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Shoot regeneration: a journey from acquisition of competence to completion

Dhanya Radhakrishnan¹, Abdul Kareem¹, Kavya Durgaprasad¹, E Sreeraj¹, Kaoru Sugimoto² and Kalika Prasad¹



Plants display an extraordinary ability to regenerate complete shoot systems from a tissue fragment or even from a single cell. Upregulation of the determinants of pluripotency during a precise window of time in response to external inductive cues is a key decisive factor for shoot regeneration. A burst of recent studies has begun to provide an understanding of signaling molecules that are instrumental in the making of the regenerative mass, as well as the developmental regulators that are seminal in shaping the pluripotent state. Here, we discuss how signaling molecules, waves of mutually exclusive stem cell regulators and epigenetic modifiers could contribute to cellular heterogeneity in an island of regenerative mass, thus leading to *de novo* shoot regeneration.

Addresses

¹ School of Biology, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala 695016, India

² Department of Applied Biological Science, Faculty of Science and Technology, Tokyo University of Science, 2641 Yamazaki, Noda, Chiba 278-8510, Japan

Corresponding author: Prasad, Kalika (kalika@iisertvm.ac.in)

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Introduction

A zygote exemplifies a single cell capable of giving rise to a complete organism. However, plants are among the rare organisms known to possess the extraordinary capacity of awakening the totipotency that lies dormant in a few selected cells of the adult body $[1^{\circ},2,3]$. The current scale of plant regeneration studies, and commercial applications resulting from them, arises from our understanding of the crucial role played by two key plant hormones, auxin and cytokinin, in modulating *de novo* plant regeneration [4]. *De novo* organogenesis [5,6] and somatic embryogenesis [7] are strictly hormone-induced and hormone-controlled processes that are almost impossible without these external cues. External inductive cues of this nature, which are sufficient for cellular reprogramming to give rise to complete organism from a tissue fragment, are limited to the plant kingdom (Figure 1) [3,8]. Over the years, several studies of the loss of function of key plant specific transcription factors and the consequences of their forced expression during *de novo* shoot regeneration have permitted the unearthing of the underlying molecular mechanisms $[1^{\circ},9,10^{\circ},11,12^{\circ},13,14]$. In this review, we highlight how recent studies into *de novo* shoot regeneration have begun to reveal the fundamental cellular and molecular events in real time, and how this has generated renewed interest in novel areas of reprogramming [15], where a number of key questions yet remain unsolved.

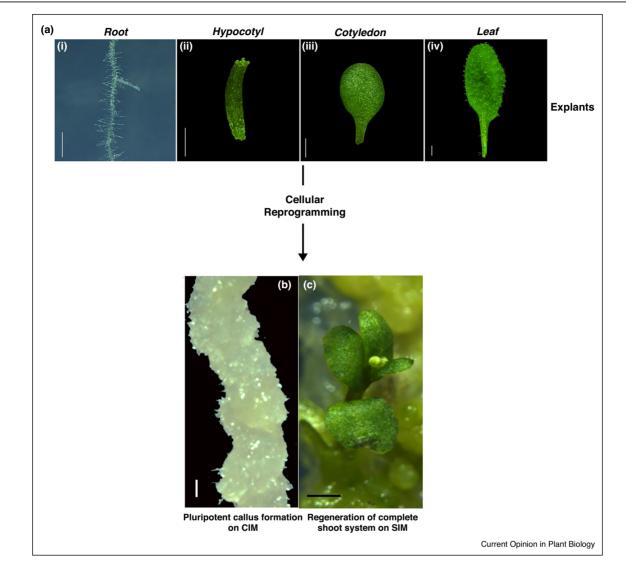
Modes of regeneration

Until now, the most investigated and best understood mode of shoot regeneration is callus mediated regeneration using a two step protocol or a modified version of this protocol [5]. Indirect *de novo* shoot regeneration involves two phases of incubation: first callus induction on an auxin rich medium, followed by shoot organogenesis on a cytokinin rich medium [10^{••},16–19]. The regenerative potential of explants used for callus induction largely depends on their developmental stages [18,20] and origins [5,21]. In contrast, direct shoot organogenesis involves the incubation of suitable explants on cytokinin containing media, with or without prior auxin priming [10^{••},16,22,23^{••},24]. Conversion of lateral root primordia (LRP) to shoots is an example of direct regeneration. The central role of each hormone, in moulding the plasticity of plant cells, is demonstrated by the critical importance of either auxin or cytokinin during the different phases of incubation during both modes of regeneration.

Acquisition of competence to regenerate shoot in response to relative abundance of plant hormones

The auxin to cytokinin ratio in the culture medium is key to the development of a pluripotent callus [16,25^{••}]. Several lines of evidence demonstrate an irreplaceable role for high auxin concentration in LRP initiation [26] as well as in pluripotent callus formation [27]. The organogenetic potential and the molecular characteristics of a callus induced on a cytokinin rich callus induction medium (CIM) is markedly different from a callus induced on auxin rich CIM. High concentrations of cytokinin induces phloem pericycle cell divisions in





Arabidopsis explants undergoing cellular reprogramming to regenerate complete shoot systems. (a) Explants used for *de novo* shoot regeneration: (i) root, (ii) hypocotyl, (iii) cotyledon, and (iv) leaf. (b) Pluripotent callus formation from explant on callus induction medium (CIM). (c) Regeneration of complete shoot system from callus on shoot induction medium (SIM). Scale bars in (a.ii and a.iii) represent 0.5 mm and 1 mm in the rest of the images. Image (c) is reprinted from Kareem *et al.* [10^{••}] with permission from Cell Press. License number: 4158680029029.

contrast to the xylem pole pericycle divisions induced on auxin rich media [16]. Key root trait determinants, essential for the establishment of pluripotency (see the section below), are dramatically downregulated in cytokinin rich CIM and such callus fails to regenerate shoots [16,25^{••}]. These studies suggest the sole use of cytokinin in CIM is not sufficient to drive the downstream molecular changes and cell divisions required to establish the pluripotency and thus the ability to regenerate shoots. During direct regeneration, auxin rich LRP are competent to make shoots when exposed to high cytokinins [10^{••},16,23^{••},24], further supporting the role of high auxin in establishing the pluripotency necessary to regenerate shoots.

A root developmental pathway is important for callus formation

Initial incubation on CIM prompts the pool of reprogrammable adult stem cells constituted by xylem-pole pericycle cells in roots, and pericycle-like cells in aerial explants, to undergo rapid division in response to exogenously applied auxin [$25^{\bullet\bullet}$,28,29]. These cell divisions and ensuing molecular changes during CIM pre-incubation play a critical role in the acquisition of competence for shoot induction [$10^{\bullet\bullet}$,16,17,19,25^{$\bullet\bullet$},29]. As these cells proliferate, the expression of *J0121* [30], a marker for differentiated pericycle cells, becomes diffuse and disappears from the callus [$17,25^{\bullet\bullet}$,29]. The disappearance

of J012 expression has been correlated with the higher potential to form callus, as in the case of the callus formation related 1(cfr1) mutant [31[•]]. J0121 has an intermediate expression level in wild type callus and persists in solitary-root (slr/iaa14) mutants [32] which are defective in callus formation [31[•]]. Loss of J0121 is not a mark of dedifferentiation during callus formation, but rather appears to mark the acquisition of a root identity by callus cells [17,25°,31°]. The root identity of the callus is supported by similarities between the morphology, cellular organization and gene expression profiles of roots and callus. Many root tissue markers such as WUSCHELrelated homeobox 5 (WOX5), SHORT-ROOT (SHR), SCARECROW (SCR), PLETHORA 1 (PLT1), PLT2, PIN-FORMED1 (PIN1), the quiescent center marker, QC25, ROOT-CLAVATA HOMOLOG 1 (RCH1) and GLABRA2 (GL2) are expressed in callus irrespective of the origin of the explants [10^{••},16,25^{••}]. The significance of the systematic triggering of a root development pathway during callus formation has been further emphasised by genetic studies which demonstrate reduction or elimination of callus formation in the aberrant lateral root formation 4 (alf4) mutant [25^{••}], which is defective in lateral root initiation [33]. Interestingly, signaling molecules such as very long chain fatty acids restrict the ALF4 mediated callus forming activity of pericycle cells [31[•]]. The crucial role played by LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARIES DOMAIN (LBD) transcription factors in lateral root development as well as in callus induction also reinforces the significance of the root development pathway in callus formation [34-36]. Thus, morphological and molecular similarities and genetic studies highlight the commonalities between callus formation and lateral root initiation suggesting that root-like traits are likely to influence the regeneration potential of callus.

To be or not to be competent?

The significance of root traits in conferring regenerative potential to the callus derived from all explants, irrespective of their origin, has recently been unraveled by studying the molecular and cellular phenotypes of the *plt3*, 5-2, 7 triple mutant in real time [10^{••}]. *PLT* genes encode plant specific double AP2 domain-containing transcription factors [37]. *plt3*,5-2,7 mutant [38,39] callus was shown to lose key root trait determinants and the ability to regenerate any shoot progenitors [10^{••}]. Root stem cell regulators are transcriptionally regulated by PLT3, PLT5 and PLT7 and play an essential role in conferring pluripotency and thus competence to make shoot progenitors. Subsequent over-expression of organ boundary gene CUP-SHAPED COTYLEDON 2 (CUC2), which is also regulated by the *PLT* genes, helps in the successful outgrowth of the shoot from the regenerative foci. This study thus reveals a two step mechanism which appears to be valid for all explant tissues [10^{••}]. The competence to regenerate and the timely divergence from the initial lateral root development pathway are also essential criteria for direct conversion of LRP to shoots. During direct shoot regeneration, LRP at neither very early stages nor very late stages are capable of conversion [22,23^{••}]. The intermediate stage, competent, LRP contain a group of cells in the transient root stem cell niche that expresses WOX5, rapidly followed by the expression of shoot specific genes like WUSCHEL (WUS), CLAVATA 3 (CLV3) and SHOOT MERISTEMLESS (STM) when these LRP are incubated on cytokinin media [23^{••}]. The initial expression of root stem cell regulators in LRP, together with their genetic necessity for conversion of LRP to shoot demonstrate that transient root traits are essential in pluripotent founder cells for cellular reprogramming towards shoot fate [10^{••},23^{••}].

Wounding, inevitable signaling in priming the regeneration

Wounding is an inevitable process during regeneration as the formation of protuberances on CIM as well as the outgrowth of competent LRPs is characterized by forceful protrusion of these developing structures through nonconverted cells. The consequent loss of contact between the adjacent differentiated cells is likely to trigger the wound signaling pathway. Interestingly, over-expression of the wound induced transcription factor, WOUND INDUCED DEDIFFERENTIATION 1 (WIND1) followed by prolonged incubation on cytokinin rich medium can bypass the need for external application of artificial auxin on explants [12[•]]. Recent findings piece the puzzle together by providing insights into how woundinginduced signaling can promote *de novo* shoot regeneration. The WIND1 transcription factor directly activates ENHANCER OF SHOOT REGENERATION 1 (ESR1) to promote CUP SHAPED COTYLEDON 1 (CUC1)-mediated shoot regeneration [40[•]]. However the question of what establishes the pluripotency in wound induced callus remains. Are wound induced signals or transient WIND1 overexpression during callus formation sufficient to establish pluripotency and thus competence to regenerate, in addition to ESR1-mediated shoot promoting activity? It is important to note that key root cell fate determinants do not display appreciable up-regulation in WIND1 overexpressing callus as compared to callusinduced by wounding together with external auxin applications [12[•]]. This raises the question of whether other wound induced signals can substitute for the necessity for root cell fate determinants in conferring the pluripotent state to callus? This does not appear to be the case, as external inductive cues involving wounding in addition to auxin, fails to trigger any sign of shoot regeneration in mutants defective in lateral root cell fate determinants [10^{••}]. Callus harbouring an artificial repressive form of WIND1 express nearly normal levels of root cell fate determinants and does regenerate shoots, though only occasionally [40[•]]. Proof of the absolute necessity for WIND1 to establish pluripotency requires clean genetics involving the cumulative loss of function of WIND1 and related redundant genes. Although both these and other studies are needed to gain deeper insights, the possibility that wound induced signals act together with root cell fate determinants to establish the pluripotent state, and the indispensible role of root stem cell regulators in shoot regeneration, remain central elements in our current view of this enigmatic process.

Waves of expression of distinct sets of stem cell regulators are key to progressive shoot regeneration

Regeneration is a constant tug-of-war between the root and shoot identities in response to external inductive cues. Depending on the root vs. shoot inductive cues, the preponderance of either root or shoot factors will drive the process along specific developmental pathways. The final phase of indirect *de novo* regeneration is the transfer of competent calli to Shoot Inducing Medium (SIM). This triggers rapid changes in morphological features and molecular markers [19]. Calli incubated on SIM show faster and unorganised proliferation outside of the central region of the root explants [16]. Another observable feature which may be easily mistaken for a sign of shoot regeneration is the greening of the calli, which has been attributed to the maturation of chlorophyll promoted by cytokinin $[41,42^{\circ}]$. The epidermal hairs which are prominent on CIM and at early stages of SIM incubation become less pronounced on prolonged SIM incubation. The possibility of reversal (root \leftrightarrow shoot) of cell fate at the shoot regenerating foci has not been addressed during the process of callus mediated (two step) regeneration process. However, the answer to the question of reversibility can be partially deduced by following the dynamics of cellular events, transient phases of the resetting of the cellular identity and expression patterns of key factors capable of switching cell fate in real time. It is well established that root stem cell regulators such as PLT1, PLT2 (Figure 3a,e), SCR and root specific markers like QC25, and RCH1 are rapidly down-regulated during incubation on SIM (Figure 2a) [10^{••},16,19]. At this juncture, the expression of shoot specific genes is neither strongly upregulated nor confined to specific domains $[9,10^{\bullet\bullet},16,19]$. Thus, there appears to exist a narrow intermediate void phase during which a defined root or shoot identity cannot be assigned, and the callus exists in a kind of 'no man's land'. The shoot stem cell regulators, WUS and STM display an upregulated expression in a confined domain only after a few days in response to high levels of cytokinin. By this time the expression of root stem cell regulators has diminished [10^{••},16,19]. This lag between the peaks of the expression of two distinct sets of mutually exclusive stem cell regulators may not allow multiple rounds of reversible fate switching unlike the situation observed during direct regeneration. Such a lag between the downregulation of root stem cell regulators and upregulation of shoot stem cell regulators is not observed during direct regeneration [22,23**]. The

converting LRP passes through a transient phase where it apparently possesses a dual fate (both root as well as shoot stem cell regulators are expressed) (Figure 2b) [22,23^{••}]. During the direct conversion of LRP to shoots, cell fate can be reversibly switched multiple times during a narrow window of time. During this brief period, the cell fate of the LRP, where there is an upregulation of shoot stem cell regulators due to cytokinin treatment, can be reverted to form a root meristem by subsequent auxin treatment [23^{••}]. Lateral root primordia cells expressing both root and shoot stem cell regulators thus appears to act as bipotent stem cells that can give rise to either root or shoot fate.

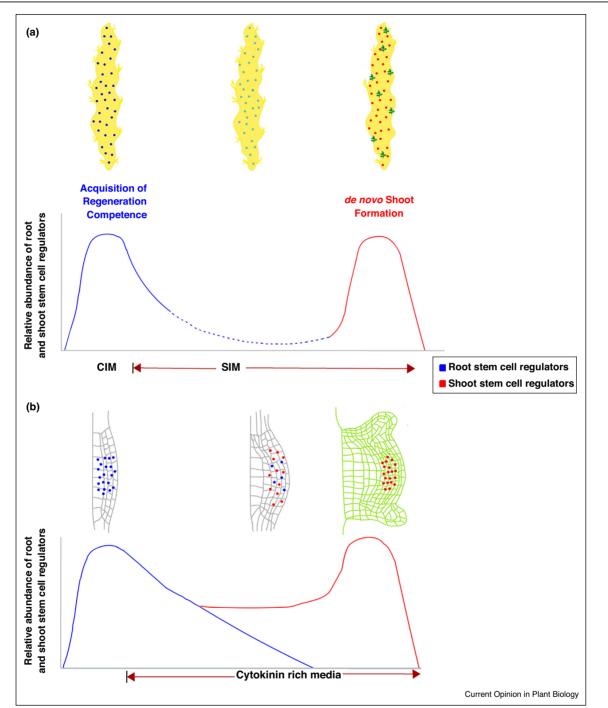
Uncoupling the intermediate developmental phases during regeneration

A central question that remains largely unanswered across the plant kingdom is whether regeneration proceeds through intermediate developmental phases and whether these phases can be uncoupled? While indications of potential intermediate phases were realized during morphological studies of regenerating callus across Arabidopsis accessions $[42^{\circ}]$, a major challenge was to uncover the cellular and molecular mechanisms that could uncouple these intermediate phases of shoot regeneration. A key step in understanding the mechanisms of regeneration was the discovery of distinct *PLT* regulated modules that uncoupled the acquisition of competence to regenerate shoot progenitors from the completion of shoot regeneration [10^{••}]. The study involved the step by step reintroduction of root stem cell regulators and shoot promoting factors in a mutant blocked at an intermediate phase of shoot regeneration. This resulted in a sequential unblocking of the intermediate phases, thereby identifying key regulatory modules required to accomplish shoot regeneration [10^{••}].

Cellular heterogeneity during shoot regeneration

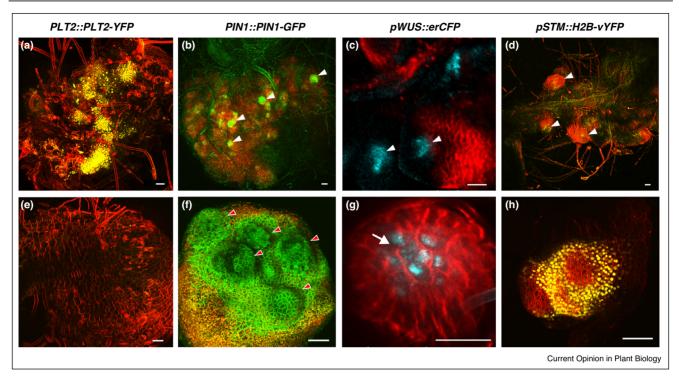
The *de novo* assembly of a shoot in an island of callus appears to follow the basic principles of self-organisation. The tightly controlled spatio-temporal order of regulatory events plays a determining role in the absence of any embryonic or postembryonic positional cues. Despite the fact that callus cells are thought to be pluripotent, not all the cells are capable of initiating the regenerating foci and thus there exists cellular heterogeneity within the callus. In fact, heterogeneity in the gene expression levels, and non-overlapping expression domains of the key shoot and root determinants highlights the considerable differences amongst the cells of regenerating calli (Figure 3) [10^{••},16,19]. The level of heterogeneity increases over time in culture. Even though a number of shoot regenerating foci can be initiated and produce PIN1 marked shoot progenitors, not all of these progenitors can accomplish the regeneration of a complete shoot system. The fate of the regenerating foci and their conversion are





Schematic illustration representing waves of expression of root and shoot stem cell regulators during *de novo* shoot regeneration. (a) During callus formation (on CIM), high expression levels of root stem cell regulators is shown by the blue peak. It defines the phase of acquisition of regeneration competence. Following transfer to SIM, root stem cell regulators are down-regulated and key shoot stem cell regulators are not yet upregulated and confined to their respective domains (represented by the dotted blue line and absence of red line). Later during shoot regeneration (on SIM), the up-regulation of shoot stem cell regulators (red peak) marks the initiation of *de novo* shoot formation. (b) During direct shoot regeneration on cytokinin rich media the level of root stem cell regulators drops gradually as shown by the blue line. However, shoot stem cell regulators shown by red line appear before the root stem cell regulators have been lost, thereby imparting a mixed cell fate identity to the converting LRP [10^{••}, 16, 19, 22, 23^{••}].





Cellular heterogeneity in regenerating callus. Expression of root and shoot specific regulators is restricted to only few foci in the mass of callus. (a) Expression of PLT2::PLT2-YFP in callus on CIM. (b–d) Overviews showing the expression of PIN1::PIN1-GFP (b) pWUS::erCFP (c) and pSTM::H2B-vYFP (d) in regenerating shoot foci on SIM. (e) Down-regulation of PLT2::PLT2-YFP in callus upon shoot inductive stimuli. (f) PIN1::PIN1-GFP expression in a regenerated shoot meristem with organ primordia. (g) Confined expression of pWUS::erCFP (arrow) to the center of a shoot promeristem. (h) Regenerating shoot meristem displaying pSTM::H2B-vYFP expression. Red colour in (a) propidium iodide, (b and f) chlorophyll autofluorescence and (c, d, e, g, and h) FM4-64 stain. Scale bar represents 50 μ m except in (g) where it represents 30 μ m. White arrowheads in (b, c, and d) indicate the regenerative foci in the heterogeneous callus. Red arrowheads in (f) indicates WUS confinement in a shoot promeristem.

Image (c) is reprinted from Kareem et al. [10** with permission from Cell Press. License number: 4158680029029).

apparently stochastic, and decisions are likely to be influenced by irregular callus topology that could impose growth driven mechanical tension [43], environmental factors such as contact with the culture medium, and endogenous inter-cellular variability at the level of gene expression or genome status. One of the prime factors that has been proposed to contribute to cellular and molecular heterogeneity during regeneration is underlying epigenetic variations resulting from hormone treatments and multiple rounds of cell divisions [44]. Epigenetic regulation of WUS [45,46], a key gene that has been shown to be involved in establishing the stem cell niche during normal [47,48] as well as *de novo* shoot development [14,19,23^{••},45] provides one of the examples of a mechanism by which cellular heterogeneity is generated. Deregulated epigenetic modifications at the WUS locus could change expression competence and generate cellular heterogeneity. The higher number of organizing centers in the (methyltransferase 1) met1, DNA hypomethylated mutant, could be a result of ectopic relaxation of repressive epigenetic control at the WUS locus [46]. In addition to epigenetic modifiers, a multitude of other

factors, and cross talk between factors, can also contribute to the disparity in the regenerative potential between callus cells [49].

Perspective

We have begun to understand the molecular mechanisms underlying de novo plant regeneration. Over the years, the availability of cutting edge techniques such as single cell RNA sequencing [50^{••},51], time lapse imaging [22,52– 54], and cell lineage analysis [55] have helped in scrutinizing developmental processes in finer detail than ever before. This has resulted in the discovery of new populations of adult stem cells [25^{••}], the dynamics of cellular events and the assembly of regulatory interactions in real time [10^{••},19,23^{••}]. Furthermore, the power of classical genetics has permitted the elucidation of how the players engaged in normal developmental pathways have been hijacked to accomplish reprogramming [10^{••},50^{••}]. For example, the root regulatory network is required to establish the pluripotent state in callus and embryonic patterning gene such as CUC2 is needed to facilitate the completion of shoot regeneration [10^{••},25^{••}]. More careful

studies are indispensable for allowing clarification of the parallels between normal developmental pathways and different phases of shoot regeneration, as exemplified in the case of root regeneration, which has been shown to follow an embryo-like developmental sequence to regenerate the root tip upon resection [50^{••}]. Unraveling each new detail enhances our understanding and appreciation of the challenges that lie ahead in understanding the complex process of regeneration. While several lines of evidence demonstrate a key role for the transient induction of root stem cell regulators in de novo shoot formation, both during indirect and direct [10^{••},23^{••}] regeneration in Arabidopsis, parallel studies must be carried out in other plant species to determine if the necessity of root regulatory network in conferring pluripotency during shoot regeneration is conserved [56].

While *de novo* shoot regeneration can be exploited to answer a number of fundamental questions addressing the cellular and molecular mechanisms of reprogramming in the absence of embryonic positional cues, the discovery of new regulators capable of conferring regenerative potential to recalcitrant plant species or enhancing regeneration efficiency, can also drive innovation in green culture industries. Future studies should exploit plant regeneration as a model to study how plants have deployed kingdom-specific mechanisms to deal with intrinsic differences such as lack of cell migration, a key cellular process, extensively utilized in animal regeneration.

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