resuspension buffer, which was then transferred to the douncer as well. After grinding by moving the douncer up and down 60 times, the homogenate was transferred to a new 1.5 ml tube. Another 100 μl resuspension buffer which was used to rinse the douncer were added to the tube for a final volume of 300 μl . The microsomal fraction was aliquoted into 3 tubes and stored at -80°C.

5.2.3.2 Determination of protein concentration with Bradford

The isolated microsomal fraction (MF) was centrifuged for 5 min at 9000 rpm and 4°C before measuring the protein concentration. The supernatant was transferred to a new tube and put on ice. For determination of protein concentration, a BSA standard curve was established. A BSA stock solution (20 mg/ml, New England BioLabs) was diluted to achieve the additional concentrations of 16 mg/ml, 10 mg/ml, 4 mg/ml and 2 mg/ml. The concentration measurement was performed with the Bio-Rad reagent (#500-0006) using a 96 well microtiter plate (Greiner Bio-one, 655101) in a Tecan Reader. The reagent was diluted with 62.5 mM NaOH in a ratio of 1:4 and 200 µl were added to the plate. Five µl of the standard or microsomal fractions were added to each well, performing 3 replicates for all samples. After an incubation at RT for 10 min, the plate was loaded into the Tecan Reader, shaken for 5 sec (amplitude: 2 mm, frequency: 306 rpm) and the absorbance measured at 595 nm (number of flashes: 25).

5.2.3.3 ELISA

Microsomal fractions were diluted to 1 µg/ml for leaf material and 0.5 µg/ml for root material with pre-chilled water right before applying the samples to the ELISA plate (NUNC-IMMUNO PLATE MAXISORP, 154110). The 96-well-plate was prepared for ELISA by supplying each well with 100 µl of carbonate buffer. 100 µl MF were added to the first well (0.1 M carbonate buffer) and mixed by pipetting up and down 3 times. One hundred µl of the first well were loaded into the second well, mixed three times and finally 100 µl were discarded. Each MF sample was loaded onto the plate in triplicates.

To determine the PIP concentration, a standard is needed. For PIP1 proteins 100 µl Peptide1 (40 ng/ml, peptide sequence present in all 5 PIP1 isoforms) were added to a well and diluted 7 times as described above. Peptide 2 (100 ng/ml, peptide sequence present in PIP2;1, PIP2;2 and PIP2;3) was diluted in the same way as Peptide 1 and used for PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 protein quantification. The standards were performed in triplicates as well. Three wells with carbonate buffer without the addition of MFs were used as blanks.

The binding of proteins to the sealed plate was performed overnight at 4 °C. The liquid in the plate was removed and the wells were washed with 200 µl PBS. Blocking was carried out with 200 µl PBS-TB for 30 min at RT and 2 rpm shaking. After washing with 200 µl PBS-T 3 times, 100 µl of the first antibody was added per well (anti-PIP1: 1:2000 or anti-PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3:

1:2000). The plate was incubated for 2 h at 20 °C with shaking at 2 rpm and washed 5 times with 200 µl PBS-T. One hundred µl of the second antibody (anti-rabbit-IgG HRP conjugate) were added to each well, incubated for 2 h at 20 °C with shaking at 2 rpm and washed 5 times with 200 µl PBS. In the end, 100 µl activated ABTS (10.5 ml ABTS + 10 µl 30 % H₂O₂ for activation) were loaded onto the plate and incubated for 20 min. The absorbance measurement at 405 nm was performed with a Tecan Reader after shaking the plate for 10 sec.

To determine the unspecific binding of the first antibodies, 3 wells containing the MF of WT tissue were incubated with a blocked first antibody (5 ml first antibody + 1 µl Peptide (5 mg/ml), incubation for at least 10 min).

Analysis of the achieved data was performed with a 5-parameter logistic regression (<http://elisaanalysis.com//app>).

5.2.3.4 Degradation assay (CHX and MG132)

Freshly isolated protoplasts (see 5.2.2.17) were diluted to 1-1.5 x 10⁵ protoplasts/ml in W5 (see EGFP-PIP1;1 lines in **Table 3**). One hundred µl protoplasts were loaded to a 96-well-plate (Thermo Scientific, 164588) and different inhibitors (see **Table 23**) were added to study the degradation of PIP1. The mock controls were treated with DMSO or ethanol. Wild-type protoplasts were used to measure the background signal. The fluorescence measurement was performed with a plate reader (Tecan Infinite® M1000 PRO, settings: excitation/emission wavelengths of 484 / 507 nm, bandwidth:5 nm, gain:100, flash frequency:400Hz).

Table 23: Inhibitors used for the degradation assay

| Inhibitor | Concentration | Solvent | Effect |
|---------------------|---------------|---------|---------------------------------|
| MG132 | 10 µM | DMSO | Proteasome inhibition |
| Cycloheximide (CHX) | 100 µM | ethanol | Protein biosynthesis inhibition |

5.2.4 Microscopy

For all microscopic work the Leica microscope TCS SP8 DMi8 CS was used.

5.2.4.1 Ratiometric bimolecular fluorescence complementation (rBiFC)

The 2in1-rBiFC vector was used to transiently transform protoplasts with two proteins of interest and an RFP as transformation control and reference protein at the same time (compare **Figure 22**; Grefen and Blatt, 2012).

If the transformation was successful, the red fluorescence protein (RFP) could be seen. Moreover, interaction of the two proteins of interest would bring both halves of the split YFP (yellow fluorescence protein) attached to them in close proximity resulting in a yellow signal. In addition, the autofluorescence of chlorophyll can be detected. The microscope settings are shown in **Table 24**.

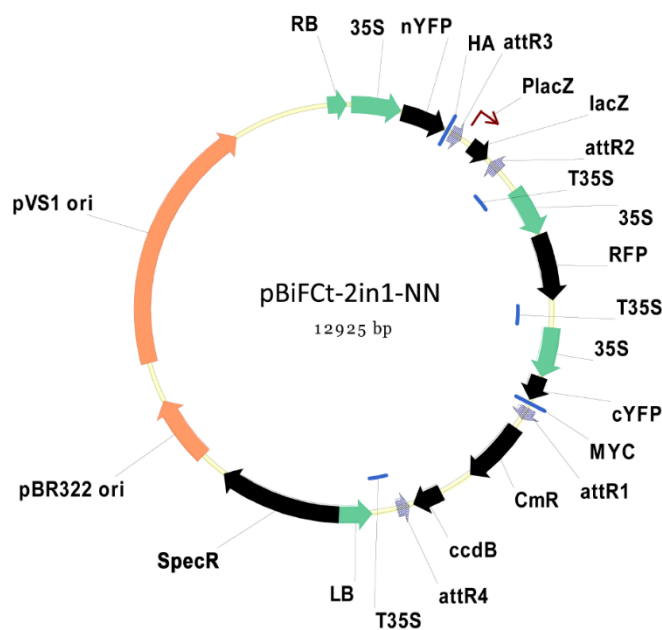


Figure 22: Vector map of the rBiFC system. The vector contains 4 attR sites to insert two genes of interest fusing them with the nYFP half (attR3 + attR2) or the cYFP half (attR1 + attR4) at the n-terminus. Moreover, an RFP sequence is present to have a transformation control.

Table 24: Microscope settings for rBiFC (WLL: white light laser)

| Fluorophore | Excitation | Detector | Detection |
|-------------|-------------|-----------------|------------|
| YFP | WLL: 514 nm | Hybrid detector | 520-550 nm |
| RFP | WLL: 590 nm | Hybrid detector | 600-630 nm |
| chlorophyll | WLL: 514 nm | PMT detector | 650-750 nm |

5.2.4.2 Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP)

Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching is a method to study the movement of proteins. A region of interest is bleached and the recovery after a certain time is measured to determine for example the migration speed of the protein into the region of interest.

In this work FRAP was used to estimate the ratio of protein localized to the membrane or to the ER (Sorieul *et al.*, 2011). It is known that there is hardly any movement of membrane proteins in the plasma membrane, whereas cytosolic or ER localized proteins are more mobile. The higher the relative amount of membrane proteins is in the ROI, the lower the measured recovery should be. The microscope settings are shown in **Table 25**.

For bleaching an area with high fluorescence was chosen. The microscope's zoom was set to 3, resolution to 512 x 512 and time scan was activated by switching to xyt. A region of interest was picked and bleaching was performed by scanning the ROI 10 times with the UV 405 nm DMOD laser at 100%.

The method applied in this work was slightly modified compared to the one used in (Sorieul *et al.*, 2011) because imaging already resulted in bleaching. To exclude the effect of bleaching by scanning the pictures, a region (NBR) in addition to the ROI was measured at each timepoint, which was not bleached intentionally. The only bleaching detected resulted from imaging. Images were taken at three different timepoints: before bleaching, right after bleaching and 5 min after bleaching. The mean fluorescence intensity was measured in both regions (ROI and NBR) and a corrected value for the ROI mean fluorescence intensity was obtained by using NBR as a reference.

A decrease in the value of the intensity of the region of interest from the image before to the image after bleaching shows that the bleaching was successful, whereas a higher increase from directly after to 5 min after bleaching equalates a higher relative amount of ER or cytosolic localized proteins.

Table 25: Microscope settings for FRAP (UV: ultraviolet laser, WLL: white light laser)

| Fluorophore | Excitation | Detector | Detection |
|-------------|-------------|-----------------|------------|
| BFP | UV: 405 nm | Hybrid detector | 440-480 nm |
| EGFP | WLL: 488 nm | Hybrid detector | 500-550 nm |

5.2.4.3 Corrected fluorescence recovery after photoconversion (*cFRAPc*)

The corrected fluorescence recovery after photoconversion is similar to FRAP. The big difference is, that the fluorophore is not bleached but converted. This has the advantage to be able to observe what happens to proteins within the ROI, since they can still emit a signal. Moreover, signals from not converted and converted fluorophores can be distinguished, because the conversion results in a conformational change, leading to adjusted excitation and emission properties.

Conversion could be obtained by two different methods:

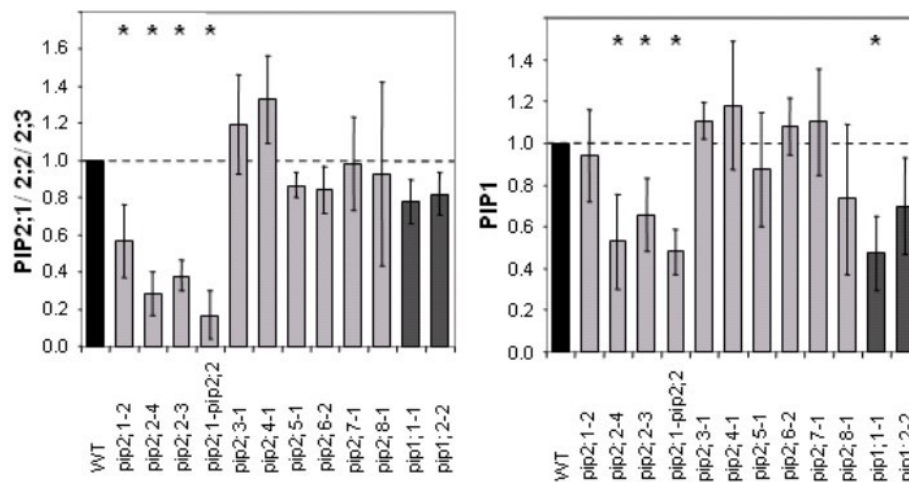
- Conversion of a small region of interest similar to the FRAP bleaching (see **5.2.4.2**) was performed. The microscope was set to xyt, zoomed to 3.5 and the resolution to 512 x 512. The conversion was performed by applying the UV-laser at 50% strength and scanning the ROI 20 times.
- Conversion of the whole field of vision could be achieved by excitation with the laser and the DAPI filter of the microscope for 3 min.

The laser and detector settings for image acquisition are shown in **Table 26**.

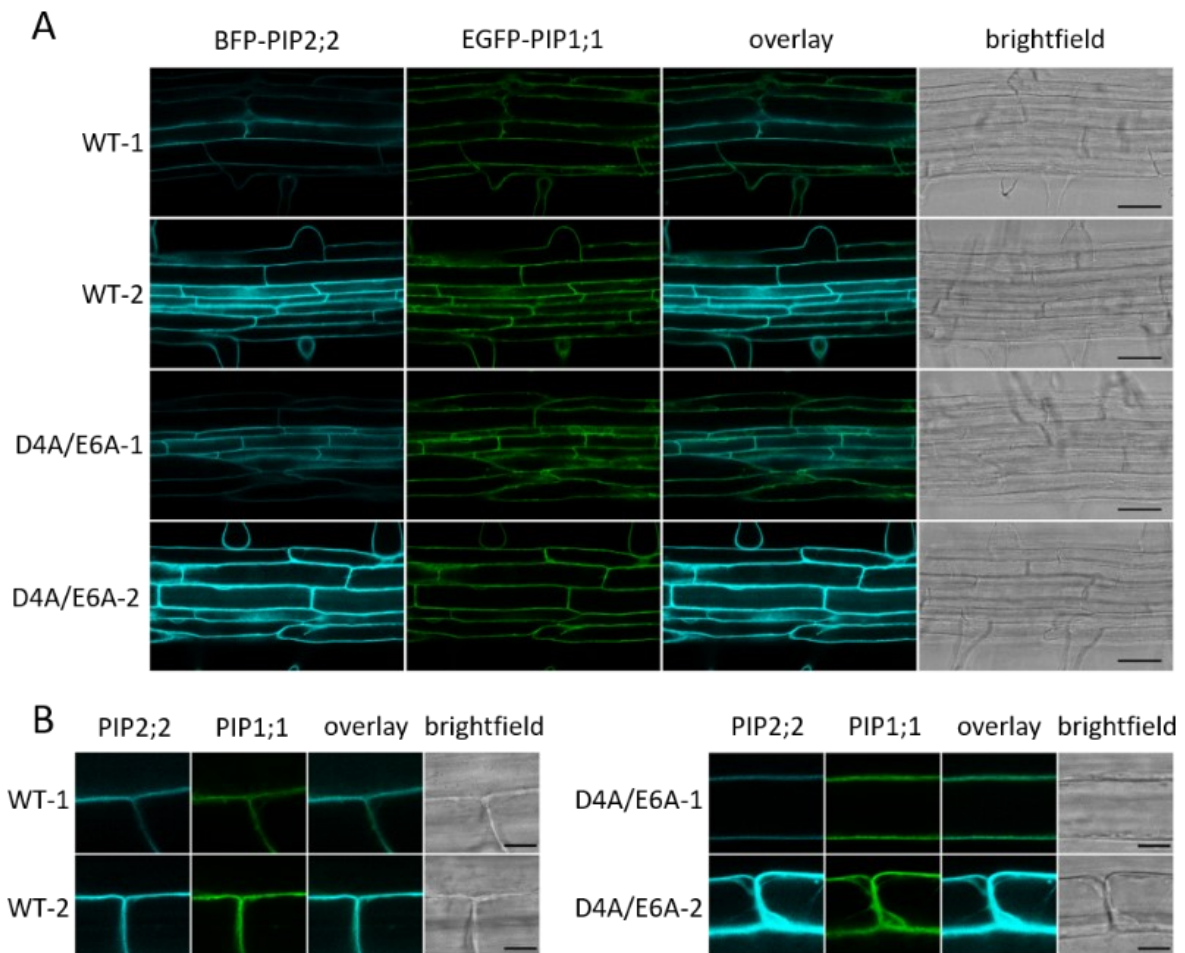
Table 26: Microscope settings for cFRAPc (WLL: white light laser)

| Fluorophore | Excitation | Detector | Detection |
|-------------|---------------|-----------------|------------|
| Green mEos | Argon: 488 nm | Hybrid detector | 500-550 nm |
| Red mEos | WLL: 570 nm | Hybrid detector | 590-680 nm |

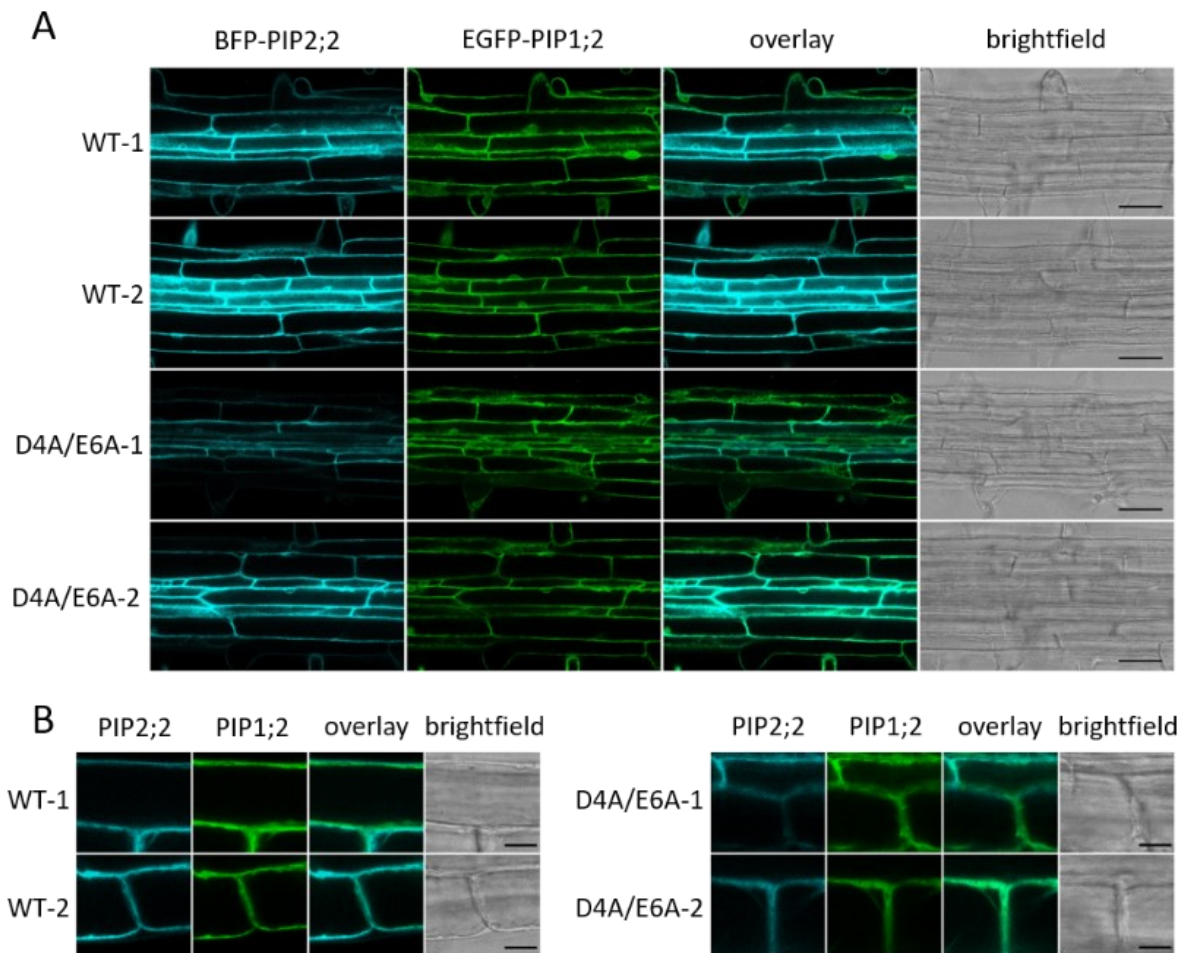
6 Appendix



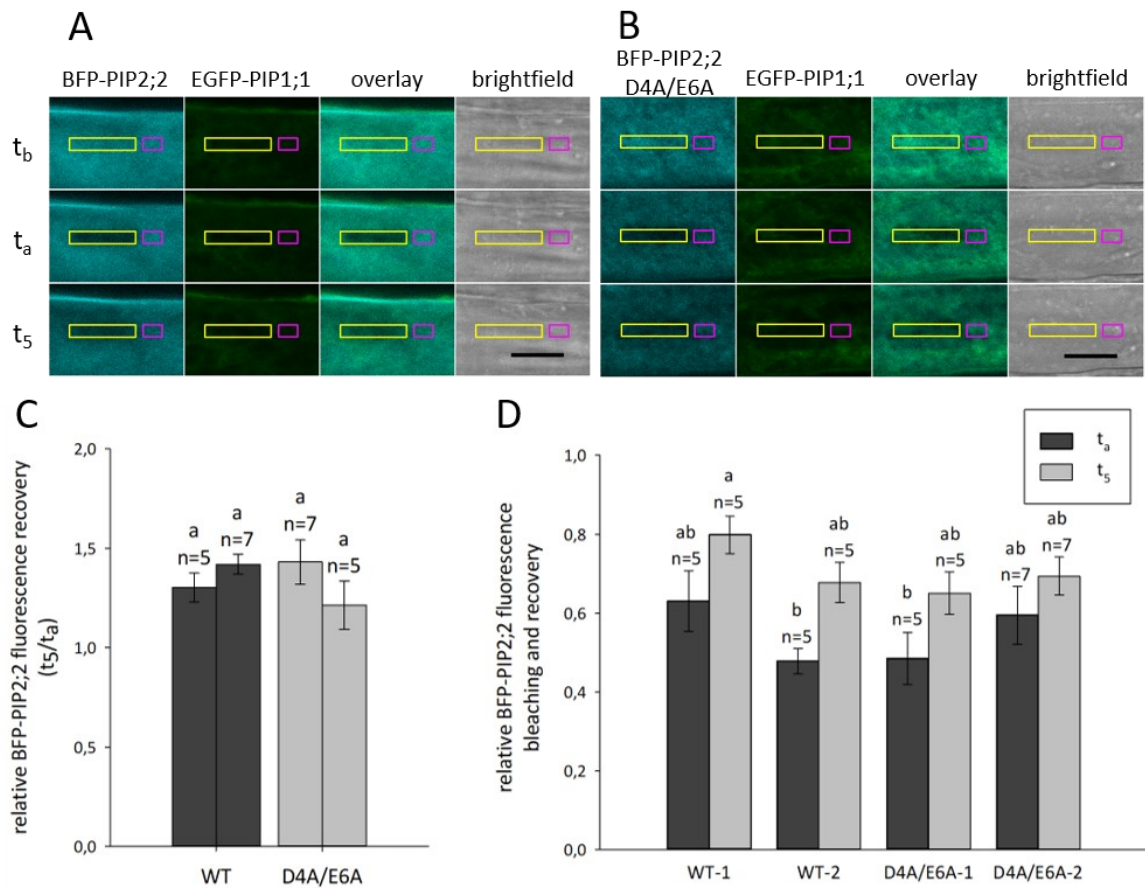
Supplemental Figure 1: **PIP1 and PIP2 protein levels in pip1 and pip2 mutants.** PIP1 and PIP2 protein levels were determined by immunoblotting using anti-PIP1 and anti-PIP2;1/PIP2;2/PIP2;3 antibodies (unpublished data; Liu, Da Ines and Geist). Anti-PIP1 antiserum recognizes all five PIP1 members, which are highly similar; anti-PIP2;1/2;2/2;3 antiserum specifically recognizes these three PIP2 isoforms. Standard error values and the significant differences between WT and the mutants are shown ($p \leq 0.05$: *).



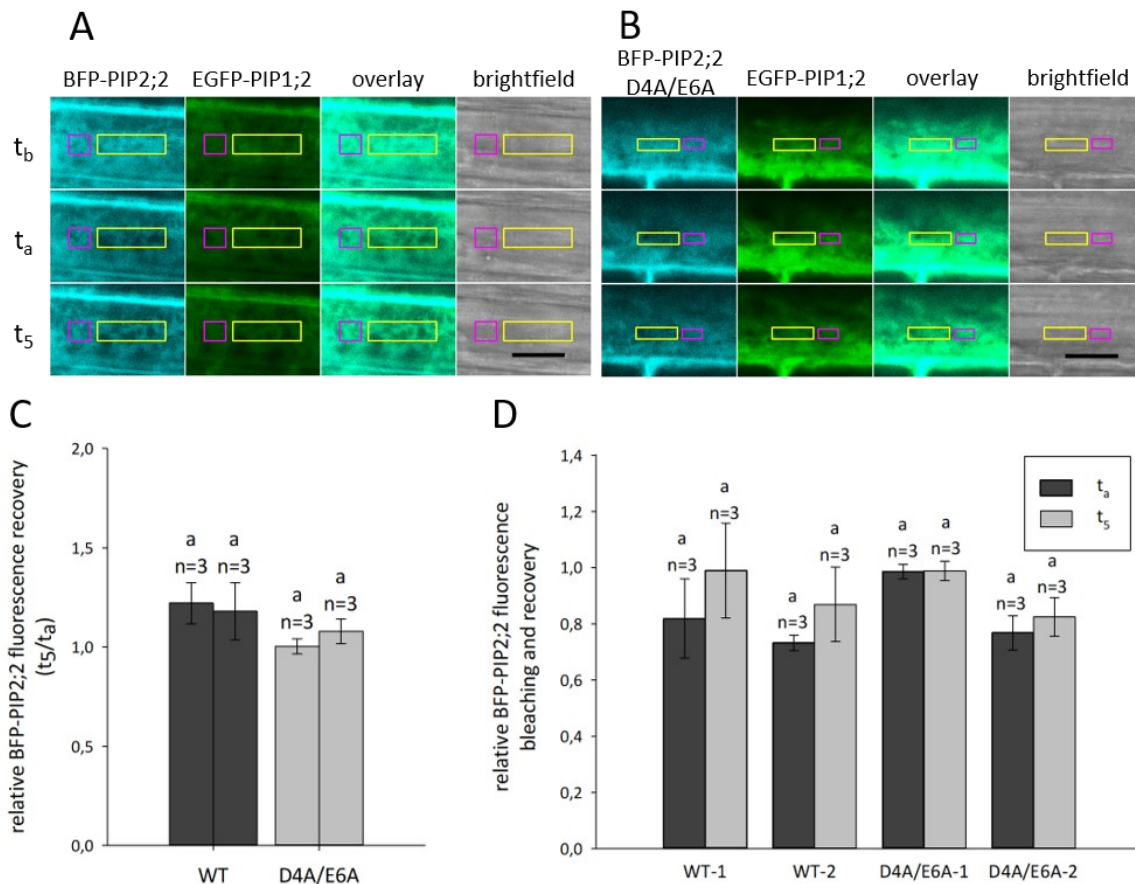
Supplemental Figure 2: Diacidic mutant of BFP-PIP2;2 in the EGFP-PIP1;1 line. (A) Cross-sections of five-day-old *A. thaliana* roots expressing BFP-PIP2;2 and EGFP-PIP1;1 were used to analyze the effect of a mutated diacidic motif (D4A/E6A) on the localization of both isoforms. All lines are stable single insertion lines and two independent lines (-1/ -2) were used to exclude the influence of the insertion site. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 405 nm/440-480 nm (BFP) and 488 nm/500-550 nm (EGFP). Two biological replicates were performed. Scale bars, 50 μ m. (B) Blow ups of (A) were performed to visualize subcellular localization. Scale bars, 10 μ m.



Supplemental Figure 3: Diacidic mutant of BFP-PIP2;2 in the EGFP-PIP1;2 line. (A) Cross-sections of five-day-old *A. thaliana* roots expressing BFP-PIP2;2 and EGFP-PIP1;2 were used to analyze the effect of a mutated diacidic motif (D4A/E6A) on the localization of both isoforms. All lines are stable single insertion lines and two independent lines (-1/ -2) were used to exclude the influence of the insertion site. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 405 nm/440-480 nm (BFP) and 488 nm/500-550 nm (EGFP). Two biological replicates were performed. Scale bars, 50 μ m. (B) Blow ups of (A) were performed to visualize subcellular localization. Scale bars, 10 μ m.



Supplemental Figure 4: FRAP experiments to estimate the intracellular labelling of BFP-PIP2;2. (A, B) Tangential optical sections of five-day-old *A. thaliana* root cells expressing EGFP-PIP1;1 and WT or D4A/E6A BFP-PIP2;2 constructs were imaged before (t_b), immediately after (t_a) and 5 min after photobleaching (t_s) the region of interest (ROI, shown by yellow boxes). In addition, a nonbleached region (NBR, shown by magenta boxes) was recorded at all time points to use as a reference to measure photobleaching independent fluorescence intensity changes. All lines are stable single insertion lines and two independent lines (-1/ -2, only one displayed as representative) were used to exclude the influence of the insertion site. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 405 nm/440-480 nm (BFP) and 488 nm/500-550 nm (EGFP). Scale bars, 10 μ m. (C) Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching of ROI corresponds to intracellular labeled BFP-PIP2;2 trafficking into the ROI. The ratio of t_s and t_a (t_s/t_a) gives an estimate of relative intracellular labelling, where "1" means no recovery and thus no intracellular labelling and higher values equal higher amounts of intracellular labelling. Standard error values, the number of independent cells studied (n) and the lack of significant differences between the lines are shown. No statistically significant difference ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance. (D) The success of the bleaching experiment can be judged by calculating the relative fluorescence bleaching (t_a) and recovery (t_s) with t_b as the reference. By displaying these values one can see, if a high reduction of fluorescence intensity is achieved after photobleaching, which is an essential factor to determine usability. Standard error values, the number of independent cells studied (n) and significant differences between the lines are shown. Significance ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance with the Holm-Sidak method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure.



Supplemental Figure 5: FRAP experiments to estimate the intracellular labelling of BFP-PIP2;2. (A, B) Tangential optical sections of five-day-old *A. thaliana* root cells expressing EGFP-PIP1;2 and WT or D4A/E6A BFP-PIP2;2 constructs were imaged before (t_b), immediately after (t_a) and 5 min after photobleaching (t_5) the region of interest (ROI, shown by yellow boxes). In addition, a nonbleached region (NBR, shown by magenta boxes) was recorded at all time points to use as a reference to measure photobleaching independent fluorescence intensity changes. All lines are stable single insertion lines and two independent lines (-1/ -2, only one displayed as representative) were used to exclude the influence of the insertion site. A Leica SP8 microscope was used for imaging with the following settings for excitation and detection wavelength: 405 nm/440-480 nm (BFP) and 488 nm/500-550 nm (EGFP). Scale bars, 10 μ m. (C) Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching of ROI corresponds to intracellular labeled BFP-PIP2;2 trafficking into the ROI. The ratio of t_5 and t_a (t_5/t_a) gives an estimate of relative intracellular labelling, where "1" means no recovery and thus no intracellular labelling and higher values equal higher amounts of intracellular labelling. Standard error values, the number of independent cells studied (n) and the lack of significant differences between the lines are shown. No statistically significant difference ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance. (D) The success of the bleaching experiment can be judged by calculating the relative fluorescence bleaching (t_a) and recovery (t_5) with t_b as the reference. By displaying these values one can see, if a high reduction of fluorescence intensity is achieved after photobleaching, which is an essential factor to determine usability. Standard error values, the number of independent cells studied (n) and the lack of significant differences between the lines are shown. No statistically significant difference ($P < 0.05$) was determined by One Way Analysis of Variance.

93.4% identity in 287 residues overlap; Score: 1387.0; Gap frequency: 0.7%

```

PIP2;2      1 MAKDVEGP--EGFQTRDYEDPPPTPFDADELTKWSLYRAVIAEFVATLLFLYITVLTVI
PIP2;1      1 MAKDVEAVPGEFQTRDYQDPPPAFIDGAELKKWSFYRAVIAEFVATLLFLYITVLTVI
          *****
          *****
          *****
          *****

PIP2;2      59 GYKIQSDTKAGGVDCGGVILGIAWAFGGMIFILVYCTAGISGGHINPAVTFGLFLARKV
PIP2;1      61 GYKIQSDTDAGGVDCGGVILGIAWAFGGMIFILVYCTAGISGGHINPAVTFGLFLARKV
          *****
          *****

PIP2;2      119 SLIRAVLYMVAQCLGAICGVGFVKAFQSSYYDRYGGANSLADGYNTGTGLAAEIIGTFV
PIP2;1      121 SLPRALLYIIAQCLGAICGVGFVKAFQSSYYTRYGGANSLADGYSTGTGLAAEIIGTFV
          ** ** **
          *****

PIP2;2      179 LVYTVFSATDPKRNARDSHVPVLAFLPIGFAVFMVHLATIPITGTGINPARSFGAAVIYN
PIP2;1      181 LVYTVFSATDPKRSARDSHVPVLAFLPIGFAVFMVHLATIPITGTGINPARSFGAAVIYN
          *****

PIP2;2      239 KSKPWDDHWIFWVGPFIGAAIAAFYHQFVLRASGSKSLGSFRSAANV
PIP2;1      241 KSKPWDDHWIFWVGPFIGAAIAAFYHQFVLRASGSKSLGSFRSAANV
          *****
    
```

96.8% identity in 285 residues overlap; Score: 1455.0; Gap frequency: 0.0%

```

PIP2;2      1 MAKDVEGPEGFQTRDYEDPPPTPFDADELTKWSLYRAVIAEFVATLLFLYITVLTVIGY
PIP2;3      1 MAKDVEGPDGFQTRDYEDPPPTPFDAEELTKWSLYRAVIAEFVATLLFLYVTVLTVIGY
          *****
          *****

PIP2;2      61 KIQSDTKAGGVDCGGVILGIAWAFGGMIFILVYCTAGISGGHINPAVTFGLFLARKVSL
PIP2;3      61 KIQSDTKAGGVDCGGVILGIAWAFGGMIFILVYCTAGISGGHINPAVTFGLFLARKVSL
          *****

PIP2;2      121 IRVAVLYMVAQCLGAICGVGFVKAFQSSYYDRYGGANSLADGYNTGTGLAAEIIGTFVLV
PIP2;3      121 IRVAVLYMVAQCLGAICGVGFVKAFQSSHYVNYGGANFLADGYNTGTGLAAEIIGTFVLV
          *****
          *****

PIP2;2      181 YTVFSATDPKRNARDSHVPVLAFLPIGFAVFMVHLATIPITGTGINPARSFGAAVIYNKS
PIP2;3      181 YTVFSATDPKRNARDSHVPVLAFLPIGFAVFMVHLATIPITGTGINPARSFGAAVIFNKS
          *****

PIP2;2      241 KPWWDDHWIFWVGPFIGAAIAAFYHQFVLRASGSKSLGSFRSAANV
PIP2;3      241 KPWWDDHWIFWVGPFIGATIAAFYHQFVLRASGSKSLGSFRSAANV
          *****
    
```

86.9% identity in 268 residues overlap; Score: 1250.0; Gap frequency: 0.0%

```

PIP2;2      14 RDYEDPPPTPFDADELTKWSLYRAVIAEFVATLLFLYITVLTVIGYKIQSDTKAGGVDC
PIP2;4      16 RDYKDPAPPFDADELTKWSLYRAVIAEFVATLLFLYVSVILTIVIGYKAQTDATAGGVDC
          *** **
          *****

PIP2;2      74 GGVGILGIAWAFGGMIFILVYCTAGISGGHINPAVTFGLFLARKVSLIRAVLYMVAQCLG
PIP2;4      76 GGVGILGIAWAFGGMIFVLYCTAGISGGHINPAVTVGLFLARKVSLVVRTVLYIVAQCLG
          *****
          *****

PIP2;2      134 AICGVGFVKAFQSSYYDRYGGANSLADGYNTGTGLAAEIIGTFVLVYTVFSATDPKRNA
PIP2;4      136 AICGCGFVKAFQSSYYTRYGGANELADGYNKGTGLGAEIIGTFVLVYTVFSATDPKRNA
          ****
          *****

PIP2;2      194 RDSHVPVLAFLPIGFAVFMVHLATIPITGTGINPARSFGAAVIYNKSKPWDDHWIFWVGP
PIP2;4      196 RDSHVPVLAFLPIGFAVFMVHLATIPITGTGINPARSFGAAVIYNNEKAWDDQWIFWVGP
          *****

PIP2;2      254 FIGAAIAAFYHQFVLRASGSKSLGSFRS
PIP2;4      256 MIGAAAAAFYHQFILRAAAIKALGSFGS
          ****
          *****
    
```


78.4% identity in 273 residues overlap; Score: 1106.0; Gap frequency: 2.2%

```

PIP2;2      9  EGFQTRDYEDPPPTPFDADELTKWSLYRAVIAEFVATLLFLYITVLTVIGYKIQSDTKA
PIP2;8      8  EGRHGKDYVDPPPAPLLDMAELKLWSFYRAIIAEFIATLLFLYVTVATVIGHKNQTGP--
          **      **  ***** * * ** ** ** * ** * ** * ** * ** * ** * ** *
          *

PIP2;2     69  GGVDCCGGVGLGIAWAFGGMIFILVYCTAGISGGHINPAVTFGLFLARKVSLIRAVLYMV
PIP2;8     66  ---CGGVGLLGIWAFGGMIFVVLVYCTAGISGGHINPAVTFGLFLARKVSLPRAVAYMV
          ***** *****

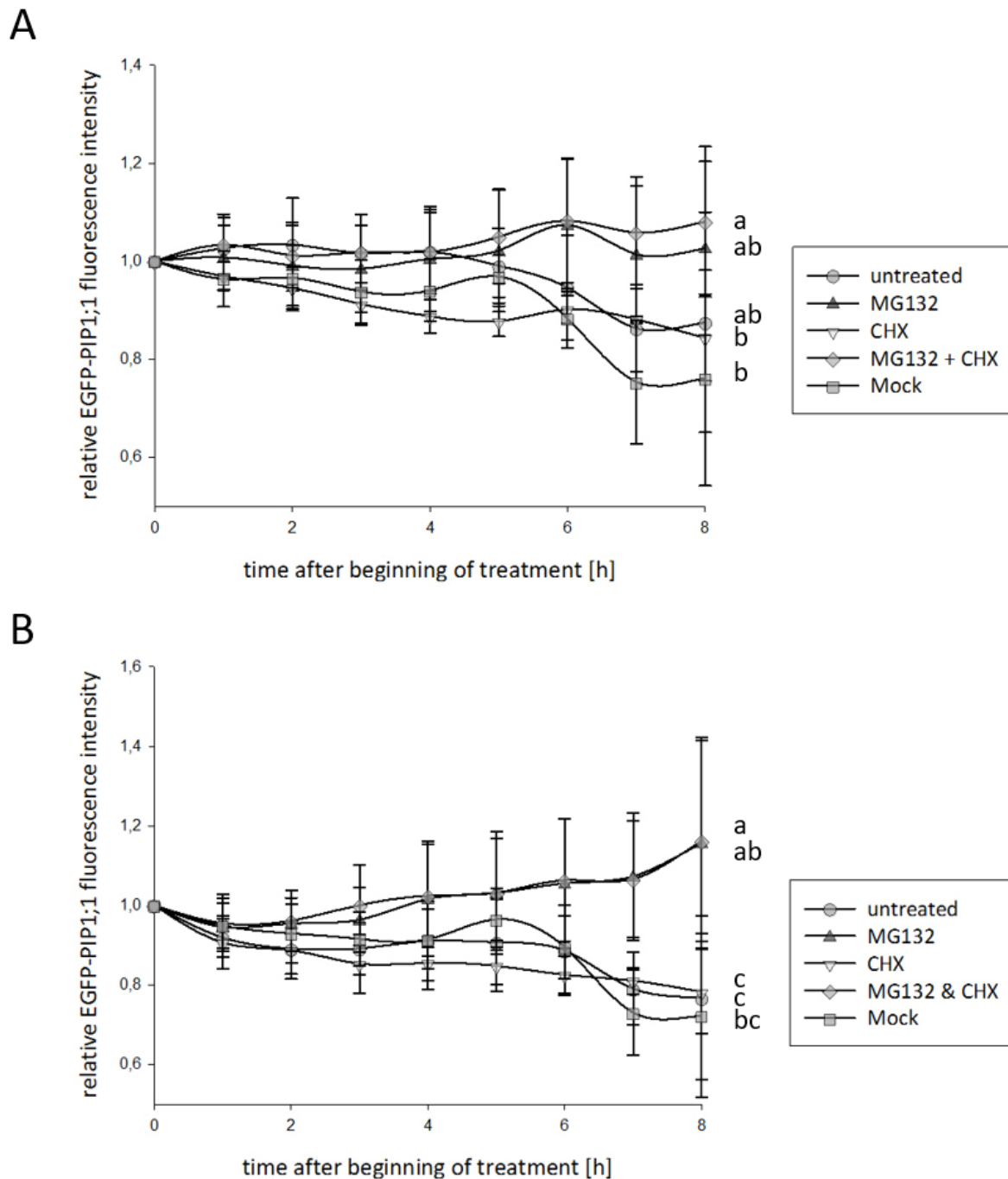
PIP2;2    129  AQCLGAICGVGFVKAQSSYYDRYGGGANS LADGYNTGTGLAAEIIIGTFVLVYTVFSATD
PIP2;8    122  AQCLGAICGVGLVKAFMMTPYKRLGGGANTVADGYSTGTALGAEIIIGTFVLVYTVFSATD
          ***** ***** * * ***** ***** * * *****

PIP2;2    189  PKRNARDSHVPVLA PLPIGFAVFMVHLATI PITGTGINPARSF GAAVIYNKSKPWDDHWI
PIP2;8    182  PKRSARDSHVPVLA PLPIGFAVFMVHLATI PITGTGINPARSF GAAVIYNNEKAWDDHWI
          *** ***** * *****

PIP2;2    249  FWVGPFIGAAIAAFYHQFVLRASGSKSLGSFRS
PIP2;8    242  FWVGPFGALAAAAYHQYILRAAAIKALASFRS
          ***** ** ** ** * ** * * **

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Supplemental Figure 6: Alignment of PIP2;2 with all other PIP2 isoforms. Alignments were performed using BLAST® (blastp suite) by the National Library of Medicine. Asterisks show amino acid identity between the compared isoforms.



Supplemental Figure 7: Influence of proteasomal degradation on the PIP1;1 protein. Mesophyll protoplasts were isolated from 4-week-old *pip1;1* (EGFP-PIP1;1) and *pip1;1 pip2;1 pip2;2* (EGFP-PIP1;1) plants. The fluorescence intensity was measured every hour after treatment with inhibitors (MG132, CHX) or mock (DMSO, EtOH) for 8 h to determine the influence of the proteasome on the PIP1;1 protein level in the wild-type-like (A) and double mutant-like (B) background. The measurement right after inhibitor addition served as a reference. Wild type protoplasts were monitored in parallel and the observed fluorescence intensity was used as the background value. Four biological replicates were performed and standard error values are shown. Statistically significant differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$) were determined by One Way Analysis of Variance with the time as a discrete factor and the Tukey method as the all pairwise multiple comparison procedure.

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