The role of transcription factor MYB53 from *Arabidopsis* thaliana in the regulated production of suberin

by

Hefeng Hu

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate and Postdoctoral Affairs in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

in

Biology

Carleton University Ottawa, Ontario

© 2018, Hefeng Hu

Abstract

Suberin is a cell wall-associated polymer that is deposited in diverse plant tissues including root exodermis and endodermis, aerial and underground periderms, and seed coats under both normal and stressful conditions. Suberin plays important roles in protecting plants against various stressors but the molecular mechanisms governing the regulated deposition of suberin are currently unclear. I provide evidence here that AtMYB53, AtMYB92, and AtMYB93 of the MYB-type transcription factor family are important regulators of suberin in root endodermis under non-stress conditions. I first characterized an Arabidopsis steroid-inducible line and found that suberin can be rapidly induced in both roots and leaves upon overexpression of MYB53. A suite of suberin biosynthetic genes was positively regulated at the transcriptional level after MYB53 overexpression. I also generated a collection of loss-of-function mutants of MYB53/MYB92/MYB93, which exhibited major reductions of suberin in the endodermis of young roots in comparison to wild-type. The transcripts of all suberin biosynthetic genes tested were down-regulated in the mutants. The identification of master regulators of suberin may provide the means to generate crops that are more stress resistant via enhancement of their suberized cell walls.

Acknowledgements

I would first like to thank my main supervisor, Dr. Owen Rowland, for not only providing me with the opportunity to carry out a novel and interesting research project but also for his award-winning mentorship. His great support, understanding, guidance and hard work together were an irreplaceable contribution to my research, giving me invaluable experiences in pursuing this degree. I am always grateful for his advice and I regarded it not only as precious to this project but also essential for my future career in science. And I also specially thank my fellow lab member Dr. Sofia Khalil, Dr. Sollapura J. Vishwanath, Dr. Jhadeswar Murmu, Nayana De Silva and Ying Wang, for their generous and selfless help and always sharing with me their valuable time and good spirits. Their sense of humor, professional knowledge and research experience are always inspiring me. And I want to thank Dr. Ian Pulsifer for supporting the biochemical experiments during the process of my research, and Daniel Klein and Rebecca Kalinger for their kind help and support.

Table of Contents

Abs	tract.		2
Ack	nowle	edgements	3
List	of Ta	bles	7
List	of Fig	gures	8
List	of Ap	opendices	10
List	of Al	obreviations	12
Cha	pter 1	l: General Introduction	14
	1.1	Sites of suberin deposition and subcellular localization	14
	1.2	Suberin chemical composition	18
	1.3	Suberin structure	21
	1.4	Functions of suberin.	25
	1.5	Suberin biosynthesis and deposition	27
	1.6	MYB transcription factors in plants	36
	1.7	Transcription factors regulating suberin biosynthesis	40
	1.8	MYB Transcription factors regulating suberin biosynthesis	42
	1.9	Project rationale and objectives	44
Cha	pter 2	2: Materials and Methods	47
	2.1	Plant materials and growth conditions	47
	2.2	Chemical inducement of MYB53 in TPT-559 overexpression line	48

2.3	RNA preparation and cDNA synthesis	49
2.4	Semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis of transcript levels	50
2.5	Quantitative PCR analysis of transcript levels	51
2.0	6 Lipid polyester (suberin / cutin) analysis using gas chromatography	52
2.7	Quantification of suberin monomer amount using flame ionization detection	56
Chapte	er 3: Results	57
3.3	Ectopic production of suberin in roots and leaves by steroid-induced overexpression	on
	of Arabidopsis MYB53	57
3.2	2 Upregulation of suberin biosynthetic genes in roots and leaves by steroid-induced	
	overexpression of Arabidopsis MYB53	67
3.3	Molecular identification of MYB53/92/93 loss-of-function single, double and triple	e
	mutant lines	72
3.4	Decreased suberin content in <i>MYB53/92/93</i> loss-of-function mutants	75
3.5	Altered expression levels of suberin biosynthetic genes in <i>MYB53/92/</i> 93 loss-of-	
	function mutants	82
Chapte	er 4: Discussion	86
4.3	MYB53 positively regulates suberin biosynthesis in Arabidopsis	86
4.2	2 MYB53 can regulate suberin deposition in multiple tissue types, but its regulatory	
	control normally occurs in root endodermis	89
	5	

4.3 MYB53, MYB92 and MYB93 have partially overlapping roles in regulating root	
endodermal suberin biosynthesis	92
4.4 Implications of MYB-regulated suberin biosynthesis for other plant species	94
Chapter 5: Future directions and concluding remarks	96
5.1 Future directions	96
5.2 Concluding remarks	101
References	102
Appendix A	114
Appendix B.	116
Appendix C	120
Appendix D.	121
Appendix E.	123

List of Tables

Table 1.1 Chemical structures of common suberin monomers with typical carbon lengths
and degrees of saturation.
Table 2.1 The PCR primer efficiency for suberin biosynthetic genes and reference genes
Table 3. 1. Specific groupings based on chemical type of lipid polyester monomers
(suberin / cutin) in roots and leaves of the MYB53 inducible overexpression line over a
time-course
Table 3. 2. Lipid polyester (suberin / cutin) monomer composition in roots and leaves of
the <i>MYB53</i> inducible overexpression line over a time-course. 65
Table 3. 3. Main suberin monomers in roots from 2-weeks-old seedlings of the
MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 loss-of-function single, double and triple mutant lines
Table 3. 4. Specific groupings based on chemical type of main suberin monomers in roots
from 2-weeks-old seedlings of the MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 loss-of-function single,
double and triple mutant lines

List of Figures

Figure 1.1. Histochemical observation of suberin distribution in various plant tissues 15
Figure 1.2. Schematic representation of endodermal differentiation in roots
Figure 1.3. Model of suberin structure in suberized potato cell walls as proposed by
Bernards (2002)
Figure 1.4. Model of suberin structure in the context of suberized cell walls
Figure 1.5. The mechanism of suberin monomer biosynthesis and suberin polymerization.
Figure 1.6. Schematic representations of plant MYB transcription factor groups 38
Figure 3.1. Schematic representation of the chemical inducible system for overexpressing
Arabidopsis MYB53 (At5g65230)
Figure 3.2. Suberin analysis in roots of the <i>MYB53</i> inducible overexpression line over a
time-course
Figure 3.3. Total lipid polyester (cutin and suberin) analysis in leaves of the MYB53
inducible overexpression line over a time-course
Figure 3.4. Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of suberin biosynthetic gene transcripts in
roots of the MYB53 inducible overexpression line from β -estradiol treated and mock
control (DMSO alone) seedlings. 69
Figure 3.5. Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of suberin biosynthetic gene transcripts in

leaves of the $MYB53$ inducible overexpression line from β -estradiol treated and mock	
control (DMSO alone) seedlings.	71
Figure 3.6. MYB53 (At5g65230), MYB92 (At5g10280), and MYB93 (At1g34670) gene	
structures and transcript levels in <i>myb53/myb92/myb93</i> loss-of-function lines	74
Figure 3.7. Total suberin content in roots from 2-week-old seedlings of the	
MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 loss-of-function single, double and triple mutant lines	
compared with the corresponding wild-type (WT)	76
Figure 3.8. Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of suberin biosynthetic genes in roots of 2-	
week-old seedlings of MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 loss-of-function single, double and triple	Э
mutant lines compared with wild type (WT).	84

List of Appendices

Table S1. Suberin monomer composition in roots of β-estradiol treated seedlings rel	ative
to the corresponding mock control seedlings (DMSO only).	114
Table S2. Lipid polyester (cutin + suberin) monomer composition in leaves of β-est	radiol
treated seedlings relative to the corresponding mock control seedlings (DMSO only)). 115
Table S3. Suberin monomer composition in wild-type, <i>myb53-1</i> , <i>myb53-1</i> myb92-1	and
myb53-1 myb93-1	116
Table S4. Suberin monomer composition in wild-type, <i>myb53-2 myb92-1</i> , <i>myb53-2</i>	
myb93-1 and myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1	117
Table S5. Suberin monomer composition in wild-type, myb53-2, myb92-1 and myb9)3-1.
	118
Table S6. Suberin monomer composition in wild-type, <i>myb92-1 myb93-1</i> and	119
Table S7. Summary of the p-values calculated by statistical analysis (p<0.05, LSD	
multiple comparison) between the content of each suberin monomer and also total	
suberin in the <i>myb53-1</i> collection of mutants (<i>myb53-1</i> , <i>myb53-1</i> myb92-1, myb53-1	!
myb93-1 and myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1) in comparison with the myb53-2 collection	on of
mutants (myb53-2, myb53-2 myb92-1, myb53-2 myb93-1 and myb53-2 myb92-1 myb	b93-
I)	120
Table S8. Summary of the primers used for semi-quantitative RT-PCR	121

Table S9. Summary of the primers used for quantitative RT-PCR	22
Figure S1. Schematic representation of the phylogenetic relationships in the R2R3-MYE	3
subfamily with members regulating suberin biosynthesis	23

List of Abbreviations

ABC transporter ATP-binding cassette transporter

AHCs Alkyl hydroxycinnamates

ASFT Aliphatic suberin feruloyl transferase

At Arabidopsis thaliana
bHLH Basic helix-loop-helix

C Carbon

C16:0 Palmitic acid C18:0 Stearic acid Oleic acid C18:1 Linoleic acid C18:2 C20:0 Arachidic acid Behenic acid C22:0 C24:0 Lignoceric acid Calcium nitrate $Ca(NO_3)_2$

cDNA Complementary deoxyribonucleic acid

ChIP Chromatin ImmunoPrecipitation

CHIP-seq Chromatin ImmunoPrecipitation sequencing

CoA Coenzyme A
Ct Threshold Cycle
CYP Cytochrome P450
DEX Dexamethasone
DCA Dicarboxylic acid
DMSO Dimethyl sulfoxide
DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid

dNTP Deoxyribonucleotide triphosphateEDTA Ethylenediamine tetraacetic AcidEMSA Electrophoretic mobility shift assay

ER Endoplasmic reticulum

FA Fatty acid

FACT Fatty Alcohol: Caffeoyl-CoA Caffeoyl Transferase

FAE Fatty acid elongase
FAR Fatty acyl reductase

FHT omega-hydroxyacid - Fatty alcohol hydroxycinnamoyl transferase

g Gram

GAPDH Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase

GC Gas chromatography

GC-FID Gas chromatography-flame ionization detector

GC-MS Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry
GPAT5 Glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase 5

GUS β -glucuronidase

KCS β-ketoacyl-CoA synthase

KH₂PO₄ Potassium dihydrogen phosphate

KNO₃ Potassium nitrate

L Liter

LACS Long-Chain Acyl-CoA Synthetase

mg Milligram

MgSO₄ Magnesium sulfate

ml Milliliter
m Meter
mm Millimeter
mM Millimole

MYB *v-myb* myeloblastosis viral oncogene homolog

NaCl Sodium chloride

OH Alcohol

PCR Polymerase chain reaction
PP2A Protein phosphatase 2A

qPCR Quantitative PCR **RNA** Ribonucleic acid

RT-PCR Reverse transcription PCR

s Second

SELEX Systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment

TEM Transmission electron microscopy

TF Transcription factor

Tris- HCl Tris(Hydroxymethyl) aminomethane- hydrochloride

μg MicrogramμM Micromoleμl Microliter

ω-OH ω-hydroxy fatty acid

WT Wild-type

VLCFA Very-long-chain fatty acid

Chapter 1: General Introduction

1.1 Sites of suberin deposition and subcellular localization

Suberin is a plant cell wall-associated and lipid-based polymer that is deposited at interfaces where a barrier is needed to modulate water and solute passage in normal development (Schreiber, 2010; Beisson et al., 2012; Franke et al., 2012). It is also formed to protect against environmental stresses such as high salinity, wounding, and pathogen ingress (Kolattukudy, 1984; Franke and Schreiber, 2007). Suberin is formed in cell walls of external root tissues, such as the epidermis (also called "rhizodermis") of young roots, root periderms (which develop from the pericycle and replaces endodermis, cortex and epidermis during the secondary growth of mature roots), and tuber periderms (e.g. potato skins) (Nawrath et al., 2013). Suberin also forms in the cell walls of internal root tissues such as the exodermis and endodermis, which are the outermost and innermost layers of the root cortex, respectively, of young roots (Vishwanath et al., 2015). A well-known example of highly suberized tissue is the cork layer in tree bark, a layer that is expanded in cork oak trees, where suberin can make up to 50% of the chemical composition (Pereira, 1988; Soler et al., 2007). Additionally, suberin is deposited in the cell walls of bundle sheaths of C4 plants (e.g. maize and sugarcane) (Beisson et al., 2007) and in the chalazae micropyle region of seeds and the outer integument of mature seed coats (Espelie et al., 1980; Molina et al., 2007). Apart from these suberization patterns under

normal development, suberized tissue can also be formed after mechanical wounding, organ abscission, or due to damage by insects or pathogens (Vandoorn and Stead, 1997). The wide spectrum of suberin elicitation, including in normally non-suberized tissues, indicates that most plant cells can develop into a suberized cell. Therefore, suberin is deposited wherever and whenever it is necessary for plants to build up a hydrophobic barrier for protective purposes (Ranathunge *et al.*, 2011). Suberin localization at the tissue level is typically visualized by microscopy using the suberin-specific fluorescent stain fluorol yellow 088 (Figure 1.1-a, b).

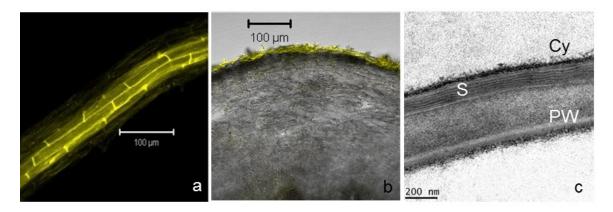


Figure 1.1. Histochemical observation of suberin distribution in various plant tissues.

(a) Arabidopsis young roots with suberin lamellae in endodermis stained with fluorol yellow. (b) Arabidopsis mature roots with suberin in periderm stained with fluorol yellow. (c) Transmission electron microscopy images of Arabidopsis suberized root endodermis cells showing suberin lamellae (alternating light and dark bands). PW, primary cell wall; S, suberin; Cy, cytoplasm. Micrographs were taken by Nayana de Silva, Rowland lab.

At the subcellular level, suberin is typically located on the inner face of primary cell walls adjacent to the plasma membrane and occurs in three forms (Ranathunge et al., 2011). In the first form, suberin accumulates in the inter-microfibrillar channels of the young root epidermis and this type of suberin is called "diffuse suberin" (Peterson et al., 1998; Nawrath et al., 2013). In the second form, suberin is found in lignin-containing Casparian strips, which is localized in the radial and transverse directions of primary cell walls of the root endodermis and exodermis, thus sealing the spaces between adjacent endodermal or exodermal cells (Enstone et al., 2003; Nawrath et al., 2013; Vishwanath et al., 2015). Casparian strips function as barriers impeding apoplastic movement of water, ion and gas between the outer (cortex) and inner (central stele) cell layers (Peterson et al., 1998; Alassimone et al., 2009). In the third form found in root endodermis and exodermis, suberin is deposited as a sheet-like structure on the inner surface of primary cell walls. In observations using transmission electron microscopy (TEM), this "sheet" structure is displayed as alternating light and dark bands and these "suberin lamellae" are typically regarded as an indicator of suberin appearance (Figure 1.1-c).

In the exodermis and endodermis of young roots, both Casparian strips and suberin lamellae are important cell wall-based apoplastic and transcellular barriers in the root endodermis (Nawrath *et al.*, 2013). In the first stage of endodermal development, the Casparian strip is formed in the radial and transverse directions of primary cell walls.

Later, during the transition between the first and second developmental stages, suberin deposition begins sporadically in a "patch"-like fashion and suberin lamellae is finally formed all around the endodermal cell walls during the second developmental stage (Andersen *et al.*, 2015; Doblas *et al.*, 2017).

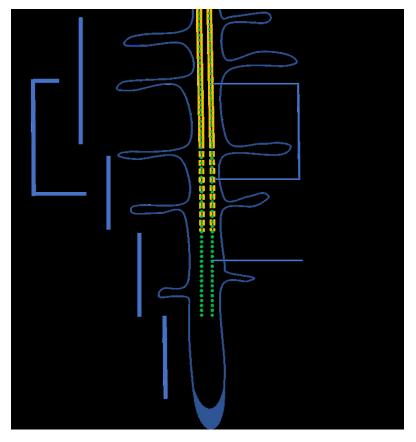


Figure 1.2. Schematic representation of endodermal differentiation in roots.

Three zones are highlighted as undifferentiated zone, non-suberized zone and suberized zone. Within the suberized zone, a patchy zone (stage 1) is where only some cells are suberized and a continuous zone (stage 2) is where nearly all cells are suberized with the exception of some passage cells.

Additionally, in the periderms of mature roots and stems (barks), suberin lamellae are deposited in the primary and secondary cell walls as poly-sheets of alternative light and

dark bands (Graça, 2015). According to the pioneering TEM work of Sitte (1962), 30 to 60 light and dark bands of suberin lamellae could be counted across the primary and secondary cell walls in cork tissue.

1.2 Suberin chemical composition

Suberin is a chemically complex hetero-polyester mostly composed of glycerol, omega-hydroxy and dicarboxylic fatty acids, primary fatty alcohols and ferulate (Franke and Schreiber, 2007; Pollard et al., 2008; Graça, 2015). Compositional analysis of suberin monomers is usually conducted by chromatography techniques (mainly gas chromatography (GC) coupled with mass spectrometry (MS)) (Ranathunge et al., 2011). Suberin aliphatic monomers include long-chain (C16 and C18) and very-long-chain (≥C20) monomers, such as α , ω -dicarboxylic acids, ω -hydroxy fatty acids, mid-chain hydroxy or epoxy fatty acids, unsubstituted fatty acids, and primary fatty alcohols (Table 1.1). Glycerol plays a role as the basic bridge to link the various types of fatty acids by esterification of at least one of its hydroxyl groups with the carboxyl groups of the fatty acyl chains (Kolattukudy, 1984; Graça and Santos, 2007; Andersen et al., 2015). In addition, hydroxycinnamic acids are the typical components of aliphatic suberin, with ferulate being the most common (Table 1.1). Ferulic acids are mostly esterified with ωhydroxy fatty acids in the polymer (Pollard et al., 2008; Graça, 2015).

Table 1.1 Chemical structures of common suberin monomers with typical carbon lengths and degrees of saturation.

(Table modified from Pollard et al., 2008)

It's important to note that the total and relative amounts of suberin monomers are highly variable depending on developmental stage, tissue, and plant species (Zeier and Schreiber, 1998; Ranathunge *et al.*, 2011; Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015). For example, suberin monomers from cork oak (*Quercus suber*) and Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) bark are mainly α , ω -dicarboxylic acids (Graça and Pereira, 2000a), whereas suberin from potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) tuber periderm (Graça and Pereira, 2000b) and Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) roots (Franke *et al.*, 2005) are characterized by similar amounts of ω -hydroxy fatty acids and α , ω -dicarboxylic fatty acids. Even within one species there is variability in suberin composition, such as Arabidopsis where suberin from roots is predominated by C16, 18:1, and C22 monomers (Franke *et al.*, 2005), whereas suberin in seed coat is more highly enriched in C24 monomers (Molina *et al.* 2006).

Additionally, the suberin polymer is embedded with soluble lipids (unpolymerized aliphatics) called suberin-associated waxes (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015), which are considered to be the major contributors to the barrier against water diffusion across suberized cell walls (Soliday *et al.*, 1979; Espelie *et al.*, 1980). The waxes are solvent-extractable by brief (1-2 min) immersion of tissues in chloroform (Li *et al.*, 2007; Molina *et al.*, 2009; Kosma *et al.*, 2012; Vishwanath *et al.*, 2013) or by extensive solvent extraction of isolated periderms (Schreiber *et al.*, 2005; Serra *et al.*, 2010; Delude *et al.*,

2016). In Arabidopsis roots, some aliphatic waxes are suberin-associated and thus have characteristics common to some of the monomers released upon depolymerization of root suberin (Franke *et al.*, 2006; Beisson *et al.*, 2007). These suberin-associated waxes include saturated fatty acids (commonly C16–C22), 18:0-22:0 fatty alcohols and alkyl hydroxycinnamate (AHC) esters (Li *et al.*, 2007; Pollard *et al.*, 2008). The AHC esters are comprised of phenylpropanoids, typically coumaric, ferulic, or caffeic acids, esterified to fatty alcohols, and up to 80% of the primary fatty alcohols in Arabidopsis roots exist in the form of AHC esters in suberin-associated waxes and alkyl caffeates are the predominant type (Kosma *et al.*, 2012; Vishwanath *et al.*, 2013; Delude *et al.*, 2016). Meanwhile, Arabidopsis root waxes also include alkanes (typically C29 and C31) and their mid-chain oxidized (keto or hydroxyl) derivatives, monoacylglycerols (typically with C20 and C22 acyl chains) and sterols (Kosma *et al.*, 2012; Kosma *et al.*, 2015).

1.3 Suberin structure

Bernards (2002) proposed the following about suberin structure and its definition: 1) ferulic acids should be included as a component in suberin poly-aliphatic domain (SPAD) when they are esterified with fatty acids and fatty alcohols; 2) a poly-aromatic part made up of hydroxycinnamic acids and monolignols, which are located in primary cell walls, should be considered as a suberin polyphenolic domain (SPPD) and

this polyphenolic domain of suberin is covalently linked with the suberin poly-aliphatic domain (Figure 1.2). However, this definition and the relationship between the polyaliphatic and polyaromatic domains are much debated. According to some more recent models (Graça, 2015), the word "suberin" should only be referred to as the aliphatic polyester (Figure 1.3). Several reasons support this argument. Firstly, suberin can be de-polymerized using base- or acid-catalyzed trans-methylation to yield a variety of aliphatic monomers, including some ferulate, but this does not yield the polyaromatic monomers. Secondly, the polyaromatics are distinct chemically and structurally and also spatially separated from the aliphatic suberin in suberized cell walls. Lastly, the aliphatic suberin has a defined macromolecular structure that is independent from polyaromatics: 1) glycerol molecules link in succession with α , ω -dicarboxylic acids to form the core backbone of the suberin polymer; 2) 18:1 ω -hydroxyacids and α , ω - dicarboxylic acids are dominant components of suberins across many plant species; 3) from de-polymerized suberin polymers, all ω-hydroxy fatty acid monomers are esterified with ferulic acids though their ω-hydroxyl groups (Graça and Pereira, 1998, 1999, 2000b). It may even be possible to consider the polyaromatic domain simply as lignin (Graça, 2015). Similarly, Geldner (2013) also stated that although lignin (composed of phenols) can be additionally modified with aliphatic suberin in Casparian strips, lignin is not an integral part of suberin. As all the discussions above interpret, there are obvious differences between

aliphatic suberin and the poly-aromatics, but it doesn't exclude that there are extensive contacts, including covalent linkages, between these two types of polymers, which is why Bernards considers the two together functionally as "suberin". This debate remains unresolved.

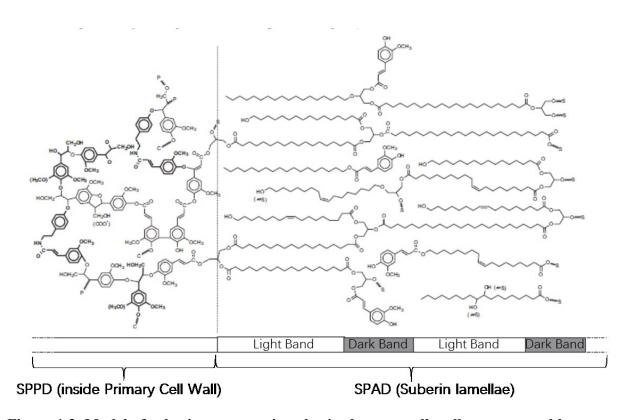


Figure 1.3. Model of suberin structure in suberized potato cell walls as proposed by Bernards (2002).

The suberin poly-phenolic domain (SPPD) is attached to the carbohydrates in the primary cell wall, and the glycerol based suberin poly-aliphatic domain (SPAD) is located between the cell wall and plasma membrane. Light bands represent aliphatics and dark bands represent phenolics. Figure is modified from Bernards (2002).

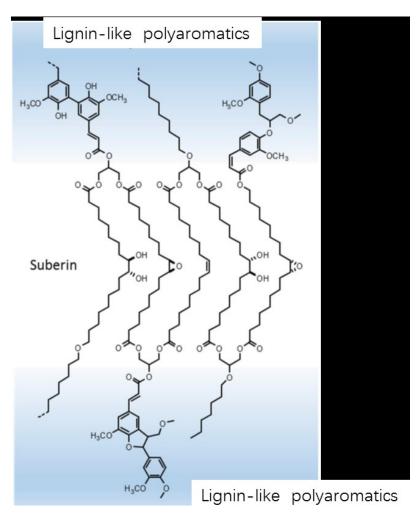


Figure 1.4. Model of suberin structure in the context of suberized cell walls.

The core suberin polymer is presented as a regularly packed poly-acylglycerol molecule, which make up the translucent lamellae. This suberin polyester is covalently linked through esterification to ferulic acid to the neighboring lignin-like polyaromatics, which accounts for the dark lamellae. Figure was modified from Graça (2015).

1.4 Functions of suberin

Water and solutes follow three potential pathways while being transferred from the soil to the central vasculature: (1) apoplastic pathway, via the extracellular space; (2) symplastic pathway, via cytosolic connections called plasmodesmata; (3) transcellular pathway, via polarized influx and efflux transporters and diffusion gradients through the plasma membrane (Doblas et al., 2017). Experimentally, the symplastic pathway and transcellular pathway cannot be completely separated so they are collectively called the cell-to-cell pathway (Steudle and Peterson, 1998). It has been reported that the suberized cell walls serve as barriers reducing the uncontrolled transportation of water and dissolved ions (Franke and Schreiber, 2007; Ranathunge et al., 2011). For example, an Arabidopsis mutant cvp86a1/horst with 60% decreased amount of suberin has a reduced barrier to the radial flow of water and NaCl in the root (Ranathunge and Schreiber, 2011). It is unclear, however, whether suberin is functioning to restrict movement via the apoplastic pathway, the transcellular pathway, or both (Steudle and Peterson, 1998). Meanwhile, the Casparian band restricts apoplastic movement, but not transcellular movement because it is deposited in a polar fashion as a ring and seals the adjacent endodermal cells (like a tight junction in animal epithelial cells) (Barberon and Geldner, 2014). Suberin lamellae, on the other hand, are deposited all around the endodermal cells but on the inner face of the cell walls only (not sealing adjacent cells), thus probably

restricting mostly transcellular movement. Additionally, since the apoplastic / transcellular blockage offered by Casparian strips and suberin lamallae is non-directional, these barriers prevent the backflow of water and ions accumulated in the stele. This is believed to enable plants to build up root pressure (Enstone *et al.*, 2003).

Although the protective functions of Casparian strips and suberin have been reported by many experiments (as mentioned above), it does not mean that these are perfect barriers blocking passage of all solutes. For example, apoplastic bypass flow of the plant hormone abscisic acid (ABA) in maize (*Zea mays*) roots (Schraut *et al.*, 2004) as well as the nutritional ion Ca²⁺ in Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) roots (White, 2001) still occur radially across roots. One possible reason for this is that the suberin lamellae deposition is not completely continuous, but is interspersed with non-suberized passage cells (Waduwara *et al.*, 2008).

Suberin also plays an important role in protecting plants from various abiotic and biotic stresses, including exposure to heavy metal, high salts, low oxygen, harmful pathogen attacks and mechanical wounding. For example, suberin can be deposited to block uptake of heavy metals, such as Hg²⁺, Rb⁺ and Cd²⁺ (Barrowclough *et al.*, 2000; Clarkson *et al.*, 1987; Schreiber *et al.*, 1999). Also, suberin deposition is induced by salt stress and accumulation of suberin in roots has been shown to negatively correlate with sodium translocation to aerial organs (Krishnamurthy *et al.*, 2011). In wetland

environments, there is insufficient amounts of oxygen dissolved in water and where soil microorganisms consume large amount of oxygen, and in these conditions rice (Oryza sativa) produces more root suberin to impede radial oxygen loss from the roots to the environment (Schreiber et al., 2005; Kotula et al., 2009). Moreover, another report using Phragmites australis (common reed) showed that its resistance to radial oxygen loss was correlated with root suberin content but not with the amount of root lignin (Soukup et al., 2007). Although suberin deposition cannot completely stop pathogen invasion, it has been shown that a resistant soybean line with highly suberized cell walls delayed the colonization of *Phytophthora sojae* into epidermis by 2-3 hours, and induced extra aliphatic suberin up to 4 days earlier than a susceptible soybean line (Ranathunge et al., 2008). Additionally, aliphatic suberin and associated polyaromatics may function differently in pathogen defenses. For example, from infection studies using potato wound periderm, it was found that the polyaromatic domain was important for resistance against Erwinia carotovora subsp. carotovora (a bacterium), while the polyaliphatic domain was important for resistance against Fusarium sambucinum (a fungus) (Lulai and Corsini, 1998).

1.5 Suberin biosynthesis and deposition

The production of suberin involves the coordinated production of chemically

diverse compounds including aliphatic, phenolic and glycerol monomers, as well as subsequent transport to the cell wall and polymerization. The mechanism of suberin biosynthesis was first investigated using classical biochemical methods (Kolattukudy, 1981; Bernards, 2002; Franke and Schreiber, 2007). These biochemical studies largely focused on ω -hydroxylation of fatty acids and the subsequent oxidation of ω -hydroxyl fatty acids to α , ω -dicarboxylic fatty acids. However, this approach, involving protein extraction and *in vitro* assays, is difficult because the enzymes involved in biosynthesis of suberin monomers are associated with membranes and / or are likely composed of enzyme complexes (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015).

Recently, the most successful studies in suberin biosynthesis have been achieved using reverse genetic approaches (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015). A network of enzymes functioning in the production of oxygenated fatty acids, primary fatty alcohols, phenolics and acyl-glycerols of suberin have been revealed in the past 10 years, as described in detail below and summarized in Figure 1.4.

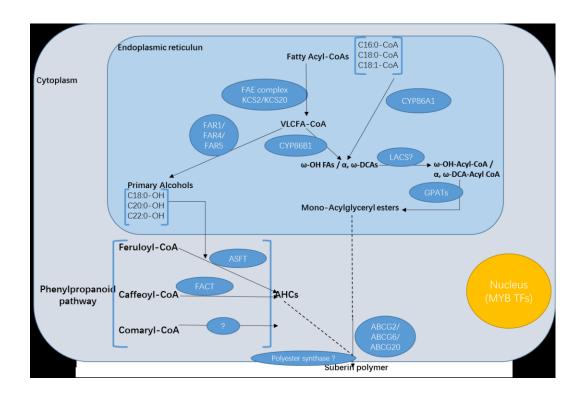


Figure 1.5. The mechanism of suberin monomer biosynthesis and suberin polymerization.

Specific protein names in blue are those discovered in Arabidopsis thaliana. Fatty acyl elongation occurs via the fatty acid elongation (FAE) complex producing very-long-chain fatty acids (VLCFAs); acyl reduction by fatty acyl reductases (FARs) producing primary alcohols and a,ωdiols; fatty acyl oxidation by cytochrome P450 enzymes (CYPs) producing ω-hydroxy fatty acids (ω-OHs) and a,ω-dicarboxylic acids (DCAs). Esterification of ω-OHs and DCAs with glycerol-3phosphate by glycerol 3-phosphate acyltransferases (GPATs) producing sn-2 monoacylglycerols. The further oxidation of ω-OHs to DCAs may be catalyzed by the same cytochrome P450s that generate the ω-OHs. Fatty acids are activated to fatty acyl-CoAs by long-chain acyl-CoA synthetases (LACSs). ATP-binding-cassette (ABC) transporters are involved in transporting suberin monomers across the plasma membrane. Polyester synthase (PS) may catalyze the esterification of sn-2 monoacylglycerols with other suberin monomers to produce macromolecular polyesters. Coumaric, caffeic and ferulic acids are products from the phenylpropanoid pathway and are linked to fatty alcohols by BAHD-type acyltransferases to form alkyl hydroxycinnamates (AHCs), which are mainly present in suberin-associated waxes. ASFT, Aliphatic Suberin Feruloyl Transferase; FACT, Fatty Alcohol:Caffeoyl-CoA Caffeoyl Transferase. This figure is modified from Vishwanath et al., 2015.

Fatty acids are produced *de novo* in plastids and then linked with coenzymeA upon their exit to the cytosol by long-chain acyl-CoA synthetases (LACS) to generate C16 and C18 acyl-CoAs (Shockey *et al.* 2002). Although LACS enzymes have been reported to be required for activating intermediates in cutin synthesis, their roles involved in suberin biosynthesis pathway have not been investigated in detail (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015). However, chemical analyses of *loss-of-function* mutants of the *LACS2* gene does indeed indicate additional roles in suberin formation (Li-Beisson *et al.*, 2013).

β-ketoacyl-CoA synthases (KCS), which are present as part of the endoplasmic reticulum-localized fatty acid elongase complex, are responsible for elongation of C16/C18 fatty acyl chains into very long-chain (≥C20) fatty acid derivatives (Millar and Kunst, 1997). In Arabidopsis, *DAISY/AtKCS2* was reported to be involved in suberin biosynthesis because loss-of-function *daisy/kcs2* mutants have reductions in C22 and C24 very-long-chain fatty acid derivatives in root suberin (Franke *et al.* 2008). However, the total amount of suberin in these mutants is similar to that of wild-type because of compensatory increases of shorter chain (≤C20) fatty acid derivatives (Franke *et al.* 2008). In another report, the double *kcs2 kcs20* mutant was found to have greater reductions in C22 and C24 very long-chain fatty acid derivatives in root suberin, compared with either single mutant, indicating that the two KCS enzymes function in a partially redundant manner (Lee *et al.*, 2009).

A proportion of the long-chain (C16/C18) and very-long-chain (≥C20) fatty acyl-CoAs are hydroxylated to ω-hydroxy fatty acids, of which a proportion are further oxidized into α,ω-dicarboxylic acids (Agrawal and Kolattukudy 1978; Kurdyukov et al., 2006). This acyl oxidation process is catalyzed by members of CYP86 subfamily of cytochrome P450 monooxygenases and represents core reactions in suberin biosynthesis since ω -hydroxy fatty acids and a, ω -dicarboxylic fatty acids are the two most abundant monomers of the suberin polyester (Molina, 2010). Arabidopsis CYP86A1/HORST and CYP86B1/RALPH are involved in root suberin synthesis via production of ω-hydroxy fatty acids and α,ω-dicarboxylic fatty acids (Höfer, et al., 2008; Molina et al. 2009; Compagnon et al., 2009). The cyp86a1 mutants are characterized by a 60% decrease in total root suberin, mainly due to very significant reductions in C16, C18 ω-hydroxy fatty acids and α,ω-dicarboxylic fatty acids (Höfer et al., 2008). CYP86B1 is responsible for generating very-long-chain ω-hydroxy acids from C22 to C24 fatty acids. Loss-offunction cyb86b1 mutants have almost complete loss of C22-C24 ω-hydroxy fatty acids and α,ω- dicarboxylic fatty acids, which are accompanied by increased amounts of C22-C24 fatty acids in the polymer (Compagnon et al., 2009; Molina et al. 2009). Thus, the total suberin content remains at a level similar to wild-type.

Fatty acyl reductases (FAR) are responsible for reducing fatty acyl chains to primary fatty alcohols (Rowland and Domergue, 2012). In Arabidopsis, FAR1, FAR4

and FAR5 are involved in production of suberin-associated primary fatty alcohols (Domergue et al., 2010; Vishwanath et al., 2013). Single knock-out mutants of FAR1, FAR4 or FAR5 result in decreased amounts of primary fatty alcohols with chain-length specific differences both in root and seed coat suberin: 22:0-OH is mostly reduced in far1 mutants, 20:0-OH is mostly reduced in far4 mutants, and 18:0-OH is mostly reduced in far5 mutants (Domergue et al., 2010). Consistent with these genetic results, heterologous expression of these FARs in yeast revealed that FAR1, FAR4 and FAR5 primarily produce 22:0, 20:0 and 18:0 chain length primary fatty alcohols, respectively (Domergue et al., 2010). Subsequently, comparison of single mutants far1, far4, and far5 with the double mutants far1 far4, far4 far5, and far1 far5 showed that FAR1 and FAR4 have overlapping specificities in the production of 20:0-OH and 22:0-OH, while FAR5 is almost solely responsible for 18:0-OH production (Vishwanath et al., 2013). By analyzing the double mutant far1 far4 and triple mutant far1 far4 far5, FAR5 was found to be also involved, to a small degree, in the production of 20:0-OH and 22:0-OH. Although these *far* mutants have decreased primary fatty alcohols to varying degrees (especially far1 far4 far5 that had fatty alcohols reduced by 70-80%), none of these mutants are altered in other suberin constituents indicating that reduced levels of fatty alcohols does not affect the suberin polymerization process (Vishwanath et al., 2013). Additionally, it was found that only about 20% of the 18:0-22:0 primary fatty alcohols

are present in suberin polymer, while the rest are founded in the non-polymeric form (i.e. as suberin-associated waxes), mostly in the form of alkyl hydroxycinnamates with alkyl caffeates predominating in Arabidopsis (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2013; Delude *et al*, 2016).

Another key enzyme family required for suberin biosynthesis are the acyl-CoA dependent glycerol 3-phosphate acyltransferases (GPATs). GPATs conduct acyl transfer reactions to produce monoacylglycerols, which function as the core suberin building blocks (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015). Arabidopsis mutants of *GPAT5* were reported to display a global 50% decrease in some monomers, including 22:0 fatty acid and 18:1 ω-hydroxy fatty acid in roots of 3-week-old seedlings (Beisson *et al.*, 2007). Meanwhile, *GPAT7* is induced by wounding treatment and is responsible for producing suberin-like monomers when transiently overexpressed in leaves, suggesting its involvement in wound-induced suberin biosynthesis (Yang *et al.*, 2012).

Presently, there is only one suberin-related gene identified for incorporating aromatic monomers into suberin in Arabidopsis: *ASFT/HHT* (Gou *et al.* 2009; Molina *et al.*, 2009). This aliphatic suberin feruloyl transferase (ASFT/HHT) belongs to the BAHD family of acyltransferases, which catalyze the acyl transfer of feruloyl-CoA to ω-hydroxy acids and fatty alcohols to produce alkyl hydroxycinnamates (AHCs). ASFT/HHT is predicted to be a cytosol-localized enzyme, which is different from the other suberin-related enzymes described above that are localized to the endoplasmic reticulun (ER)

(Serra *et al.*, 2010). *ASFT/HHT loss-of-function* mutants almost completely lack ferulate in Arabidopsis root suberin (Gou *et al.*, 2009; Molina *et al.* 2009), but surprisingly this absence did not lead to obvious reductions of suberin aliphatic components or any structural alterations in the suberin lamellae (Molina *et al.* 2009).

Various suberin precursors, including monomers or partially formed oligomers, need to be transported from the ER to and across the plasma membrane, and then they are polymerized in the apoplast to form the suberin polymer. Presently, only limited knowledge of the transporters involved in suberin monomer/oligomer trafficking have been revealed. ABCG transporters are plasma membrane-localized and belong to the Gsubfamily of ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters family. ABCG transporters were predicted to be involved in suberin monomer/oligomer transport since they are responsible for export in the deposition of other plant extracellular lipid polymers, such as cuticle (cutin and waxes) and sporopollenin (Pighin et al., 2004; Choi et al., 2011). In Arabidopsis, an abcg2 abcg6 abcg20 triple mutant was characterized and shown to have alterations in the structure, composition and properties of root and seed coat suberin (Yadav et al., 2014). In other species, such as rice and potatoes, ABC transporters OsABCG5 and StABCG1 are also involved in the suberization of the hypodermis of rice roots (Shiono et al., 2014) and the periderm of potato tubers (Landgraf et al., 2014), respectively. Additionally, it is possible that the larger and/or branched oligomers would

require a different transport mechanism involving exocytotic vesicles or oleophilic droplets as described in rapidly expanded rice internodes (Hoffmann-Benning *et al.*, 1994). However, before ABC transporters are involved in lipid export, a secretory vesicle trafficking system between the endoplasmic reticulum (where monomers/oligomers are produced) and the plasma membrane also contributes to extracellular lipid deposition. For example, in the transport of cuticular wax, significant decreases of stem wax deposition were observed in vesicle-trafficking mutants *gnl1-1* and *ech*. This indicates a role for GNL1- and ECH-mediated vesicle trafficking in the export of cuticular wax (McFarlane *et al.*, 2014). Vesicle trafficking may similarly be involved in suberin deposition.

Polyester synthases responsible for lipid polymer assembly have been identified for cutin, but no candidates have yet been identified for suberin polymerization. In tomatoes, the extracellular protein CD1 of the GDSL-motif lipase/hydrolase family catalyzes transesterification of *sn*-2-(10,16-dihydroxyhexadecanoyl)-monoacylglycerol cutin precursors *in vitro* (Yeats *et al.*, 2012; Girard *et al.*, 2012). Recently, a homolog from Arabidopsis was found and characterized *in vitro*, but it only polymerized linear chains and not branched-chain products thought to be characteristic of the suberin polymer (Yeats *et al.*, 2014). Another cell wall-localized protein called BODYGUARD is also involved in cutin polymerization. *Bodyguard* loss-of-function mutants display a series of phenotypes indicating disrupted cuticle formation (Kurdyukov *et al.*, 2006).

In Arabidopsis, suberin-associated waxes (also known as root waxes) are found in root endodermis and mature root periderms and are mostly composed of alkyl hydroxycinnamates (AHCs), representing about 90% of the total waxes in Arabidopsis among them, 18:0-22:0 alkyl caffeates are the most abundant components (Kosma et al., 2015; Delude et al., 2016). An acyl transferase (FACT) is responsible for the synthesis of unpolymerized alkyl caffeates in Arabidopsis root (Kosma et al., 2012). Meanwhile, it has been suggested that the synthesis of both suberin polymer and the non-covalently linked waxes from suberized layers have common biosynthetic origins. For example, the fatty acyl-CoAs elongases KCS2 and KCS20 are necessary for the formation of the verylong-chain aliphatics present in the suberin polymer as well as those of suberin-associated waxes (Delude et al., 2016). Similarly, FARs are responsible for the synthesis of 18:0-22:0 primary fatty alcohols present in both suberin polymer and the counterparts found in suberin-associated waxes (Kosma et al., 2012; Vishwanath et al., 2013).

1.6 MYB transcription factors in plants

The *v-myb* myeloblastosis viral oncogene homolog (MYB) family of transcription factors (TFs) is widely distributed in land plants and comprises one the largest group of TFs in plants. Its members play important roles in controlling growth and development, stress responses, and production of specialized (secondary) metabolites

(Dubos *et al.*, 2010). The MYB-TFs are characterized by a highly conserved DNA-binding domain: the MYB domain, which is present as one to four imperfect repeats (R), each of which includes a sequence of about 52 amino acids (Ogata *et al.*, 1996).

According to the number and placement of the repeats, MYB proteins can be classified into four groups: 1R (R1/2 or R3-MYB), 2R (R2R3-MYB), 3R (R1R2R3-MYB), and 4R (4 R1/R2-like repeats)-MYB subfamilies (Dubos et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2015) (Figure 5). The basic structures and functions of each plant MYB-TF group are described as follows. 1R-MYB consists of proteins with a single R3type or a partial R1/R2 MYB repeat. 1R-MYB proteins participate in morphogenesis, control of specialized metabolism, circadian clock control, response to phosphate starvation, and flower and fruit development (Feller et al., 2011). 2R-MYB is the predominant MYB class in plants (Stracke et al., 2001; Matus et al., 2008; Wilkins et al., 2008; Du et al., 2012). 2R-MYB with a R2R3-type repeat has a modular structure, consisting of a DNA-binding domain (the MYB repeats) at the N terminus and a highly variable activation or repression domain at the C terminus. Based on amino acid sequence conservation in the MYB domain and the C terminal domains, R2R3-MYB proteins are divided into 28 subgroups (Stracke et al., 2001; Dubos et al., 2010). These R2R3-MYB proteins are involved in central and specialized metabolism, determination of cell fate and identity, hormone signal transduction, regulation of development, and response to

biotic and abiotic stresses (Dubos *et al.*, 2010). 3R-MYBs, with a R1R2R3-type repeat, have been identified in most eukaryotic genomes, including animals. These proteins are mainly associated with control of the cell cycle (Ito 2005; Haga *et al.*, 2007). 4R-MYB is the smallest class group and very little is known about these proteins in plants (Dubos *et al.*, 2010). In Arabidopsis, the MYB gene family is represented by only five 3R-MYB genes, compared with 190 R2R3-MYB genes (Stracke *et al.*, 2001; Yanhui *et al.*, 2006).

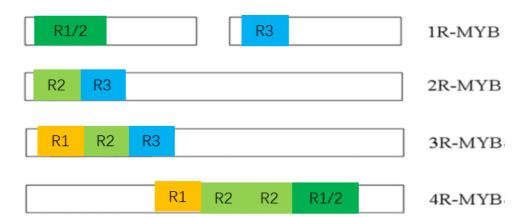


Figure 1.6. Schematic representations of plant MYB transcription factor groups. Figure is modified from Liu *et al.*, 2015.

The MYB repeats are involved in direct DNA binding. Both the R2 and R3-MYB repeats are necessary for direct DNA binding, but neither R2 nor R3 can alone bind DNA specifically (Ogata *et al.*, 1994). Structural studies showed that the R2 and R3

recognition helices contact directly with each other before sequence-specific binding to target DNA (Tahirov *et al.*, 2001; Tahirov *et al.*, 2002). Thus, both R2 and R3 repeats bind cooperatively to their cognate DNA target sequences. Meanwhile, 1R-MYB proteins, which contain only one repeat, cannot directly bind to DNA but need to first bind to other transcription factors (Koering *et al.*, 2000; Hwang *et al.*, 2001).

The three MYB subfamilies including 1R-, 2R- and 3R-MYB groups each preferentially bind to different DNA sequences. 1R-MYB members bind predominantly to the telomeric sequence TTAGGG (Martin and Paz-Ares, 1997). The R2R3-MYB members share relatively high similarity in terms of amino acid sequence in their recognition helices, and have similar DNA-recognition patterns (Romero et al., 1998). Based on amino acid sequence similarities, R2R3-MYB family members are classified into three phylogenetic clades (group A, B, and C) and each of the clades has been analyzed for DNA-binding specificities (Romero et al. 1998). It is known that members of group A bind MBS (MYB Binding Site) type I sequences (C(A/C/G/T)GTT(A/G)), members of group B bind equally to both MBS type I and type II sequences (G(G/T)T(A/T)GTT(A/G)), and most members of group C bind MBS type IIG sequences ((C/T)ACC(A/T)A(A/C)C). 3R-MYB factors in tobacco were found to bind to the sequence AACGG (Ito et al. 1998). It is still possible, however, that proteins from each of the three subfamilies do not follow the DNA binding patterns described above (Li and

Parish 1995; Lu *et al.*. 2002). Therefore, it is necessary to conduct research to identify the MYB-TFs DNA binding sites for individual MYB proteins because it is difficult to predict MYB DNA-binding sites based solely on amino acid sequences of the R repeats (Prouse and Campbell, 2012).

An increasing number of MYB proteins have had their direct gene targets elucidated (Dubos *et al.*, 2010). According to information currently provided by the platform of AGRIS and AtRegNet (Palaniswamy *et al.* 2006), a total of 552 direct target genes of MYB proteins have been revealed. These MYB factors include 3R-MYBs (*MYB3R4* and *MYB3R1*) and five R2R3-MYBs (*AtMYB123*, *AtMYB2*, *AtMYB66*, *AtMYB0* and *AtMYB33*). Among these MYB factors, *AtMYB0* and *AtMYB66* directly target genes encoding other transcription factors (Koshino-Kimura *et al.* 2005), whereas other MYB factors target non-transcription factor genes (Abe *et al.*, 2003; Baudry *et al.*, 2004; Haga *et al.*, 2007).

1.7 Transcription factors regulating suberin biosynthesis

Suberin deposition is both spatially and temporally restricted, as well as inducible by stresses. This is controlled to a large degree at the level of transcription, which is supported by expression studies of suberin biosynthetic genes (Ranathunge *et al.*, 2011; Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015).

Presently, only a few transcription factors (TFs) have been reported or predicted to regulate suberin biosynthesis. The transcript levels of genes encoding TFs of the WRKY, NAM (No-Apical-Meristem)-like, AS1-interacting KH protein, and SQUAMOSA promoter-binding protein-like (SPL) families are strongly up-regulated in suberized cork (Soler et al., 2007). Thus, these TFs may be involved in suberin biosynthesis in cork (phellem tissue). At ERF38, which belongs to AP2/ERF-type (APETALA2/ ethylene-response-factor) TF family in Arabidopsis thaliana, has been suggested to function in suberin production during plant development (Lasserre et al., 2008). Transgenic lines harbouring a AtERF38 promoter::GUS fusion revealed AtERF38's strong expression specifically in suberized tissues including the outer integument of mature seeds, endodermis of roots in the primary developmental stage, and sclerified tissues of mature inflorescence stems. However, this gene co-expression pattern does not prove that it is regulating suberin biosynthetic genes and further experiments are required to test its role. Also, analysis of promoter sequences of upregulated genes in suberin biosynthesis are enriched in putative *cis*-elements that are associated with the transcription factors containing WRKY or AP2 domains (Shiono et al., 2014). However, these studies did not provide conclusive evidence for any TFs directly controlling transcriptional regulation of suberin biosynthetic genes.

1.8 MYB Transcription factors regulating suberin biosynthesis

Cork cells are highly suberized during the secondary growth stage. QsMYB1 is one of the candidate TFs important for cork formation in cork oak tree (*Quercus suber*). It was found that *QsMYB1* transcripts were upregulated in suberized cork tissue with alternative splicing (AS) variants, showing a high expression of two different transcripts of *QsMYB1.1* and *QsMYB1.2* (Almeida *et al.*, 2013). However, no evidence has yet been provided to show that these MYB TFs directly bind the promoters of suberin biosynthetic genes.

A study from the Rowland Lab showed that *At*MYB41 strongly induces suberin production when it was stably overexpressed in leaves of *Arabidopsis thaliana* or transiently overexpressed in leaves of *Nicotiana benthamiana* (Kosma *et al.*, 2014). The concomitant significant increases in transcript levels of all known suberin biosynthetic genes further indicated that MYB41 is involved in regulating suberin production.

Additionally, transgenic *MYB41* promoter: GUS lines subjected to unstressed conditions versus abscisic acid (a stress hormone) or high NaCl treatments showed that *MYB41* is active in root endodermis under stressful condition but not during normal growth.

In *Malus* × *domestica*, MYB93 was reported to positively regulate suberin deposition. RNA-seq analysis shown that transient overexpression of *MdMYB93* upregulated a core cluster of predicted suberin biosynthetic genes and also induced several

lignin- and cutin-related genes. Meanwhile, a massive accumulation of suberin polymer as well as free fatty acids and phenylpropanoids were observed (Legay *et al.*, 2016).

Although there is no direct evidence showing that the MYB93 ortholog from Arabidopsis (*At*MYB93) regulates suberin deposition (Gibbs *et al.*, 2014), *Md*MYB93 has high amino acid similarities with *At*MYB93 in the N-terminal region DNA binding domains (Legay *et al.*, 2016). This suggests that *At*MYB93 has similar regulatory functions in suberin biosynthesis.

Recently, *At*MYB107 was shown to be essential for positive suberin regulation in the seed integument layer (Gou *et al.*, 2017). Featured with low permeability and low germination rates under stress, *myb107* loss-of-function mutants display significant (50%-60%) decreases in seed coat suberin. According to chromatin immunopreciptation-qPCR results, MYB107 was shown to directly interact with the promoters of the suberin related genes *FAR1*, *GPAT5*, *HHT*, and *FACT*.

Through a broad comparison study of suberin deposition in Arabidopsis seeds, several organs of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) including suberized fruit skin, russeted apple (*Malus x domestica*) fruit surfaces, grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*), potato (*Solanum tuberosum*), and the roots of rice (*Oryza sativ*) under waterlogging conditions (Lashbrooke *et al.*, 2016), predicted MYB107 and MYB9 orthologs were found to be coexpressed with suberin biosynthetic genes in these plant species. Further, in Arabidopsis

T-DNA *loss-of-function* lines *MYB9* and *MYB107*, suberin biosynthetic genes were down-regulated while suberin accumulation was also decreased in seed coat.

Additionally, it is likely that *AtMYB107* and *AtMYB9* influence each other's expression because there is an increase in *MYB107* transcripts in *myb9* mutants. This probably partially compensates phenotypically for the downregulation of MYB9 (Lashbrooke *et al.*, 2016).

1.9 Project rationale and objectives

The biosynthesis of suberin has attracted much interest in the past 10 years, with major advancements achieved using the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* and the crop *Solanum tuberosum* (potato). Most research has been focused on the endoplasmic reticulum-localized enzymes involved in suberin monomer formation and the plasma membrane-localized transporters involved in excretion of suberin monomers or oligomers to the cell wall (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015). The genes encoding these enzymes are spatially and temporally controlled during normal growth and development as well as induced by various abiotic stresses (Ranathunge *et al.*, 2011; Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015). However, the molecular mechanisms involved in suberin-related gene regulation are not well understood. Importantly, the identities of transcription factors directly or indirectly controlling the transcriptional regulation of suberin biosynthetic or transporter genes need to be identified (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015). The controlled deposition of suberin in roots is

of particular interest given the key role of root suberin in controlling water and nutrient uptake, and its role in protection against uptake of toxic substances and root pathogens (Franke and Schreiber, 2007; Schreiber, 2010; Geldner, 2013; Barberon and Geldner, 2014). Presently, only Arabidopsis MYB41 transcription factor (TF) has reported to be an activator of suberin biosynthesis in roots, but it functions only under certain stress conditions, such as high salt (Kosma *et al.*, 2014).

Recent research in the Rowland lab (Murmu *et al.*, manuscript in preparation) indicated that the highly related Arabidopsis MYB53, MYB92, and MYB93 transcription factors together function in regulating suberin biosynthesis during normal root development (unstressed conditions). This is based on the following evidence so far: (1) transient overexpression of MYB53, MYB92 or MYB93, which are closely related MYB-type transcription factors, in leaves of *Nicotiana benthamiana* resulted in ectopic suberin deposition in leaf cell walls; (2) use of transgenic Arabidopsis promoter::reporter gene fusion lines revealed that MYB53, MYB92 and MYB93 are expressed in young root endodermis where suberin is normally deposited and including under non-stress conditions; (3) loss-of-function single and double mutants of MYB92 and MYB93 exhibited a reduction in root suberin, specifically in root endodermis. However, the role of MYB53 in root suberin production was unclear due to the unavailability of loss-offunction T-DNA insertion mutants of MYB53 at that time. My hypothesis is that the

R2R3-MYB transcription factor MYB53 from *Arabidopsis thaliana* functions with MYB92 and MYB93 to positively regulate suberin deposition during normal plant root development. To test this, I took advantage of some recently reported *MYB53* T-DNA insertion lines and by using a stable Arabidopsis transgenic line that allows for the rapid overexpression of MYB53 upon application of the steroid β-estradiol.

Chapter 2: Materials and Methods

2.1 Plant materials and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana plants were the Columbia (Col-0) ecotype background. The T-DNA insertion lines SALK 076713 (*myb53-1*), CS853878 (*myb53-2*), SM 3 41690 (myb92-1) and SALK 131752 (myb93-1) were obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Centre (http://www.arabidopsis.org/). The double mutants myb53-1 myb92-1, myb53-1 myb93-1, myb53-2 myb92-1, and myb53-2 myb93-1 were created by crossing single mutants myb53-1 or myb53-2 with myb92-1 or myb93-1. The double mutant myb92-1 myb93-1 was generated by crossing single mutants myb92-1 and myb93-1. The triple mutants myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1 and myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1 were created by crossing mvb92-1 mvb93-1 with mvb53-1 and mvb53-2, respectively. Plants homozygous for T-DNA insertions in the MYB53, MYB92, and MYB93 genes in the single, double or triple mutants were identified in the F2 population by PCR genotyping. The primers (gene-specific and T-DNA-specific) used for PCR genotyping are listed in Appendix A. The TRANSPLANTA-559 (TPT-559) line for inducible overexpression of MYB53 was obtained from the TRANSPLANTA consortium collection (http://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/transplanta dev), which is described in Coego et al. (2014).

All *A. thaliana* seeds (wild-type, mutants, or TRANSPLANTA line) were surface sterilized by immersing them 70% ethanol for about 2 min, followed by immersion in

20% bleach plus 0.1% Tween20 (Cat #. TWN510.500) for about 5 min, and then the sterilized seeds were washed 4 times with sterile distilled water. The sterilized seeds were stratified for 3-4 days at 4°C. Plants were either grown on AT media [5 mM KNO₃, 2.5 mM KH₂PO₄, 2 mM MgSO₄, 2 mM Ca(NO₃)₂, 50 μM Fe₄(EDTA)₃ and 1 mM micronutrients] or in sterilized potting soil (Pro-mix BX-General Purpose growing medium, Cat #. 10380RG) fertilized with 1 g/L fertilizer [Plant-Prod, 20(N)-20(P)-20(K) Classic, Cat #. 10529] plus 0.0625 g/L micronutrients (Plant-Prod chelated micronutrient mix). All plants were grown in an environmental growth chamber at 22-23°C with 30–60% humidity, a 16h/8h light/dark cycle, and a light intensity of 149-152 μmol• m⁻²•s⁻¹.

2.2 Chemical inducement of MYB53 in TPT-559 overexpression line

The steroid β -estradiol (E–8875, Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and added to AT media at a final concentration of 20 μ M. About 20-25 seeds were grown on narrow strips (5 mm width \times 100 mm length) of sterilized filter paper (Fisher Scientific, Cat #. 09790E) and placed on the surfaces of solidified AT media in square petri plates (Fisher Scientific, Cat #. FB0875711A). All the square plates were kept in a vertical position in the same environmental growth chamber and under the same conditions as described above. The rows of 10-day-old TPT-559 seedlings were transferred using sterilized tweezers from normal AT media to β -estradiol-containing AT

media for a time-course of growth (1 day, 4 days, 7 days or 10 days). The negative controls were simultaneously transferred in the same way to AT media containing the same amount of DMSO solvent only.

2.3 RNA preparation and cDNA synthesis

To analyze the MYB53, MYB92, and MYB93 transcript levels in the different lines, plant tissues were harvested from 2-weeks-old roots (in the case of T-DNA insertion mutants and corresponding wild-type ecotype) or from 10-days-old roots or leaves (in the case of TPT-559 inducible overexpression line, with or without β estradiol). Plant roots and leaves were separately wrapped in aluminum foil and immediately submerged in liquid nitrogen. For long-term storage, tissues were stored at -80°C. Microcentrifuge tubes (1.5 mL) and spatulas were pre-chilled in liquid nitrogen and remained chilled throughout the procedure by using a rack submerged in liquid nitrogen. Frozen plant tissue was placed in a liquid nitrogen-chilled mortar and ground into fine powders using a chilled pestle. The powders were quickly transferred into chilled micro-centrifuge tubes using chilled spatulas. The NORGEN plant/fungi total RNA purification kit (Cat #. 25800, NORGEN BIOTEK CORP., https://norgenbiotek.com/) was used according to the manufacturer's protocol. Genomic DNA remaining in the extracted total RNA was degraded using the Ambion TURBO

DNA-free kit (Cat #. AM1907, Thermo Fisher Scientific,

https://www.thermofisher.com/). The reaction system was set up in a total volume of 30 μl, including 25 μl total RNA, 3 μl 10×DNase buffer (supplied in the kit), 1 μl DNase (supplied in the kit), and 1 μl RNase OUT Recombinant Ribonuclease Inhibitor (Cat #. 10777019, Thermo Fisher Scientific, https://www.thermofisher.com/). The integrity and concentration of purified RNA was verified by agarose gel electrophoresis and using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer. One μg of DNase-treated purified RNA was used as template for first-strand cDNA synthesis using the iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (Cat #. 1708891, Bio-Rad, http://www.bio-rad.com/) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The cDNA product was diluted 10 times with TE buffer [10mM Tris- HCl (pH 7.5) and 1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0)], distributed into many aliquots, and stored at -80°C for long-term storage.

2.4 Semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis of transcript levels

For semi-quantitative RT-PCR, the reference gene *GAPDH* (At1g13440) was used as an endogenous control. The reactions were conducted at 58℃ annealing temperature and the cycle numbers were 26 for *GAPDH* and 30 for the *MYB53/92/93* genes. The primers are listed in Appendix B Table 8. The 10-times diluted cDNA was used as template in each 20-µl PCR system. The PCR products were then separated on a

1% agarose gel containing ethidium bromide (0.5 $\mu g/ml$) and visualized using an AlphaImager 2200 (Alpha Innotech, Santa Clara CA).

2.5 Quantitative PCR analysis of transcript levels

Quantitative PCR was performed on a Bio-Rad CFX Connect Real-Time PCR

System using SSoAdvanced Universal Inhibitor-Tolerant SYBR Green Supermix (Cat #.

1725017, Bio-Rad, http://www.bio-rad.com/). Each qPCR reaction contained 5 µl of 2X

SYBR Green Supermix, 0.5 µl primer mix (250 nM as the final concentration for both forward and reverse primer), 2 µl of 10x diluted cDNA, and 2.5 µl autoclaved nano-pure water. The primers are listed in Appendix B, Table S9. For each pair of primers, the amplification efficiency of all the genes of interest and reference genes were found to be between 91% -112% (Table 2.1). The PCR thermal profile was composed of 1 cycle at 98°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles at 98°C for 15 sec, and then 60°C for 30 sec. For each run, melt curve analysis was conducted at the end of the amplification to make sure that no primer dimers or non-specific amplicons were formed. This thermal profile was conducted between 65-95°C at 0.5°C increments with 5 sec per step.

Table 2.1 The PCR primer efficiency for suberin biosynthetic genes and reference genes

Arabidopsis Gene ID	Annotation	PCR Efficiency (×100%)
At5g58860	CYP86A1	93
At5g23190	CYP86B1	97
At3g11430	GPAT5	91
At5g41040	ASFT	105
At5g22500	FAR1	103
At3g44540	FAR4	101
At3g44550	FAR5	112
At1g13440	GAPDH	98
At1g13320	PP2A	100

Transcripts were quantified as relative abundance using the comparative Ct method "delta-delta Ct: 2^{-Δ-Δ-Ct}". The reference genes *GAPDH* (At1g13440) and *PP2A* (At1g13320) (Czechowski *et al.*, 2005) were used as constitutive controls in each sample to normalize the differences of total RNA content across all samples. Three biological replications were conducted for each condition, with two technical replicates for each sample.

2.6 Lipid polyester (suberin / cutin) analysis using gas chromatography

Roots from 2-weeks-old seedlings were harvested for quantitative characterization of lipid polyester composition (suberin) in the T-DNA loss-of-function mutant lines compared to wild-type. For TPT- 559 (*MYB53*) inducible overexpression line, with or

without steroid treatment, roots and leaves from 11 day-, 14 day-, 17 day- and 20 day-old seedlings (i.e. 10-day-old seedlings were exposed to β-estradiol treatment) were harvested for characterization of lipid polyesters (suberin in roots and cutin + suberin in leaves). At least three replicates of each sample were prepared for suberin / cutin chemical analyses, and approximately 180 pooled seedlings were collected for each T-DNA loss-of-function mutant biological replicate and approximately 100 pooled seedlings for each overexpression biological replicate.

Tissue delipidation (removal of non-polymerized lipids) and base-catalyzed depolymerization of lipid polyesters were carried out prior to suberin analysis by gas chromatography. To avoid any carry over of external lipid contamination, all glassware was cleaned three times with chloroform and all glass tube caps were rinsed three times with 50% methanol. For delipidation, all samples of roots and leaves tissue were rapidly collected after being chopped into pieces and immersed in hot isopropanol (pre-heated in an 85°C oven) for 15 min at 85°C. After cooling to room temperature, broken tissue was further ground up using a small hand-held polytron that had also been rinsed three times with chloroform. Later, soluble lipids were removed from the ground samples (delipidation) by incubating tissues with a series of mixed solvents of increasing polarity: 2:1 (v/v) chloroform: methanol, 1:1 (v/v) chloroform: methanol, (1:2) (v/v) chloroform: methanol, and 100% methanol, successively (chloroform, HPLC grade, Cat #. CA71006-

912, Anachemia; methanol, HPLC grade, Cat #. CA11020-604, Anachemia). Each solvent extraction step of the series lasted for 24 h, including changing the solvent once during the 24 h cycle. All samples were inverted on a rotator during the delipidation process to ensure thorough mixing.

After delipidation, all samples were dried in a fume hood at room temperature for several days and then transferred to a sealed desiccator with fully dried drierite (calcium sulfate) for at least a few days. The resulting dried residues were weighed. Ten µg of each internal standard, 17:0 methyl ester and omega-pentadecanolactone (OPL), were added to each sample replicate. The lipid polyesters were depolymerized by basecatalyzed trans-esterification at 60°C for 2 h by adding 0.9 ml methanol, 0.225 ml methyl acetate, and 0.375 ml sodium methoxide. Samples were vortexed thoroughly every 30 min during the reaction. After cooling down, one ml of glacial acetic acid was added to stop the reaction to adjust the pH between 4 and 5. Then, 2.5 ml of dichloromethane (methylene chloride) and 2 mL of 0.5 M NaCl was added to each sample to extract the depolymerized monomeric constituents. The mixtures were vortexed thoroughly and centrifuged for 5 min at 805 × g. The compounds were obtained in the organic phase, which was then washed three times with 1 ml of 0.5 M NaCl, extracting into the organic phase each time. Anhydrous sodium sulfate (around one-half volume of the organic phase) was added to remove residual water from the organic phase. Samples were

centrifuged at 805×g the next day and the anhydrous organic phase transferred to clean tubes. Extracts were dried under a gentle stream of nitrogen at 37°C for about 15 min. The free hydroxyl groups were then acetylated (derivatized) using 0.1 ml acetic anhydride + 0.1 ml pyridine at 60°C for 1 h. The samples were again evaporated under a gentle stream of nitrogen at 37°C. Dried samples were then re-dissolved in 0.1 ml hexane for analysis by gas chromatography.

A Varian 450-GC gas chromatograph equipped with a FID (Flame Ionization Detector) was used for analysis. One μl of each sample was injected using a glass 10 μl Hamilton syringe fitted onto an autosampler. The samples were injected into a split/splitless injector at 300°C using a 1:20 split ratio. Individual monomers were separated on an Agilent J&W GC capillary column (HP-5MS, 30 m length, 0.250 mm diameter, 0.25 µm film thickness). The oven temperature program was: initial temperature of 140°C for 3 minutes, 10°C·min⁻¹ ramping up to 310°C, and then held at 310°C for 17 minutes. The monomers were detected by FID set at 325°C. The total run time for each sample was 30 minutes. Helium was used as carrier gas at a constant flow of 2.0 ml/min, nitrogen was used as make-up gas, and air and hydrogen were used as combustion gas. Peak identification was done by comparison with retention time patterns of previous extracts that had been characterized by gas chromatography – mass spectrometry (GC-MS).

2.7 Quantification of suberin monomer amount using flame ionization detection

The FID response is proportional to the carbon atom number and the degree of unsaturation of the analytes. Therefore, to calculate these variant FID responses to individual components, correction factors are used to amend the peak areas of the signal produced by individual suberin monomers and then detected by FID (Mossoba, *et al.*, 2014). The FID correction factor for each monomer is determined by the number of carbon atoms in the hydrocarbon molecule, which is the trimethylsylil methyl derivatized monomer:

Therefore, the corrected peak area =
$$\frac{\text{peak area}}{\text{FID correction factor}}$$

The corrected peak areas of the suberin monomers were then compared to the corrected peak areas of 17:0 methyl ester and omega-pentadecanolactone (OPL) as the two internal standards (IS). For both of these two internal standards, 10 μ g was added to each sample to determine the amount of each suberin monomer, which was represented as the

m(suberin monomers):

$$m_{(suberin \ monomer)} = \frac{corrected \ peak \ area_{(IS)} \times 10 \ \mu g}{corrected \ peak \ area_{(suberin \ monomer)}}$$

Since all monomers were acetylated, $m_{\text{(subeirn monomer)}} = n_{\text{(acetylated suberin monomer)}} \times MW_{\text{(+acetate)}}$.

Thus,

corrected peak area_(IS) \times 10 µg

 $n_{(acetylated subeirn monomer)} =$

 $corrected\ peak\ area_{(suberin\ monomer)} \times molecular\ weight_{(+acetate)}$

The $n_{(acetylated \ suberin \ monomer)}$ was used to calculate the actual amount of suberin monomers as the unacetylated suberin monomers in the original polymer:

 $m_{\text{(unacetylated suberin monomer)}} = n_{\text{(acetylated suberin monomer)}} \times \text{molecular weight (-acetate)}.$

Chapter 3: Results

3.1 Ectopic production of suberin in roots and leaves by steroid-induced overexpression of Arabidopsis *MYB53*

A β-estradiol inducible overexpression system was used to examine whether *MYB53* overexpression leads to changes in suberin production (Figure 3.1). Specifically, *MYB53* overexpression was induced by using the Arabidopsis TRANSPLANTA-559 (TPT-559) overexpression line (Coego *et al.*, 2014). This transgenic line contains two transcriptional units jointly functioning for specifically triggering the overexpression of *MYB53* upon application of the steroid β-estradiol. In the first transcription unit, a synthetic constitutive promoter G10-90 (Ishige *et al.*, 1999) drives the expression of XVE activator (Zuo *et al.*, 2000), which is a fusion of the LexA DNA binding domain (X), VP16 transactivation domain (V), and the hER regulatory domain of the human estrogen receptor (E). Upon binding β-estradiol, this chimeric XVE factor enters the nucleus and

stimulates the transcription of a downstream target gene (*MYB53* in this case), which is controlled by a second promoter consisting of eight copies of the LexA operator fused with the -46 35S minimal promoter (Benfey *et al.*, 1990).

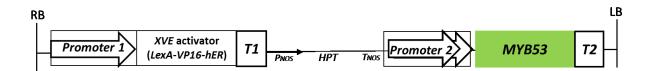


Figure 3.1. Schematic representation of the chemical inducible system for overexpressing Arabidopsis MYB53 (At5g65230).

The schematic was modified from Zuo *et al.*, 2000; Coego *et al.*, 2014. Promoter 1 is a synthetic promoter (Ishige et al., 1999) controlling the expression of chimeric XVE transactivator. The encoded XVE transactivator protein sequence contains the DNA binding domain of LexA, the transcription activation domain of VP16, and the regulatory domain of the human estrogen receptor (hER). T1 is the rbcS E9 terminator sequence used for the XVE activator transcription unit. Promoter 2 is composed of 8 copies of the LexA Operator sequence and the -46 35S minimal promoter. MYB53 is the coding sequence of AtMYB53 transcription factor. T2 is the rbcsS 3A terminator sequence used for the MYB53 transcription unit. Between these two transcription units is the hygromycin phosphotransferase II coding sequence (HPT), which confers hygromycin resistance in plants. This selective marker is under the control of the nopaline synthase promoter (Pnos) and the nopaline synthase terminator sequence (Tnos).

Ten-day-old seedlings were treated with 20 μM β-estradiol and then roots and leaves were harvested for lipid polyester analysis 1 day, 4 days, 7 days and 10 days after

treatment. The seedlings were grown vertically in square tissue culture plates for the convenience of rapidly transferring seedlings to mock- and hormone-treated medium while maintaining the integrity of the roots (i.e. minimize stress). After 16 hours of steroid treatment, the MYB53 transcript was induced in both roots and leaves (Figures 3.2A and 3.3A). In roots (Figure 3.2B), there was no significant difference in the amount of suberin one day after incubating with hormone (20.73 µg/mg suberin) in comparison to mock-treated (DMSO only) control (17.73 µg/mg suberin). However, suberin total content increased significantly and reached 95.36 µg/mg 4 days after overexpressing MYB53 compared with 20.57 μg/mg suberin in roots of the mock-treated control. After 7 and 10 days, the suberin amount gradually decreased to 80.44 µg/mg and 48.83 µg/mg, respectively, in roots of hormone-treated plants, but it was still significantly higher than the mock control at each of these time points (18.68 µg/mg and 15.09 µg/mg, respectively). Meanwhile, MYB53 overexpression also significantly increased leaf lipid polyester content (cutin plus suberin, as these will be depolymerized together) after 4 days, 7 days and 10 days of hormone treatment compared to mock control, but there was no obvious increase after 1 day of treatment (Figure 3.3B). The leaf lipid polyester significantly increased to 7.16 μg/mg, 9.04 μg/mg and 6.30 μg/mg, respectively, after 4 days, 7 days and 10 days of treatment, compared to the mock control at each of these time points (4.02 μ g/mg, 5.00 μ g/mg and 3.33 μ g/mg, respectively).

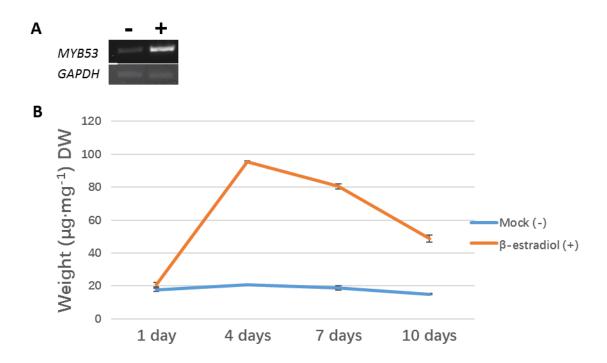


Figure 3.2. Suberin analysis in roots of the *MYB53* inducible overexpression line over a time-course.

(A) RT-PCR analysis of MYB53 transcript levels in roots of the MYB53 overexpression line treated with β -estradiol (+) or DMSO-alone mock control (-). GAPDH (At1g13440) was used as the constitutively expressed reference gene; the RNA sample was harvested 16h after applying DMSO alone and DMSO with β -estradiol for the mock control (-) and treated groups, respectively. (B) Total suberin content in roots of the MYB53 overexpression line treated with β -estradiol (+) or DMSO-alone mock control (-). The β -estradiol and the DMSO were applied to 10-day-old seedlings and then grown for 1 day, 4 days, 7 days or 10 days. The total suberin amount is expressed as $\mu g \cdot m g^{-1}$ dry weight root tissue. Error bars = SE, n=3 replicates. The asterisks represent the statistical significance ("*" represents p<0.05, "**" represents p<0.01, "***" represents p<0.001, least-significant difference (LSD) comparison).

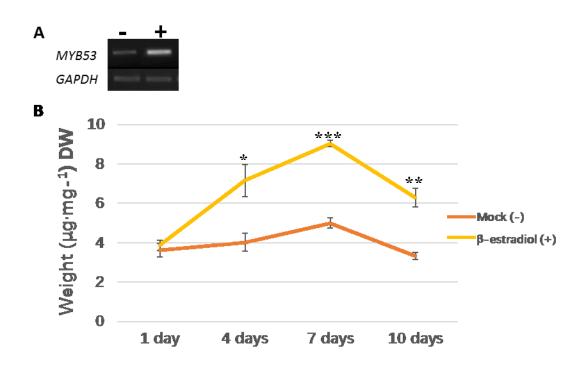


Figure 3.3. Total lipid polyester (cutin and suberin) analysis in leaves of the *MYB53* inducible overexpression line over a time-course.

(A) RT-PCR analysis of MYB53 transcript levels in leaves of the MYB53 overexpression line treated with β -estradiol (+) or DMSO-alone mock control (-). GAPDH (At1g13440) was used as the constitutively expressed reference gene; the RNA sample was harvested 16h after applying DMSO alone and DMSO with β -estradiol for the mock control (-) and treated groups, respectively. (B) Total lipid polyester (cutin + suberin) content in leaves of the MYB53 overexpression line treated with β -estradiol (+) or DMSO-alone mock control (-). The β -estradiol and the DMSO were applied to 10-day-old seedlings and then grown for 1 day, 4 days, 7 days or 10 days. The total suberin amount is expressed as $\mu g \cdot m g^{-1}$ dry weight root tissue. Error bars = SE, n=3 replicates. The asterisks represent the statistical significance ("*" represents p<0.05, "**" represents p<0.01, "***" represents p<0.001, LSD comparison).

We then examined in detail the changes in chemical composition of lipid polyester (i.e. suberin monomers) over the time course of induced MYB53 overexpression. Tables 1 and 2 report fold-change induction relative to the corresponding mock control at each time-point, whereas Appendix Tables S1 and S2 report the absolute amounts of each lipid polyester monomer for both mock and treated at each time point. First, the monomers were grouped based on common chemistry/biosynthetic origin: ferulate, C20-24 fatty acids, dicarboxylic fatty acids, ω-hydroxy fatty acids, and primary fatty alcohols (Table 3.1). In roots of MYB53 overexpressing seedlings, the amounts of all these chemical groupings of monomers were significantly increased, between 2.99 and 5.79-fold, compared to the mock-treated seedlings on the 4th day after steroid treatment (Table 3.1). This indicates that MYB53 overexpression caused an increase of all suberin monomer chemical types, rather than just select chemical types. Ferulate induction compared to mock control decreased on day 7 (4.39 fold induction) compared with day 4 (5.79 fold induction), while C20-C24 fatty acids, dicarboxylic fatty acids and ω-hydroxy fatty acids remained at about the same level of relative induction (4.27 to 4.58 fold induction) and then decreased by day 10 (3.12 to 3.47 fold induction). Primary fatty alcohol induction relative to mock control remained about the same over days 4, 7 and 10 (2.99, 3.61, and 3.38 fold induction, respectively). Additionally, based on multiple relative comparisons of individual monomers at each time-point (Table 3.2), the relative

fold inductions of the majority of individual monomers were, in general, highest on day 4 and remained at almost the same level of induction at day 7. Only ferulate, C22:0 ω -hydroxy fatty acid and C22:0 dicarboxylic fatty acid had statistically significant increases at day 1, but only marginal inductions in each case (1.37, 1.40 and 1.53 fold, respectively). In general, the fold inductions were lower at day 10 compared with day 7, but all monomers remained significantly induced compared to mock control. However, the relative quantities of C18:0, C20:0, and C22:0 primary fatty alcohols showed a different pattern along the four time-point treatment: these three monomers were all significantly increased to maximum levels on day 4 or day 7 after treatment but did not show any significant decrease at day 10 (Table 3.2).

Table 3. 1. Specific groupings based on chemical type of lipid polyester monomers (suberin / cutin) in roots and leaves of the *MYB53* inducible overexpression line over a time-course.

Data is expressed as mean fold change values \pm SE, n=3 replicates. Fold change is calculated as the monomer content from β -estradiol treated seedlings relative to the corresponding mock control seedlings (DMSO alone). The red-colored data represents statistical significance, compared pair-wise between mock control and treated group (p<0.05, LSD comparison). The small letters show the significant differences among the treatments at all 4 time-points (p<0.05, Tukey multiple comparison).

	Roots				Leaves			
Specific Groupings of Lipid Polyester Components (Suberin/cutin)	1 day treatment	4 days treatment	7 days treatment	10 days treatment	1 day treatment	4 days treatment	7 days treatment	10 days treatment
	(11 days growth)	(14 days growth)	(17 days growth)	(20 days growth)	(11 days growth)	(14 days growth)	(17 days growth)	(20 days growth)
Ferulate	1.37 ± 0.07 a	5.79 ± 0.26 c	4.39 ± 0.06 b	3.88 ± 0.31 b	1.05 ± 0.13 a	2.34 ± 0.11 a	12.05 ± 1.65 b	2.08 ± 0.24 a
C20-C24 Fatty Acid Methyl Esters	1.17 ± 0.05 a	4.50 ± 0.07 c	4.27 ± 0.19 c	3.24 ± 0.09 b	1.13 ± 0.15 a	2.68 ± 0.22 b	3.09 ± 0.09 b	3.81 ± 0.34 c
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Methyl Esters	1.15 ± 0.04 a	4.57 ± 0.05 c	4.25 ± 0.26 c	3.12 ± 0.11 b	1.00 ± 0.14 a	1.67 ± 0.19 b	1.49 ± 0.09 b	1.84 ± 0.07 b
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters	1.22 ± 0.02 a	5.00 ± 0.08 c	4.58 ± 0.33 c	3.47 ± 0.13 b	1.07 ± 0.15 a	2.80 ± 0.28 b	2.94 ± 0.22 bc	3.81 ± 0.47 c
Primary Fatty Alcohols	1.01 ± 0.08 a	2.99 ± 0.16 b	3.61 ± 0.10 b	3.38 ± 0.04 b	1.19 ± 0.04 a	1.20 ± 0.17 a	1.40 ± 0.12 a	1.17 ± 0.12 a

Table 3. 2. Lipid polyester (suberin / cutin) monomer composition in roots and leaves of the MYB53 inducible overexpression line over a time-course.

Data is expressed as mean fold change values \pm SE, n=3 replicates. Fold change is calculated as the monomer content from β -estradiol treated seedlings relative to the corresponding mock control seedlings (DMSO alone). The red-colored data represent statistical significance, compared pair-wise between mock control and treated group (p<0.05, LSD comparison). The small letters show the significant differences among the treatments at all 4 time-points (p<0.05, Tukey multiple comparison).

	Root				Leaf			
Lipid Polyester Components (Suberin/Cutin)	1 day treatment	4 days treatment	7 days treatment	10 days treatment	1 day treatment	4 days treatment	7 days treatment	10 days treatment
	(11 days growth)	(14 days growth)	(17 days growth)	(20 days growth)	(11 days growth)	(14 days growth)	(17 days growth)	(20 days growth)
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters								
Ferulate	1.37 ± 0.03 a	5.79 ± 0.26 c	4.39 ± 0.06 b	3.89 ± 0.31 b	1.05 ± 0.13 a	2.34 ± 0.11 a	12.05 ± 1.65 b	2.08 ± 0.24 a
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters								
C20:0	1.10 ± 0.03 a	4.81 ± 0.03 c	3.97 ± 0.25 bc	3.17 ± 0.11 b	1.05 ± 0.05 a	2.60 ± 0.23 b	2.47 ± 0.10 b	3.29 ± 0.37 b
C22:0	1.16 ± 0.06 a	4.08 ± 0.06 c	3.81 ± 0.15 c	2.87 ± 0.06 b	1.17 ± 0.16 a	3.00 ± 0.26 b	3.82 ± 0.18 bc	4.40 ± 0.50 c
C24:0	1.27 ± 0.06 a	5.55 ± 0.17 c	6.01 ± 0.27 c	4.45 ± 0.18 b	1.09 ± 0.21 a	$2.09 \pm 0.19 b$	2.35 ± 0.09 bc	3.03 ± 0.19 c
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters								
C16:0	1.12 ± 0.03 a	4.46 ± 0.05 c	$3.86 \pm 0.22 b$	2.89 ± 0.10 b	1.00 ± 0.08 a	1.96 ± 0.18 b	1.66 ± 0.06 b	2.02 ± 0.11 b
C18:2	1.18 ± 0.06 a	3.59 ± 0.25 c	3.57 ± 0.55 c	2.63 ± 0.03 b	0.98 ± 0.17 a	1.31 ± 0.19 a	1.00 ± 0.08 a	1.13 ± 0.05 a
C18:1	1.16 ± 0.04 a	4.61 ± 0.06 c	4.42 ± 0.24 c	3.04 ± 0.07 b	1.07 ± 0.11 a	2.59 ± 0.23 b	2.65 ± 0.17 bc	3.73 ± 0.69 c
C18:0	1.08 ± 0.03 a	4.46 ± 0.05 c	3.78 ± 0.24 b	$3.29 \pm 0.12 b$	1.06 ± 0.22 a	1.58 ± 0.02 ab	1.55 ± 0.09 ab	2.58 ± 1.31 b
C20:0	1.09 ± 0.05 a	4.33 ± 0.03 c	3.57 ± 0.23 b	3.24 ± 0.31 b	0.96 ± 0.31 a	2.06 ± 0.29 bc	1.88 ± 0.13 b	2.98 ± 0.44 c
C22:0	1.53 ± 0.04 a	7.73 ± 0.35 c	6.47 ± 0.37 b	6.52 ± 1.11 b	0.97 ± 0.07 a	3.59 ± 0.42 b	5.81 ± 2.01 c	4.25 ± 1.79 b
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters								
C16:0	1.23 ± 0.03 a	5.66 ± 0.08 c	5.07 ± 0.38 c	$3.80 \pm 0.14 b$	1.08 ± 0.10 a	2.98 ± 0.28 bc	2.62 ± 0.18 b	3.50 ± 0.45 c
C18:2	1.26 ± 0.06 a	4.46 ± 0.01 c	3.89 ± 0.32 c	2.88 ± 0.05 b	1.02 ± 0.18 a	1.71 ± 0.19 b	1.66 ± 0.16 b	1.82 ± 0.10 b
C18:1	1.19 ± 0.04 a	5.01 ± 0.08 c	4.67 ± 0.35 c	$3.35 \pm 0.09 b$	1.15 ± 0.11 a	3.18 ± 0.33 b	$3.19 \pm 0.22 b$	4.29 ± 0.71 c
C18:0	1.13 ± 0.04 a	4.09 ± 0.06 c	2.77 ± 0.19 b	$3.20 \pm 0.18 b$	1.10 ± 0.15 a	2.13 ± 0.11 b	2.13 ± 0.33 b	3.00 ± 0.09 c
C20:0	1.12 ± 0.03 a	4.29 ± 0.01 c	3.39 ± 0.27 b	$3.36 \pm 0.25 b$	1.11 ± 0.20 a	2.96 ± 0.43 b	2.12 ± 0.17 b	4.15 ± 0.24 c
C22:0	1.40 ± 0.06 a	5.07 ± 0.12 c	4.89 ± 0.29 c	$3.55 \pm 0.10 b$	1.11 ± 0.26 a	3.32 ± 0.34 b	4.43 ± 0.24 bc	4.91 ± 0.58 c
C24:0	0.97 ± 0.47 a	5.27 ± 0.28 bc	5.57 ± 0.36 c	4.43 ± 0.04 b	0.71 ± 0.21 a	1.86 ± 0.40 b	3.18 ± 0.43 bc	3.65 ± 0.94 c
Primary Fatty Alcohols								
C18:0	1.01 ± 0.03 a	3.79 ± 0.08 b	4.09 ± 0.33 b	$3.76 \pm 0.04 \text{ b}$	1.04 ± 0.11 a	1.94 ± 0.15 b	2.20 ± 0.13 bc	3.03 ± 0.21 c
C20:0	0.91 ± 0.17 a	1.74 ± 0.59 a	$3.15 \pm 0.39 b$	2.99 ± 0.02 b	1.23 ± 0.03 a	1.09 ± 0.18 a	1.05 ± 0.07 a	0.96 ± 0.11 a
C22:0	1.11 ± 0.09 a	$3.09 \pm 0.09 b$	3.32 ± 0.14 b	3.17 ± 0.10 b	1.10 ± 0.29 a	1.81 ± 0.27 ab	2.07 ± 0.17 b	3.46 ± 0.26 c

Leaves are coated in cuticle, which consists of cutin polyester and embedded waxes (Yeats and Rose, 2013). Cutin and suberin are chemically similar glycerol-lipid polymers with some monomers in common. However, they have distinct features. For example, Arabidopsis cutin is made up of about 50% 18:2 monomers, mostly dicarboxylic acids, whereas Arabidopsis suberin consists only of about 2% 18:2 monomers and instead contains high amounts of 18:1 monomers, of which more are ωhydroxy acids than dicarboxylic acids (Franke et al., 2005). Suberin also contains both long-chain (C16 and C18) and very-long-chain (≥C20) aliphatics, whereas cutin consists of almost exclusively C16 and C18 chain-length aliphatics. Also, suberin contains ferulate and primary fatty alcohols, which, at least in Arabidopsis, are very low in cutin. Thus, these diagnostic monomers can be used to determine whether suberin is produced in leaves after MYB53 overexpression, even though the lipid polyester monomers detected here will be of mixed cutin and suberin origin (Kosma et al., 2014). In leaves of plants overexpressing MYB53, the amounts of most chemical groupings of monomers (excluding the group of primary fatty alcohols) increased significantly, between 1.67 and 2.80 fold on the 4th day after treatment in comparison to mock (Table 3.1). In leaves, only the relative fold change of ferulate further increased to very high degree on the 7th day after treatment (2.34 fold induction at day 4 and 12.05 fold induction at day 7) and then the fold induction of ferulate decreased to 2.08 on day 10. The relative fold

inductions of C20-C24 fatty acids, dicarboxylic fatty acids and ω-hydroxy fatty acids were all maintained at steady levels over days 4, 7 and 10, with C20-C24 fatty acids and ω-hydroxy fatty acids having their maximum fold inductions at day 10 (both 3.81 fold inductions at day 10). The relative fold inductions of primary fatty alcohols did not change much along the entire time-course, and were very modestly induced (1.40 fold at day 7 being the maximum). The majority of individual monomers significantly increased starting at day 4 after *MYB53* overexpression and then remained increased through day 10. The exceptions were C18:2 dicarboxylic acid, which is a cutin diagnostic monomer, and C20:0 primary alcohol, of which neither displayed a significant increase in leaf lipid polyester over the entire time-course.

3.2 Upregulation of suberin biosynthetic genes in roots and leaves by steroidinduced overexpression of Arabidopsis *MYB53*

Since *MYB53* overexpression caused significant accumulation of suberin in both Arabidopsis roots and leaves, including all monomer types, we expected that *MYB53* overexpression caused the upregulation of all suberin biosynthetic genes. Since *MYB53* was already obviously overexpressed 16 hrs after β-estradiol treatment (Figure 3.2A and 3.2B), we therefore investigated the transcript levels of suberin biosynthetic genes at this same time point in both roots and leaves. This was done by quantitative RT-PCR (Figures

3.4 and 3.5). All suberin biosynthetic genes tested (*CYP86A1*, *CYP86B1*, *GPAT5*, *ASFT*, *FAR1*, *FAR4*, and *FAR5*) were significantly up-regulated in both roots and leaves 16 hours after adding steroid. In general, suberin biosynthetic genes were more highly induced in roots than in the leaves. *CYP86A1* (20.13 fold), *CYP86B1* (12.56 fold) and *GPAT5* (12.36 fold) were the three most up-regulated genes in roots, and the other four genes in roots were up-regulated between 1.21 and 6.69 fold. In leaves, *CYB86B1* (7.91 fold), *ASFT* (6.90 fold) and *GPAT5* (3.78 fold) were the three most up-regulated genes, and the other four genes in leaves were up-regulated between 1.18 and 1.68 fold.

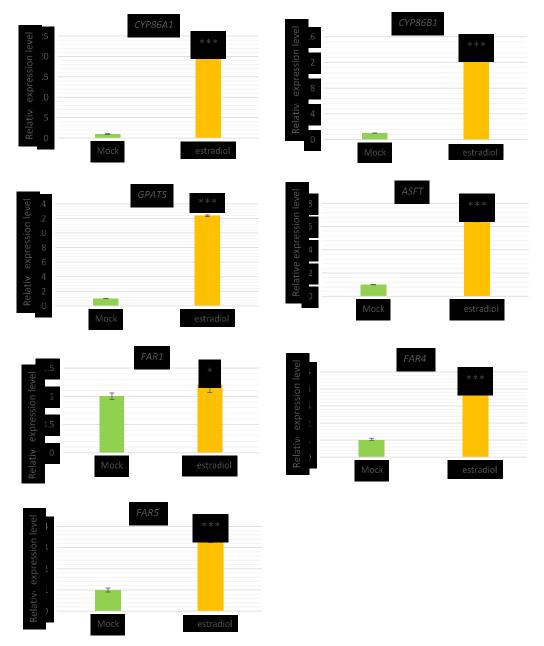


Figure 3.4. Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of suberin biosynthetic gene transcripts in roots of the MYB53 inducible overexpression line from β -estradiol treated and mock control (DMSO alone) seedlings.

The seedlings were 10-days old when treated with β -estradiol or DMSO solvent only, and then roots were harvested 16 hours later for RNA analysis. Data are presented as mean fold change values \pm SE from 3 biological replicates and 2 technical replicates of each biological replicate. Approximately the root tissue of 50 seedlings were pooled to make one biological replicate. The asterisks represent the statistical significance, compared

pair-wise between mock control and treated groups ("*" represents p<0.05, "**" represents p<0.01, "***" represents p<0.001, Student's t-test, one-tailed).

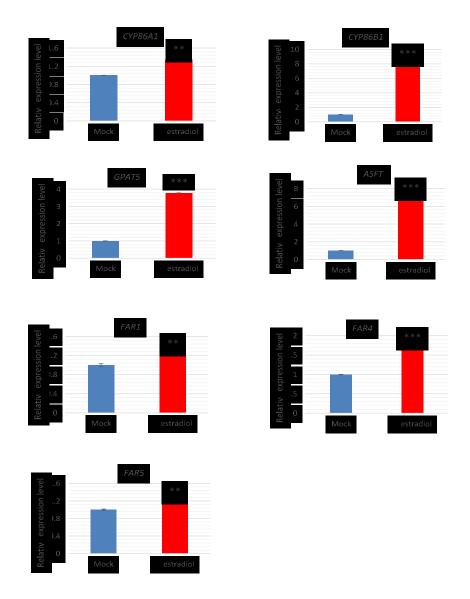


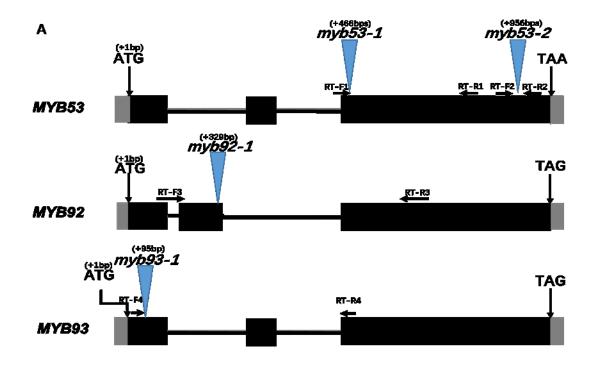
Figure 3.5. Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of suberin biosynthetic gene transcripts in leaves of the MYB53 inducible overexpression line from β -estradiol treated and mock control (DMSO alone) seedlings.

The seedlings were 10-days old when treated with β -estradiol or DMSO solvent only, and then leaves were harvested 16 hours later for RNA analysis. Data are presented as mean fold change values \pm SE from 3 biological replicates and 2 technical replicates of each biological replicate. Approximately the root tissue of 50 seedlings were pooled to make one biological replicate. The asterisks represent the statistical significance, compared pair-wise between mock control and treated groups ("*" represents p<0.05, "**" represents p<0.01, "***" represents p<0.001, Student's t-test, one-tailed).

3.3 Molecular identification of MYB53/92/93 loss-of-function single, double and triple mutant lines

Two independent myb53 T-DNA mutants, myb53-1 and myb53-2, were crossed with a set of previously characterized myb92-1, myb93-1, and myb92-1 myb93-1 mutants (Murmu et al., Rowland lab, manuscript in preparation) to create here two collections of MYB53/92/93 single, double and triple loss-of-function mutants. The T-DNA insertion in myb53-1 was at the beginning of the third exon, while the T-DNA in myb53-2 was at the end of third exon (Figure 3.6A). The T-DNA in myb92-1 was at the end of the second exon and the T-DNA in *myb93-1* was at the beginning of the first exon (Figure 3.6A). Multiple pairs of primers were designed to flank each T-DNA insertion. Two pairs of primers, F1/R1 and F2/R2, were designed to flank the T-DNA insertions of myb53-1 and myb53-2, respectively. Similarly, the primer pairs, F3/R3 and F4/R4, were designed to flank the corresponding T-DNA insertion sites of myb92-1 and myb93-1, respectively. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR using RNA isolated from roots was used to examine the abundance of MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 transcript in every single, double, and triple mutant compared with wild-type (Figure 3.6B). It was observed that MYB53 transcript was PCR amplified in myb53-2, myb53-2 myb92-1, myb53-2 myb93-1 and myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1 lines when using MYB53 primers F1 and R1, which anneal upstream of the T-DNA insertion site in myb53-2. However, when using F2 and R2, which anneal

downstream and flanking the T-DNA insertion site of *myb53-2*, there was no amplification of *MYB53* in any *myb53-1/myb53-2* single, double or triple mutants (Figure 3.6B). There was no amplification of *MYB92* or *MYB93* in *myb92-1* or *myb93-1* single, double or triple mutants, when using primers F3/R3 or F4/R4, respectively. In total, these results indicate that all *myb* mutants are likely knock-out loss-of-function lines, but partial transcripts may be produced, at least in *myb53-2*.



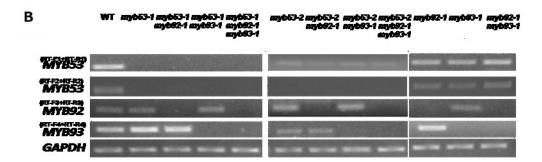


Figure 3.6. MYB53 (At5g65230), MYB92 (At5g10280), and MYB93 (At1g34670) gene structures and transcript levels in myb53/myb92/myb93 loss-of-function lines.

(A) Schematic representations of the *MYB53*, *MYB92*, and *MYB93* gene structures, including exons (black boxes), introns (black lines), and the 5'- and 3'- untranslated regions (gray boxes). The position where the T-DNA is inserted is indicated with blue triangle for each mutant allele, *myb53-1*, *myb53-2*, *myb92-1* and *myb93-1*, with the upstream T-DNA insertion site indicated in base pairs relative to the A (+1) of the start codon. The primer annealing sites used for RT-PCR are also indicated. (B) RT-PCR analysis of *MYB53*, *MYB92*, and *MYB93* transcript levels of the entire collection of *loss-of-function* single, double and triple mutants compared with wild-type using primer pairs individually spanning each T-DNA insertion site as indicated by the arrows in panel A. *GAPDH* (At1g13440) was used as the constitutive reference gene.

3.4 Decreased suberin content in MYB53/92/93 loss-of-function mutants

The root suberin content in wild-type and all mutants was determined by gas chromatography analysis of suberin monomers after depolymerization of the polymer via base-catalyzed transmethylation. The seedlings of all mutants were grown in tissue culture plates for 2 weeks of growth. Because of the technical difficulties of growing and harvesting all 11 mutants at the same time, these mutants were grown in four batches and in each batch wild-type control was also grown for comparison. The quantities of total suberin polymer and suberin monomers for each mutant were reported as the relative abundance to wild-type grown at the same time (absolute values are reported in Appendix Tables). All 11 single, double and triple mutants had significantly decreased total suberin compared with the wild-type (Figure 3.7). Compared with wild-type, myb53-1, myb53-2, myb92-1 and myb93-1 single mutants displayed decreased suberin amounts of 19-29%. Double mutants *myb53-1 myb92-1*, *myb53-1 myb93-1*, *myb53-2 myb92-1*, *myb53-2* myb93-1 and myb92-1 myb93-1 had reduced suberin amounts of 39%-57%, with myb92-1 myb93-1 being the most decreased amongst the double mutants. Compared with wildtype, the total suberin content of the two triple myb53 myb92 myb93 mutants were severely decreased, each by about 72%.

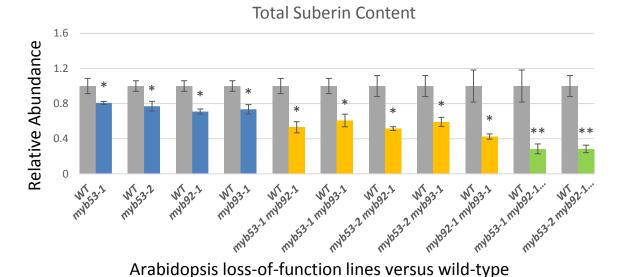


Figure 3.7. Total suberin content in roots from 2-week-old seedlings of the MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 *loss-of-function* single, double and triple mutant lines compared with the corresponding wild-type (WT).

For wild-type and each mutant, root tissue from approximately 180 seedlings was pooled to make one biological replicate and three biological replicates were made. This graph represents multiple batches of experiments completed at separate times: data shown in the graph are represented as the average values relative to respective wild-type value set at 1.0 (error bars = SE). This was because of the operational difficulties of growing, harvesting and processing seedlings of all 11 mutants and the wild-type in one batch within one day and there is variation in the absolute suberin amounts when grown on separate dates. The asterisks indicate the significant difference of each line pairwise compared with its respective wild-type control ("*" represents p<0.05, "**" represents p<0.01, LSD comparison).

Further detailed analysis of suberin composition in the mutants was also conducted. First, a direct comparison between the *myb53-1* and *myb53-2* alleles was done, specifically comparing *myb53-1* with *myb53-2*, *myb53-1* myb92-1 with *myb53-2* myb92-1, myb93-1 with myb53-2 myb93-1, and myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1 with myb53-2 myb93-1 in terms of both suberin monomer composition and the total suberin. There were no significant differences between the two *myb53* allele collections (Appendix B, Table S7). They are likely both knock-out loss-of-function alleles.

In terms of individual monomers (Table 3.3), the single mutants *myb53-1*, *myb53-2*, *myb92-1* and *myb93-1* only showed significant reductions in 3-7 suberin monomer types compared with wild-type. Only C18:1 ω-hydroxy fatty acids were significantly reduced in all four single mutants. The double mutants *myb53-1 myb92-1*, *myb53-1 myb93-1*, *myb53-2 myb92-1* and *myb53-2 myb93-1* had significant reductions in 11-17 suberin monomer types, with *myb53-1 myb92-1* and *myb53-2 myb92-1* affected in more types of monomers than *myb53-1 myb93-1* and *myb53-2 myb93-1*. The double mutant *myb92-1 myb93-1* and the triple mutants *myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1* and *myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1* had significant reductions in all suberin monomers.

Table 3. 3. Main suberin monomers in roots from 2-weeks-old seedlings of the MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 loss-of-function single, double and triple mutant lines.

For wild-type and each mutant, the root tissue from approximately 180 seedlings was pooled to make one biological replicate and three biological replicates were made. The data are expressed by mean fold change values \pm SE relative to the wild-type control grown at the same time. Suberin analyses of these 11 mutant lines were completed separately in 4 batches, each time with wild-type present for comparison. Fold change is calculated as the suberin monomer content from each mutant allele relative to the wild-type, set at 1.00, in each batch of experiments. The red-coloured data have a significant reduction compared with the respective wild-type control (p<0.05, LSD comparison).

Relative Abundance	myb53-1	myb53-2	myb92-1	myb93-1	myb53-1 myb92-1	myb53-1 myb93-1	myb53-2 myb92-1	myb53-2 myb93-1	myb92-1 myb93-1	myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1	myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters											
Ferulate	0.88 ± 0.08	0.87 ± 0.08	0.87 ± 0.07	0.81 ± 0.02	0.74 ± 0.14	0.72 ± 0.13	0.71 ± 0.17	0.65 ± 0.04	0.63 ± 0.03	0.49 ± 0.09	0.63 ± 0.05
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters											
C20:0	0.89 ± 0.06	0.80 ± 0.07	0.77 ± 0.08	0.65 ± 0.05	0.68 ± 0.16	0.78 ± 0.20	0.71 ± 0.01	0.77 ± 0.13	0.48 ± 0.03	0.31 ± 0.07	0.36 ± 0.08
C22:0	0.90 ± 0.01	0.72 ± 0.12	0.74 ± 0.02	0.81 ± 0.12	0.46 ± 0.08	0.53 ± 0.04	0.49 ± 0.06	0.53 ± 0.05	0.36 ± 0.03	0.22 ± 0.04	0.30 ± 0.03
C24:0	0.84 ± 0.03	0.84 ± 0.07	0.79 ± 0.15	0.67 ± 0.11	0.70 ± 0.15	0.80 ± 0.16	0.70 ± 0.10	0.79 ± 0.10	0.33 ± 0.03	0.25 ± 0.04	0.48 ± 0.16
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters											
C16:0	0.90 ± 0.04	0.81 ± 0.07	0.70 ± 0.07	0.71 ± 0.09	0.53 ± 0.05	0.65 ± 0.05	0.57 ± 0.03	0.64 ± 0.12	0.44 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.06	0.33 ± 0.02
C18:2	0.82 ± 0.01	0.80 ± 0.14	0.58 ± 0.05	0.77 ± 0.09	0.47 ± 0.08	0.57 ± 0.07	0.50 ± 0.03	0.53 ± 0.17	0.41 ± 0.02	0.27 ± 0.05	0.26 ± 0.10
C18:1	0.62 ± 0.03	0.74 ± 0.06	0.62 ± 0.01	0.74 ± 0.03	0.43 ± 0.03	0.49 ± 0.05	0.48 ± 0.04	0.42 ± 0.02	0.35 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.06	0.14 ± 0.01
C18:0	0.84 ± 0.07	0.75 ± 0.09	0.76 ± 0.11	0.59 ± 0.03	0.56 ± 0.08	0.69 ± 0.16	0.51 ± 0.05	0.64 ± 0.11	0.44 ± 0.04	0.27 ± 0.05	0.31 ± 0.08
C20:0	0.78 ± 0.07	0.71 ± 0.07	0.87 ± 0.14	0.48 ± 0.07	0.56 ± 0.09	0.66 ± 0.23	0.57 ± 0.07	0.66 ± 0.07	0.50 ± 0.06	0.27 ± 0.05	0.33 ± 0.08
C22:0	0.87 ± 0.09	0.80 ± 0.08	0.74 ± 0.15	0.98 ± 0.16	0.64 ± 0.06	0.76 ± 0.12	0.65 ± 0.12	0.75 ± 0.09	0.53 ± 0.05	0.35 ± 0.07	0.59 ± 0.08
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters											
C16:0	0.84 ± 0.04	0.71 ± 0.06	0.76 ± 0.05	0.70 ± 0.07	0.62 ± 0.11	0.73 ± 0.19	0.65 ± 0.03	0.72 ± 0.11	0.53 ± 0.03	0.36 ± 0.08	0.33 ± 0.08
C18:2	0.79 ± 0.02	0.69 ± 0.02	0.70 ± 0.05	0.72 ± 0.07	0.47 ± 0.08	0.58 ± 0.09	0.50 ± 0.01	0.60 ± 0.01	0.37 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.04	0.22 ± 0.04
C18:1	0.79 ± 0.03	0.71 ± 0.05	0.64 ± 0.02	0.68 ± 0.02	0.46 ± 0.02	0.50 ± 0.02	0.43 ± 0.01	0.54 ± 0.02	0.34 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.01
C18:0	0.80 ± 0.06	0.73 ± 0.08	0.79 ± 0.08	0.58 ± 0.02	0.67 ± 0.07	0.78 ± 0.25	0.66 ± 0.02	0.74 ± 0.13	0.53 ± 0.06	0.34 ± 0.08	0.34 ± 0.08
C20:0	0.92 ± 0.04	0.96 ± 0.13	0.71 ± 0.13	0.74 ± 0.13	0.72 ± 0.17	0.85 ± 0.32	0.71 ± 0.10	0.89 ± 0.13	0.40 ± 0.04	0.30 ± 0.07	0.38 ± 0.06
C22:0	0.81 ± 0.04	0.81 ± 0.07	0.85 ± 0.13	0.98 ± 0.10	0.60 ± 0.09	0.71 ± 0.17	0.58 ± 0.07	0.71 ± 0.07	0.52 ± 0.06	0.31 ± 0.06	0.40 ± 0.07
C24:0	0.73 ± 0.01	0.73 ± 0.09	0.64 ± 0.08	0.96 ± 0.11	0.44 ± 0.08	0.47 ± 0.11	0.40 ± 0.05	0.43 ± 0.03	0.37 ± 0.05	0.20 ± 0.04	0.33 ± 0.06
Primary Fatty Alcohols											
C18:0	0.98 ± 0.09	0.98 ± 0.06	0.78 ± 0.05	0.60 ± 0.06	0.71 ± 0.13	0.85 ± 0.26	0.69 ± 0.05	0.83 ± 0.12	0.71 ± 0.04	0.57 ± 0.14	0.66 ± 0.24
C20:0	0.97 ± 0.04	0.98 ± 0.16	0.76 ± 0.06	0.69 ± 0.08	0.55 ± 0.18	0.68 ± 0.07	0.53 ± 0.01	0.65 ± 0.12	0.44 ± 0.03	0.30 ± 0.06	0.35 ± 0.23
C22:0	0.98 ± 0.07	0.97 ± 0.08	0.70 ± 0.06	0.73 ± 0.09	0.37 ± 0.08	0.44 ± 0.18	0.36 ± 0.02	0.40 ± 0.03	0.35 ± 0.04	0.25 ± 0.04	0.33 ± 0.06

Additionally, we investigated the relationship between MYB53/92/93 mutants and effects on suberin composition grouped into chemical types (Table 3.4). Again, the groupings were based on chemistry / biosynthetic origin as follows: ferulate, C20-24 fatty acids, dicarboxylic fatty acids, ω-hydroxy fatty acids, and primary fatty alcohols. Generally, all chemical classes were decreased the most severely in the two triple myb53 myb92 myb93 mutants (37%-76% decreases), followed by the double mutants (26%-51% decreases), and then the single mutants (by 2%-34% decreases). The decreased levels of suberin monomer groups in myb53-1 myb92-1 and myb53-2 myb92-1 were approximately the sum of the corresponding reductions in the single mutants myb53-1 or myb53-2 and myb92-1 (Table 3.4, Figure 3.7). Also, the total suberin reduction in double mutants myb53-1 myb93-1 and myb53-2 myb93-1 was, respectively, 39% and 41%, and in the single mutants *myb53-1*, *myb53-2* and *myb93-1* was 19%, 23% and 27%, or about additive. Similarly, the reduced levels of ferulate and ω -hydroxy fatty acids were roughly the sum of the reductions in the corresponding single mutants myb53-1, myb53-2 and myb93-1. Third, the total suberin reduction in myb92-1 myb93-1 (57% decrease) was more severe than either of myb92-1 and myb93-1. Again, it is found that the decreased levels of monomers, including ferulate, dicarboxylic fatty acids, ω-hydroxy fatty acids, and primary fatty alcohols, in myb92-1 myb93-1 were about the same as adding the individual reductions observed in *myb92-1* and *myb93-1*. Finally, the total suberin in the

triple mutants myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1 and myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1 was each decreased by about 72%, which is a much greater reduction than in any single or double mutant myb53-1 (~19%) / myb53-2 (~23%) / myb92-1 (~29%) / myb93-1 (~27%) or double mutant myb53-1 myb92-1 (~47%) / myb53-2 myb92-1 (~48%) / myb53-1 myb93-1 (~39%) / myb53-2 myb93-1 (~41%) / myb92-1 myb93-1 (~57%). In particular, the reduced levels of dicarboxylic fatty acids, ω -hydroxy fatty acids in the triple mutants were approximately the reduction in any double mutant plus the third myb single mutant, or the sum of reduction in all three myb single mutants.

Table 3. 4. Specific groupings based on chemical type of main suberin monomers in roots from 2-weeks-old seedlings of the MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 loss-of-

function single, double and triple mutant lines.

For wild-type and each mutant, the root tissue from approximately 180 seedlings was pooled to make one biological replicate and three biological replicates were made. The data are expressed by mean fold change values \pm SE relative to the wild-type control grown at the same time. Suberin analyses of these 11 mutant lines were completed separately in 4 batches, each time with wild-type present for comparison. Fold change is calculated as the suberin monomer content from each mutant relative to the wild-type, set at 1.00, in each batch of experiments. The red-coloured data have a significant reduction compared with the respective wild-type control (p<0.05, LSD comparison).

Specific groupings of main suberin monomers	myb53-1	myb53-2	myb92-1	myb93-1	myb53-1 myb92-1	myb53-1 myb93-1	myb53-2 myb92-1	myb53-2 myb93-1	myb92-1 myb93-1	myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1	myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1
Ferulate	0.88 ± 0.08	0.87 ± 0.08	0.87 ± 0.07	0.81 ± 0.02	0.74 ± 0.14	0.72 ± 0.13	0.71 ± 0.17	0.65 ± 0.04	0.63 ± 0.03	0.49 ± 0.09	0.63 ± 0.05
C20-C24 Fatty Acid Methyl Esters	0.89 ± 0.02	0.75 ± 0.09	0.75 ± 0.02	0.76 ± 0.10	0.54 ± 0.10	0.61 ± 0.07	0.56 ± 0.06	0.61 ± 0.07	0.37 ± 0.03	0.24 ± 0.04	0.34 ± 0.06
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Methyl Esters	0.74 ± 0.02	0.76 ± 0.05	0.66 ± 0.04	0.72 ± 0.05	0.49 ± 0.05	0.57 ± 0.07	0.50 ± 0.04	0.56 ± 0.04	0.41 ± 0.03	0.25 ± 0.05	0.24 ± 0.03
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters	0.80 ± 0.02	0.73 ± 0.05	0.70 ± 0.03	0.75 ± 0.04	0.49 ± 0.05	0.58 ± 0.08	0.49 ± 0.02	0.58 ± 0.04	0.40 ± 0.04	0.24 ± 0.05	0.26 ± 0.03
Primary Fatty Alcohols	0.98 ± 0.06	0.98 ± 0.03	0.76 ± 0.04	0.66 ± 0.06	0.57 ± 0.13	0.68 ± 0.18	0.56 ± 0.03	0.68 ± 0.09	0.53 ± 0.04	0.40 ± 0.09	0.48 ± 0.18

3.5 Altered expression levels of suberin biosynthetic genes in MYB53/92/93 loss-offunction mutants

The transcript levels of seven suberin biosynthetic genes were then investigated in all 11 myb loss-of-function mutants in comparison to wild-type (Figure 3.8). The relative expression levels of all these suberin-related genes followed a similar pattern: (1) the *myb* loss-of-function mutants all displayed a lower expression level of target genes than the wild-type; (2) the expression levels in single, double and triple mutants were progressively decreased, with the triple mutants showing the least amount of transcript. These shared features indicate that MYB53, MYB92 and MYB93 are all required for the expression of these suberin biosynthetic genes. Additionally, among these suberin-related genes, the transcript levels of CYP86A1, CYP86B1 and GPAT5 were the most affected in the myb mutants compared with wild-type, with a fold reduction decreases of approximately 5%-70% in the single mutants, 57%-90% in the double mutants, and 85%-96% in the triple mutants. By contrast, the transcript levels of FAR1, FAR4 and FAR5 did not decrease as much in the *myb* mutants compared with the wild-type. The fold reduction decreases were 1%-57% in the single mutants, and the expression level of FAR4 in was even slightly increased by 2% myb53-2. In the double and triple mutants, the transcript levels of FAR1, FAR4, and FAR5 were reduced by 30%-77% and 63%-

83%, respectively. The expression level of *ASFT* was also reduced compared with wild-type, although not reaching a statistically significant level, although this may be due to highly variant technical repetitions.

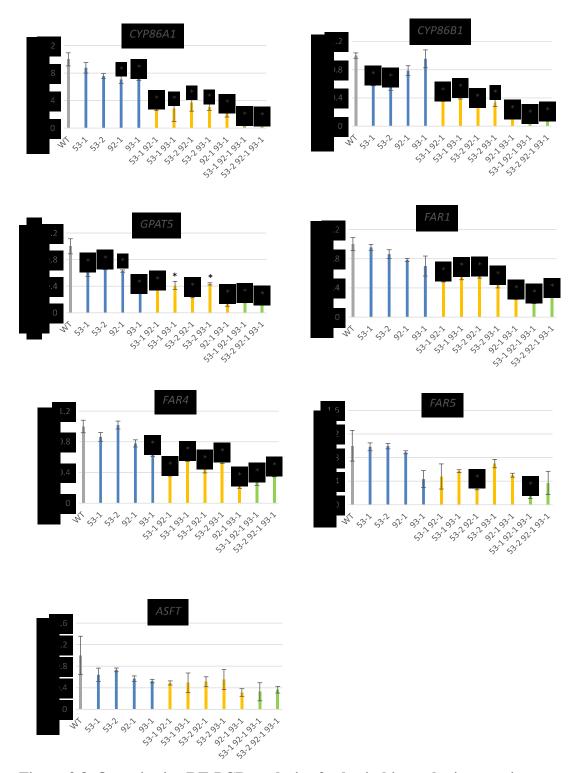


Figure 3.8. Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of suberin biosynthetic genes in roots of 2-week-old seedlings of *MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 loss-of-function* single, double and triple mutant lines compared with wild type (WT).

53-1, 53-2, 92-1, 93-1, 53-1 92-1, 53-2 92-1, 53-1 93-1, 53-2 93-1, 92-1 93-1, 53-1 92-1

93-1 and 53-2 92-1 93-1 represents mutants myb53-1, myb53-2, myb92-1, myb93-1, respectively. Data is presented as mean fold change values \pm SE from 3 biological replicates and 2 technical replicates of each bio-repetition. An "*" indicates significant reduction in the relative expression level of a gene in a mutant compared with wild-type (P<0.05, LSD comparison).

Chapter 4: Discussion

4.1 MYB53 positively regulates suberin biosynthesis in Arabidopsis

Transient overexpression of *MYB53* using the steroid inducible

TRANSPLANTA Arabidopsis line increased the amount of suberin in both roots and leaves within 4 days of steroid application, while loss of *MYB53* gene activity decreased the amount of root suberin in two independent *myb53 loss-of-function* mutant lines. This means that *MYB53* is positively regulating suberin biosynthesis. Additionally, the *MYB53* mutants in combination with *MYB92* and/or *MYB93* mutants resulted in further reductions of suberin. Among them, the triple *myb53 myb92 myb93 loss-of-function* mutants were most affected, featured with approximately a 72% decrease of suberin in comparison to wild-type. This is the largest reduction of root suberin reported to date in mutants of Arabidopsis (Vishwanath *et al.*, 2015).

and decreases of all suberin monomers in young roots of Arabidopsis. Meanwhile, *MYB53* overexpression also led to ectopic accumulation of all suberin-type monomers in leaves, such that the leaves contained both cutin and suberin lipid-polyesters. These findings, along with the previously reported study showing that Arabidopsis *MYB41* overexpression caused all suberin-like monomers to accumulate in leaves (Kosma *et al.*, 2014), are different from a previous study where co-expression of suberin biosynthetic

genes, GPAT5 and CYP86A1, resulted in ectopic deposition of just a few suberin monomer types, such as C20-C22 ω -hydroxy fatty acids and α , ω -dicarboxylic acids (Li et al., 2007). Also, the single overexpression of CYP86A1 caused no chemical change in leaf polyester, and the single overexpression of GPAT5 only caused ectopic accumulation of very-long-chain fatty acid-containing monoacylglycerols in leaf cuticle waxes (Li et al., 2007). In our study, the conclusion that MYB53 regulates the complete suberin polymer was further supported by our observation that MYB53 activates transcription of a suite of genes required to synthesize and assemble suberin monomer precursors. Although we have not tested the transcript levels of every suberin-associated gene known to date, such as the genes coding ABC transporters (ABCG2, ABCG6 and ABCG20), or predicted genes encoding cell wall-associated polyester synthases, the fact that total suberin polymer was significantly altered by changes in MYB53 gene activity indicates that MYB53 functions as a master regulator of suberin that switches on all downstream suberin-related genes.

Several other MYB transcription factors have been found to positively regulate suberin biosynthetic genes in Arabidopsis, however these control suberin formation in various other tissues either during normal developmental stages or in response to stresses. Arabidopsis *MYB41* is expressed in the endodermis of young roots, but only under stress conditions involving ABA and high salts (Kosma *et al.*, 2014). Whether there is a

mechanistic connection between MYB41 and MYB53 under these conditions is currently unknown (e.g. MYB41 may upregulate MYB53 to turn on downstream suberin genes). In Arabidopsis seed coat, the loss of MYB9 and MYB107 gene activities are positively correlated with decreased transcript levels of all tested suberin biosynthetic genes in seeds, with corresponding alterations in seed coat suberin involving all major components (Lashbrooke et al., 2016; Gou et al., 2017). A result of this is increased seed coat permeability. The effects of MYB9 and MYB107 loss-of-function mutations were restricted to seeds and no alteration in root suberin were observed. Therefore, there appears to be different MYBs controlling suberin production in the various tissues or conditions where suberin is deposited. AtMYB107 was further found to directly target suberin-related genes in seed coats of Arabidopsis by binding to their promoters (Gou et al., 2017), but it remains to be tested whether MYB53 directly or indirectly regulates suberin biosynthetic genes in Arabidopsis roots (see Future Directions in Chapter 5).

In our study, only the suberin polymer was analyzed in *MYB53* overexpression and loss-of-function lines, while characterization of soluble lipids, in particular suberin-associated waxes, were not investigated here. Suberin-associated waxes were found to be increased in leaves when *AtMYB41* was stably overexpressed (Kosma *et al.*, 2014), and it will be important to investigate if these compounds are also altered when MYB53 gene activity is altered (Chapter 5).

4.2 MYB53 can regulate suberin deposition in multiple tissue types, but its regulatory control normally occurs in root endodermis

The total amount of suberin accumulated to much higher levels in roots than in leaves after *MYB53* overexpression. It is also known that *MYB53* is normally only expressed in root endodermis using *MYB53 promoter:: GUS* lines (unpublished data, Rowland lab). Thus, it seems that compared with leaves, roots are more responsive to *MYB53* overexpression and/or intrinsically more capable of accumulating suberin. It is currently unclear whether this difference is due to the very high amounts of suberin being deposited in the walls of root endodermis only, which normally makes suberin, or if additional layers of cells are being suberized in roots than that of leaves (Chapter 5).

Suberin and cutin are both cell wall-associated lipid-based polymers that have similar chemical components, but it seems that there is no overlap in the factors regulating these two polymers. In our experiment, suberin-type monomers, but not cutin-type monomers, were increased in leaves after *MYB53* overexpression, indicating that *MYB53* is specifically involved in the suberin biosynthetic pathway. Meanwhile, some transcription factors regulate cutin biosynthesis but not suberin biosynthesis. For example, Arabidopsis *WIN1/SHN1* encodes an AP2/ERF (APETALA 2/ethylene responsive factor)-type transcription factor that positively regulates cutin and associated

wax biosynthesis but not suberin accumulation (Broun *et al.*, 2004; Aharoni *et al.*, 2004; Kannangara *et al.*, 2007). *At*WIN1/SHN1 was shown to directly bind the promoter of the *LONG-CHAIN ACYL-CoA SYNTHETASE2* (*LACS2*) gene involved in cutin biosynthesis (Kannangara *et al.*, 2007).

We conducted a time course over 10 days to analyze suberin formation after inducing MYB53 overexpression using the TRANSPLANTA steroid inducible system. It has been shown that the overexpression of target genes is not maintained in such a system due to the instability of β -estradiol (Zuo *et al.*, 2000). This instability likely results in loss of MYB53 overexpression over time, and then less suberin induction as the roots and leaves develop from 4 to 10 days. In roots, the fold inductions of most suberin monomers (except for primary fatty alcohols) were maximized on day 4 after applying steroid. However, in leaves, the fold inductions of most suberin monomers were maximized on day 10. The reason for this timing difference may be that β-estradiol was firstly absorbed by roots and then subsequently transported to leaves, meaning a delayed effect on leaves. Nonetheless, most suberin monomers (except for 20:0 primary fatty alcohol) were increased by the 4th day after steroid application in both organs, but this could have occurred a day or two earlier than four days as analysis was not done on those earlier days. Also, accumulation of unpolymerized monomers likely preceded polymer formation, and only the polymer was measured here. The exact sequence of suberin

polymerization is still an open question, but a very detailed time course between zero and four days after steroid application may give insight into the order of monomer accumulation and assembly into oligomers and the suberin polymer.

In Arabidopsis, overexpression of MYB41 in transgenic Arabidopsis plants using the constitutive 35S promoter leads to ectopic suberin deposition in leaves, but surprisingly there was no increase in root suberin (Kosma et al., 2014). According to Kosma et al. (2014), two reasons that could account for the lack of root suberin alteration in 35S:MYB41 transgenic lines were: (1) suberin deposition in roots is already at a maximal level because suberin is mainly synthesized in roots, while leaves are different, as they are starting from almost no suberin; (2) the 35S promoter shows varying activities in different cell types, and for instance the 35S promoter has low activity in seed coats (Young et al., 2008). The 35S promoter may also not be highly active in root endodermis, which could account for the lack of suberin induction in 35S:MYB41 lines. In our study, suberin was significantly increased by MYB53 overexpression in both roots and leaves. Therefore, the first possibility where suberin levels are already maxed out in roots is not correct, at least not in young roots. Also, it has been shown that suberin can be produced in root cortex under certain stresses (Barberon et al., 2016). The 35S promoter is active in root cortex and therefore the second explanation of why overexpressing AtMYB41 yields no root suberin increases is also likely not correct. An alternative reason is that

AtMYB53 and AtMYB41 regulate suberin deposition by different molecular mechanisms, such as AtMYB53 and AtMYB41 using different co-regulators and/or intermediary regulators for elevating suberin production, which vary between tissues, or that different post-translational modifications (PTMs) act on the two MYBs and these PTMs may also vary between leaves and roots.

4.3 MYB53, MYB92 and MYB93 have partially overlapping roles in regulating root endodermal suberin biosynthesis

In the *MYB53/92/93 loss-of-function* lines, suberin is reduced by about 39%-49% in *myb* double mutants compared with wild-type, which is roughly additive reduction levels of the corresponding *myb* single mutants (each single mutant had root suberin reduced by 19%-29%). Similarly, compared with wild-type, suberin reduction was about 72% in the *myb* triple mutants, which is roughly the total of the reductions in the three single *myb53*, *myb92* and *myb93* mutants. Therefore, *MYB53*, *MYB92* and *MYB93* have overlapping regulatory functions in root endodermis to govern suberin biosynthesis. This also means that a large proportion of suberin in young roots (2-week-old) of Arabidopsis is dependent on the combined regulatory functions of *MYB53*, *MYB92* and *MYB93*, at least under normal developmental conditions (non-stress conditions). Meanwhile, *MYB53*, *MYB92* and *MYB93* may all play other roles in addition

to regulating root suberin, and indeed it has been shown that *myb93* loss-of-function mutants have more lateral roots than wild-type (Gibbs *et al.*, 2014). It is possible that suberin deposition and lateral root formation are linked, or it is possible that these MYBs have many functions and may even have very fundamental roles in regulating root cell differentiation, which may then influence multiple aspects of root development, including suberin deposition or lateral root formation. However, it has not been confirmed if these three MYB genes are completely redundant in their functions. It has been reported that the expression patterns are slightly different among the three MYBs. *MYB53* and *MYB92* are expressed in many plant organs and are especially enriched in roots, whereas *MYB93* is seemingly only expressed in roots (Gibbs *et al.*, 2014). This implies that MYB93 is restricted to regulatory roles related to roots, while MYB53 and MYB92 may have additional unknown functions.

Even in our triple myb *loss-of-function* mutants, approximately 30% of suberin remains. This indicates that other transcription factors also participate in suberin biosynthesis in young Arabidopsis roots during normal development. Thus, it will be important to investigate the potential roles of other MYB transcription factor members, especially those that are in neighbouring phylogenetic clades. These MYB transcription factors, or even other types of transcription factors, may also contribute to suberin production in young root endodermis under non-stress conditions.

4.4 Implications of MYB-regulated suberin biosynthesis for other plant species

It has been reported that apple MYB93 (MdMYB93), which is a close homolog of Arabidopsis MYB53, MYB92, and MYB93, and a suite of suberin biosynthetic genes are all expressed higher in fruit skins of russeted (suberized) apple varieties compared with fruit skins of waxy (non-suberized) apple varieties (Legay et al., 2015). In a follow up study, it was found that suberin and precursor soluble suberin monomers, along with a collection of predicted suberin biosynthetic genes, are upregulated by transient overexpression of MdMYB93 in leaves of Nicotiana benthamiana (Legay et al., 2016). This supports a role for MYB53/MYB92/MYB93-like genes in regulating suberin biosynthesis across diverse plant taxa. Additionally, according to a broad comparison study of suberin deposition in Arabidopsis seeds, several organs of tomato (Solanum lycopersicum) including suberized fruit skins, russeted apple (Malus x domestica) fruit surfaces, grapevine (Vitis vinifera), potato (Solanum tuberosum), and roots of rice (Oryza sativarice) under waterlogging conditions (Lashbrooke et al., 2016), homologs of Arabidopsis MYB9 and MYB107 were co-expressed with suberin biosynthetic genes in all these plant species. MYB9 and MYB107 are in a neighbouring phylogenetic clade of MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 when all Arabidopsis MYB protein sequences are compared (Dubos et al., 2010). Therefore, it is possible that these many highly related MYBs

generally regulate suberin biosynthesis in all plants, with individual MYBs having tissuespecific or environmental-specific roles as discussed above.

Since suberin is a hydrophobic barrier that helps plants to withstand stressful environmental conditions such as drought, salt stress, heavy metals or low oxygen, the identification of master regulators of suberin biosynthesis, such as *AtMYB53*, is an important step forward as it provides a means for generating plants with altered cell wall barrier properties (e.g. via altered *MYB53* gene activity). This may provide a novel strategy to generate crops with enhanced stress resistances.

Chapter 5: Future directions and concluding remarks

5.1 Future directions

In this study, I have developed a complete collection of Arabidopsis *MYB53/92/93* single, double and triple *loss-of-function* mutants and developed an Arabidopsis steroid inducible *MYB53* overexpression line. Here, I used these lines to provide evidence that these MYB transcription factors are involved in regulating suberin deposition in an overlapping fashion. In the future, this important collection of plant lines can be used to further understand how suberin production is regulated in roots and the importance of suberin in root physiological functioning. The key outstanding questions to address using these plant tools are:

- (1) In Arabidopsis roots, does *MYB53* overexpression cause an increase in suberin deposition specifically in endodermis, where suberin is normally deposited, or also in other root tissues, such as cortex? Also, what leaf tissues are suberized when *MYB53* is overexpressed?
- (2) What are the molecular mechanisms by which MYB53/MYB92/MYB93 control suberin deposition? Do they directly or indirectly regulate the expression of suberin biosynthetic genes?
- (3) Do these MYB transcription factors function as part of a transcription factor complex and what are their interacting partners?

(4) What are the effects on plant physiology in the *myb53/myb92/myb93* single, double and triple mutants? Are they compromised in water and nutrient relations? Are they more or less susceptible to abiotic and biotic stresses?
I expand upon these four future directions below.

It is known that suberin is variously deposited in a tissue-specific manner during normal development, for example specifically in the exodermis and endodermis of young roots (Schreiber et al., 1999; Pollard et al., 2008; Schreiber, 2010; Nawrath et al., 2013). Under stressful conditions, such as wounding or high salt, suberin production can be induced, including in tissues that are not normally suberized (Vishwanath et al., 2015). For example, treatment of young roots with high NaCl or the stress hormone ABA causes suberin deposition and GPAT5 expression to expand into the root cortex (Barberon et al., 2016). In our biochemical experiments, suberin was greatly induced in both roots and leaves by overexpression of AtMYB53. In roots, we currently do not know whether the extra suberin from MYB53 overexpression is due to more suberin in root endodermis specifically, or from suberin being deposited in additional tissues layers (i.e. the cortex), or both. Also, in leaves, we currently do not know if all cells are producing suberin upon MYB53 overexpression or only in certain leaf cell types. Microscopic analysis using transmission electron microscopy to examine cell walls for suberin lamallae or using the suberin-specific fluorescent stain fluorol yellow followed by confocal imaging should be

done to identify the tissues that have become suberized upon MYB53 overexpression.

Although AtMYB53/92/93 are involved in regulating suberin biosynthesis according to our results, it is unknown whether these MYB transcription factors are directly or indirectly controlling the transcription of downstream suberin-related genes (CYP86A1, CYP86B1, GPAT5, etc). That is, we do not know if AtMYB53/92/93 bind to the promoters of these suberin biosynthetic genes or if they bind to the promotors of genes encoding other transcription factors, which in turn regulate the suberin biosynthetic genes. Arabidopsis MYB107 was recently found to directly target suberin-related genes in seed coats (Gou et al., 2017). AtMYB107 is in a closely related subclade to AtMYB53/92/93 when viewed in a phylogenetic tree of all Arabidopsis MYB transcription factors (Dubos et al., 2010). Thus, it is important to determine the direct target genes of AtMYB53/92/93. This can be achieved on a multi-gene or even genomelevel scale using Chromatin ImmunoPrecipitation (ChIP)-qPCR or ChIP-seq. respectively. For this, the coding sequence of an epitope tag is fused with the open reading frame of AtMYB53, MYB92, or MYB93 and then put under the control of the 35S promoter or native promoter followed by introduction into wild-type Arabidopsis thaliana using Agrobacterium-mediated transformation. Transformed plants are harvested and chromatin chemically cross-linked to fix the protein (MYB transcription factors)-DNA complexes. The extracted chromatin (with proteins cross-linked) is

sonicated to small fragments and then immunoprecipitated with an antibody that binds specifically to the epitope tag to bring down MYB53/92/93-DNA complexes. Later these immune complexes of antibody-MYB-tag bound chromatin are purified and then the eluted chromatin is treated to reversed protein-DNA cross-linking. The eluted pieces of chromatin DNA are further purified to remove remained proteins to obtain the direct target fragments of the MYB transcription factors. These specific DNA fragments can be quantified by qPCR or by next generation sequencing (Kim et al., 2013; Fornalé et al., 2010). It should be noted that R2R3 MYBs preferentially bind to specific AC-rich sequences (ACC(T/A)ACC or ACCCGCC) (Chezem and Clay, 2016). These results were obtained mainly by *in vitro* promoter binding studies, such as electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA) and / or systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment (SELEX) (Grotewold et al., 1994; Zhao et al., 2007; Fornalé et al., 2010). Some of these AC-rich target sequences have been confirmed to be true *in vivo* targets using ChIP (Fornalé et al., 2010). Inspection of the promoters of Arabidopsis suberin biosynthetic genes reveals AC-rich sequence motifs and the ChIP experiments could target these motifs to test if they are indeed *cis*-regulatory elements that are bound by AtMYB53, MYB92, or MYB93.

It is known that MYB proteins interact with other proteins, such as bHLH and WD40 factors, to form functional transcriptional protein complexes (Ramsay, *et al.*,

2005; Feller *et al.*, 2011). It has already been reported that AtMYB53/92/93 share a conserved amino acid sequence C-terminal of the R2R3 MYB DNA-binding domain that is not found in any other Arabidopsis MYB proteins (Stracke *et al.*, 2001; Dubos *et al.*, 2010; Gibbs *et al.*, 2014). This consensus amino acid motif is necessary for MYB93 to interact with ARABIDILLO, which is a positive regulator of lateral root initiation (Gibbs *et al.*, 2014). According to yeast-two-hybrid results, AtMYB53/92/93 all interacted with the ARABIDILLO ARMADILLO (ARM) domain, which is hypothesized to mediate protein-protein interactions. It is likely that AtMYB53/92/93 additionally interacts with other co-factors in the context of regulated suberin biosynthesis. Additional research could be further conducted about the protein-protein interactions involving AtMYB53/92/93 by using yeast-two-hybrid screening or co-immunoprecipitation coupled with mass spectrometry.

Finally, the whole collection of *myb53/92/93* single, double and triple *loss-of-function* mutants also can be used to conduct a series of phenotypic experiments to further determine the protective functions of suberin in plant physiology. These mutants could be tested for altered stress resistance against extreme environmental conditions such as drought or extreme heat, and soil with high salt or toxic metals. Altered resistance/susceptibility to root pathogens could also be examined in these mutants compared to wild-type.

5.2 Concluding remarks

In conclusion, the findings from our study indicate that *AtMYB53/92/93* have overlapping functions in positively regulating suberin biosynthesis in roots during normal development. Therefore, these transcription factors can be used to coordinately upregulate suberin biosynthetic genes and to manipulate the deposition of suberin in Arabidopsis.

Suberin serves as a hydrophobic barrier for plant protection by controlling water, gas and solute movement, as well as restricting pathogen attack. There is much evidence indicating that suberized tissues help plants to withstand unfavorable environmental conditions such as drought, chill, salt stress, heavy metals, and anoxia (Lulai and Corsini, 1998; Enstone *et al.*, 2003; Franke and Schreiber 2007; Schreiber 2010). A better understanding of the molecular mechanisms governing the regulated deposition of suberin may be used to develop stress tolerant crops. In addition, suberin consists of oxygenated fatty acids and these components can be used in a wide range of industrial products including resins, coatings, dyes, nylons, plastics, soaps, inks and biofuel (Li and Beisson, 2009). It is thus promising that suberin-enriched plants can be developed to produce high value bio-lipids with low environmental costs.

References

- Abe, H., Urao, T., Ito, T., Seki, M., Shinozaki, K., & Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, K. (2003). Arabidopsis AtMYC2 (bHLH) and AtMYB2 (MYB) function as transcriptional activators in abscisic acid signaling. The Plant Cell, 15(1), 63-78.
- Agrawal, V. P., & Kolattukudy, P. (1978). Purification and characterization of a wound-induced ω-hydroxyfatty acid: NADP oxidoreductase from potato tuber disks (*Solanum tuberosum* L.). Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics, 191(2), 452-465.
- Aharoni, A., Dixit, S., Jetter, R., Thoenes, E., van Arkel, G., & Pereira, A. (2004). The SHINE clade of AP2 domain transcription factors activates wax biosynthesis, alters cuticle properties, and confers drought tolerance when overexpressed in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell, 16(9), 2463-2480.
- Alassimone, J., Naseer, S., & Geldner, N. (2010). A developmental framework for endodermal differentiation and polarity. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA, 107(11), 5214-5219.
- Almeida, T., Menéndez, E., Capote, T., Ribeiro, T., Santos, C., & Gonçalves, S. (2013). Molecular characterization of *Quercus suber* MYB1, a transcription factor upregulated in cork tissues. Journal of Plant Physiology, 170(2), 172-178.
- Andersen, T. G., Barberon, M., & Geldner, N. (2015). Suberization—the second life of an endodermal cell. Current Opinion in Plant Biology, 28, 9-15.
- Barberon, M., & Geldner, N. (2014). Radial transport of nutrients: the plant root as a polarized epithelium. Plant Physiology, 166(2), 528-537.
- Barberon, M., Vermeer, J. E. M., De Bellis, D., Wang, P., Naseer, S., Andersen, T. G., . . . Salt, D. E. (2016). Adaptation of root function by nutrient-induced plasticity of endodermal differentiation. Cell, 164(3), 447-459.
- Barrowclough, D. E., Peterson, C. A., & Steudle, E. (2000). Radial hydraulic conductivity along developing onion roots. Journal of Experimental Botany, 51(344), 547-557.
- Beisson, F., Li-Beisson, Y., & Pollard, M. (2012). Solving the puzzles of cutin and suberin polymer biosynthesis. Current Opinion in Plant Biology, 15(3), 329-337.
- Beisson, F., Li, Y., Bonaventure, G., Pollard, M., & Ohlrogge, J. B. (2007). The acyltransferase GPAT5 is required for the synthesis of suberin in seed coat and root of Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell, 19(1), 351-368.
- Benfey, P. N., Ren, L., & Chua, N.-H. (1990). Tissue-specific expression from CaMV 35S enhancer subdomains in early stages of plant development. The EMBO Journal, 9(6), 1677.
- Bernards, M. A. (2002). Demystifying suberin. Canadian Journal of Botany, 80(3), 227-240.

- Broun, P., Poindexter, P., Osborne, E., Jiang, C.-Z., & Riechmann, J. L. (2004). WIN1, a transcriptional activator of epidermal wax accumulation in Arabidopsis. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA, 101(13), 4706-4711.
- Chezem, W. R., & Clay, N. K. (2016). Regulation of plant secondary metabolism and associated specialized cell development by MYBs and bHLHs. Phytochemistry, 131, 26-43.
- Choi, H., Jin, J. Y., Choi, S., Hwang, J. U., Kim, Y. Y., Suh, M. C., & Lee, Y. (2011). An ABCG/WBC type ABC transporter is essential for transport of sporopollenin precursors for exine formation in developing pollen. The Plant Journal, 65(2), 181-193.
- Clarkson, D., Robards, A., Stephens, J., & Stark, M. (1987). Suberin lamellae in the hypodermis of maize (Zea mays) roots; development and factors affecting the permeability of hypodermal layers. Plant, Cell & Environment, 10(1), 83-93.
- Coego, A., Brizuela, E., Castillejo, P., Ruíz, S., Koncz, C., Del Pozo, J. C., . . . León, J. (2014). The TRANSPLANTA collection of Arabidopsis lines: a resource for functional analysis of transcription factors based on their conditional overexpression. The Plant Journal, 77(6), 944-953.
- Compagnon, V., Diehl, P., Benveniste, I., Meyer, D., Schaller, H., Schreiber, L., . . . Pinot, F. (2009). CYP86B1 is required for very long chain ω-hydroxyacid and α, ω-dicarboxylic acid synthesis in root and seed suberin polyester. Plant Physiology, 150(4), 1831-1843.
- Czechowski, T., Stitt, M., Altmann, T., Udvardi, M. K., & Scheible, W.-R. (2005). Genome-wide identification and testing of superior reference genes for transcript normalization in Arabidopsis. Plant Physiology, 139(1), 5-17.
- Delude, C., Fouillen, L., Bhar, P., Cardinal, M.-J., Pascal, S., Santos, P., . . . Domergue, F. (2016). Primary fatty alcohols are major components of suberized root tissues of Arabidopsis in the form of alkyl hydroxycinnamates. Plant Physiology, 171(3), 1934-1950.
- Denekamp, M., & Smeekens, S. C. (2003). Integration of wounding and osmotic stress signals determines the expression of the AtMYB102 transcription factor gene. Plant Physiology, 132(3), 1415-1423.
- Dini, P. W., & Lipsick, J. S. (1993). Oncogenic truncation of the first repeat of c-Myb decreases DNA binding in vitro and in vivo. Molecular and Cellular Biology, 13(12), 7334-7348.
- Doblas, V. G., Geldner, N., & Barberon, M. (2017). The endodermis, a tightly controlled barrier for nutrients. Current Opinion in Plant Biology, 39, 136.
- Domergue, F., Vishwanath, S. J., Joubès, J., Ono, J., Lee, J. A., Bourdon, M., . . . Lessire, R. (2010). Three Arabidopsis fatty acyl-coenzyme A reductases, FAR1, FAR4, and FAR5, generate primary fatty alcohols associated with suberin deposition.

- Plant Physiology, 153(4), 1539-1554.
- Du, H., Yang, S.-S., Liang, Z., Feng, B.-R., Liu, L., Huang, Y.-B., & Tang, Y.-X. (2012). Genome-wide analysis of the MYB transcription factor superfamily in soybean. BMC Plant Biology, 12(1), 106.
- Dubos, C., Stracke, R., Grotewold, E., Weisshaar, B., Martin, C., & Lepiniec, L. (2010).MYB transcription factors in Arabidopsis. Trends in Plant Science, 15(10), 573-581.
- Enstone, D., & Peterson, C. (1998). Effects of exposure to humid air on epidermal viability and suberin deposition in maize (*Zea mays* L.) roots. Plant, Cell & Environment, 21(8), 837-844.
- Enstone, D. E., Peterson, C. A., & Ma, F. (2002). Root endodermis and exodermis: structure, function, and responses to the environment. Journal of Plant Growth Regulation, 21(4), 335-351.
- Espelie, K. E., Davis, R. W., & Kolattukudy, P. (1980). Composition, ultrastructure and function of the cutin-and suberin-containing layers in the leaf, fruit peel, juice-sac and inner seed coat of grapefruit (*Citrus paradisi* Macfed.). Planta, 149(5), 498-511.
- Espelie, K. E., Sadek, N. Z., & Kolattukudy, P. (1980). Composition of suberinassociated waxes from the subterranean storage organs of seven plants. Planta, 148(5), 468-476.
- Feller, A., Machemer, K., Braun, E. L., & Grotewold, E. (2011). Evolutionary and comparative analysis of MYB and bHLH plant transcription factors. The Plant Journal, 66(1), 94-116.
- Fornalé, S., Shi, X., Chai, C., Encina, A., Irar, S., Capellades, M., . . . Puigdomenech, P. (2010). ZmMYB31 directly represses maize lignin genes and redirects the phenylpropanoid metabolic flux. The Plant Journal, 64(4), 633-644.
- Franke, R., Briesen, I., Wojciechowski, T., Faust, A., Yephremov, A., Nawrath, C., & Schreiber, L. (2005). Apoplastic polyesters in Arabidopsis surface tissues—a typical suberin and a particular cutin. Phytochemistry, 66(22), 2643-2658.
- Franke, R., Dombrink, I., & Schreiber, L. (2011). Suberin goes genomics: use of a short living plant to investigate a long lasting polymer. Frontiers in Plant Science, 3, 4-4.
- Franke, R., Höfer, R., Briesen, I., Emsermann, M., Efremova, N., Yephremov, A., & Schreiber, L. (2009). The DAISY gene from Arabidopsis encodes a fatty acid elongase condensing enzyme involved in the biosynthesis of aliphatic suberin in roots and the chalaza micropyle region of seeds. The Plant Journal, 57(1), 80-95.
- Franke, R., & Schreiber, L. (2007). Suberin—a biopolyester forming apoplastic plant interfaces. Current Opinion in Plant Biology, 10(3), 252-259.

- Geldner, N. (2013). The endodermis. Annual Review of Plant Biology, 64, 531-558.
- Gibbs, D. J., Voß, U., Harding, S. A., Fannon, J., Moody, L. A., Yamada, E., . . . Choudhary, A. (2014). AtMYB93 is a novel negative regulator of lateral root development in Arabidopsis. New Phytologist, 203(4), 1194-1207.
- Girard, A.-L., Mounet, F., Lemaire-Chamley, M., Gaillard, C., Elmorjani, K., Vivancos, J., . . . Germain, V. (2012). Tomato GDSL1 is required for cutin deposition in the fruit cuticle. The Plant Cell, 24(7), 3119-3134.
- Gou, J.-Y., Yu, X.-H., & Liu, C.-J. (2009). A hydroxycinnamoyltransferase responsible for synthesizing suberin aromatics in Arabidopsis. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA, 106(44), 18855-18860.
- Gou, M., Hou, G., Yang, H., Zhang, X., Cai, Y., Kai, G., & Liu, C.-J. (2017). The MYB107 transcription factor positively regulates suberin biosynthesis. Plant Physiology, 173(2), 1045-1058.
- Graça, J. (2015). Suberin: the biopolyester at the frontier of plants. Frontiers in Chemistry, 3.
- Graça, J., & Pereira, H. (1998). Feruloyl esters of ω-hydroxyacids in cork suberin. Journal of Wood Chemistry and Technology, 18(2), 207-217.
- Graça, J., & Pereira, H. (1999). Glyceryl-acyl and aryl-acyl dimers in Pseudotsuga menziesii bark suberin. Holzforschung, 53(4), 397-402.
- Graça, J., & Pereira, H. (2000a). Methanolysis of bark suberins: analysis of glycerol and acid monomers. Phytochemical Analysis, 11(1), 45-51.
- Graça, J., & Pereira, H. (2000b). Suberin structure in potato periderm: glycerol, long-chain monomers, and glyceryl and feruloyl dimers. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 48(11), 5476-5483.
- Graça, J., & Santos, S. (2007). Suberin: a biopolyester of plants' skin. Macromolecular Bioscience, 7(2), 128-135.
- Grotewold, E., Drummond, B. J., Bowen, B., & Peterson, T. (1994). The mybhomologous P gene controls phlobaphene pigmentation in maize floral organs by directly activating a flavonoid biosynthetic gene subset. Cell, 76(3), 543-553.
- Höfer, R., Briesen, I., Beck, M., Pinot, F., Schreiber, L., & Franke, R. (2008). The Arabidopsis cytochrome P450 CYP86A1 encodes a fatty acid ω-hydroxylase involved in suberin monomer biosynthesis. Journal of Experimental Botany, 59(9), 2347-2360.
- Haga, N., Kato, K., Murase, M., Araki, S., Kubo, M., Demura, T., . . . Jürgens, G. (2007). R1R2R3-Myb proteins positively regulate cytokinesis through activation of KNOLLE transcription in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Development, 134(6), 1101-1110.
- Hoffmann-Benning, S., & Kende, H. (1994). Cuticle biosynthesis in rapidly growing internodes of deepwater rice. Plant Physiology, 104(2), 719-723.

- Hwang, M. G., Chung, I. K., Kang, B. G., & Cho, M. H. (2001). Sequence specific binding property of *Arabidopsis thaliana* telomeric DNA binding protein 1 (AtTBP1). FEBS Letters, 503(1), 35-40.
- Ishige, F., Takaichi, M., Foster, R., Chua, N. H., & Oeda, K. (1999). AG box motif (GCCACGTGCC) tetramer confers high level constitutive expression in dicot and monocot plants. The Plant Journal, 18(4), 443-448.
- Ito, M. (2005). Conservation and diversification of three-repeat Myb transcription factors in plants. Journal of Plant Research, 118(1), 61-69.
- Ito, M., Iwase, M., Kodama, H., Lavisse, P., Komamine, A., Nishihama, R., . . . Watanabe, A. (1998). A novel cis-acting element in promoters of plant B-type cyclin genes activates M phase–specific transcription. The Plant Cell, 10(3), 331-341.
- Kannangara, R., Branigan, C., Liu, Y., Penfield, T., Rao, V., Mouille, G., . . . Broun, P. (2007). The transcription factor WIN1/SHN1 regulates cutin biosynthesis in Arabidopsis thaliana. The Plant Cell, 19(4), 1278-1294.
- Kim, W. C., Ko, J. H., Kim, J. Y., Kim, J., Bae, H. J., & Han, K. H. (2013). MYB46 directly regulates the gene expression of secondary wall associated cellulose synthases in Arabidopsis. The Plant Journal, 73(1), 26-36.
- Kirik, V., Simon, M., Huelskamp, M., & Schiefelbein, J. (2004). The ENHANCER OF TRY AND CPC1 gene acts redundantly with TRIPTYCHON and CAPRICE in trichome and root hair cell patterning in Arabidopsis. Developmental Biology, 268(2), 506-513.
- Kolattukudy, P. (1984). Biochemistry and function of cutin and suberin. Canadian Journal of Botany, 62(12), 2918-2933.
- Kolattukudy, P. E. (2001). Polyesters in higher plants. Biopolyesters (pp. 1-49): Springer.
- Kolattukudy, P. t. (1981). Structure, biosynthesis, and biodegradation of cutin and suberin. Annual Review of Plant Physiology, 32(1), 539-567.
- Koshino-Kimura, Y., Wada, T., Tachibana, T., Tsugeki, R., Ishiguro, S., & Okada, K. (2005). Regulation of CAPRICE transcription by MYB proteins for root epidermis differentiation in Arabidopsis. Plant and Cell Physiology, 46(6), 817-826.
- Kosma, D. K., Molina, I., Ohlrogge, J. B., & Pollard, M. (2012). Identification of an Arabidopsis fatty alcohol: caffeoyl-coenzyme A acyltransferase required for the synthesis of alkyl hydroxycinnamates in root waxes. Plant Physiology, 160(1), 237-248.
- Kosma, D. K., Murmu, J., Razeq, F. M., Santos, P., Bourgault, R., Molina, I., & Rowland, O. (2014). AtMYB41 activates ectopic suberin synthesis and assembly in multiple plant species and cell types. The Plant Journal, 80(2), 216-229.
- Kosma, D. K., Rice, A., & Pollard, M. (2015). Analysis of aliphatic waxes associated

- with root periderm or exodermis from eleven plant species. Phytochemistry, 117, 351-362.
- Kotula, L., Ranathunge, K., Schreiber, L., & Steudle, E. (2009). Functional and chemical comparison of apoplastic barriers to radial oxygen loss in roots of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) grown in aerated or deoxygenated solution. Journal of Experimental Botany, 60(7), 2155-2167.
- Krishnamurthy, P., Ranathunge, K., Nayak, S., Schreiber, L., & Mathew, M. (2011). Root apoplastic barriers block Na+ transport to shoots in rice (Oryza sativa L.). Journal of Experimental Botany, 62(12), 4215-4228.
- Kurdyukov, S., Faust, A., Nawrath, C., Bär, S., Voisin, D., Efremova, N., . . . Métraux, J.-P. (2006). The epidermis-specific extracellular BODYGUARD controls cuticle development and morphogenesis in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell, 18(2), 321-339.
- Landgraf, R., Smolka, U., Altmann, S., Eschen-Lippold, L., Senning, M., Sonnewald, S., . . . Hause, G. (2014). The ABC transporter ABCG1 is required for suberin formation in potato tuber periderm. The Plant Cell, 26(8), 3403-3415.
- Lashbrooke, J., Cohen, H., Levy-Samocha, D., Tzfadia, O., Panizel, I., Zeisler, V., . . . Schreiber, L. (2016). MYB107 and MYB9 homologs regulate suberin deposition in angiosperms. The Plant Cell, 28(9), 2097-2116.
- Lasserre, E., Jobet, E., Llauro, C., & Delseny, M. (2008). AtERF38 (At2g35700), an AP2/ERF family transcription factor gene from Arabidopsis thaliana, is expressed in specific cell types of roots, stems and seeds that undergo suberization. Plant Physiology and Biochemistry, 46(12), 1051-1061.
- Lee, S. B., Jung, S. J., Go, Y. S., Kim, H. U., Kim, J. K., Cho, H. J., . . . Suh, M. C. (2009). Two Arabidopsis 3 ketoacyl CoA synthase genes, KCS20 and KCS2/DAISY, are functionally redundant in cuticular wax and root suberin biosynthesis, but differentially controlled by osmotic stress. The Plant Journal, 60(3), 462-475.
- Legay, S., Guerriero, G., André, C., Guignard, C., Cocco, E., Charton, S., . . . Hausman, J. F. (2016). MdMyb93 is a regulator of suberin deposition in russeted apple fruit skins. New Phytologist, 212(4), 977-991.
- Legay, S., Guerriero, G., Deleruelle, A., Lateur, M., Evers, D., André, C. M., & Hausman, J.-F. (2015). Apple russeting as seen through the RNA-seq lens: strong alterations in the exocarp cell wall. Plant Molecular Biology, 88(1-2), 21-40.
- Li-Beisson, Y., Shorrosh, B., Beisson, F., Andersson, M. X., Arondel, V., Bates, P. D., . . . Durrett, T. P. (2013). Acyl-lipid metabolism. The Arabidopsis Book, 11, e0161.
- Li, S. F., & Parish, R. W. (1995). Isolation of two novel myb like genes from Arabidopsis and studies on the DNA binding properties of their products. The Plant Journal, 8(6), 963-972.

- Li, Y., & Beisson, F. (2009). The biosynthesis of cutin and suberin as an alternative source of enzymes for the production of bio-based chemicals and materials. Biochimie, 91(6), 685-691.
- Li, Y., Beisson, F., Ohlrogge, J., & Pollard, M. (2007). Monoacylglycerols are components of root waxes and can be produced in the aerial cuticle by ectopic expression of a suberin-associated acyltransferase. Plant Physiology, 144(3), 1267-1277.
- Liu, J., Osbourn, A., & Ma, P. (2015). MYB transcription factors as regulators of phenylpropanoid metabolism in plants. Molecular Plant, 8(5), 689-708.
- Lu, C.-A., Ho, T.-h. D., Ho, S.-L., & Yu, S.-M. (2002). Three novel MYB proteins with one DNA binding repeat mediate sugar and hormone regulation of α-amylase gene expression. The Plant Cell, 14(8), 1963-1980.
- Lu, S. X., Knowles, S. M., Andronis, C., Ong, M. S., & Tobin, E. M. (2009). CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED1 and LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL function synergistically in the circadian clock of Arabidopsis. Plant Physiology, 150(2), 834-843.
- Lulai, E., & Corsini, D. (1998). Differential deposition of suberin phenolic and aliphatic domains and their roles in resistance to infection during potato tuber (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) wound-healing. Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology, 53(4), 209-222.
- Martin, C., & Paz-Ares, J. (1997). MYB transcription factors in plants. Trends in Genetics, 13(2), 67-73.
- Matus, J. T., Aquea, F., & Arce-Johnson, P. (2008). Analysis of the grape MYB R2R3 subfamily reveals expanded wine quality-related clades and conserved gene structure organization across Vitis and Arabidopsis genomes. BMC Plant Biology, 8(1), 83.
- McFarlane, H. E., Watanabe, Y., Yang, W., Huang, Y., Ohlrogge, J., & Samuels, A. L. (2014). Golgi-and trans-Golgi network-mediated vesicle trafficking is required for wax secretion from epidermal cells. Plant Physiology, 164(3), 1250-1260.
- Millar, A. A., & Kunst, L. (1997). Very long chain fatty acid biosynthesis is controlled through the expression and specificity of the condensing enzyme. The Plant Journal, 12(1), 121-131.
- Molina, I., Bonaventure, G., Ohlrogge, J., & Pollard, M. (2006). The lipid polyester composition of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Brassica napus* seeds. Phytochemistry, 67(23), 2597-2610.
- Molina, I., Li-Beisson, Y., Beisson, F., Ohlrogge, J. B., & Pollard, M. (2009). Identification of an Arabidopsis feruloyl-coenzyme A transferase required for suberin synthesis. Plant Physiology, 151(3), 1317-1328.
- Morohashi, K., & Grotewold, E. (2009). A systems approach reveals regulatory circuitry

- for Arabidopsis trichome initiation by the GL3 and GL1 selectors. PLoS Genetics, 5(2), e1000396.
- Mossoba, M. M., Tyburczy, C., Delmonte, P., Fardin-Kia, A. R., Rader, J. I., Azizian, H., & Kramer, J. K. (2014). Application of Gas Chromatography and Infrared Spectroscopy for the Determination of the Total Trans Fatty Acid, Saturated Fatty Acid, Monounsaturated Fatty Acid, and Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid Contents in Edible Fats and Oils *Trans Fats Replacement Solutions* (pp. 89-121): Elsevier.
- Nawrath, C., Schreiber, L., Franke, R. B., Geldner, N., Reina-Pinto, J. J., & Kunst, L. (2013). Apoplastic diffusion barriers in Arabidopsis. The Arabidopsis Book, 11, e0167.
- Ogata, K., Kanei-Ishii, C., Sasaki, M., Hatanaka, H., Nagadoi, A., Enari, M., . . . Sarai, A. (1996). The cavity in the hydrophobic core of Myb DNA-binding domain is reserved for DNA recognition and trans-activation. Nature Structural & Molecular Biology, 3(2), 178-187.
- Ogata, K., Morikawa, S., Nakamura, H., Sekikawa, A., Inoue, T., Kanai, H., . . . Nishimura, Y. (1994). Solution structure of a specific DNA complex of the Myb DNA-binding domain with cooperative recognition helices. Cell, 79(4), 639-648.
- Oshima, Y., Shikata, M., Koyama, T., Ohtsubo, N., Mitsuda, N., & Ohme-Takagi, M. (2013). MIXTA-like transcription factors and WAX INDUCER1/SHINE1 coordinately regulate cuticle development in Arabidopsis and *Torenia fournieri*. The Plant Cell, 25(5), 1609-1624.
- Palaniswamy, S. K., James, S., Sun, H., Lamb, R. S., Davuluri, R. V., & Grotewold, E. (2006). AGRIS and AtRegNet. a platform to link cis-regulatory elements and transcription factors into regulatory networks. Plant Physiology, 140(3), 818-829.
- Pereira, H. (1988). Chemical composition and variability of cork from *Quercus suber* L. Wood Science and Technology, 22(3), 211-218.
- Pighin, J. A., Zheng, H., Balakshin, L. J., Goodman, I. P., Western, T. L., Jetter, R., . . . Samuels, A. L. (2004). Plant cuticular lipid export requires an ABC transporter. Science, 306(5696), 702-704.
- Pollard, M., Beisson, F., Li, Y., & Ohlrogge, J. B. (2008). Building lipid barriers: biosynthesis of cutin and suberin. Trends in Plant Science, 13(5), 236-246.
- Prouse, M. B., & Campbell, M. M. (2012). The interaction between MYB proteins and their target DNA binding sites. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Gene Regulatory Mechanisms, 1819(1), 67-77.
- Ramsay, N. A., & Glover, B. J. (2005). MYB-bHLH-WD40 protein complex and the evolution of cellular diversity. Trends in plant science, 10(2), 63-70.
- Ranathunge, K., Schreiber, L., & Franke, R. (2011). Suberin research in the genomics era—new interest for an old polymer. Plant Science, 180(3), 399-413.
- Ranathunge, K., Thomas, R. H., Fang, X., Peterson, C. A., Gijzen, M., & Bernards, M. A.

- (2008). Soybean root suberin and partial resistance to root rot caused by *Phytophthora sojae*. Phytopathology, 98(11), 1179-1189.
- Romero, I., Fuertes, A., Benito, M., Malpica, J., Leyva, A., & Paz-Ares, J. (1998). More than 80R2R3-MYB regulatory genes in the genome of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. The Plant Journal, 14(3), 273-284.
- Rowland, O., & Domergue, F. (2012). Plant fatty acyl reductases: enzymes generating fatty alcohols for protective layers with potential for industrial applications. Plant Science, 193, 28-38.
- Schraut, D., Heilmeier, H., & Hartung, W. (2005). Radial transport of water and abscisic acid (ABA) in roots of *Zea mays* under conditions of nutrient deficiency. Journal of Experimental Botany, 56(413), 879-886.
- Schreiber, L. (2010). Transport barriers made of cutin, suberin and associated waxes. Trends in Plant Science, 15(10), 546-553.
- Schreiber, L., Franke, R., Hartmann, K.-D., Ranathunge, K., & Steudle, E. (2005). The chemical composition of suberin in apoplastic barriers affects radial hydraulic conductivity differently in the roots of rice (*Oryza sativa* L. cv. IR64) and corn (*Zea mays* L. cv. Helix). Journal of Experimental Botany, 56(415), 1427-1436.
- Schreiber, L., Franke, R., & Hartmann, K. (2005). Wax and suberin development of native and wound periderm of potato (Solanum tuberosum L.) and its relation to peridermal transpiration. Planta, 220(4), 520-530.
- Serra, O., Hohn, C., Franke, R., Prat, S., Molinas, M., & Figueras, M. (2010). A feruloyl transferase involved in the biosynthesis of suberin and suberin associated wax is required for maturation and sealing properties of potato periderm. The Plant Journal, 62(2), 277-290.
- Shiono, K., Ando, M., Nishiuchi, S., Takahashi, H., Watanabe, K., Nakamura, M., . . . Fujimoto, M. (2014). RCN1/OsABCG5, an ATP binding cassette (ABC) transporter, is required for hypodermal suberization of roots in rice (*Oryza sativa*). The Plant Journal, 80(1), 40-51.
- Shiono, K., Yamauchi, T., Yamazaki, S., Mohanty, B., Malik, A. I., Nagamura, Y., . . . Nakazono, M. (2014). Microarray analysis of laser-microdissected tissues indicates the biosynthesis of suberin in the outer part of roots during formation of a barrier to radial oxygen loss in rice (Oryza sativa). Journal of Experimental Botany, 65(17), 4795-4806.
- Shockey, J. M., & Fulda, M. S. (2002). Arabidopsis contains nine long-chain acylcoenzyme a synthetase genes that participate in fatty acid and glycerolipid metabolism. Plant Physiology, 129(4), 1710-1722.
- Sitte, P. (1962). Zum feinbau der suberinschichten im flaschenkork. Protoplasma, 54(4), 555-559.
- Soler, M., Serra, O., Molinas, M., Huguet, G., Fluch, S., & Figueras, M. (2007). A

- genomic approach to suberin biosynthesis and cork differentiation. Plant Physiology, 144(1), 419-431.
- Soliday, C., Kolattukudy, P., & Davis, R. (1979). Chemical and ultrastructural evidence that waxes associated with the suberin polymer constitute the major diffusion barrier to water vapor in potato tuber (*Solanum tuberosum* L.). Planta, 146(5), 607-614.
- Song, S., Qi, T., Huang, H., Ren, Q., Wu, D., Chang, C., . . . Xie, D. (2011). The jasmonate-ZIM domain proteins interact with the R2R3-MYB transcription factors MYB21 and MYB24 to affect jasmonate-regulated stamen development in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell, 23(3), 1000-1013.
- Soukup, A., Armstrong, W., Schreiber, L., Franke, R., & Votrubová, O. (2007). Apoplastic barriers to radial oxygen loss and solute penetration: a chemical and functional comparison of the exodermis of two wetland species, Phragmites australis and Glyceria maxima. New Phytologist, 173(2), 264-278.
- Steudle, E., & Peterson, C. A. (1998). How does water get through roots? Journal of Experimental Botany, 49(322), 775-788.
- Stracke, R., Werber, M., & Weisshaar, B. (2001). The R2R3-MYB gene family in Arabidopsis thaliana. Current Opinion in Plant Biology, 4(5), 447-456.
- Tahirov, T. H., Sasaki, M., Inoue-Bungo, T., Fujikawa, A., Sato, K., Kumasaka, T., . . . Ogata, K. (2001). Crystals of ternary protein–DNA complexes composed of DNA-binding domains of c-Myb or v-Myb, C/EBPα or C/EBPβ and tom-1A promoter fragment. Acta Crystallographica Section D: Biological Crystallography, 57(11), 1655-1658.
- Tahirov, T. H., Sato, K., Ichikawa-Iwata, E., Sasaki, M., Inoue-Bungo, T., Shiina, M., . . . Morii, H. (2002). Mechanism of c-Myb–C/EBPβ cooperation from separated sites on a promoter. Cell, 108(1), 57-70.
- Thomas, R., Fang, X., Ranathunge, K., Anderson, T. R., Peterson, C. A., & Bernards, M. A. (2007). Soybean root suberin: anatomical distribution, chemical composition, and relationship to partial resistance to Phytophthora sojae. Plant Physiology, 144(1), 299-311.
- To, A., Joubès, J., Barthole, G., Lécureuil, A., Scagnelli, A., Jasinski, S., . . . Baud, S. (2012). WRINKLED transcription factors orchestrate tissue-specific regulation of fatty acid biosynthesis in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell, 24(12), 5007-5023.
- van Doorn, W. G., & Stead, A. D. (1997). Abscission of flowers and floral parts. Journal of Experimental Botany, 48(4), 821-837.
- Vishwanath, S. J., Delude, C., Domergue, F., & Rowland, O. (2015). Suberin: biosynthesis, regulation, and polymer assembly of a protective extracellular barrier. Plant Cell Reports, 34(4), 573-586.
- Vishwanath, S. J., Kosma, D. K., Pulsifer, I. P., Scandola, S., Pascal, S., Joubès, J., . . .

- Domergue, F. (2013). Suberin-associated fatty alcohols in Arabidopsis: distributions in roots and contributions to seed coat barrier properties. Plant Physiology, 163(3), 1118-1132.
- Waduwara, C. I., Walcott, S. E., & Peterson, C. A. (2008). Suberin lamellae of the onion root endodermis: their pattern of development and continuity. Botany, 86(6), 623-632.
- Wang, Z.-Y., Kenigsbuch, D., Sun, L., Harel, E., Ong, M. S., & Tobin, E. M. (1997). A Myb-related transcription factor is involved in the phytochrome regulation of an Arabidopsis Lhcb gene. The Plant Cell, 9(4), 491-507.
- Wester, K., Digiuni, S., Geier, F., Timmer, J., Fleck, C., & Hülskamp, M. (2009). Functional diversity of R3 single-repeat genes in trichome development. Development, 136(9), 1487-1496.
- White, P. J. (2001). The pathways of calcium movement to the xylem. Journal of Experimental Botany, 52(358), 891-899.
- Wilkins, O., Nahal, H., Foong, J., Provart, N. J., & Campbell, M. M. (2009). Expansion and diversification of the Populus R2R3-MYB family of transcription factors. Plant Physiology, 149(2), 981-993.
- Xu, R., Wang, Y., Zheng, H., Lu, W., Wu, C., Huang, J., . . . Zheng, C. (2015). Salt-induced transcription factor MYB74 is regulated by the RNA-directed DNA methylation pathway in Arabidopsis. Journal of Experimental Botany, 66(19), 5997-6008.
- Xu, W., Dubos, C., & Lepiniec, L. (2015). Transcriptional control of flavonoid biosynthesis by MYB-bHLH-WDR complexes. Trends in Plant Science, 20(3), 176-185.
- Yadav, V., Molina, I., Ranathunge, K., Castillo, I. Q., Rothstein, S. J., & Reed, J. W. (2014). ABCG transporters are required for suberin and pollen wall extracellular barriers in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell, 26(9), 3569-3588.
- Yang, W., Simpson, J. P., Li-Beisson, Y., Beisson, F., Pollard, M., & Ohlrogge, J. B. (2012). A land-plant-specific glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase family in Arabidopsis: substrate specificity, sn-2 preference, and evolution. Plant Physiology, 160(2), 638-652.
- Yanhui, C., Xiaoyuan, Y., Kun, H., Meihua, L., Jigang, L., Zhaofeng, G., . . . Xiaoming, Q. (2006). The MYB transcription factor superfamily of Arabidopsis: expression analysis and phylogenetic comparison with the rice MYB family. Plant Molecular Biology, 60(1), 107-124.
- Yeats, T. H., Huang, W., Chatterjee, S., Viart, H. M. F., Clausen, M. H., Stark, R. E., & Rose, J. K. (2014). Tomato Cutin Deficient 1 (CD1) and putative orthologs comprise an ancient family of cutin synthase like (CUS) proteins that are conserved among land plants. The Plant Journal, 77(5), 667-675.

- Yeats, T. H., Martin, L. B., Viart, H. M., Isaacson, T., He, Y., Zhao, L., . . . Clausen, M. H. (2012). The identification of cutin synthase: formation of the plant polyester cutin. Nature Chemical Biology, 8(7), 609-611.
- Yeats, T. H., & Rose, J. K. (2013). The formation and function of plant cuticles. Plant Physiology, 163(1), 5-20.
- Young, R. E., McFarlane, H. E., Hahn, M. G., Western, T. L., Haughn, G. W., & Samuels, A. L. (2008). Analysis of the Golgi apparatus in Arabidopsis seed coat cells during polarized secretion of pectin-rich mucilage. The Plant Cell, 20(6), 1623-1638.
- Zeier, J., & Schreiber, L. (1998). Comparative investigation of primary and tertiary endodermal cell walls isolated from the roots of five monocotyledoneous species: chemical composition in relation to fine structure. Planta, 206(3), 349-361.
- Zhao, J., Zhang, W., Zhao, Y., Gong, X., Guo, L., Zhu, G., . . . Guo, Y. (2007). SAD2, an importin β-like protein, is required for UV-B response in Arabidopsis by mediating MYB4 nuclear trafficking. The Plant Cell, 19(11), 3805-3818.
- Zuo, J., Niu, Q. W., & Chua, N. H. (2000). An estrogen receptor based transactivator XVE mediates highly inducible gene expression in transgenic plants. The Plant Journal, 24(2), 265-273.

Appendix A.

Lipid polyester (suberin/cutin) monomer composition (absolute values) of MYB53 inducible overexpression line treated with β -estradiol or DMSO only (mock control) seedlings over a timecourse. Data are represented as average value \pm SE (μ g monomer per mg of delipidated dry residue) in roots (Table S1) or leaves (Table S2), n=3 replicates.

Table S1. Suberin monomer composition in roots of β -estradiol treated seedlings relative to the corresponding mock control seedlings (DMSO only).

The red-coloured data represent statistical significance compared pair-wise between mock control and treated groups (P<0.05, LSD comparison).

								
	Average Value of Suberin Components and Total Suberin in Roots Tissue (Dry Weight μg/mg)					101		
Suberin Components	Mock	1 day treatment	Mock	4 days treatment	Mock	7 days treatment	Mock	10 days treatment
	(11 day	s growth)	(14 days	growth)	(17 day	ys growth)	(20 days	growth)
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters								
Ferulate	0.28 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.01	0.31 ± 0.02	1.77 ± 0.06	0.15 ± 0.01	0.65 ± 0.02	0.19 ± 0.01	0.73 ± 0.07
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters								
C20:0	0.45 ± 0.03	0.50 ± 0.04	0.55 ± 0.00	2.65 ± 0.02	0.57 ± 0.04	2.26 ± 0.03	0.40 ± 0.00	1.25 ± 0.05
C22:0	1.87 ± 0.10	2.17 ± 0.17	2.35 ± 0.01	9.58 ± 0.09	2.26 ± 0.15	8.55 ± 0.25	1.75 ± 0.02	5.02 ± 0.16
C24:0	0.63 ± 0.03	0.79 ± 0.06	0.76 ± 0.01	4.22 ± 0.06	0.70 ± 0.05	4.18 ± 0.12	0.57 ± 0.01	2.55 ± 0.14
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters								
C16:0	1.27 ± 0.07	1.42 ± 0.10	1.49 ± 0.02	6.63 ± 0.03	1.38 ± 0.10	5.28 ± 0.13	1.06 ± 0.00	3.07 ± 0.12
C18:2	0.58 ± 0.03	0.69 ± 0.07	0.68 ± 0.00	2.43 ± 0.17	0.49 ± 0.06	1.68 ± 0.11	0.44 ± 0.01	1.17 ± 0.03
C18:1	3.91 ± 0.25	4.52 ± 0.33	4.58 ± 0.07	21.07 ± 0.09	4.28 ± 0.32	18.79 ± 0.53	3.41 ± 0.04	10.40 ± 0.37
C18:0	0.63 ± 0.04	0.68 ± 0.06	0.68 ± 0.01	3.01 ± 0.04	0.78 ± 0.06	2.92 ± 0.05	0.44 ± 0.00	1.45 ± 0.06
C20:0	0.15 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.00	0.71 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.02	0.68 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.00	0.33 ± 0.03
C22:0	0.21 ± 0.01	0.33 ± 0.02	0.24 ± 0.00	1.86 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.02	1.89 ± 0.07	0.18 ± 0.00	1.16 ± 0.21
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters								
C16:0	0.53 ± 0.03	0.65 ± 0.05	0.64 ± 0.01	3.63 ± 0.04	0.51 ± 0.03	2.58 ± 0.04	0.46 ± 0.00	1.75 ± 0.07
C18:2	0.31 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.03	0.41 ± 0.01	1.81 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.02	1.11 ± 0.03	0.27 ± 0.01	0.77 ± 0.03
C18:1	4.01 ± 0.26	4.77 ± 0.35	4.83 ± 0.15	24.15 ± 0.44	4.25 ± 0.30	19.62 ± 0.31	3.54 ± 0.06	11.88 ± 0.52
C18:0	0.19 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.02	0.20 ± 0.00	0.84 ± 0.03	0.30 ± 0.02	0.82 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.00	0.43 ± 0.03
C20:0	0.29 ± 0.02	0.33 ± 0.03	0.31 ± 0.00	1.34 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.03	1.27 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.00	0.77 ± 0.07
C22:0	1.01 ± 0.05	1.41 ± 0.11	1.21 ± 0.03	6.14 ± 0.02	1.03 ± 0.07	4.98 ± 0.12	0.93 ± 0.02	3.32 ± 0.15
C24:0	0.27 ± 0.01	0.26 ± 0.13	0.33 ± 0.01	1.73 ± 0.02	0.25 ± 0.02	1.39 ± 0.03	0.24 ± 0.01	1.07 ± 0.04
Primary Fatty Alcohols								
C18:0	0.30 ± 0.02	0.31 ± 0.03	0.22 ± 0.00	0.83 ± 0.01	0.20 ± 0.02	0.82 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.00	0.68 ± 0.02
C20:0	0.14 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.03	0.15 ± 0.00	0.26 ± 0.09	0.13 ± 0.00	0.42 ± 0.05	0.12 ± 0.00	0.37 ± 0.01
C22:0	0.12 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.00	0.33 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.00	0.31 ± 0.02
Total	17.73 ± 1.02	20.73 ± 1.39	20.57 ± 0.37	95.36 ± 0.64	18.68 ± 1.32	80.44 ± 1.73	15.09 ± 0.23	48.83 ± 2.17

Table S2. Lipid polyester (cutin + suberin) monomer composition in leaves of β -estradiol treated seedlings relative to the corresponding mock control seedlings (DMSO only).

The red-coloured data represent statistical significance compared pair-wise between mock control and treated groups (P<0.05, LSD comparison).

	Average Value of Polyester components and Total Polyester in Leaves Tissue (Dry Weight μg/mg)							
Lipid Polyester Components (Suberin/Cutin)	Mock	1 day treatment	Mock	4 days treatment	Mock	7 days treatment	Mock	10 days treatment
	(11 days	growth)	(14 days	growth)	(17 day	s growth)	(20 day	growth)
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters								
Ferulate	0.07 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.00	0.08 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.03	0.01 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.01
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters								
C20:0	0.04 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.00	0.19 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.01
C22:0	0.10 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.01	0.40 ± 0.06	0.16 ± 0.01	0.62 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.00	0.39 ± 0.02
C24:0	0.05 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.00	0.22 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.01
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters								
C16:0	0.22 ± 0.03	0.22 ± 0.02	0.24 ± 0.02	0.47 ± 0.06	0.34 ± 0.01	0.57 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.01	0.42 ± 0.04
C18:2	1.53 ± 0.25	1.48 ± 0.10	1.32 ± 0.21	1.66 ± 0.13	1.72 ± 0.11	1.71 ± 0.06	0.84 ± 0.10	0.95 ± 0.09
C18:1	0.35 ± 0.05	0.37 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.04	0.99 ± 0.15	0.53 ± 0.02	1.40 ± 0.04	0.25 ± 0.01	0.92 ± 0.11
C18:0	0.10 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.01	0.27 ± 0.00	0.09 ± 0.02	0.19 ± 0.02
C20:0	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.00	0.08 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00
C22:0	0.04 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.02	0.04 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters								
C16:0	0.05 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.00	0.06 ± 0.00	0.18 ± 0.03	0.08 ± 0.00	0.21 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.01
C18:2	0.11 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.02	0.19 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.01	0.18 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.01
C18:1	0.23 ± 0.04	0.26 ± 0.03	0.31 ± 0.02	0.99 ± 0.16	0.45 ± 0.02	1.42 ± 0.05	0.22 ± 0.00	0.94 ± 0.08
C18:0	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00
C20:0	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.08 ± 0.01
C22:0	0.08 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.01	0.33 ± 0.05	0.11 ± 0.01	0.48 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.00	0.29 ± 0.02
C24:0	0.05 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.06 ± 0.00
Primary Fatty Alcohols								
C18:0	0.05 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.06 ± 0.00
C20:0	0.23 ± 0.01	0.29 ± 0.02	0.21 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.01	0.31 ± 0.02	0.29 ± 0.01
C22:0	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.00
Total	3.85 ± 0.54	3.87 ± 0.14	4.02 ± 0.46	7.16 ± 0.81	5.00 ± 0.25	9.04 ± 0.15	3.33 ± 0.19	6.30 ± 0.47

Appendix B.

Suberin monomer composition (absolute values) of wild-type and *MYB53/MYB92/MYB93* single, double and triple mutant lines grown in 4 batches (Tables S3-S6). Data are represented as average value ± SE in roots, n=3 replicates.

Table S3. Suberin monomer composition in wild-type, *myb53-1*, *myb53-1* myb92-1 and *myb53-1* myb93-1.

Suberin Components	Average Value	Average Value of Suberin Components and Total Suberin (µg/mg Dry Weight)					
Suberiii Components	Wild Type	myb53-1	myb53-1 myb92-1	myb53-1 myb93-1			
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters							
Ferulate	0.20 ± 0.02	0.17 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.03	0.14 ± 0.03			
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters							
C16:0	0.31 ± 0.05	0.22 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.02	0.37 ± 0.07			
C18:0	0.02 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.01			
C20:0	0.27 ± 0.03	0.24 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.04	0.21 ± 0.05			
C22:0	1.03 ± 0.07	0.93 ± 0.01	0.48 ± 0.08	0.55 ± 0.04			
C24:0	0.22 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.01	0.15 ± 0.03	0.17 ± 0.04			
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters							
C16:0	0.83 ± 0.07	0.75 ± 0.03	0.46 ± 0.04	0.53 ± 0.04			
C18:2	0.29 ± 0.08	0.24 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.02	0.17 ± 0.02			
C18:1	1.81 ± 0.12	1.12 ± 0.06	0.78 ± 0.06	0.89 ± 0.09			
C18:0	0.40 ± 0.04	0.34 ± 0.03	0.23 ± 0.03	0.26 ± 0.07			
C20:0	0.11 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.02			
C22:0	0.13 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.02			
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters							
C16:0	0.44 ± 0.05	0.37 ± 0.02	0.27 ± 0.05	0.32 ± 0.08			
C18:2	0.25 ± 0.03	0.20 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.02			
C18:1	2.48 ± 0.25	1.95 ± 0.06	1.06 ± 0.04	1.25 ± 0.04			
C18:0	0.13 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.03			
C20:0	0.03 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.01			
C22:0	0.79 ± 0.07	0.64 ± 0.03	0.47 ± 0.07	0.56 ± 0.13			
C24:0	0.16 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.00	0.06 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.02			
Primary Fatty Alcohols							
C18:0	0.25 ± 0.03	0.25 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.03	0.21 ± 0.07			
C20:0	0.17 ± 0.04	0.16 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.03	0.11 ± 0.01			
C22:0	0.15 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.03			
Total Suberin Content	10.44 ± 0.91	8.43 ± 0.18	5.53 ± 0.66	6.34 ± 0.75			

Table S4. Suberin monomer composition in wild-type, *myb53-2 myb92-1*, *myb53-2 myb93-1* and *myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1*.

Subaria Commenceta	Average Value of Suberin Components and Total Suberin (µg/mg Dry Weight)						
Suberin Components	Wild Type	myb53-2 myb92-1	myb53-2 myb93-1	myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1			
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters							
Ferulate	0.19 ± 0.04	0.14 ± 0.03	0.12 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.01			
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters							
C16:0	0.30 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.04	0.26 ± 0.05	0.11 ± 0.02			
C18:0	0.02 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00			
C20:0	0.28 ± 0.06	0.20 ± 0.00	0.21 ± 0.04	0.10 ± 0.02			
C22:0	1.06 ± 0.20	0.52 ± 0.07	0.56 ± 0.06	0.32 ± 0.04			
C24:0	0.22 ± 0.04	0.16 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.03			
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters							
C16:0	0.85 ± 0.17	0.48 ± 0.02	0.54 ± 0.02	0.28 ± 0.02			
C18:2	0.30 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.05	0.08 ± 0.03			
C18:1	1.85 ± 0.36	0.81 ± 0.07	0.90 ± 0.03	0.26 ± 0.03			
C18:0	0.41 ± 0.08	0.24 ± 0.02	0.26 ± 0.05	0.13 ± 0.03			
C20:0	0.11 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.01			
C22:0	0.13 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01			
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters							
C16:0	0.45 ± 0.11	0.28 ± 0.01	0.33 ± 0.05	0.15 ± 0.04			
C18:2	0.26 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.00	0.15 ± 0.00	0.06 ± 0.01			
C18:1	2.54 ± 0.15	1.10 ± 0.03	1.27 ± 0.05	0.49 ± 0.03			
C18:0	0.13 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.01			
C20:0	0.03 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00			
C22:0	0.81 ± 0.02	0.47 ± 0.06	0.58 ± 0.06	0.32 ± 0.06			
C24:0	0.16 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01			
Primary Fatty Alcohols							
C18:0	0.26 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.01	0.22 ± 0.03	0.17 ± 0.06			
C20:0	0.17 ± 0.03	0.09 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.04			
C22:0	0.16 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01			
Total Suberin Content	10.70 ± 1.27	5.52 ± 0.23	6.33 ± 0.55	3.04 ± 0.45			

Table S5. Suberin monomer composition in wild-type, *myb53-2*, *myb92-1* and *myb93-1*.

Suberin Components	Average Value	Average Value of Suberin Components and Total Suberin (µg/mg Dry Weight)					
Suberin Components	Wild Type	myb53-2	myb92-1	myb93-1			
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters							
Ferulate	0.18 ± 0.02	0.16 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.01	0.15 ± 0.00			
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters							
C16:0	0.20 ± 0.05	0.25 ± 0.10	0.22 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.03			
C18:0	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00			
C20:0	0.29 ± 0.04	0.23 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.02	0.19 ± 0.02			
C22:0	1.15 ± 0.04	0.82 ± 0.13	0.85 ± 0.02	0.92 ± 0.14			
C24:0	0.23 ± 0.03	0.19 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.03	0.15 ± 0.02			
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters							
C16:0	0.87 ± 0.11	0.71 ± 0.06	0.61 ± 0.06	0.62 ± 0.08			
C18:2	0.31 ± 0.02	0.25 ± 0.04	0.18 ± 0.01	0.24 ± 0.03			
C18:1	1.93 ± 0.10	1.43 ± 0.11	1.20 ± 0.01	1.43 ± 0.07			
C18:0	0.44 ± 0.06	0.33 ± 0.04	0.33 ± 0.05	0.26 ± 0.01			
C20:0	0.12 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.01			
C22:0	0.15 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.02			
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters							
C16:0	0.50 ± 0.05	0.36 ± 0.03	0.38 ± 0.02	0.35 ± 0.04			
C18:2	0.28 ± 0.03	0.19 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.01	0.20 ± 0.02			
C18:1	2.69 ± 0.11	1.91 ± 0.14	1.73 ± 0.07	1.83 ± 0.06			
C18:0	0.14 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.00			
C20:0	0.03 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00			
C22:0	0.86 ± 0.09	0.70 ± 0.06	0.74 ± 0.12	0.85 ± 0.09			
C24:0	0.17 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.02			
Primary Fatty Alcohols							
C18:0	0.29 ± 0.03	0.28 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.02			
C20:0	0.19 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.03	0.14 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.01			
C22:0	0.16 ± 0.01	0.15 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.01			
Total Suberin Content	11.20 ± 0.67	8.62 ± 0.62	7.94 ± 0.33	8.22 ± 0.60			

Table S6. Suberin monomer composition in wild-type, *myb92-1 myb93-1* and *myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1*.

·	Average Value of	Suberin Components	and Total Suberin			
Suberin Components		(μg/mg Dry Weight)				
	Wild Type	myb92-1 myb93-1	myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1			
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters						
Ferulate	0.25 ± 0.06	0.16 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.02			
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters						
C16:0	0.30 ± 0.10	0.28 ± 0.04	0.42 ± 0.07			
C18:0	0.03 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.02			
C20:0	0.34 ± 0.07	0.16 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.02			
C22:0	1.51 ± 0.23	0.54 ± 0.05	0.33 ± 0.06			
C24:0	0.45 ± 0.07	0.15 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.02			
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters						
C16:0	1.02 ± 0.19	0.45 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.06			
C18:2	0.30 ± 0.06	0.12 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01			
C18:1	1.44 ± 0.35	0.51 ± 0.04	0.27 ± 0.08			
C18:0	0.48 ± 0.11	0.21 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.03			
C20:0	0.14 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.01			
C22:0	0.23 ± 0.04	0.12 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.02			
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters						
C16:0	0.44 ± 0.09	0.23 ± 0.02	0.16 ± 0.04			
C18:2	0.27 ± 0.06	0.10 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.01			
C18:1	2.84 ± 0.50	0.97 ± 0.08	0.51 ± 0.11			
C18:0	0.14 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 7.72	0.05 ± 0.01			
C20:0	0.31 ± 0.06	0.12 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.02			
C22:0	1.06 ± 0.14	0.55 ± 0.06	0.33 ± 0.06			
C24:0	0.27 ± 0.03	0.10 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.01			
Primary Fatty Alcohols						
C18:0	0.31 ± 0.05	0.22 ± 0.01	0.18 ± 0.04			
C20:0	0.21 ± 0.03	0.10 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.01			
C22:0	0.21 ± 0.02	0.07 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01			
Total Suberin Content	12.56 ± 2.29	5.34 ± 0.37	3.57 ± 0.70			

Appendix C.

Table S7. Summary of the p-values calculated by statistical analysis (p<0.05, LSD multiple comparison) between the content of each suberin monomer and also total suberin in the *myb53-1* collection of mutants (*myb53-1*, *myb53-1 myb93-1* and *myb53-1* myb92-1 myb93-1) in comparison with the *myb53-2* collection of mutants (*myb53-2*, *myb53-2* myb92-1, *myb53-2* myb93-1 and myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1).

Suberin Components	Compared To myb53-2	Compared To myb53-2 myb92-1	Compared To myb53-2 myb93-1	Compared To myb53-2 myb92-1 myb93-1
Suberin Components	myb53-1	myb53-1 myb92-1	myb53-1 myb93-1	myb53-1 myb92-1 myb93-1
Hydroxycinnamic Acid Methyl Esters				
Ferulate	0.188	0.065	0.685	0.368
Fatty Acid Methyl Esters				
C16:0	0.093	0.050	0.259	0.001
C18:0	0.470	0.895	0.693	0.010
C20:0	0.549	0.812	0.975	0.703
C22:0	0.054	0.808	0.969	0.370
C24:0	0.968	0.969	0.947	0.153
Dicarboxylic Fatty Acid Dimethyl Esters				
C16:0	0.229	0.934	0.921	0.545
C18:2	0.831	0.952	0.968	0.932
C18:1	0.332	0.890	0.927	0.390
C18:0	0.485	0.944	0.958	0.776
C20:0	0.598	0.951	0.958	0.718
C22:0	0.610	0.945	0.961	0.131
ω-Hydroxyl Fatty Acid Methyl Esters				
C16:0	0.341	0.971	0.938	0.865
C18:2	0.136	0.949	0.907	0.941
C18:1	0.058	0.935	0.866	0.708
C18:0	0.629	0.960	0.948	0.998
C20:0	0.825	0.937	0.986	0.708
C22:0	0.998	0.877	0.993	0.553
C24:0	0.983	0.910	0.991	0.209
Primary Fatty Alcohols				
C18:0	1.000	0.914	0.999	0.646
C20:0	0.972	0.473	0.993	0.732
C22:0	0.922	0.925	0.997	0.493
Total Suberin	0.699	0.782	0.815	0.993

Appendix D.

A summary of the primers used in PCR-based experiments.

Table S8. Summary of the primers used for semi-quantitative RT-PCR

Gene	AGI	Primer name (Sequence 5' to 3')
MYB53	At5g65230	MYB53-F1: TGCAAGCCACTTACCTGGAC MYB53-R1: TGGTTCAAGCTCGGTGGTTC
MYB53	At5g65230	MYB53-F2: CCGAGCTTGAACCAAACTATGT MYB53-R2: TTGAGGAGGCTTGGTTGCTG
MYB92	At5g10280	MYB92-F: CCTTCCCAAACTCGCTGGTC MYB92-R: GGATGGATCCGAGAGCCAGA
MYB93	At1g34670	MYB93-F: AAGGGCCATGGACTCCTGAA MYB93-R: AAACTTGCGAAGAGGTCGGT
GAPDH	At1g13440	GAPDH-F: TTGGTGACAACAG^GTCAAGCA GAPDH-R: AAACTTGTCGCTCAATGCAATC

Table S9. Summary of the primers used for quantitative RT-PCR

Gene	AGI	Primer name (Sequence 5' to 3')
FAR1	At5g22500	FAR1-F: ACAGCTCATTCGGGAGACAC FAR1-R: GAGCCGTGAAATCGTGAAGT
FAR4	At3g44540	FAR4-F: AGTCCTTGATCTTATACCTGTGG FAR4-R: GCTTCCCTGCGTGTATTGC
FAR5	At3g44550	FAR5-F: TGTTTGATTTCGACCCAAAAGG FAR5-R: CTTCTTAAGCACGTGTGTGACG
GPAT5	At3g11430	GPAT5-F: TGAGGGAACCACTTGTCGTG GPAT5-R: ATCGCAACCGGAACAATCCT
ASFT	At5g41040	ASFT-F: AACTCATGGGGTCAAGTCGC ASFT-R: CTTTGGAGGGTTTCGAGCATTGAG
CYP86B1/RALPH	At5g23190	RALPH-F: ATCCAGGATGTCTCGGTCCA RALPH-R: TGACGAATCTCACAACCGCA
CYP86A1/HORST	At5g58860	HORST-F: CGCTGCGTTTATACCCTTCTGTGC HORST-R: CTTGGCACGAAAGTCCCGTC
GAPDH	At1g13440	GAPDH-F: TTGGTGACAACAGGTCAAGCA GAPDH-R: AAACTTGTCGCTCAATGCAATC
PP2A	At1g13320	PP2A-F: TAACGTGGCCAAAATGATGC PP2A-R: GTTCTCCACAACCGCTTGGT

Appendix E.

Figure S1. Schematic representation of the phylogenetic relationships in the R2R3-

MYB subfamily with members regulating suberin biosynthesis highlighted.

Figure is modified from Dubos et al., 2010.

