

Using GCaMP3 to Study Ca²⁺ Signaling in *Nicotiana* Species

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Ca²⁺ signaling is a central component of plant biology; however, direct analysis of *in vivo* Ca²⁺ levels is experimentally challenging. In recent years, the use of genetically encoded Ca²⁺ indicators has revolutionized the study of plant Ca²⁺ signaling, although such studies have been largely restricted to the model plant *Arabidopsis*. We have developed stable transgenic *Nicotiana benthamiana* and *Nicotiana tabacum* lines expressing the single-wavelength fluorescent Ca²⁺ indicator, GCaMP3. Ca²⁺ levels in these plants can be imaged *in situ* using fluorescence microscopy, and these plants can be used qualitatively and semi-quantitatively to evaluate Ca²⁺ signals in response to a broad array of abiotic or biotic stimuli, such as cold shock or pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs). Furthermore, these tools can be used in conjunction with well-established *N. benthamiana* techniques such as virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) or transient heterologous expression to assay the effects of loss or gain of function on Ca²⁺ signaling, an approach which we validated via silencing or transient expression of the PAMP receptors FLS2 (Flagellin Sensing 2) or EFR (EF-Tu receptor), respectively. Using these techniques, along with chemical inhibitor treatments, we demonstrate how these plants can be used to elucidate the molecular components governing Ca²⁺ signaling in response to specific stimuli.

Keywords: GCaMP3 • CNGC • Calcium • *Nicotiana* • VIGS • PAMP.

Abbreviations: CaM, calmodulin; CNGC, cyclic nucleotide-gated channel; DAMP, damage-associated molecular pattern; DPI, diphenyleneiodonium; EFR, EF-Tu receptor; EF-Tu, elongation factor-Tu; FLS2, Flagellin Sensing 2; GECl, genetically encoded calcium indicator; GFP, green fluorescent protein; PAMP, pathogen-associated molecular pattern; PCD, programmed cell death; PDS, phytoene desaturase; PLC, phospholipase C; PTI, pattern-triggered immunity; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TEV, *Tobacco etch virus*; TMV, *Tobacco mosaic virus*; TRV, *Tobacco rattle virus*; VGCC, voltage-gated calcium channel; VIGS, virus-induced gene silencing.

Introduction

Ca²⁺ functions as a near-universal second messenger in eukaryotes (Clapham 2007). In particular, Ca²⁺ signaling has taken on astounding complexity in multicellular organisms such as plants, where it mediates responses to diverse stimuli (Sanders et al. 2002, Kudla et al. 2010). Rapid and transient changes in Ca²⁺ concentration within the cell are thought to be sensed by a large suite of Ca²⁺-binding sensor proteins (DeFalco et al. 2010, Batistič and Kudla 2012), and as such there has long been an interest in methods to monitor Ca²⁺ levels within the cell over time at high temporal resolution. Ca²⁺-sensitive fluorescent dyes such as fura-2 or indo-1 were utilized for this purpose for many years (Gryniewicz et al. 1985, Steinhorst and Kudla 2013), though their use is ultimately limited by the need to deliver the dye into the cytosol (Tian et al. 2012, Rose et al. 2014). This difficulty was partially resolved with the use of aequorin-expressing transgenic organisms (Gilroy et al. 1989, Knight et al. 1993, Whitaker 2012), though Ca²⁺-dependent aequorin luminescence requires the presence of its cofactor coelenterazine, which must be supplied exogenously (Knight and Knight 1995, Toyota et al. 2013).

The development of fluorescence-based genetically encoded Ca²⁺ indicators (GECIs) has since revolutionized the study of Ca²⁺ signaling in eukaryotes by allowing for the observation of dynamic *in vivo* Ca²⁺ flux *in situ* without the need to apply substrates and at high resolution at the cellular level (Miyawaki et al. 1997, Tian et al. 2012, Whitaker 2012, Rose et al. 2014). Generally, these sensors rely on chimeric fusions of one or more fluorescent proteins to the Ca²⁺-binding protein calmodulin (CaM) and a Ca²⁺-dependent CaM-binding M13 peptide. In the case of ratiometric sensors such as cameleons, a Ca²⁺-dependent Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) effect allows for the *in vivo* Ca²⁺ concentration to be calculated from the ratio between two emission wavelengths (Nagai et al. 2004, Monshausen 2012, Whitaker 2012). Alternatively, other sensors such as the GCaMPs are intensity based, and show increased fluorescence upon Ca²⁺ binding at physiological concentrations (Nakai et al. 2001). With respect to plant biology, studies utilizing GECIs have been largely restricted to the model plant

Arabidopsis (Monshausen 2012), where both cameleons (Choi et al. 2014) and single-wavelength reporters (i.e. single-FP GECIs) such as R-GECOs (Zhu et al. 2014, Keinath et al. 2015) or Cases (Souslova et al. 2007) have been used to study Ca²⁺ signals in response to specific stimuli.

Both tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) and its relative *Nicotiana benthamiana* are well established as tools for research use for a variety of reasons, such as their susceptibility to many viruses and their amenability to *Agrobacterium*-mediated transient expression of heterologous genes. For this reason, *N. benthamiana* in particular has become a workhorse of plant research (Goodin et al. 2008) and, as such, we set out to develop methods to analyze Ca²⁺ signals in this plant. While most measurements of Ca²⁺ signals in plants have been restricted to Arabidopsis, recent work has also been performed in other species including rice, *Lotus* and *Medicago* (Sieberer et al. 2009, Krebs et al. 2012, Behera et al. 2015). Additionally, some work has been performed with *N. benthamiana* (Zhu et al. 2010, Segonzac et al. 2011), including experiments utilizing transgenic *N. benthamiana* expressing aequorin to quantify Ca²⁺ responses during pattern-triggered immunity (PTI) and evaluate the roles of various signaling components (Segonzac et al. 2011). However, visualization by aequorin relies on the presence of coelenterazine, making *in situ* measurements difficult, and requires a highly sensitive luminescence detection system such as an image-intensified photon-counting camera (Toyota et al. 2007). Thus, we have endeavored to develop a versatile system that allows for fluorescence-based visualization and measurement of Ca²⁺ signals in response to diverse stimuli in *Nicotiana* species. Here we describe the development of such a system, using transgenic *N. tabacum* and *N. benthamiana* plants stably overexpressing the single-wavelength, fluorescence intensity GECI, GCaMP3 (Tian et al. 2009), a sensor featuring circularly permuted green fluorescent protein (GFP) flanked by CaM and the Ca²⁺-dependent CaM-binding peptide M13. In the absence of Ca²⁺, GCaMP3 has low fluorescence, which increases upon reversible Ca²⁺ loading of the CaM domain as Ca²⁺ levels rise. GCaMP3 functions at physiologically relevant pH and Ca²⁺ levels (K_d approximately 330 nM) (Helassa et al. 2015), making it an excellent tool for the analysis of *in planta* signals. In the case of *N. tabacum*, we have generated transgenics in both the *Tobacco mosaic virus* (TMV)-susceptible [*N. tabacum* cv. Xanthi (nn) (hereafter referred to as nn)] and TMV-resistant [*N. tabacum* cv. Xanthi-nc (NN) (hereafter referred to as NN)] cultivars (Holmes 1954, Erickson et al. 1999).

Our GCaMP3 *Nicotiana* plants can be analyzed visually using fairly common equipment, given that GCaMP3 signals can be observed easily on any fluorescence microscope with an appropriately narrow emission filter for eGFP. Thus dynamic signals can be observed *in situ* and in real time, including rapid signals such as those induced by cold shock or wounding. Furthermore, we demonstrate that signals from our GCaMP3 plants can be easily semi-quantified to allow for the characterization of signaling dynamics such as intensity and duration. Finally, we combine well-established *N. benthamiana* techniques such as virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) and transient expression to

demonstrate how these plants can be used to study both loss- and gain-of-function components in Ca²⁺ signaling.

Results

Visualization and measurement of Ca²⁺ signals in *Nicotiana* species

Using a conventional tissue culture method (Horsch et al. 1985, Clemente 2006), we transformed *N. benthamiana* and *N. tabacum* (nn and NN) with our GECI construct (*CaMV35S:GCaMP3*) using *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. We identified multiple T₂ lines with clear expression of the *CaMV35S:GCaMP3* construct in each of our three genetic backgrounds by screening with fluorescence microscopy. While the GCaMP3 expression level (and thus basal fluorescence signals) varied between lines, we identified at least two lines in each background with relatively high signal and subsequently isolated homozygous individuals of each line for use in experiments. These transgenic lines show no detectable morphological changes relative to wild-type plants and develop and set seed normally. Confocal microscopy of transgenic lines showed clear expression of GCaMP3 in the cytosol and nucleus in both shoots and root tissue of *N. benthamiana* and *N. tabacum* (Supplementary Fig. S1).

While fluorescence microscopy images can be used for visualizing Ca²⁺ signals, we also established a semi-quantitative method, that can be easily adapted to various applications, which relies on plate reader-based measurements of fluorescence from leaf discs. For all experiments, we treated leaf discs from a single leaf with both stimuli and water (or solvent-adjusted water, as appropriate) and normalized the fluorescence values as F/F_{eq} , where F_{eq} was the average fluorescence of the final time point of water (control) samples (see the Materials and Methods for details on assay preparation), since the pre-treatment signals cannot be analyzed due to the lack of an injector system of our plate reader. F_{eq} thus corresponded to the resting basal fluorescence signal. Using this assay, we were able to observe clear Ca²⁺ elevation after treatment with ionomycin, a Ca²⁺ ionophore (Supplementary Fig. S2). We then set out to assay Ca²⁺ signals qualitatively and/or quantitatively in response to a variety of abiotic or biotic stimuli.

Rapid wounding-induced Ca²⁺ signals in *N. benthamiana*

We observed Ca²⁺ signals in response to mechanical wounding in leaf tissue using fluorescence microscopy, and captured propagating signals in a 60 s time course (Fig. 1A). A spike in Ca²⁺ was observed immediately in the cells local to the wounding site, followed by further Ca²⁺ signaling that propagated through the adjacent vasculature to distal tissue, matching previous results with Arabidopsis (Beneloujaephajri et al. 2013, Kiep et al. 2015). One advantage of using *Nicotiana* species for experiments is their relatively large leaf area. We took advantage of this to test the effect of the established Ca²⁺ channel blocker GdCl₃ to inhibit wound-related Ca²⁺ signals by infiltrating leaves with either

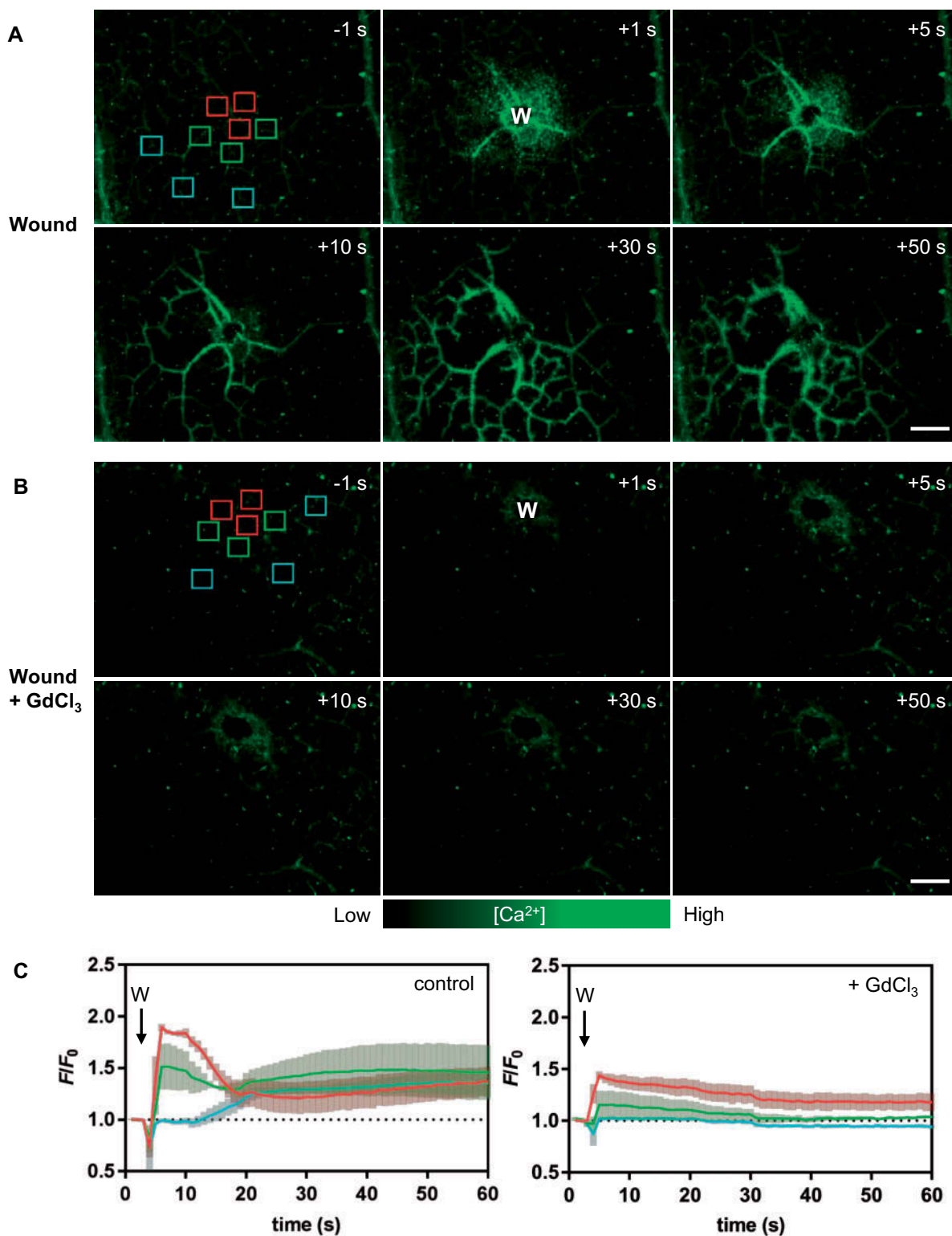


Fig. 1 Wounding-induced local and vasculature Ca^{2+} signals in *N. benthamiana*. Fluorescence microscopy showing GCaMP3 signal in response to wounding at the times indicated in the images (top right). Wounding was performed with forceps at the site marked (W) at 0 s. Scale bar = 1 mm. Leaves were pre-treated with (A) water or (B) 100 μM GdCl_3 . (C) Quantification of normalized (F/F_0) GCaMP3 signals in areas shown in -1 s panels of (A) and (B). Plotted values are the average of the three color-coded areas at the site of wounding (red), adjacent to the site of wounding (green) or distal to the site of wounding (blue). Arrows indicate the time of wounding, and the dashed line indicates the baseline signal ($F/F_0 = 1$). Error bars show \pm SD.

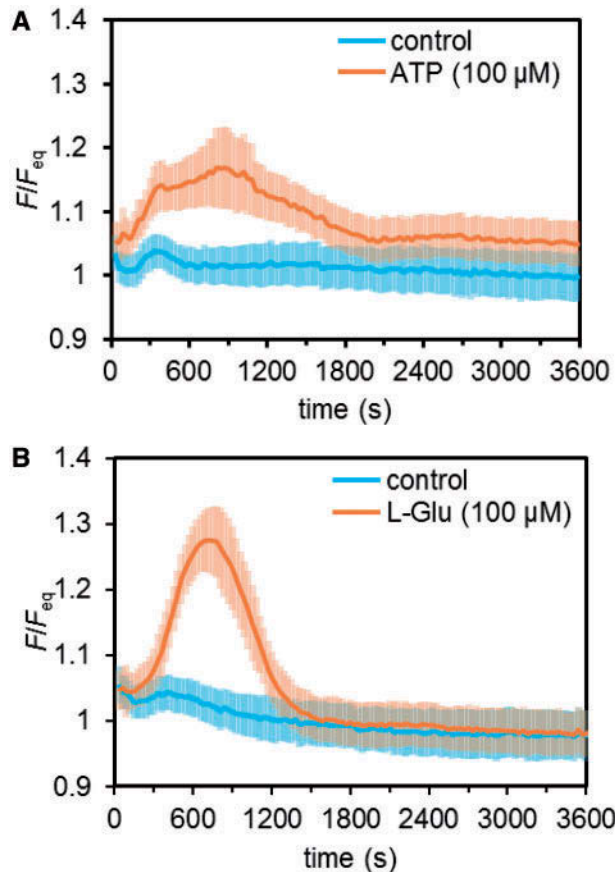


Fig. 2 DAMP-triggered Ca²⁺ signals in *N. benthamiana* leaf discs. GCaMP3 signal in response to exogenous application of (A) 100 μM ATP or (B) 100 μM L-glutamine in *N. benthamiana* leaf discs. In both (A) and (B), ddH₂O was added as a negative control (blue). GCaMP3 signal was measured in leaf discs using a plate reader assay. Absolute fluorescence values for each experiment were normalized to the untreated control value as F/F_{eq} (where F was the measured fluorescence at a given time point and F_{eq} was the averaged measurement for water-equilibrated control samples at the final resting time point measured). Averages of six replicate leaf discs \pm SE are shown. The experiment has been conducted at least three times with similar results.

water of GdCl₃ prior to wounding. As shown in **Fig. 1B**, treatment with GdCl₃ inhibited wound-related Ca²⁺ signals. Quantification of these signals confirmed the inhibition of wound-induced Ca²⁺ signals at the site of wounding as well as signals within the vasculature by Gd³⁺ (**Fig. 1C**).

Long-distance signaling in response to wounding is known to depend on members of the ionotropic glutamate receptor-like (GLR) channel family (Mousavi et al. 2013, Salvador-Recatalà et al. 2014, Salvador-Recatalà 2016). Additionally, various cellular compounds, including endogenous plant-derived peptides and ATP, have been studied as damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) that can induce Ca²⁺ signaling downstream of wounding or pathogen infection (Ranf et al. 2011, Tanaka et al. 2014;). As such we tested the effect of exogenous glutamate or ATP application on GCaMP3 signals in leaf discs, and were able to observe Ca²⁺ signals induced by each (**Fig. 2**).

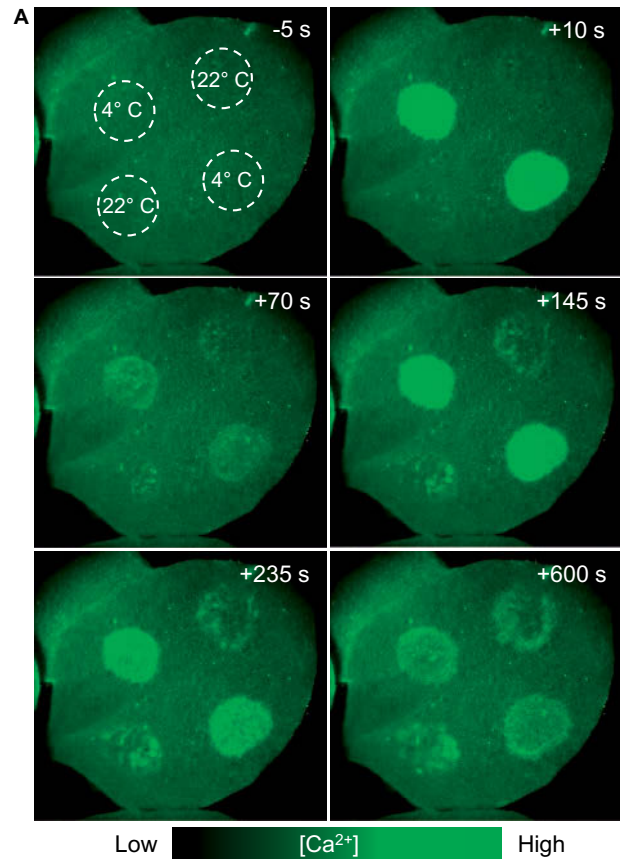


Fig. 3 Cold shock induces a rapid, bi-phasic Ca²⁺ burst in *N. benthamiana*. (A) Fluorescence microscopy showing GCaMP3 signal in response to cold (4°C) or room temperature (22°C) water droplets. Droplets were pipetted between -2 and +2 s onto the leaf surface at the positions indicated in the top left panel. Images show signal at the times indicated. (B) Quantification of signals shown in (A). Plotted values are averages of 12 regions of interest (ROIs) corresponding to areas treated with water at room temperature or 4°C, normalized to F_0 . Errors bars show \pm SE.

Cold shock stress induces bi-phasic Ca²⁺ signaling

Ca²⁺ is known to mediate plant responses to abiotic stress such as chilling or cold shock (Knight et al. 1993, Chandra and Low 1997, Ma et al. 2015). As such we tested these treatments with our GCaMP3 transgenic plants using both fluorescence microscopy and our semi-quantification assays. In both assays we

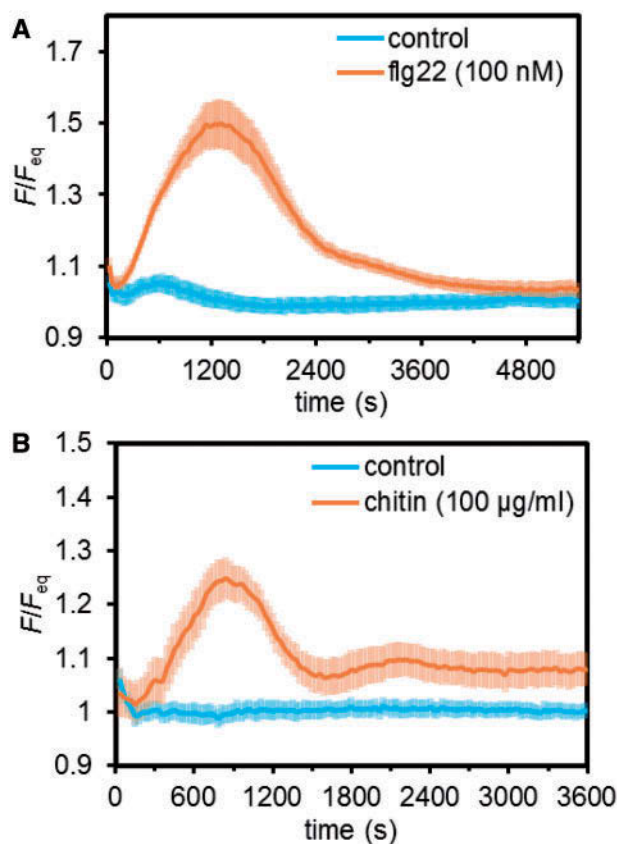


Fig. 4 PAMP/MAMP-triggered Ca^{2+} signals in *N. benthamiana*. Leaf discs were treated with (A) 100 nM flg22 or (B) 100 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ chitin. In both cases, ddH₂O was used as a negative control (blue). GCaMP3 signal was measured in leaf discs using a plate reader assay. Plotted values show averages of six replicate leaf discs \pm SE. The experiment has been conducted at least three times with similar results.

observed rapid, bi-phasic Ca^{2+} elevation in response to cold stress (Fig. 3; Supplementary Video S1), with an initial spike lasting 15–30 s, followed by a second signal peaking within 150 s of cold shock. Both peaks were measurable in both our microscopic analyses (Fig. 3A, B) and plate reader assays (Supplementary Fig. S3); however, our plate reader assays were only able to measure a single time point in the first peak, owing to a 15 s lag between treatment and initial measurement.

PAMP-triggered Ca^{2+} flux

In addition to wounding and abiotic stress, we also tested the effect of biotic stress-related stimuli on Ca^{2+} via treatment with elicitors that are pathogen-/microbe-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs/MAMPs). Bacterial flagellin contains a well-studied 22 amino acid sequence (flg22) that activates PAMP-induced resistance in various plants (Zipfel 2008). Chitin, a polymer of *N*-acetyl D-glucosamine, is a major component of the fungal cell wall and is also a well-characterized PAMP (Liang et al. 2014). As shown in Fig. 4, flg22 and chitin were both able to induce robust Ca^{2+} signals in our assay, in agreement with previous studies demonstrating that

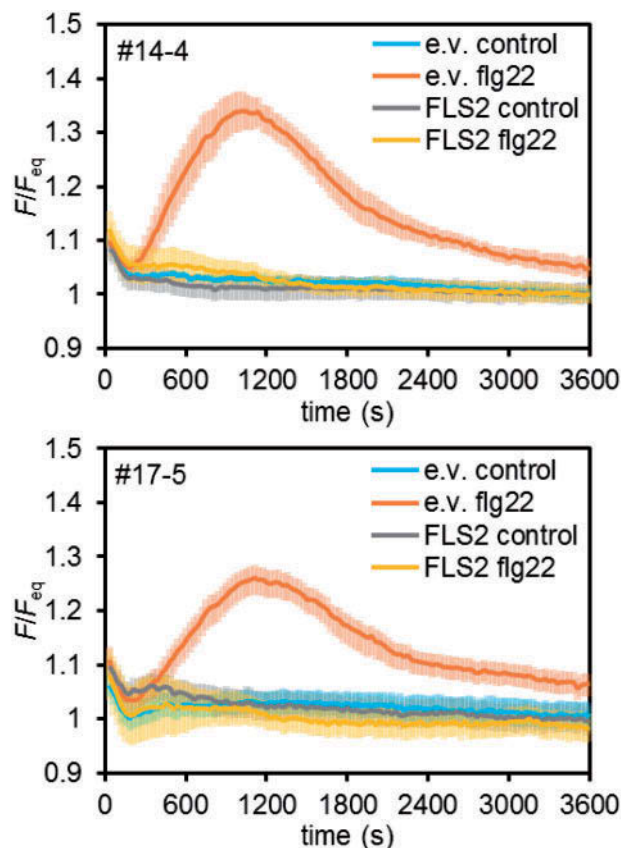


Fig. 5 Ca^{2+} signals in response to flg22 require the *Nb*-FLS2 receptor. GCaMP3 signal in response to flg22 in *N. benthamiana* leaf discs from two GCaMP3-expressing lines (#14-4 or #17-5). Discs from 6-week-old plant leaves were taken 2 weeks after inoculation with *Agrobacterium* carrying TRV1 and either TRV2 empty vector (e.v.) or TRV2::*Nb*-FLS2 (FLS2). Signals were measured for each after addition of ddH₂O (control) or 100 nM flg22. GCaMP3 signal was measured in leaf discs using a plate reader assay. Averages of six replicate leaf discs \pm SE are shown. Results are representative of multiple experiments.

N. benthamiana possesses functional receptors for these PAMPs (Hann and Rathjen 2007, Gimenez-Ibanez et al. 2009).

Silencing of endogenous *Nb*-FLS2 suppresses flg22-induced Ca^{2+} flux

To test the specificity of the flg22-induced signal in our GCaMP3 transgenic plants, we silenced the endogenous receptor for flg22 in *N. benthamiana*, *Nb*-FLS2 (*Flagellin Sensing 2*) using VIGS (see Supplementary Fig. S4 for images of VIGS-silenced plants). While leaves from plants infected with *Tobacco rattle virus 2* (TRV2) empty vector showed a normal Ca^{2+} burst following application of flg22, leaves from plants *Nb*-FLS2 silenced plants showed no response (Fig. 5), indicating the specificity of the Ca^{2+} signal detected upon flg22 treatment.

Pharmacological assays of flg22-induced Ca^{2+} signals

We performed chemical inhibitor assays to evaluate further the flg22-induced Ca^{2+} signals. Pre-treatment with the Ca^{2+}

channel blocker GdCl₃ significantly suppressed Ca²⁺ signals in response to flg22 (Fig. 6A, B). Previous work has demonstrated important roles for both reactive oxygen species (ROS) and Ca²⁺ release from internal stores during flg22-induced Ca²⁺ signaling (Segonzac et al. 2011, Thor and Peiter 2014). In agreement with such previous work, we observed a significantly reduced flg22-induced peak signal in leaf discs pre-treated with either the NADPH oxidase inhibitor diphenyleneiodonium (DPI) (Fig. 6A, E) or neomycin, a phospholipase C (PLC) inhibitor that is generally used to inhibit Ca²⁺ release from internal stores (Fig. 6A, C) (Peiter 2011). While DPI and neomycin treatment inhibited the flg22-induced peak signal (Fig. 6F), the timing of responses was unaffected (Fig. 6G). In contrast, pre-treatment with nifedipine had no clear effect on the flg22-induced signal magnitude, but did significantly alter the timing of the response (Fig. 6D, G), in agreement with previous work that demonstrated a delayed recovery in Arabidopsis PAMP-induced Ca²⁺ signals following nifedipine treatment (Kwaaitaal et al. 2011). Thus our GCaMP3 plants represent an excellent tool to study the pharmacology of the amplitude and timing of PTI responses.

Heterologous expression of Arabidopsis EFR can reconstitute perception of elf18 by *N. benthamiana*

Transient expression of a gene of interest by *Agrobacterium* infiltration is a particularly useful trait of *N. benthamiana* as a model system, and thus utilizing GCaMP3 transgenic plants to monitor Ca²⁺ signals alongside transient expression is a promising tool for future research. To test this aspect, we performed transient expression of the Arabidopsis elongation factor-Tu (EF-Tu) receptor (*At-EFR*) in our GCaMP3 *N. benthamiana*. While the elf18 peptide from the conserved bacterial EF-Tu protein is a well-characterized PAMP in Arabidopsis, solanaceous plants such as *N. benthamiana* species lack its cognate receptor, EFR (Zipfel et al. 2006). As such, elf18 elicits no Ca²⁺ signals in *N. benthamiana*, indicative of a lack of PTI induction by this PAMP. Leaves infiltrated with *Agrobacterium* carrying the HC-Pro silencing suppressor from *Tobacco etch virus* (TEV) alone thus showed no response to elf18 application (Fig. 7). Heterologous transient overexpression of the Arabidopsis elf18 receptor gene, *At-EFR*, however, was sufficient to reconstitute a modest but clear elf18-induced Ca²⁺ burst (Fig. 7), matching previous findings that all components necessary for elf18 perception downstream of the receptor are present in solanaceae species (Zipfel et al. 2006, Lacombe et al. 2010).

Functional analysis of transiently expressed ion channels via agroinfiltration

Cyclic nucleotide-gated channels (CNGCs) are non-selective cation channels represented by large families of isoforms in all plants examined to date (Mäser et al. 2001). Generally, CNGCs have been hypothesized to function as Ca²⁺ channels in plants, and several isoforms have been empirically determined to be permeable to Ca²⁺ or have Ca²⁺-dependent

phenotypes (Leng et al. 2002, Urquhart et al. 2007, Zhou et al. 2014, Charpentier et al. 2016, Gao et al. 2016). Recently, we examined the regulation of Arabidopsis CNGC12 and the related chimeric channel CNGC11/12 (Yoshioka et al. 2006) by CaM, and found that loss of an IQ-motif CaM-binding site could disrupt CNGC11/12-induced programmed cell death (PCD) (DeFalco et al. 2016). PCD induction by CNGC11/12 was previously shown to be Ca²⁺ dependent (Urquhart et al. 2007) and so we tested whether our GCaMP3 system can measure elevated Ca²⁺ levels induced by transient expression of CNGC11/12 using the *Agrobacterium* infiltration method.

While *Agrobacterium* itself caused an increase in autofluorescence (in non-transgenic *N. benthamiana*), expression of CNGC11/12 was able to induce a significant increase in the signal from our GCaMP3 plants above background levels, indicative of elevated Ca²⁺ levels (Supplementary Fig. S5). CNGC11/12^{DA} (11/12^{I564D/Q565A}, an IQ-motif mutant version) leads to a loss of channel function and PCD induction (DeFalco et al. 2016), and in keeping with this we observed no increase in GCaMP3 signal with expression of our CNGC11/12^{DA} construct. While these measurements were performed prior to the onset of PCD [28 hours post-infiltration (h.p.i.)], PCD observations at later time points matched previous findings (Supplementary Fig. S5, right panel). These data indicated that our GCaMP3 *N. benthamiana* can also be utilized for the functional analysis of transiently expressed ion channels.

N. tabacum GCaMP3 lines also respond to abiotic or biotic stimuli

While most experiments focused on our *N. benthamiana* GCaMP3 plants, we also tested responses to biotic or abiotic stimuli in our *N. tabacum* GCaMP3 lines. As was the case with *N. benthamiana*, *N. tabacum* leaves displayed biphasic Ca²⁺ signals in response to cold shock, which were measurable by both microscopy and plate reader assays (Supplementary Fig. S6A and B, respectively). The DAMP signal, glutamate, also triggered a Ca²⁺ signal in *N. tabacum* (Supplementary Fig. S6D). Both *N. tabacum* nn and NN also displayed similar Ca²⁺ elevation following flg22 treatment compared with *N. benthamiana* (Supplementary Figs. 6C and 7, respectively).

Discussion

The ability to monitor and measure Ca²⁺ signals in real time is critical to understand complex responses to various stimuli. While no single method has yet proven ideal in every aspect, here we describe the development of a system that can be used with relative simplicity to observe a wide variety of Ca²⁺ signals in *Nicotiana* species. The progenitor GCaMP sensor (Nakai et al. 2001) has subsequently been improved in terms of both basal and Ca²⁺-responsive fluorescence (Tian et al. 2009), including the recently published derivative GCaMP6 (Chen et al. 2013); however, these sensors have not yet been utilized in plants. Here, we have used the third-generation GCaMP sensor to develop our *Nicotiana* sp. Ca²⁺ analysis methods, with a focus on ease of use and adaptability to various assays. Other single-

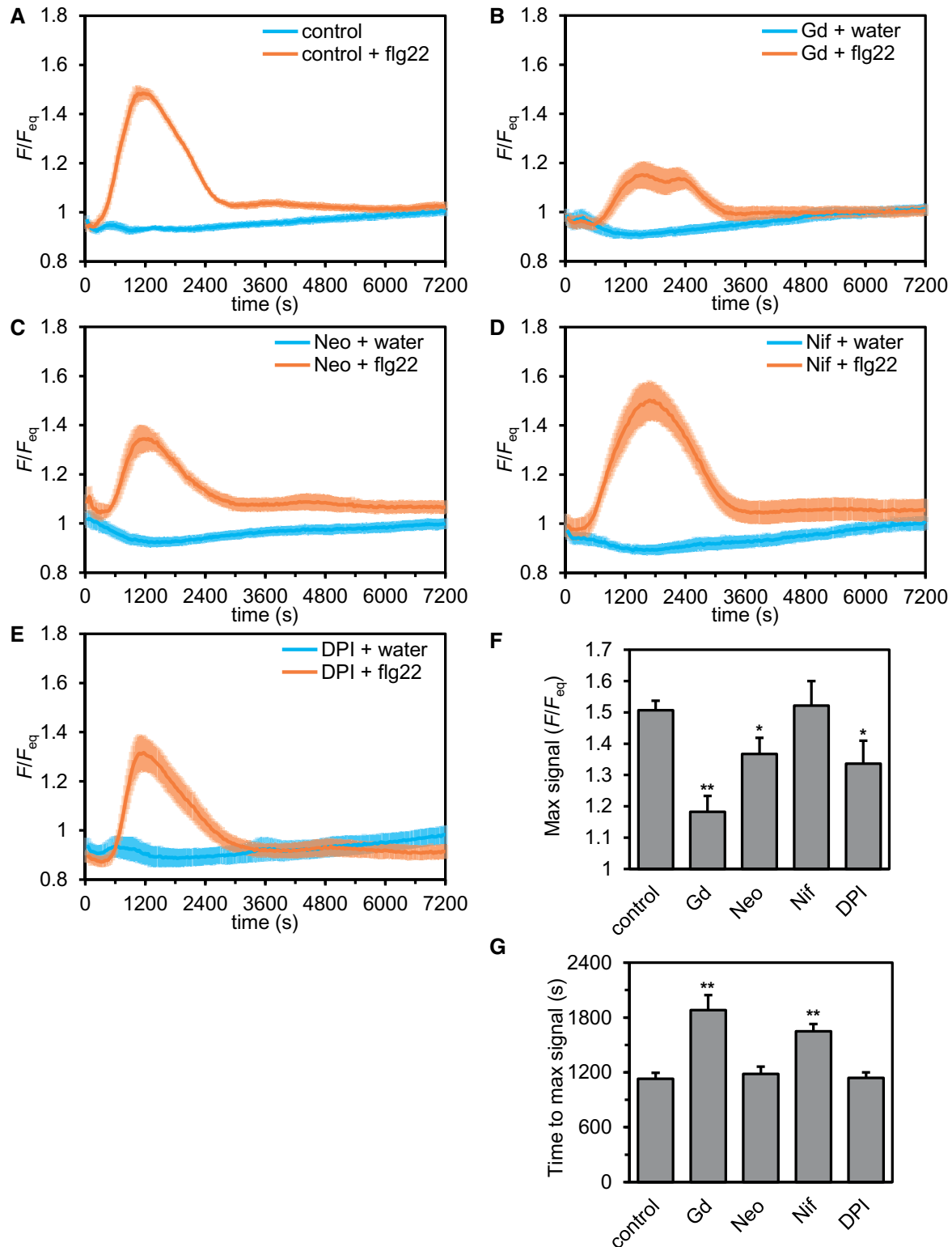


Fig. 6 Internal Ca^{2+} release and ROS are involved in flg22-induced Ca^{2+} signals in *N. benthamiana*. Leaf discs from areas were equilibrated on ddH₂O (A), 100 μM GdCl₃ (B), 100 μM neomycin (C), 100 μM nifedipine (D) or 100 μM DPI (E) prior to treatment with 100 nM flg22 (orange) or ddH₂O as a negative control (blue). Plotted values were obtained by a plate reader with averages of six replicate leaf discs. Error bars show \pm SE. (F and G) Maximum normalized signal (F) or time to maximum normalized signal (G) of each flg22-treated leaf disc from (A–E). GCaMP3 signal was measured in leaf discs using a plate reader. Error bars show \pm SE. Values that were significantly different from control are indicated (* $P < 0.05$ or ** $P < 0.005$, two-tailed t -test). The experiment has been conducted at least three times with similar results.

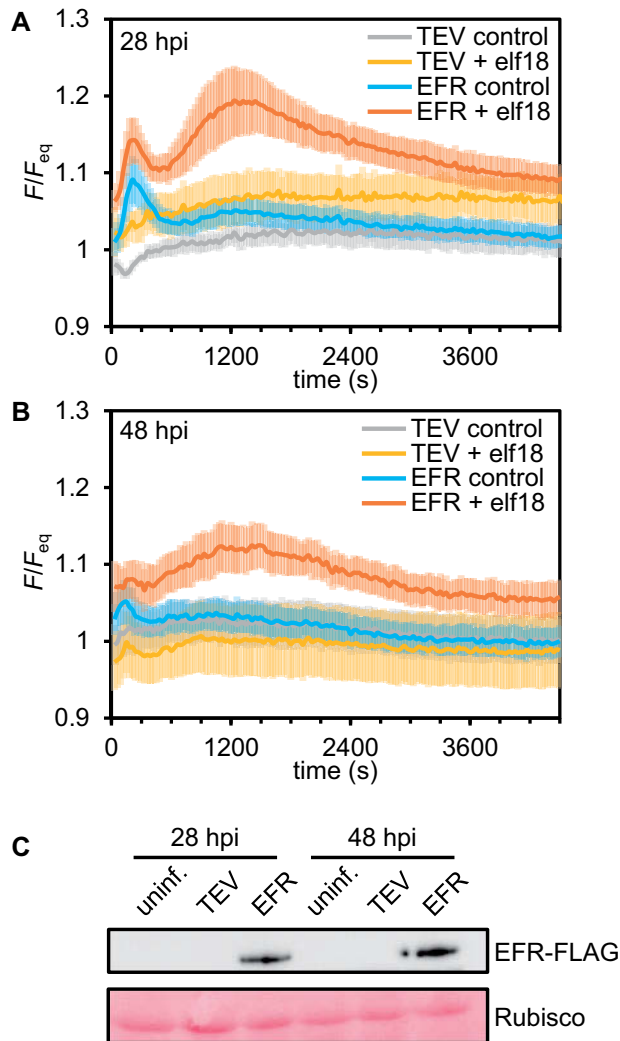


Fig. 7 Transient expression of Arabidopsis *EFR* allows the induction of Ca²⁺ signals in response to elf18 in *N. benthamiana*. GfCaMP3 signal in response to elf18 in *N. benthamiana* leaf discs. Discs from 6-week-old plant leaves were treated with ddH₂O (negative control) or 1 μM elf18 peptide (A) 28 or (B) 48 h after infiltration with *Agrobacterium*-carrying constructs as indicated. GfCaMP3 signal was measured in leaf discs using a plate reader assay. Plotted values are averages of four leaf discs ± SE. (C) Western blot showing expression of EFR-FLAG at 28 or 48 h.p.i. Uninfiltrated leaf tissue (uninf.) and TEV are negative controls. Ponceau-S-stained Rubisco small subunit is shown as a loading control. Results are representative of multiple experiments.

wavelength sensors, including Cases and R-GECOs, have recently been adapted to plant studies, though primarily in the model plant *Arabidopsis* (Zhu et al. 2014, Keinath et al. 2015).

Ca²⁺ has often been described as a central, ubiquitous or even universal second messenger in plants (Sanders et al. 2002, DeFalco et al. 2010, Kudla et al. 2010). Consistent with this view, and many previous studies, we observed and/or measured Ca²⁺ spikes in response to abiotic or biotic stimuli. An advantage of using GfCaMP3 as our indicator is the ease of use with microscopy, as exemplified by the ability to image the rapid (1 s) local Ca²⁺ spike in the cells adjacent to the site of mechanical wounding, followed by signals in adjacent and subsequently

distal vasculature (Fig. 1). Our wound-induced signals depended on the specific activity of Ca²⁺-permeable channels, as these signals were blocked by GdCl₃ at the site of treatment (i.e. wounding) as well as at the vasculature system. It is of interest whether different types of channels are involved for primary and vasculature Ca²⁺ signals, however (Fig. 1B). Ultimately, dissection of the components governing vasculature Ca²⁺ signals requires additional high-resolution microscopy. We observed an elevation in GfCaMP3 fluorescence in response to exogenous glutamate application (Fig. 2) as has been previously demonstrated in *Arabidopsis* (Dennison and Spalding 2000). ATP has also been identified as a DAMP in plants (Tanaka et al. 2014) and, consistent with previous findings, we also observed Ca²⁺ signals upon treatment with exogenous ATP in our plate reader assay (Fig. 2).

Our *Nicotiana* GfCaMP3 plants provide an excellent tool for the molecular analysis of Ca²⁺ signaling dynamics in response to diverse stimuli. In particular, we validated the utility of both gene silencing by VIGS (Fig. 5) and heterologous transient expression (Fig. 7) in combination with our Ca²⁺ indicator, and we believe such techniques will allow researchers to probe the roles of various molecular components in specific Ca²⁺ signaling pathways with relative ease, without the production of numerous stable transgenic lines. This will be greatly aided by the recently completed draft sequence of the *N. benthamiana* genome (Bombarely et al. 2012) and ever-improving tools for the design of VIGS constructs (Fernandez-Pozo et al. 2015). While we validated our methods using well-characterized, differentially conserved receptors (*FLS2* and *EFR*), as more MAMP/PAMPs and their cognate receptors continue to be identified across diverse species (Mott et al. 2016, Wang et al. 2016), our GfCaMP3 *N. benthamiana* and *N. tabacum* lines represent excellent tools to study the conservation of PTI signaling components. In addition, we have tested 10-day-old *N. benthamiana* seedlings and succeeded in capturing flg22-induced signals, indicating the versatility of the system (Supplementary Fig. S8).

Chemical inhibitors can also provide important insights into the molecular components governing signaling responses. Our data (Fig. 6) corroborate a large body of previous work that has demonstrated the importance of mobilization of Ca²⁺ from internal stores and ROS production in PAMP-induced Ca²⁺ signaling (Lecourieux et al. 2005, Segonzac et al. 2011, Ranf et al. 2011, Thor and Peiter 2014).

The tobacco *N* gene encodes a nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat (NB-LRR)-type R protein, which confers resistance to TMV (Holmes 1954, Whitham et al. 1994, Erickson et al. 1999). While Ca²⁺ transporter or Ca²⁺-binding sensor proteins have been previously implicated in virus resistance (Anandalakshmi et al. 2000, Zhu et al. 2010, Nakahara et al. 2012), comparably little is currently known regarding the specifics of Ca²⁺ signaling in responses to viral infection. Given that we have generated both cultivated tobacco (cv. Xanthi nn) and TMV-resistant (cv. Xanthi-nc NN) *N. tabacum* GfCaMP3 lines (Supplementary Figs. S6, S7), these plants will be an excellent tool to study the roles of Ca²⁺ signaling in mediating plant resistance to viruses. The hypersensitive response (HR) develops rapidly (approximately 48 h after inoculation with

TMV) in *N*-carrying tobacco (Erickson et al. 1999), and as such it will be illuminating to visualize Ca^{2+} flux following viral infection in susceptible and resistant cultivars.

The iterative process of GECl improvement means that single-wavelength sensors are continually refined in terms of their signal and responsiveness (Helassa et al. 2015, Cho et al. 2017). We believe that generation of transgenic *Nicotiana* species with later generation GECl(s) will allow for the dissection of ever subtler aspects of Ca^{2+} signaling, at ever greater spatio-temporal resolution.

Materials and Methods

Plant growth conditions

Nicotiana benthamiana and *N. tabacum* used for experiments were grown for approximately 6 weeks on Sunshine mix soil (Sun Gro Horticulture Canada) in a growth chamber under a 9/15 h light/dark regimen at 22°C (day) and 20°C (night) (60% relative humidity and $140 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). For seed production, 4-week-old plants were moved to a greenhouse room and grown under 16/8 h light/dark growth conditions at approximately 22°C (day) and 20°C (night).

Generation of transgenic lines

Nicotiana benthamiana and *N. tabacum* were stably transformed via *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation based on previously described methods (Horsch et al. 1985, Clemente 2006), with details as follows. *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain LBA4404 carrying the pBIN20::CaMV35S:GCaMP3 construct was cultured in 50 ml of YEP supplemented with antibiotics and 20 μM acetosyringone for 48–72 h at 28°C, 250 r.p.m. The culture was spun down and resuspended in 25 ml of co-cultivation medium (Clemente 2006) to a final OD_{600} of approximately 0.5–1.0 and left at room temperature while preparing leaf tissue. Six- to eight-week-old leaves were cut into 4–8 cm^2 sections (avoiding the primary vein), and surface sterilized in 10% commercial bleach supplemented with one drop of Tween-20 per 50 ml for 10 min. Sterilized leaf sections were washed five times with sterile ddH_2O and further cut into small (approximately 0.5 \times 0.5 cm) explants. These explants were incubated with 25 ml of *Agrobacterium* suspension for 30 min with gentle agitation every 5–10 min. The leaf explants were blotted dry on sterile filter paper to remove excess *Agrobacterium*, then transferred (abaxial or adaxial side up) to solid co-cultivation medium (Clemente 2006). Following 2–3 d of co-cultivation, leaf explants were transferred to selection medium containing carbenicillin and cefotaxime (100 and 200 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$, respectively) to eliminate bacteria and 50 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ kanamycin to select transformants (Clemente 2006). Regenerated transformants were then subcultured to 0.5 \times MS agar (1% sucrose) medium to induce root formation. Following root formation, explants were potted in soil and grown to seed set. T_2 seed was collected and propagated to generate T_3 seed. Individuals from T_3 lines were screened based on fluorescence to identify homozygous T_3 lines. Introduced constructs were identified by PCR using the primers GCaMP3_F (5'-ATGGTTCTCATCATCATC-3') and GCaMP3_R (5'-TACTTCGCTGCATCATTTG-3') for confirmation.

Transient expression and virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS)

Transient expression was performed via infiltration with *A. tumefaciens* strain GV2260 as described previously (DeFalco et al. 2016). *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* carrying *CaMV35S:HC-Pro* from TEV was infiltrated alone or co-infiltrated with constructs as described in the figure legends. pB35GWF::At-EFR-FLAG was obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (ABRC clone # S5G20480BFF). VIGS experiments were performed as described previously (Liu et al. 2002, Segonzac et al. 2011). Two- to three-week old *N. benthamiana* plants were infected with *A. tumefaciens* carrying TRV1 and either TRV2 (empty vector), TRV2::Nb-FLS2 or TRV2::PDS. Following infection, plants were monitored for approximately 3 weeks for signs of *phytoene desaturase* (*PDS*) silencing (bleaching of new leaves). Once silencing of *PDS* was consistent, corresponding

leaves from TRV2 and TRV2::Nb-FLS2 plants were used for experiments (see Supplementary Fig. S4).

Protein extraction and Western blots

Protein samples were extracted from *N. benthamiana* leaf tissue by grinding in 20 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 1.25% Triton X-100, pH 8.0 and clarified via centrifugation at $6,000 \times g$ at 4°C for 10 min. Clarified extracts were boiled in 1 \times Laemmli loading buffer, separated by 12% SDS-PAGE and transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane. Blots were stained with Ponceau-S, blocked overnight at 4°C, and subsequently probed with α FLAG antisera (1:10,000 dilution). Immunoreactive bands were detected using Amersham ECL Prime Western Blotting Detection reagents (GE Healthcare) on a Chemidoc Touch Imaging System (Bio-Rad).

Preparation of chemical stocks

ATP, GdCl_3 and neomycin were all dissolved in ddH_2O as 1,000 \times stocks. Ionomycin, DPI or nifedipine were each dissolved in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) to stock concentrations of 2, 10, or 20 mM, respectively. Chitin (Calbiochem) stocks were prepared fresh, by first grinding powder with a mortar and pestle for 5 min, after which a half-final volume of ddH_2O was added and the mixture was ground for an additional 5 min. The resulting slurry was diluted to a final stock concentration of 10 mg ml^{-1} . L-Glutamate was prepared fresh for use in ddH_2O . fig22 and elf18 peptides were synthesized commercially and dissolved in ddH_2O , then diluted to 1,000 \times stock.

Semi-quantification of Ca^{2+} signals and inhibitor assays

For each chemical treatment, 12 \times 0.5 cm leaf discs from 6-week-old plants were equilibrated abaxial side up in 100 μl of ddH_2O for 4–6 h in a Greiner 96-well flat black plate. Following equilibration, 100 μl of ddH_2O (with or without addition of appropriate solvent) or chemical treatment was added to leaf discs, to final concentrations as indicated in the figure legends. GCaMP3 fluorescence was measured immediately following treatment employing a TECAN Infinite M1000 Pro plate-reader, using excitation at 470 nm (20 nm bandwidth) and emission detection at 525 nm (20 nm bandwidth). Measurements were recorded for each leaf disc at 30 s intervals, for total durations as indicated in the figures. Absolute fluorescence values for each experiment were normalized to the untreated control value as F/F_{eq} (where F was the measured fluorescence at a given time point and F_{eq} was the averaged measurement for water-equilibrated control samples at the final resting time point measured). F_{eq} was used due to a lack of injector system and, for this reason, all treatments and water controls were performed with leaf discs from the same leaf. Plotted values are averages of six replicate leaf discs, with the SE represented by error bars. For assays with chemical inhibitors, inhibitors were diluted in ddH_2O to the concentrations described in the figures; leaf discs were equilibrated on the inhibitors (or ddH_2O for control). Following equilibration, measurements were performed as described above.

Real-time Ca^{2+} imaging via fluorescence microscopy

Wounding measurements were recorded on a Leica M216F stereo fluorescence microscope using a Q Imaging Fast 1394 12-bit monochrome CCD camera controlled by OpenLab 5 software (Improvision Ltd.). GCaMP3 signal was visualized using the ET-GFP emission/excitation filter (Leica Microsystems). Images were captured every second during wounding experiments. Leaves were infiltrated with either water or 100 μM GdCl_3 3–4 h prior to wounding experiments. Acquired images were semi-quantified using ImageJ.

Cold shock treatment leaves were imaged with a motorized fluorescence stereo microscope (SMZ-25, Nikon) equipped with a 1 \times objective lens (P2-SHR Plan Apo, 0.156 NA, Nikon) and a highly sensitive sCMOS camera (ORCA-Flash0 V2, Hamamatsu Photonics). GCaMP3 was excited using a mercury lamp (motorized Intensilight Hg Illuminator, Nikon) and a GFP-B filter cube (Nikon) including a 460–500 nm excitation filter, a 505 nm dichroic mirror and a 510–560 nm fluorescent filter. GCaMP3 signal was acquired every 2 s and analyzed with microscope imaging software (NIS-Elements Advanced

Research, Nikon). A 5–10 µl aliquot of water (room temperature or 4°C) was applied onto the adaxial surface of a *Nicotiana* leaf.

Accession numbers

Sequence data for genes referenced in this article can be found under the following accession numbers: *At-EFR* (At5g20480), *At-FLS2* (At5g46330), *Nb-FLS2* (Niben101Scf01785g10011) and *Nt-FLS2* (XM_016635313).

Supplementary data

Supplementary data are available at PCP online.

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Disclosures

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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