



Arabidopsis H⁺-ATPase AHA1 controls slow wave potential duration and wound-response jasmonate pathway activation

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Edited by Mark Estelle, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, CA, and approved August 22, 2019 (received for review April 29, 2019)

Electrogenic proton pumps have been implicated in the generation of slow wave potentials (SWPs), damage-induced membrane depolarizations that activate the jasmonate (JA) defense pathway in leaves distal to wounds. However, no defined H⁺-ATPases have been shown to modulate these electrical signals. Pilot experiments revealed that the proton pump activator fusicoccin attenuated SWP duration in *Arabidopsis*. Using mutant analyses, we identified *Arabidopsis* H⁺-ATPase 1 (AHA1) as a SWP regulator. The duration of the repolarization phase was strongly extended in reduced function *aha1* mutants. Moreover, the duration of SWP repolarization was shortened in the presence of a gain-of-function AHA1 allele. We employed aphid electrodes to probe the effects of the *aha1* mutation on wound-stimulated electrical activity in the phloem. Relative to the wild type, the *aha1-7* mutant increased the duration and reduced the amplitudes of electrical signals in sieve tube cells. In addition to affecting electrical signaling, expression of the JA pathway marker gene *JAZ10* in leaves distal to wounds was enhanced in *aha1-7*. Consistent with this, levels of wound-response jasmonoyl-isoleucine were enhanced in the mutant, as was defense against a lepidopteran herbivore. The work identifies a discrete member of the P-type ATPase superfamily with a role in leaf-to-leaf electrical signaling and plant defense.

jasmonate | proton ATPase | wound | vasculature | defense

Found in all domains of life, phosphorylation (P)-type ATPases power proton, ion, and molecule movements across membranes (1, 2). ATPases from this superfamily help to determine transmembrane potentials; their activities have been widely co-opted in electrical signaling. For example, Na⁺/K⁺ATPases are essential components of axonal action potential signaling throughout the animal kingdom (3). Unlike in animals, no defined P-type ATPase gene has an attributed function in the formation of any organ-to-organ electrical signal in plants. Nevertheless, the action of proton pumps has been implicated repeatedly in the production of slow wave potentials (SWPs), which are electrical signals that are generated in response to severe wounds (4). SWPs occur across the plant kingdom (4, 5) and earlier studies strongly suggest that proton gradients and, specifically, H⁺-ATPases within the P-type superfamily underlie part of the SWP mechanism in numerous plants (6–9). These studies were largely pharmacology based. Previous work used uncouplers (6, 7), proton pump activators (e.g., the fungal effector fusicoccin; ref. 7), chemical inhibitors such as cyanide (7, 8), orthovanadate (9), or apoplastic dyes (10) to investigate the relationship of ATP-driven proton pumping and SWP generation. Through the use of orthovanadate or fusicoccin, H⁺-ATPases have also been implicated in the generation of signals that are distinct from SWPs: system potentials (11).

The principal electrical events in the SWP are generally monitored with noninvasive surface electrodes. Measured this way, SWPs involve rapid (<2 s) and massive membrane depolarizations (>50 mV) and sustained repolarization phases lasting up to several minutes (4). In *Arabidopsis*, these events take place within the wounded leaf and, less than one minute later, in distal

leaves that share direct vascular connections with the wounded leaf (12). Earlier studies specifically implicated transient H⁺ pump inactivation in the depolarization phase of the SWP followed by proton pump reactivation/stimulation to enable repolarization (e.g., ref. 7). That is, wound-response H⁺-ATPase regulation could operate in both the depolarization phase and during membrane repolarization in the recovery phase. Despite decades of research, the only molecular components so far identified as necessary for SWP propagation are several clade 3 glutamate receptor-like (GLR) proteins (12). Genetic analyses indicated that GLRs 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, and 3.6 are regulators of membrane potential in wounded plants and single mutants in each of these genes reduce the duration of the SWP (13). That is, clade 3 *glr* mutants affect the SWP repolarization phase, making it shorter than that of the wild type (WT). If H⁺-ATPases act in the SWP, in which phase might they operate? Also, how would proton pump/*glr* double mutants respond to wounds? Here, we first set out to test whether fusicoccin, an activator of plasma membrane proton pumps including *Arabidopsis* H⁺-ATPases (AHAs; refs. 14–17) affected SWP generation in *Arabidopsis*. To do this, we exploited vein exposure procedures (13, 18) to facilitate the direct treatment of the primary vasculature.

Double mutants in certain clade 3 GLRs that impact SWPs also reduce the wound-stimulated activity of the jasmonate pathway (12). These mutants show a reduced capacity to defend themselves against insect herbivores relative to the WT (13). For example,

Significance

Phosphorylation (P)-type ATPases act to maintain and modulate charge distribution across membranes and these proteins have been coopted for electrical signaling in animals. When wounded, membranes in the leaves of *Arabidopsis thaliana* depolarize rapidly. This is followed by a slower repolarization phase. We found that the proton pump AHA1 acted to control membrane potential when these plants were wounded. Specifically, the repolarization phase in *aha1* mutants is prolonged relative to that in wild-type plants. In parallel, the jasmonate defense pathway is activated strongly and the mutant plants are better defended against herbivores than the wild type. We reveal that plants, like animals, use P-type ATPases in electrical signaling and show that AHA1 couples membrane potential to anti-herbivore defense.

Author contributions: A.K. and E.E.F. designed research; A.K., A.C., and C.T.N. performed research; A.K. and E.E.F. analyzed data; and A.K. and E.E.F. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

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This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1907379116/-DCSupplemental.

First published September 16, 2019.

levels of wound-response jasmonic acid (JA) and jasmonoyl-isoleucine (JA-Ile) were reduced in *glr3.3 glr3.6* double mutants as were wound-induced levels of transcripts for jasmonate pathway marker genes such as *JAZ10* (12). Therefore, if H⁺-ATPase mutants that affect wound-response membrane potentials could be found, they might also be potential regulators of the jasmonate pathway. Indeed, proton pumps were implicated previously in jasmonate pathway regulation (19–21). Also, mutation of a subunit of a *trans*-Golgi network H⁺-ATPase caused an increase in the accumulation of the JA precursor oxo-phytodienoic acid (OPDA; ref. 22). Our strategy was therefore to assay proton pump contributions to the propagation of SWPs. In a second approach, we examined whether or not these mutants affected jasmonate synthesis, jasmonate signaling, and herbivore defense.

Results

Proton Pump Modulation Affects Wound-Induced Electrical Signals.

Based on evidence that plasma membrane proton pumps participate in SWP production in other species (6–9), we set out to identify a discrete proton pump that regulates the *Arabidopsis* SWP. Each of the two initial methods we used was nonspecific in that each potentially targeted multiple AHAs within the primary vein, which is an established route for SWP propagation (13). In the first approach, the adaxial side of the primary vein in leaf petioles was surgically exposed so as leave the abaxial side supported by extravascular tissue. Fusicoccin (FC), which activates plasma membrane H⁺-ATPases (14, 23), or carrier solution alone was then applied to the exposed vein. Surface electrodes were placed on leaf 8 and leaf 13 as shown in *SI Appendix, Fig. S1A*, and leaf 8 was then wounded. Under these conditions, FC treatment attenuated the SWP duration in distal leaf 13 without affecting signal on leaf 8 (*SI Appendix, Fig. S1 B–D*).

The second, essentially reverse approach involved expressing a protein phosphatase (PP2C-D1) that is negative regulator of AHA2 (24) and possibly other AHAs. In those experiments, *PP2C-D1* expression driven by the *35S* promoter led to a dwarf plant phenotype. With the goal of having a less severe impact on rosette growth, we employed a tissue-specific promoter. The phloem was targeted since *GLR3.3*, which is important for SWP production and defense against herbivores, is expressed in this tissue (13). However, *GLR3.3* is also expressed in some epidermal cells. We therefore chose the phloem-specific promoter *SUC2* that is active in companion cells (25). *SUC2p::PP2C-D1* plants displayed smaller rosettes than did the WT (*SI Appendix, Fig. S2A*). Leaf 8 of both genotypes was wounded and SWPs were quantitated on distal leaf 13 using previously defined parameters (12). In contrast to FC treatments, plants expressing *PP2C-D1* showed SWP durations that were significantly longer than those in the WT (*SI Appendix, Fig. S2B*).

AHA1 Acts in Long-Distance Electrical Signaling. Since FC treatment reduced SWP duration and *PP2C-D1* expression increased SWP duration, we investigated the roles of specific *AHA* genes. The *Arabidopsis* genome carries 11 members of the *AHA* family (*AHA1–11*). Transcriptome studies indicate that *AHA1* and *AHA2* are the most highly expressed members of this family throughout the plant's life cycle (26). Phylogenetic studies also indicate that they share a common ancestor: *AHA3* which is expressed in phloem (27). However, homozygous loss-of-function alleles in this gene cause pollen lethality (28), so *aha3* mutants were not investigated in our study. Similarly, and indicating functional redundancy, *aha1 aha2* double mutants are embryo lethal (26). Since, *aha1* and *aha2* single mutants are viable, SWP production was tested using *aha1* and *aha2* mutants. SWP production was compared in the WT and in heterozygous and homozygous *aha1-7* plants (26). In the *AHA1* gene (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3A*), the *aha1-7* allele produces a truncated mRNA (26). We confirmed that this was the case and found that the truncation occurred upstream (5') to the last three

predicted transmembrane helices (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3B*). Then, using a pH indicator-based assay, we compared the ability of WT, the *ost2-2D* gain-of-function mutant in *AHA1* (29), and two reduced function alleles of *AHA1*: *aha1-6* (26) and *aha1-7* (26) roots to acidify growth medium. The *ost2-2D* mutant strongly acidified the growth medium. The *aha1-6* and *aha1-7* mutants, in contrast, failed to acidify the growth medium to the extent of that caused by the WT (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3C*). Since our work was focused on leaves from 5 to 6 wk-old plants, and the SWP is transmitted from leaf to leaf through the primary vasculature (13), we verified our results for medium acidification in *aha1-7* with leaf midveins isolated according to Kurenda and Farmer (18). Primary veins from *aha1-7* were less effective in acidifying the growth medium than were WT veins (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3D*).

Under our growth conditions, *aha1-7* showed a weak growth reduction phenotype (Fig. 1A). In each case, leaf 8 was wounded and SWPs were monitored on this leaf and on distal leaf 13. The duration of the repolarization phase of the SWP in wounded leaf 8 was extended in both *+aha1-7* and in *aha1-7/aha1-7* plants (Fig. 1B). Additionally, the *aha1-7* homozygote increased SWP duration in leaf 13 (Fig. 1C). To confirm that mutations in *AHA1* were responsible for altering wound-activated electrical signals, the *aha1-7* mutant was complemented with an *AHA1*-encoding genomic fragment to which a Venus fluorescent protein tag (30) was added to the C terminus. Examination of third generation (T3) transformants showed that *AHA1* restored the WT growth phenotype which, prior to rescue, was smaller than the WT (Fig. 1D). Moreover, WT-like SWPs were observed in both wounded leaf 8 and in distal leaf 13 of complemented plants (Fig. 1E and F). We then tested the *ost2-2D* mutant in which *AHA1* is constitutively active (29). We found that *ost2-2D* increased SWP depolarization amplitudes (Fig. 1G) and reduced SWP repolarization durations in leaf 13 when leaf 8 was wounded (Fig. 1H).

To investigate a second reduced function *aha1* allele, we tested *aha1-6* (26). In wounded *aha1-6*, and consistently with what we observed with *aha1-7*, we detected substantial increases in SWP durations compared to the WT in distal leaf 13 when leaf 8 was wounded (*SI Appendix, Fig. S4A*). In contrast, no significant differences in SWP characteristics were found when the WT and the *aha2-4* mutant were compared (*SI Appendix, Fig. S4B*). Together, these results indicated a potentially stronger role of *AHA1* than *AHA2* in SWP generation. At this point our results strongly suggested a role of *AHA1* in membrane potential regulation in the SWP. However, assessing the effects of proton pump mutants on the SWP are potentially complicated due to possible effects on plant development. We therefore examined sections of the petiolar primary veins of the WT and *aha1-7* using transmission electron microscopy. No readily detectable differences were observed between the two genotypes (*SI Appendix, Fig. S5*).

Proton pumps are major regulators of membrane potential in plants (16, 17) and SWPs are detected as strong and prolonged changes in membrane potential that are triggered by wounding (4). So far, the only gene products that have been found to regulate the *Arabidopsis* SWP are several clade 3 GLRs. These proteins act as regulators of membrane potential during the wound response (12, 13). While *glr* double mutants carrying loss-of-function *glr3.3* and *glr3.6* alleles largely or completely abolish the SWP detected in a leaf distal to a wound, the *glr3.3* mutant has a weak attenuating effect on the SWP without eliminating it (12). We investigated whether the highly prolonged repolarization phases seen in both wounded leaf 8 and distal leaf 13 of *aha1-7* were affected in a *glr3.3* background. The increased duration of the repolarization phase seen in *aha1-7* was reduced to a shorter-than-WT duration in *glr3.3 aha1-7*; i.e., *glr3.3* was epistatic to *aha1-7* (Fig. 2).

***aha1-7* Alters Sieve Element Depolarization Signals.** To identify cells in which the *AHA1* promoter was active, we used an *AHA1p::GUS* (β -glucuronidase) fusion gene. GUS staining was mostly restricted

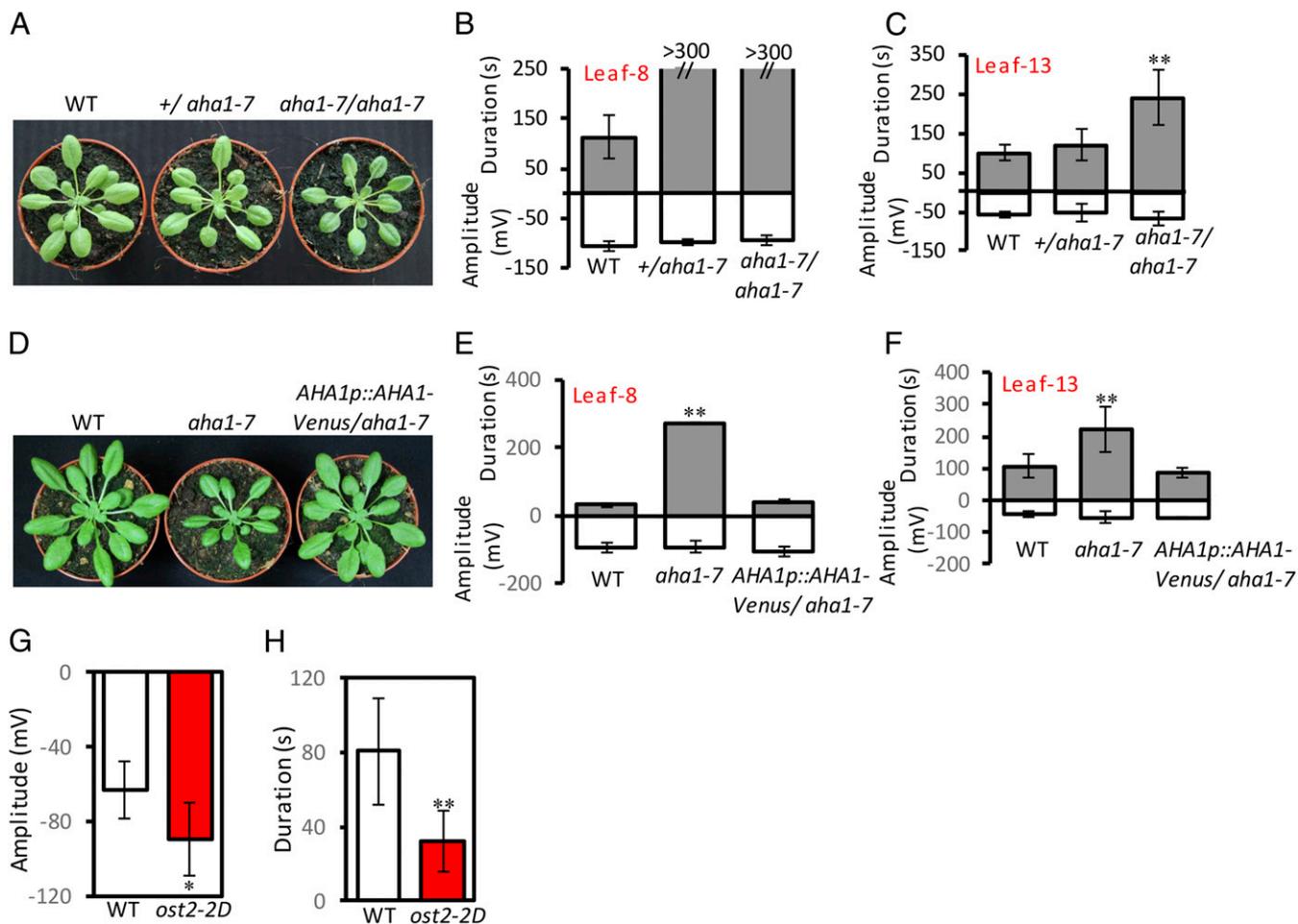


Fig. 1. Phenotype and wound-activated surface potential measurements in *aha1-7*, complemented *aha1-7*, and *ost2-2D*. (A) Five weeks-old wild-type (WT) rosette, *+/aha1-7*, and *aha1-7/aha1-7* rosettes. (B) Surface potential changes on leaf 8. Broken columns indicate measurements after wounding where repolarization taking more than 300 s was not quantified. (C) Surface potentials on distal leaf 13. (D) Five weeks-old WT, *aha1-7*, and *aha1-7* complemented with *AHA1p::AHA1-Venus*. (E) Wound-activated surface potential changes on leaf 8, and (F) on distal leaf 13 ($n = 10-12$). (G and H) Wound-activated surface potential changes in distal leaf 13 of *ost2-2D*. (G) Amplitude and (H) duration, ($n = 15$). Data shown are means \pm SD. Asterisks indicate a significant difference with WT. Student *t* test: * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$.

to the vasculature and to trichomes (Fig. 3A). The *AHA1* promoter was active in the core vasculature; i.e., within cells associated with both the phloem and xylem (Fig. 3B). This raised the possibility that *AHA1* affects electrical signaling in these cells and prompted us to use cell-specific electrodes based on live insects. Living aphids can be used as intracellular electrodes to detect plant cell-specific electrical signaling (31). This method revealed that wounding of the WT caused a prolonged multiphasic depolarization of phloem sieve elements (SEs). In the WT, a fast, spike-like depolarization signal is embedded in a long duration (slower) depolarization (31). Here, we wounded leaf 8 of 5.5 wk-old plants and, using aphid electrodes, examined electrical events in SEs in leaf 13 of the WT and *aha1-7*. The amplitudes of the spike signals as well as the overall durations of the depolarization phases were quantitated according to ref. 31 as shown in *SI Appendix, Fig. S6*. Only the fast spike-like signal is shown in Fig. 3C. We found that *aha1-7* attenuated the amplitudes of these rapid signals (Fig. 3D) whereas the duration of the full depolarization phase was increased in the mutant compared to the WT (Fig. 3E). This prompted us to perform additional experiments since, when measured with surface electrodes, the rapid SWP depolarization phase is followed by increases in cytosolic Ca^{2+} (13). Using the approach outlined in ref. 13, we tested whether *aha1-7* affected cytosolic Ca^{2+} transients in the petiole of leaf 13 following wounding of leaf 8. Consistent with

the prolonged repolarization phase observed in *aha1-7*, we found prolonged Ca^{2+} transients compared to the WT (*SI Appendix, Fig. S7*). The averaged mean duration of the WT calcium transient at half maximum amplitude was 66 s. This value in *aha1-7* was 112 s. We also noted that the amplitude of GCaMP3 fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) was somewhat higher in *aha1-7* than in the WT.

Increased Jasmonate Accumulation and Anti-Herbivore Defense in *aha1-7*. Proton pump activity has been implicated in the regulation of jasmonate signaling (19). To test whether various *aha1* alleles altered the activity of this pathway, we measured levels of the *JAZ10* jasmonate signaling marker gene (32) in distal leaf 13 after wounding leaf 8. In these experiments the *ost2-2D* gain-of-function allele of *AHA1*, which shortens the SWP duration, showed a reduced capacity to accumulate *JAZ10* transcript in a leaf distal to a wound (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8A*) whereas *aha1-6* mutant that increases the SWP duration displayed higher than WT *JAZ10* transcript levels in leaf 13 1 h after wounding leaf 8 (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8B*). To verify whether this was due to *AHA1* mutation, we measured *JAZ10* levels in *aha1-7* and in *aha1-7* complemented with *AHA1p::AHA1-Venus*. Complementation restored wound-induced *JAZ10* transcripts in distal leaf 13 to levels similar to those in the wounded WT (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8C*). Next, *JAZ10* transcript levels were compared in heterozygous and homozygous *aha1-7* plants.

for regulation of this protein during SWP formation. Mechanisms that link systemin perception (40) to H⁺-ATPase activity may provide further clues about potential modes of wound-associated AHA1 regulation.

Here we investigated the roles of proton pumps in JA pathway function and not the function of the JA pathway in regulating proton pumps. We found that AHA1 regulates jasmonate synthesis and signaling in wounded plants, and acts as a suppressor of herbivore defense. Viewed from a genetic perspective, *AHA1* in our study is a negative regulator of JA synthesis and signaling. This contrasts with a report that *AHA1* positively regulates JA signaling by enhancing the interaction of JA receptor components (21). The mechanism we are studying therefore appears to differ from that studied by Zhou et al. (21). Prolonging the repolarization phase of the SWP may enhance *JAZ10* expression and plant defense. This would be consistent with genetic evidence that the activity of the jasmonate pathway is controlled in part by wound-response membrane potential changes (12, 13). Additionally, JA pathway activity is up-regulated in a gain-of-function ion channel mutant that may cause endomembrane depolarization (41). Summarizing, AHA1 acts as a negative regulator of SWP duration. We leave open

the possibility that other AHAs participate in SWP generation either as positive or negative regulators. Clade 3 GLRs were previously identified as SWP regulators (12, 13). The present study identifies AHA1 as a second element in SWP generation. This protein powers proton transfer necessary to restore membrane potential after the SWP. Plants, like animals, use P-type ATPases in electrical signaling.

Materials and Methods

All plants used were in the Columbia-0 background. Generation of transgenics, JA quantifications, insect bioassays, surface electrophysiology, aphid electrophysiology, acidification assays, and gene expression analysis techniques are described in the *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank S. Stolz (University of Lausanne) for help with *SUC2* promoter cloning, A. Kurenda (University of Lausanne) for help with image analysis, B. Fauvet (University of Lausanne) for advice on statistics, and the Electron Microscopy Facility, University of Lausanne, for micrographs. Jasmonate quantifications were performed under the direction of Dr. G. Glauser, platform of Analytical Chemistry, University of Neuchâtel. S. Kellenberger, C. Hardtke, and P. Reymond (University of Lausanne) provided critical comments on the manuscript. This work was funded by Swiss National Science Foundation grants (31003A-138235 and 31003A-175566) to E.E.F.

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