



A Predominant Role of AtEDEM1 in Catalyzing a Rate-Limiting Demannosylation Step of an Arabidopsis Endoplasmic Reticulum-Associated Degradation Process

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Specialty section:

This article was submitted to
Plant Physiology,
a section of the journal
Frontiers in Plant Science

Received: 24 May 2022

Accepted: 10 June 2022

Published: 07 July 2022

Citation:

Zhang J, Xia Y, Wang D, Du Y,
Chen Y, Zhang C, Mao J, Wang M,
She Y-m, Peng X, Liu L, Voglmeir J,
He Z, Liu L and Li J (2022) A
Predominant Role of AtEDEM1 in
Catalyzing a Rate-Limiting
Demannosylation Step of an
Arabidopsis Endoplasmic Reticulum-
Associated Degradation Process.
Front. Plant Sci. 13:952246.
doi: 10.3389/fpls.2022.952246

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Endoplasmic reticulum-associated degradation (ERAD) is a key cellular process for degrading misfolded proteins. It was well known that an asparagine (N)-linked glycan containing a free α 1,6-mannose residue is a critical ERAD signal created by Homologous to α -mannosidase 1 (Htm1) in yeast and ER-Degradation Enhancing α -Mannosidase-like proteins (EDEM) in mammals. An earlier study suggested that two Arabidopsis homologs of Htm1/EDEMs function redundantly in generating such a conserved N-glycan signal. Here we report that the Arabidopsis *irb1* (*reversal of bri1*) mutants accumulate brassinosteroid-insensitive 1–5 (*bri1-5*), an ER-retained mutant variant of the brassinosteroid receptor BRI1 and are defective in one of the Arabidopsis Htm1/EDEM homologs, AtEDEM1. We show that the wild-type AtEDEM1, but not its catalytically inactive mutant, rescues *irb1-1*. Importantly, an insertional mutation of the Arabidopsis Asparagine-Linked Glycosylation 3 (ALG3), which causes N-linked glycosylation with truncated glycans carrying a different free α 1,6-mannose residue, completely nullifies the inhibitory effect of *irb1-1* on *bri1-5* ERAD. Interestingly, an insertional mutation in AtEDEM2, the other Htm1/EDEM homolog, has no detectable effect on *bri1-5* ERAD; however, it enhances the inhibitory effect of *irb1-1* on *bri1-5* degradation. Moreover, *AtEDEM2* transgenes rescued the *irb1-1* mutation with lower efficacy than *AtEDEM1*. Simultaneous elimination of *AtEDEM1* and *AtEDEM2* completely blocks generation of α 1,6-mannose-exposed N-glycans on *bri1-5*, while overexpression of either *AtEDEM1* or *AtEDEM2* stimulates *bri1-5* ERAD and enhances the *bri1-5* dwarfism. We concluded that, despite its functional redundancy with AtEDEM2, AtEDEM1 plays a predominant role in promoting *bri1-5* degradation.

Keywords: endoplasmic reticulum-associated degradation, N-glycan, protein degradation, BRASSINOSTEROID-INSENSITIVE 1, α 1,2-mannosidase, α 1,6-mannose residue

INTRODUCTION

Endoplasmic reticulum-associated degradation (ERAD) is an essential part of a highly conserved ER-localized protein quality control (ERQC) system for removing ER-retained nonnative or mis-assembled proteins, which involves retrotranslocation through the ER membrane, ubiquitination by a membrane-anchored ubiquitin ligase (E3), and eventual degradation *via* the cytosolic proteasome (Preston and Brodsky, 2017). A key event of this process is selection of terminally-misfolded proteins from repairable misfolded proteins and folding intermediates. However, little is known about how eukaryotic cells execute this selection step. Recent studies in yeast and mammalian cells have shown that an asparagine (Asn)-linked glycan (N-glycan) containing an exposed α 1,6-mannose (Man) residue on misfolded glycoproteins serves as a crucial ERAD signal that marks a terminally misfolded glycoprotein for degradation. Such a signal is generated through trimming a specific terminal α 1,2-Man residue from N-linked $\text{Man}_8\text{GlcNAc}_2$ (GlcNAc, N-acetylglucosamine) glycans by the Homologous to α -mannosidase 1 (Htm1) and mammalian ER-degradation enhancing α -mannosidase-like proteins (EDEMs; Quan et al., 2008; Clerc et al., 2009; Hosokawa et al., 2010). The exposed α 1,6-Man residue and its surrounding misfolded region are recognized by the yeast OS-9 (Yos9)/mammalian Osteosarcoma amplified 9 (OS-9) protein and the yeast HMG-CoA reductase degradation protein 3 (Hrd3)/mammalian Suppressor/enhancer of lin-12-like protein1 (Sel1L) protein, respectively (Xu and Ng, 2015). It is believed that Yos9/OS-9 and Hrd3/Sel1L work together to bring a committed ERAD client to the membrane-anchored E3 ligase Hrd1 (HRD1 in mammals) for ubiquitination and subsequent retrotranslocation into the cytosol for proteasomal degradation (Smith et al., 2011).

Although similar processes were known to exist in plants (Ceriotti and Roberts, 2006; Liu et al., 2011), our knowledge about a plant ERAD system still remains limited (Strasser, 2018). Recent discoveries of several Arabidopsis ERAD clients made Arabidopsis an attractive genetic model system to study the plant ERAD process (Jin et al., 2007; Hong et al., 2009, 2012; Li et al., 2009; Nekrasov et al., 2009; Baer et al., 2016). Among them are *bri1-5* and *bri1-9*, which are mutant variants of BRASSINOSTEROID-INSENSITIVE 1 (BRI1), a well-studied surface receptor for the plant steroid hormone brassinosteroids (BRs; Li and Chory, 1997; Kinoshita et al., 2005). A Cys⁶⁹-Tyr mutation in *bri1-5* and a Ser⁶⁶²-Phe mutation in *bri1-9* are thought to cause minor structural defects that are recognized by a highly conserved ER quality control (ERQC) mechanism in Arabidopsis. This ERQC consists of EMS-mutagenized *bri1* suppressor 1 (EBS1), the Arabidopsis homolog of the mammalian UDP-glucose:glycoprotein glucosyltransferase (UGGT) capable of differentiating misfolded glycoproteins from their native conformers, and EBS2 (also known as calreticulin 3 or CRT3), a plant-specific member of the CRT/calnexin (CNX) family capable of high-affinity binding to a monoglucosylated N-glycan (Jin et al., 2007, 2009; Hong et al., 2008). The EBS1-EBS2 system and other chaperone-mediated ERQC mechanisms retain the two mutant *bri1* proteins in the ER, leading to their eventual

degradation *via* ERAD and a severe BR-insensitive dwarf phenotype (Jin et al., 2007, 2009).

It was previously shown that the protein abundance of these Arabidopsis ERAD clients could be greatly increased by treatment with kifunensine (Kif; Hong et al., 2008, 2009; Nekrasov et al., 2009; Saijo et al., 2009), a widely used inhibitor of α 1,2-mannosidases including Htm1/EDEMs (Elbein et al., 1990), suggesting involvement of Man-trimming steps in the Arabidopsis ERAD process (Liu and Li, 2014). Further genetic and metabolic studies not only confirmed this pharmacological finding but also concluded that the N-glycan signal for tagging an Arabidopsis ERAD client is conserved to be a free α 1,6-Man residue-containing N-glycan (Hong et al., 2012). The Arabidopsis has two homologs of Htm1/EDEMs, AtEDEME1, and AtEDEME2 (known previously as MNS5 and MNS4 for α -mannosidase 5 and 4, respectively), and a previous reverse genetic investigation suggested that these two Htm1/EDEM homologs function redundantly in ERAD of *bri1-5* as single mutation of either protein fails to suppress the *bri1-5* phenotype (Huttner et al., 2014b). However, it remains unknown whether AtEDEME1 and AtEDEME2 are required to generate the conserved N-glycan code on a known ERAD client. Here, we report a forward genetic study showing that despite functional redundancy of AtEDEME1/MNS5 and AtEDEME2/MNS4, loss-of-function mutations in AtEDEME1 alone could partially suppress the dwarf phenotype of *bri1-5* by weakly inhibiting *bri1-5* degradation. We have found that AtEDEME2 could rescue the *irb1-1* mutation but with a lower efficacy than AtEDEME1, likely due to its weaker promoter and a slightly weaker biochemical activity. More importantly, the mass spectrometry-based N-glycan analyses coupled with linkage-specific mannosidases demonstrated the functional redundancy of AtEDEME1 and AtEDEME2 in removing the C-branch terminal α 1,2-Man residue, thus exposing the ERAD-signaling α 1,6-Man residue. Furthermore, our transgenic experiments indicated that the AtEDEME1/AtEDEME2-catalyzed creation of the N-glycan ERAD signal constitutes a major rate-limiting step of the *bri1-5* ERAD pathway.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Materials and Growth Conditions

All *Arabidopsis* mutants and transgenic lines used in this study are in Wassilewskija-2 (*Ws-2*) or Columbia-0 (*Col-0*) ecotype. All 6 *irb1* mutants were isolated from two large-scale EMS-mutagenesis-based genetic screens for extragenic suppressors of the Arabidopsis *bri1-5* mutant (in *Ws-2* ecotype; Noguchi et al., 1999). The T-DNA insertional mutant *edem2-t* (*SALK_095857*, *Col-0*) was obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (ABRC) at Ohio State University and crossed with *bri1-5* and *irb1-1 bri1-5*, while the T-DNA insertional mutant *alg3-t2* (*SALK_046061*; *Col-0*) was previously described (Hong et al., 2012). Methods for seed sterilization and conditions for plant growth were described previously (Li et al., 2001), and the hypocotyl elongation assays on BL-containing medium were carried out according to a previously described protocol (Neff et al., 1999).

Map-Based Cloning of the *IRB1* Gene

The *irb1 bri1-5* mutant (ecotype Ws-2) was crossed with a *bri1-9* mutant (ecotype Col-0; Jin et al., 2007), and the resulting F1 plants were allowed for self-fertilization to generate several F2 mapping populations. Genomic DNAs from segregating F2 seedlings exhibiting the *irb1 bri1-5*-like morphology were extracted as previously described (Li and Chory, 1998) and used for PCR-based mapping using previously published simple sequence length polymorphism markers (Pacurar et al., 2012), and oligonucleotides listed in **Supplementary Table S1**.

Construction of Plasmids and Generation of Transgenic Plants

A 5,279-bp genomic fragment of *At1g27520* containing 1,348-bp promoter and 591-bp 3'-untranscribed/untranslated region was PCR-amplified from the BAC T17H3 DNA obtained from ABRC using the *gAtEDEM1* primer set (**Supplementary Table S1**) and was cloned into BamHI/Sall-digested *pPZP212* vector (Hajdukiewicz et al., 1994). The resulting *gAtEDEM1* plasmid was subsequently used to perform a site-directed mutagenesis using the *AtEDEM1Mut* primer set (**Supplementary Table S1**) and the QuikChange II XL Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Agilent) to generate a *mgAtEDEM1* transgene that produced a glutamate(E)¹³⁴-glutamine(Q) mutated catalytically-inactive variant of AtEDEM1 by the manufacturer's recommended protocol. A 6,323-bp genomic fragment of *At5g43710* containing 1,586-bp promoter/5'-untranslated region and a 466-bp 3'-untranslated/untranscribed region was amplified from the BAC MQD19 DNA (also obtained from ABRC) using the *gAtEDEM2* primer set (**Supplementary Table S1**) and subsequently cloned into the XmaI/KpnI-digested *pPZP212* vector (Hajdukiewicz et al., 1994). A 1,811-bp coding sequence (CDS) fragment and a 1,872-bp CDS fragment containing the entire coding region of *AtEDEM1* and *AtEDEM2* were amplified from an *At1g27520* cDNA clone R19200 and an *At5g43710* cDNA clone G09215 (both were obtained from ABRC) using the primer sets, *cAtEDEM1GFP* and *cAtEDEM2GFP* (**Supplementary Table S1**), double digested with SpeI/XbaI and BamHI (depending on the introduced restriction sites on the primers), and subsequently cloned into the XbaI/BamHI-digested *pBRI1::BRI1-GFP* (Friedrichsen et al., 2000) to generate a *pBRI1::cAtEDEM1-GFP* plasmid and a *pBRI1::cAtEDEM2-GFP* plasmid, respectively. To generate non-tagged *pBRI1::cAtEDEM1/2* plasmids, the first cDNAs of the wild-type Arabidopsis seedlings and the *pBRI1cAtEDEM1* and *pBRI1cAtEDEM2* primer sets (see **Supplementary Table S1**) were used to amplify the CDS fragments of AtEDEM1/2, which were digested with BamHI/KpnI and subsequently cloned into the BamHI/KpnI-digested *pCI300pBRI1* plasmid, a modified *pCambia1300* vector (Leclercq et al., 2015) that contains a 1.6-kb BRI1 promoter fragment. To create transgenes of *pBRI1::At1g30000-GFP*, *pBRI1::At1g51590-GFP*, and *pBRI1::Htm1-GFP*, the first strand cDNAs of the wild-type Arabidopsis plants and yeast genomic DNAs were used to amplify the open-reading frames of *At1g30000* (*MNS3*), *At1g51590* (*MNS1*), and the yeast Htm1 with the *1g30000GFP*, *1g51590GFP*, and *Htm1GFP* primer sets

(**Supplementary Table S1**), respectively. The PCR-amplified CDS fragments were digested with XbaI/SpeI and BamHI/BglII (depending on the introduced restriction sites of the primers) and subsequently cloned into the XbaI/BamHI-digested *pBRI1::BRI1-GFP* plasmid to generate *pBRI1::c1g30000-GFP*, *pBRI1::c1g51590-GFP*, and *pBRI1::Htm1-GFP* plasmids. A two-step cloning strategy was used to create the *pBRI1::bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL* plasmid. The coding sequence of the BRI1's extracellular domain was amplified from a *pBRI1::bri1-5-GFP* plasmid (Hong et al., 2008) using the *BRI1ED* primer set (**Supplementary Table S1**), digested with SpeI and BamHI, and cloned into the XbaI/BamHI-cut *pBRI1::BRI1-GFP* plasmid (Hong et al., 2008) to generate the *pBRI1::bri1-5ED-GFP* plasmid. The resulting plasmid was used as the DNA template to amplify the coding sequence of GFP with the *GFPHdel* primer set [**Supplementary Table S1**, its reverse primer containing coding sequence of the HDEL (histidine-aspartate-glutamate-leucine) ER-retrieval motif], which was subsequently digested with BamHI and KpnI and cloned into the BamHI/KpnI-digested *pBRI1::bri1-5-GFP* plasmid to create the *pBRI1::BRI1ED-GFP-HDEL* plasmid. The created transgenes were fully sequenced to ensure no PCR-introduced error and were individually transformed into various Arabidopsis lines or used for transient expression in tobacco leaves.

Transient Expression and Confocal Microscopic Analysis of GFP-Tagged EDEM Fusion Proteins in Tobacco Leaves

The *pBRI1::cAtEDEM1-GFP*, *pBRI1::cAtEDEM2-GFP*, *pBRI1::At1g3000-GFP*, *pBRI1::At1g51590-GFP*, and *pSITE03-ER-RFP* (encoding a red fluorescent protein (RFP) tagged at its C-terminus with the ER-retrieval HDEL motif; Chakrabarty et al., 2007), and *p35S:p19* (encoding the p19 protein of tomato bushy stunt virus that was known for suppressing gene silencing; Voinnet et al., 2003) plasmids were cotransformed into leaves of 3-week-old tobacco (*Nicotiana benthamiana*) plants via an *Agrobacterium*-mediated infiltration method (Voinnet et al., 2003). Forty-eight hours after infiltration, the localization patterns of AtEDEM1-GFP or AtEDEM2-GFP and the ER-localized RFP-HDEL in the co-infiltrated tobacco leaf epidermal cells were examined using a Leica confocal laser-scanning microscope (TCS SP5 DM6000B) with an HCX PL APOCS 63X 1.30 glycerin lens and LAS AF software (Leica Microsystems). The GFP or RFP signal was excited by using the 488- or 543-nm laser light, respectively.

Yeast Complementation Assay

The yeast strain Δ *htm1* carrying the *pDN436* plasmid (Ng et al., 2000) that encodes a HA-tagged CPY* (the ER-retained misfolded variant of the vacuolar carboxypeptidase Y) was provided by Amy Chang (University of Michigan). The coding sequence of the yeast Htm1 and AtEDEM1 were individually amplified from the yeast genomic DNA and the first-strand Arabidopsis cDNAs, respectively, and the resulting PCR fragments were used to replace the yeast *ALG9* fragment from the *pYEp352-ScALG9* expression plasmid (Frank and Aebi, 2005) to create *pYEp352-Htm1* and *pYEp352-AtEDEM1* plasmids following a previously described cloning strategy (Hong et al., 2009). After sequencing to ensure

no PCR-introduced error, these two plasmids were individually transformed into the $\Delta htm1$ mutant yeast cells by a previously-published transformation protocol (Gietz and Woods, 2002). Yeast cells of the $\Delta htm1$ mutant strain and *pYEp352-Htm1/AtEDEMI*-transformed $\Delta htm1$ strains were grown to mid-log phase ($OD_{600} \sim 1.5$) and treated with 100 μ g/ml CHX (cycloheximide). Similar amounts of yeast cells were removed at 0, 1, 2, and 4 h after the CHX addition, collected by centrifugation on a bench-top microcentrifuge at room temperature, and resuspended in 1X yeast extraction buffer (0.3M sorbitol, 0.1M NaCl, 5mM MgCl₂, and 10mM Tris, pH 7.4). After cell lysis by vigorous vortexing with glass beads, the resuspended yeast cells were mixed with 2X SDS sample buffer [100mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 4% (w/v) SDS; 0.2% (w/v) bromophenol blue, 20% (v/v) glycerol, and 200mM β -mercaptoethanol], boiled for 10 min, and centrifuged for 10 min to remove insoluble cellular debris. The resulting supernatants were separated on 10% SDS/PAGE and analyzed by immunoblotting with an anti-HA antibody (10A5; Invitrogen).

Protein Extraction and Immunoblot Analyses

Two or 4-week-old *Arabidopsis* seedlings treated with or without CHX (Sigma-Aldrich), Kif (Toronto Research Chemicals), or BL (brassinolide) (Chemicon, Inc. Canada), or 3 g of agro-infiltrated tobacco leaves, were ground into fine powder in liquid nitrogen, resuspended in 2X SDS sample buffer, and boiled for 10 min. After 10 min centrifugation in a bench-top Eppendorf microcentrifuge at the top speed at room temperature to remove insoluble cellular debris, the clear supernatants were used immediately for immunoblot analysis or incubated with or without 1,000 U Endo Hf in 1X G5 buffer (New England Biolabs) for 1 h at 37°C. These treated protein samples were subsequently separated by 7% or 10% SDS-PAGE and analyzed by Coomassie Blue staining or by immunoblot with antibody raised against BRI1, GFP (632381, Clontech), ACTIN (CW0264, Beijing CWBio), and BRI1-EMS-SUPPRESSOR1 (BES1) (Mora-Garcia et al., 2004). Chemiluminescence immunoblot signals were visualized by X-ray films or by the Odyssey[®] Dlx Infrared Imaging System (LI-COR).

RNA Isolation and Reverse Transcription-PCR

Total RNAs were isolated from 2-week-old *Arabidopsis* seedlings grown on ½ MS medium containing 1% sucrose and 0.8% phytigel (Sigma) as described previously (Li et al., 2001). For each RT-PCR experiment, 2 μ g of total RNAs were reverse transcribed using the Invitrogen's SuperScript First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR according to the manufacturer's recommended protocol. To analyze the transcripts of *IRB1/AtEDEMI* in *bri1-5* and *irb1-1 bri1-5* mutant backgrounds or the *AtEDEMI2* transcription in wild-type Col-0 and the *edem2-t* insertional mutants, 0.5 μ l of the first-strand cDNA reaction products was used as a template for PCR amplification with the primer sets shown in **Supplementary Table S1**. The *ACTIN2* transcript was amplified using the *ACTIN2* primer set (**Supplementary Table S1**) as a control. Amplified RT-PCR

products were separated by 1% agarose gel, visualized by ethidium bromide staining, and photographed with a Gel DocTM XR+ Gel Documentation system (Bio-Rad).

Glycan Structure Analysis

Ten grams of 4-week-old soil-grown plants were collected, immediately ground in liquid nitrogen, and then dissolved in the protein extraction buffer [50mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 150mM NaCl, 5mM EDTA, 0.2% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma), 0.2% (v/v) Nonidet P-40 (Roche), 1mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF, Sigma-Aldrich), and a cOmplete[™] protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)]. After 15 min centrifugation at 10,000 \times g to remove insoluble cellular debris, the supernatants were used to immunoprecipitate the GFP-tagged bri1-5ED using anti-GFP monoclonal antibody-conjugated-agarose (D153-8, MBL International Corporation). The immunoprecipitated proteins were further separated by SDS-PAGE. The bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL protein bands in the gel slices were digested by 50 ng of trypsin (Promega) followed by chymotrypsin (Sigma) in 25mM NH₄HCO₃, and the extracted peptides were subsequently analyzed by the data dependent LC-MS/MS on an Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid mass spectrometer (Thermo) coupled with ultraperformance nanoflow LC system (Waters) to identify the glycosylated BRI1 peptides following a previously published procedure (Ma et al., 2016). The identification of N-glycopeptides was achieved through parallel LC-MS/MS analyses of intact glycopeptides by the low-energy collision-induced dissociation (CID) and high-energy collision-induced dissociation (HCD) to determine both peptide sequences and their-associated glycan structures. To accurately validate the structures of N-glycans on bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL, the immunoprecipitated bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL was directly eluted from the beads in the glycine buffer (0.1M glycine HCl pH 3.0), and neutralized in the Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.5). The purified protein samples were subsequently dried, dissolved with 23 μ l 500mM NaH₂PO₄, 12.5 μ l denaturing buffer [containing 1M β -mercaptoethanol and 2% (w/v) SDS]. Following the glycosidase digestion with PNGase F (Prozyme), samples were fluorescence labeled with 2AB and then separated by hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography (HILIC). N-glycans of each single chromatographic fraction were collected, dried, subjected to further digestion by highly-specific α 1,3-(Qlyco, Nanjing, China), α 1,6-(Qlyco, Nanjing, China), and α 1,2/3/6-exomanno-sidases (Prozyme), and separated by ultra-performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) (Liu et al., 2016a).

Sequence and Phylogeny Analysis

Forty-one unique protein sequences were downloaded from NCBI and aligned using a MUSCLE program (Edgar, 2004) at <http://www.phylogeny.fr> (Dereeper et al., 2008). These sequences include IRB1/AtEDEMI/MNS5 (NP_564288); AtEDEMI2/MNS4 (NP_199184); XP_006307064.1 and XP_006282375.1 of *Capsella rubella*; XP_010322255.1 and XP_004236144.1 (*Solanum lycopersicum*); XP_003536208.1 and XP_003549640.1 (*Glycine max*); XP_002311656.2 and XP_024437663.1 (*Populus trichocarpa*); XP_008646239.1 and XP_008654408.1 (*Zea mays*); XP_015622855.1 and XP_015619333.1 (*Oryza sativa*); XP_003573

110.1 and XP_003569932.1 (*Brachypodium distachyon*); KMZ61171 and KMZ61126.1 (*Zostera marina*); XP_020518838.1 and XP_006838875.1 (*Amborella trichopoda*); XP_024536391.1 and XP_002969801.2 (*Selaginella moellendorffii*); XP_024401298.1 (*Physcomitrella patens*); PTQ27873.1 and PTQ31295.1 (*Marchantia polymorpha*); GBG76786.1 (*Chara braunii*); GAQ84904.1 and GAQ88520.1 (*Klebsormidium nitens*); XP_005643868.1 and XP_005647098.1 (*Coccomyxa subellipsoidea* C-169); XP_001420019.1 (*Ostreococcus lucimarinus* CCE9901), XP_003081735.3 (*Ostreococcus tauri*), XP_003059643.1 (*Micromonas pusilla* CCMP1545), XP_002504119.1 (*Micromonas commode*), XP_005845108.1 (a partial polypeptide from *Chlorella variabilis*); PRW45694.1 (*Chlorella sorokiniana*); and XP_007514253.1 (*Bathycoccus Prasinus*). The two spruce EDEM sequences were obtained as translational products of sequenced mRNAs (GCHX01235049 and GCHX01346827) from *Picea glauca*. Yeast Htm1 (NP_012074) and the Arabidopsis At1g51590/MNS1 (OAP12316.1, one of the two Golgi-localized α 1,2-mannosidase; Liebminger et al., 2009), were used as the outgroups to root the phylogeny tree. The aligned sequences were used to construct a phylogeny tree by the PhyML program (Guindon et al., 2010) with the bootstrapping (number of bootstraps: 100) procedure at <http://www.phylogeny.fr>, and the derived consensus tree was visualized with the TreeDyn program.¹ The aligned amino acid sequences were used to obtain the conserved 430-amino-acid-long core domains of glycosylhydrolase family 47 (glyco_hydro_47), which were subsequently used to perform pairwise comparison to obtain their sequence identity and similarity. The glyco_hydro_47 domains of AtEDEM1/2, their homologs of rice, *Selaginella*, *Amborella*, and the liverwort, plus those of the three human EDEMs (EDEM1, NP_055489; EDEM2, NP_001341937; and EDEM3, NP_001306889) were aligned by the MUSCLE program at www.phylogeny.fr and the resulting aligned sequences were visualized by the BoxShade program at http://embnet.vital-it.ch/software/BOX_form.html.

RESULTS

Isolation and Characterization of *irb1* Mutants

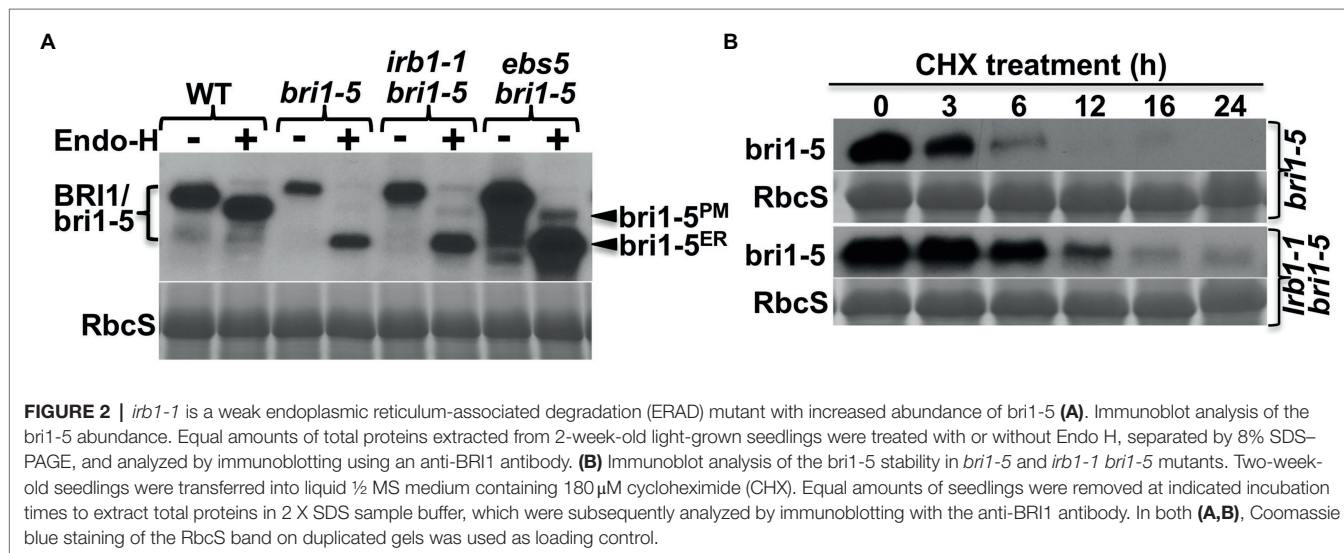
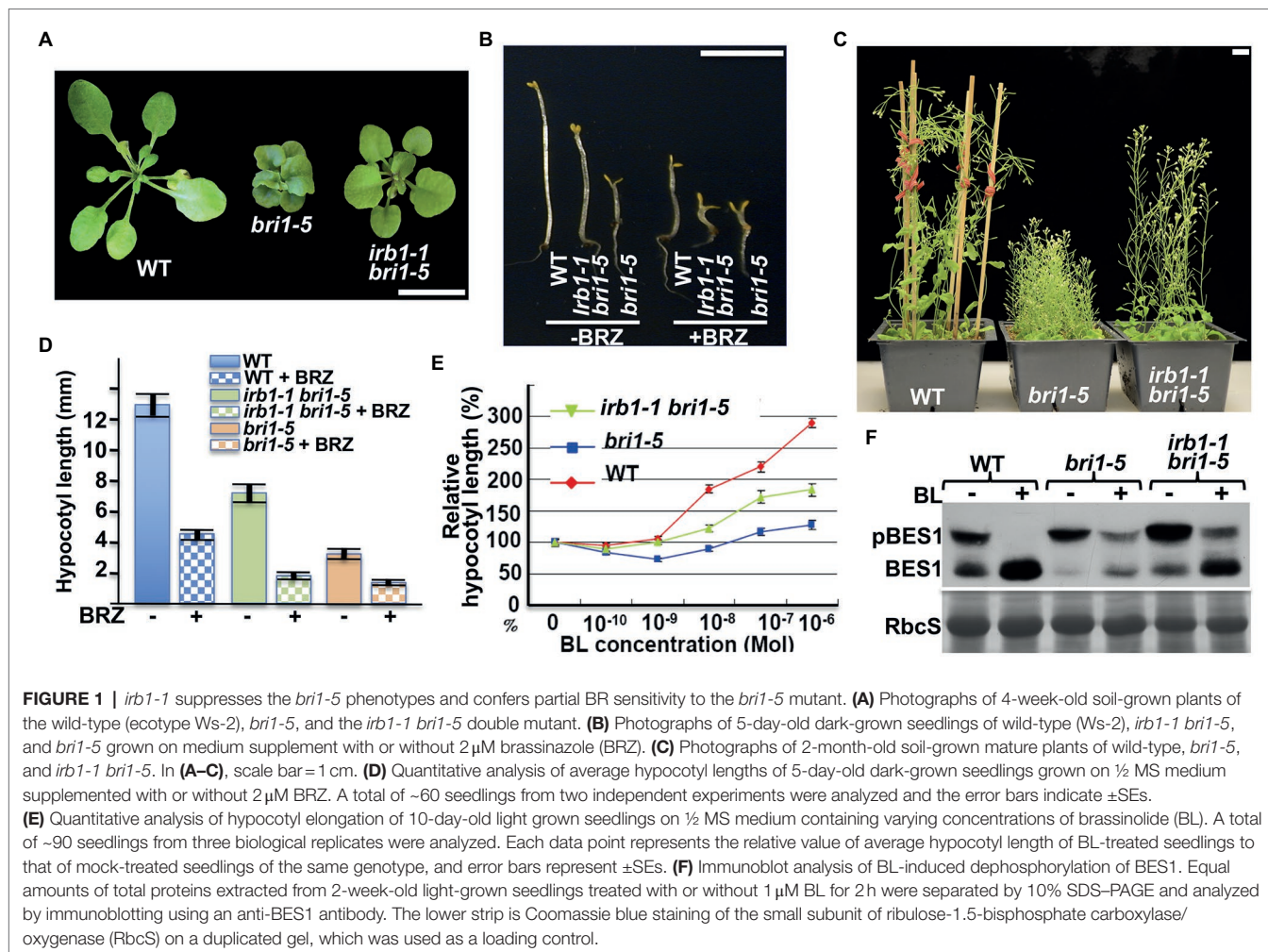
The mutant *bri1-5* receptor, which carries the Cys⁶⁹-Tyr mutation in the extracellular domain of BRI1, is retained in the ER by at least three independent mechanisms and is degraded by a Kif-sensitive ERAD process (Hong et al., 2008). To identify components of its degradation machinery, we performed two large-scale ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS)-mutagenesis projects with the *bri1-5* mutant and isolated >60 *irb* mutants (*reversal of bri1-5*), several of which were found to be allelic to *ews4*, *ews5*, *ews6*, and *ews7* (Hong et al., 2009; Su et al., 2011, 2012; Liu et al., 2015). These screens also identified six allelic *irb1* mutants. As shown in **Figures 1A–C**, the *irb1-1* mutation nicely suppresses the growth defects of *bri1-5*. The *irb1-1 bri1-5* double mutant, compared to the parental *bri1-5* mutant, has a larger rosette with easily recognizable petioles (**Figure 1A**), a longer

hypocotyl when grown in the dark (**Figure 1B**), and taller inflorescence stems at maturity (**Figure 1C**). Interestingly, the difference in etiolated hypocotyl length between *bri1-5* and *irb1-1 bri1-5* disappeared when grown on medium containing brassinazole (BRZ; **Figures 1B,D**), a specific inhibitor of BR biosynthesis (Asami et al., 2000), suggesting that the phenotypic suppression of *bri1-5* by *irb1-1* likely depends on BR perception. Consistent with these phenotypic changes, a BR-induced hypocotyl elongation assay (Neff et al., 1999) showed that *irb1-1* partially restored the BR sensitivity of the BR-insensitive mutant *bri1-5* (**Figure 1E**). An immunoblot assay that examined the BR-induced change in the phosphorylation status of BES1, a robust biochemical marker of BR signaling (Mora-Garcia et al., 2004), further supported increased BR sensitivity of *bri1-5* by *irb1-1* (**Figure 1F**).

The *irb1-1* Mutation Inhibits the Degradation of *bri1-5*

Our previous studies showed that the restored BR sensitivity in suppressor mutants of two ER-retained BR receptors (*bri1-5* and *bri1-9*) are caused by defective ER quality control (ERQC) systems including ERAD (Jin et al., 2007, 2009; Hong et al., 2008, 2009, 2012; Su et al., 2011, 2012; Liu et al., 2015). To determine if the *irb1-1* mutation inhibits ER retention or ERAD of *bri1-5*, we performed an immunoblot assay using an anti-BRI1 antibody (Mora-Garcia et al., 2004) and discovered that the *irb1-1 bri1-5* mutant accumulated more *bri1-5* proteins than the parental *bri1-5* mutant (**Figure 2A**). However, the degree of the *bri1-5* abundance increase was somewhat lower than what was observed in the *ews5 bri1-5* mutant (**Figure 2A**), which is defective in the Arabidopsis homolog of the yeast Hrd3 and mammalian Sel1L that function as a key recruitment factor to bring a committed ERAD client to the ER membrane anchored E3 ligase (Liu et al., 2011; Su et al., 2011). To eliminate the possibility that the increased *bri1-5* abundance in *irb1-1 bri1-5* is caused by increased *bri1-5* biosynthesis, we performed a cycloheximide (CHX)-chase experiment, which revealed increased stability of *bri1-5* in *irb1-1 bri1-5* compared to *bri1-5* (**Figure 2B**). Together, these experiments strongly suggested that *irb1-1* partially inhibits ERAD of *bri1-5*. Based on what were shown in other known Arabidopsis ERAD mutants (Hong et al., 2009, 2012; Su et al., 2011, 2012; Liu et al., 2015), we predicted that increased accumulation of *bri1-5* in *irb1-1 bri1-5* would saturate the *bri1-5*'s ER-retention systems, leading to escape of a small pool of *bri1-5* proteins from the ER to the plasma membrane (PM) where *bri1-5* could partially activate the BR signaling process. Indeed, a simple biochemical assay using endoglycosidase H (Endo H), an endoglycosidase that removes high-mannose (HM)-type N-glycans of ER-retained glycoproteins but not the complex-type (C-type) N-glycans on proteins that travel through the Golgi body (Faye and Chrispeels, 1985), revealed the presence of a very small pool of *bri1-5* proteins carrying the HM-type N-glycan suggestive of ER escape and PM localization (**Figure 2A**). Contrast to what were previously reported of other ERAD mutations, *irb1-1* was not able to suppress the *bri1-9* mutation (**Supplementary Figure 1A**).

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This finding is consistent with the fact that no single *irb1* allele was identified in our previous genetic screens for *bri1-9* suppressors, which led to discoveries of multiple alleles of

EBS1-EBS7 genes (Jin et al., 2007, 2009; Hong et al., 2009, 2012; Su et al., 2011, 2012; Liu et al., 2015). This is likely caused by weak inhibition of *bri1-9* ERAD by the *irb1-1*

mutation (**Supplementary Figure 1B**) combined with a potential weaker receptor function of the surface-localized *bri1-9* compared to the PM-localized *bri1-5*.

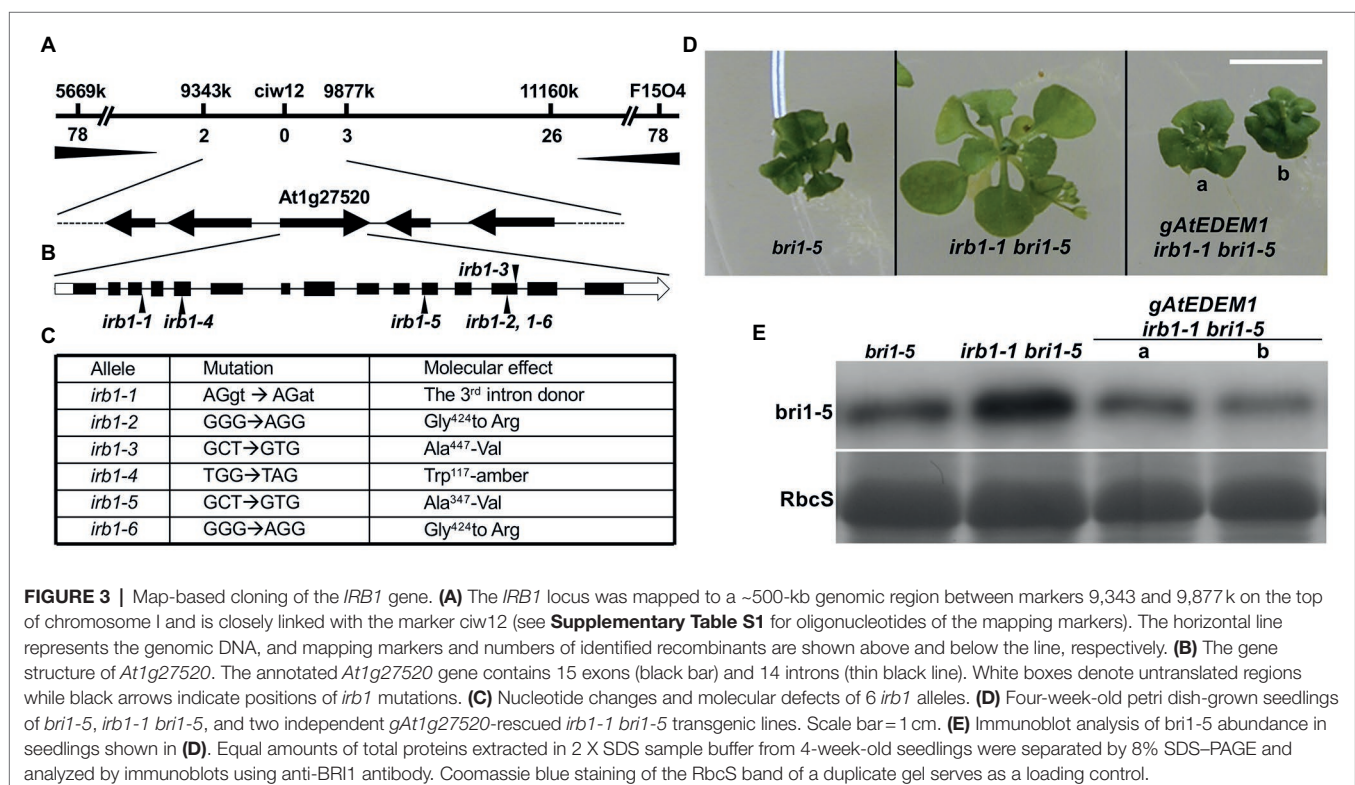
Molecular Cloning of the *IRB1* Gene

To understand how the *irb1-1* mutation inhibits ERAD of *bri1-5*, we cloned the *IRB1* gene using the map-based cloning strategy. The *irb1-1 bri1-5* mutant (in ecotype *Ws-2*) was crossed with a *bri1-9* mutant (in ecotype *Columbia-0* or *Col-0*) and the resulting F1 plants were allowed to self-fertilization to produce several mapping populations. Genomic DNAs of >1,000 *irb1-1 bri1-5*-like F2 seedlings from these mapping populations were used to determine a close linkage of the *IRB1* locus with an SSLP marker *ciw12* (9,621,357–9,621,484, see **Supplementary Table S1** for nucleotide sequences) on chromosome I (**Figure 3A**), which is located close to the Arabidopsis gene *At1g27520* [known previously as *MNS5* (Huttner et al., 2014a), 9,558,752–9,563,751] encoding a potential homolog of Htm1/EDEMs that play a key role in the yeast/mammalian ERAD processes (Clerc et al., 2009; Hosokawa et al., 2010; Huttner et al., 2014b). Consistent with the result of our phenotypic analysis of *irb1-1 bri1-9* double mutant, none of these partially suppressed F2 seedlings was homozygous for the *bri1-9* mutation. Sequence analysis of this gene amplified from *bri1-5* and *irb1-1 bri1-5* identified a G-A mutation in *irb1-1 bri1-5* at the third exon/intron junction (AGgt-AGat; **Figure 3C**), which was predicted to affect the correct splicing of its third intron. RT-PCR analysis of *At1g27520* transcripts with total RNAs isolated from the *irb1-1 bri1-5* and *bri1-5* seedlings identified several aberrantly-spliced *At1g27520*

transcripts in *irb1-1 bri1-5* but failed to detect the presence of the correctly-spliced *At1g27520* transcript that could be easily detected in *bri1-5* (**Supplementary Figure 2**), suggesting that *irb1-1* is likely a null allele of *At1g27520*. The identity of *At1g27520* as *IRB1* was supported by genetic mapping and sequence analysis of five other *irb1* mutants (*irb1-2-irb1-6*; **Supplementary Figure 3**), each carrying a single nucleotide G-A or C-T mutation in *At1g27520*, which changes Gly⁴²⁴ to Arg in *irb1-2* and *irb1-6* (identified in two independent screens), Ala⁴⁴⁷ to Val in *irb1-3*, Trp¹¹⁷ to the amber stop codon TAG in *irb1-4*, and Ala³⁴⁷ to Val in *irb1-5* (**Figure 3C**; **Supplementary Figure 4**). Further support for *At1g27520* being the *IRB1* gene came from a transgenic rescue experiment. As shown in **Figures 3C,D**, introduction of a 5.3-kb *gAt1g27520* genomic transgene into *irb1-1 bri1-5* not only suppressed its growth phenotype but also reduced its *bri1-5* protein abundance.

IRB1 Is a Homolog of the Yeast Htm1/ Mammalian EDEMs and Is Highly Conserved in Land Plants

The *IRB1/At1g27520* gene (renamed hereinafter as *AtEDEM1* due to its conserved protein sequence and biochemical function with the mammalian EDEMs) consists of 15 exons and 14 introns (**Figure 3B**) and encodes a polypeptide of 574 amino acids with a weak signal peptide of 28 amino acids (AAs), which was annotated as one of the two *Arabidopsis* homologs of Htm1/EDEMs recently shown to be functionally redundant in the Arabidopsis ERAD process that degrades both *bri1-5* and *bri1-9* (Hirao et al., 2006; Quan et al., 2008; Clerc et al., 2009;



Hosokawa et al., 2010; Huttner et al., 2014b). IRB1/AtEDEM1 displays 35/54% and 42–47/58–64%, sequence identity and similarity with the yeast Htm1 and three human EDEMs, respectively, within the conserved 430-AA domain of the glycosylhydrolase family 47 (Supplementary Figure 4). The second Arabidopsis Htm1/EDEM homolog, At5g43710 [624 AAs with a longer C-terminal domain, previously known as MNS4 (Huttner et al., 2014b) but was renamed hereinafter as AtEDEM2], exhibits 38/53% and 43–48/61–66% sequence identity and similarity with Htm1 and three human EDEMs, respectively, within its conserved 430-AA domain (Supplementary Figure 4). It should be interesting to note that the sequence identity/similarity between AtEDEM1 and AtEDEM2 are only 47%/61%, which is very similar to the 47/64% and 45/63% sequence identity/similarity between AtEDEM1 and human EDEM1 and between AtEDEM2 and human EDEM2, respectively (Supplementary Figure 4). However, both AtEDEM1 and AtEDEM2 are quite conserved among land plants. AtEDEM1 and AtEDEM2 exhibit 74–98/86–99% and 78–99/87–99% sequence identity/similarity with AtEDEM1 and AtEDEM2 homologs from land plants (Supplementary Figure 5), respectively, including the liverwort *Marchantia Polymorpha* (Bowman et al., 2017), the moss *P. patens* (Rensing et al., 2008), and the spikemoss *Selaginella moellendorffii* (Banks et al., 2011). It is also interesting to note that almost all sequenced land plants contain two EDEM homologs except *Physcomitrella*, which lacks an AtEDEM1 homolog (Supplementary Figure 5) likely due to a gene loss event during its long evolution history.

A direct support for the functional conservation between AtEDEM1 and Htm1/EDEMs came from two reciprocal complementation experiments. A yeast complementation assay showed that the wild-type AtEDEM1 could partially substitute for the yeast Htm1 to stimulate degradation of a yeast model ERAD substrate, an ER-retained mutant variant of the vacuolar carboxypeptidase Y (CPY*) (Ng et al., 2000; Supplementary Figure 6A). Consistently, the *BRI1* promoter-driven expression of the yeast *Htm1* gene could partially suppress the morphological and biochemical phenotype of the *irb1-3 bri1-5* mutant (Supplementary Figure 6B).

The Two Arabidopsis EDEM Homologs Are Localized in the ER

To investigate if the two Arabidopsis EDEM homologs localize in the ER, we generated C-terminal AtEDEM1/AtEDEM2-GFP fusion transgenes driven by the *BRI1* promoter and transiently expressed the resulting *pBRI1::AtEDEM1/AtEDEM2-GFP* transgene in tobacco (*Nicotiana benthamiana*) leaf epidermal cells along with a known transgene encoding a widely-used ER marker red fluorescent protein tagged with a widely-used ER marker RFP-HDEL (HDEL) ER retrieval motif at its C-terminus [RFP-HDEL; Chakrabarty et al., 2007]. Confocal microscopic examination of the fluorescent patterns of agro-infiltrated tobacco leaves revealed that the green fluorescent patterns of the two AtEDEM-GFPs overlapped nicely with that of RFP-HDEL (Supplementary Figure 7A), indicating that both AtEDEM1 and AtEDEM2 are localized in the ER.

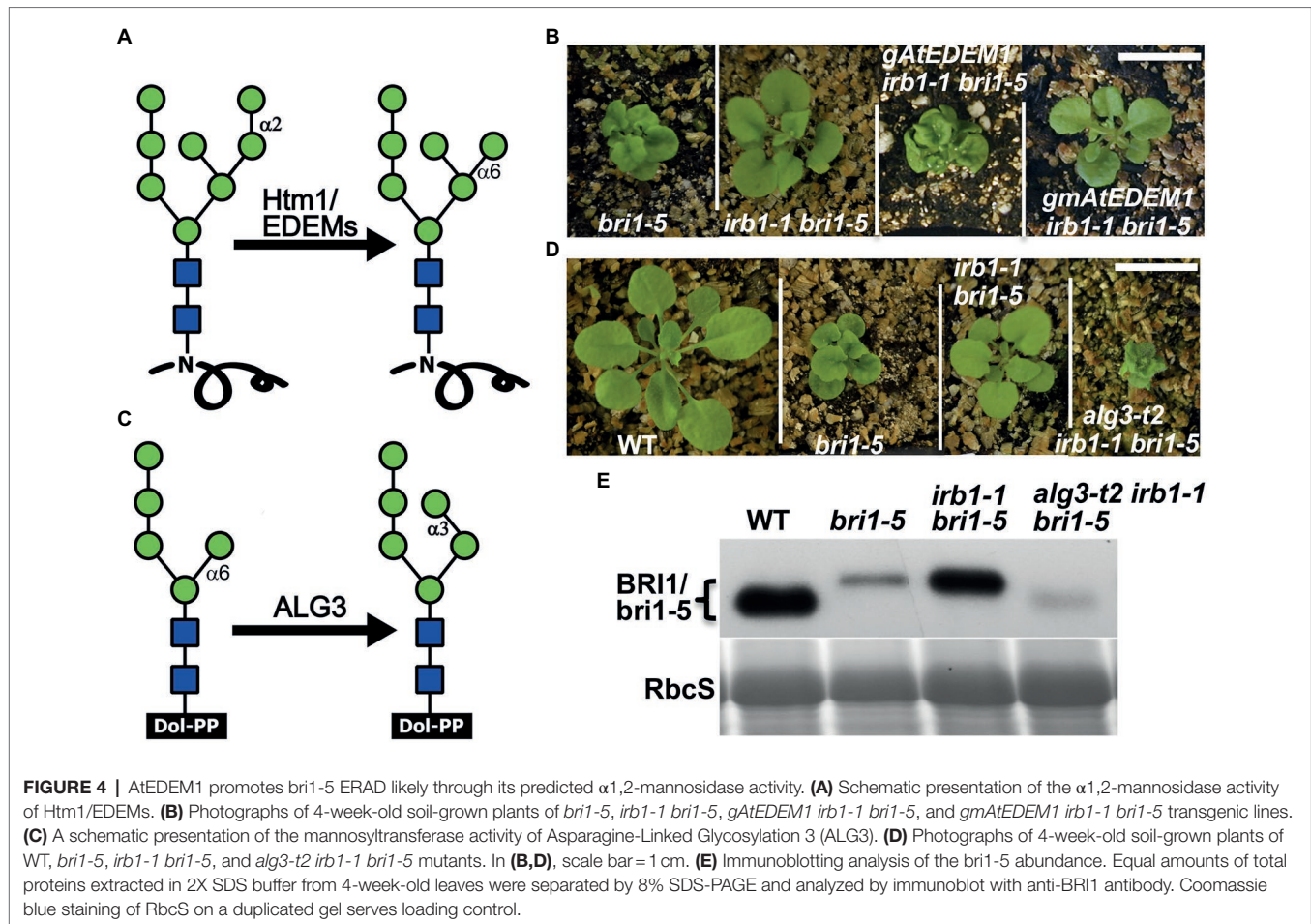
Consistent with our microscopic results, Endo H-analysis of the two transiently-expressed GFP-fusion proteins showed that both AtEDEMs were Endo-H sensitive (Supplementary Figure 7B) and were thus glycosylated with HM-type N-glycans indicative of ER-localization. By contrast, the GFP-tagged At1g30000 (a predicted ER α 1,2-mannosidase I homolog, also known as MNS3; Liebminger et al., 2009) and GFP-tagged At1g51590 (one of the two Golgi-type α 1,2-mannosidases, also known as MNS1; Liebminger et al., 2009) were found to be Endo-H resistant despite being predicted to carry 5 and 3 N-glycosylation sites, respectively (Supplementary Figure 7B). Our results on the cellular localization of At1g30000/MNS3, At1g51590/MNS1, and the two AtEDEMs are consistent with three published studies on the five Arabidopsis α 1,2-mannosidases (Liebminger et al., 2009; Huttner et al., 2014b; Schoberer et al., 2019).

The α 1,2-Mannosidase Activity Is Required for the Biological Function of AtEDEM1

Our previous study demonstrated that ERAD of both *bri1-5* and *bri1-9* requires the conserved α 1,6-Man-exposed N-glycan signal (Hong et al., 2012), which was known to be generated in yeast and mammals by the α 1,2-mannosidase activity of Htm1/EDEMs (Figure 4A; Quan et al., 2008; Clerc et al., 2009; Hosokawa et al., 2010). Interestingly, an earlier study suggested that the mannosidase activity of EDEM1 might not be important to promote ERAD in cultured mammalian cells as several catalytically-dead EDEM1 proteins could enhance degradation of known ERAD substrates (Cormier et al., 2009; Ninagawa et al., 2014). To investigate if AtEDEM1 absolutely requires its predicted α 1,2-mannosidase activity for its role in ERAD or has an α 1,2-mannosidase-independent function in promoting *bri1-5* degradation, we performed a PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis experiment with the *irb1-1*-complementing *gAtEDEM1* genomic construct to mutate Glu¹³⁴ (corresponding to the human EDEM1's Glu²²⁰ known to be essential for its α 1,2 mannosidase activity; Hosokawa et al., 2010) to glutamine (Q), and transformed the resulting mutant transgene into the *irb1-1 bri1-5* double mutant. As shown in Figure 4B, the E¹³⁵-Q-mutated *gmAtEDEM1* (m indicating mutant) transgene failed to complement the *irb1-1* mutation in the *bri1-5* background, indicating that the function of AtEDEM1 in promoting *bri1-5* ERAD absolutely requires its predicted α 1,2-mannosidase activity.

The *alg3* Mutation Could Nullify the Suppressive Effect of the *irb1* Mutation on *bri1-5* Dwarfism

Earlier studies indicated that the other α 1,6-Man residue on N-linked glycans of misfolded proteins (Figure 4C), when being exposed, could also function as an ERAD N-glycan signal that can be recognized and bound by the ERAD receptor Yos9/OS-9/EBS6 (Quan et al., 2008; Clerc et al., 2009; Hong et al., 2012). We reasoned that if the effect of the *irb1* mutations on ERAD of *bri1-5* was indeed caused by a failure or a reduced rate of generation of the conserved ERAD N-glycan signal carrying a free α 1,6-Man residue, the suppressive effects of the *irb1-1* mutation on the *bri1-5* dwarfism and *bri1-5* ERAD would



be eliminated by a loss-of-function mutation of Asparagine-Linked Glycosylation 3 (ALG3), a highly-specific mannosyltransferase that adds an α 1,3-Man residue to the other α 1,6-Man residue (Henquet et al., 2008; Kajiura et al., 2010). Loss-of-function *alg3* mutations result in N-glycosylation of glycoproteins with a truncated $\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2$ glycan carrying a different free α 1,6-Man residue (Figure 4C). Indeed, when crossed into the *irb1-1 bri1-5* double mutant, a T-DNA insertional *alg3* mutation, *alg3-t2* that was previously reported (Hong et al., 2012), nullified the suppressive effect of the *irb1-1* mutation on *bri1-5*. As shown in Figure 4D, the *alg3-t2 irb1-1 bri1-5* triple mutant is a much severe dwarf mutant than the *bri1-5* mutant. Consistent with the enhanced dwarfism phenotype, immunoblot assay showed that the *alg3-t2* mutation not only increased the mobility of the *bri1-5* band (due to smaller N-glycans) but also reduced the *bri1-5* protein level below that of the *bri1-5* single mutant (Figure 4E). We thus concluded that the inhibition of *bri1-5* degradation in the *irb1-1 bri1-5* double mutant is caused by inhibition of generating the α 1,6-Man-exposed N-glycans on the mutant BR receptor.

AtEDEEM1 and AtEDEEM2 Play a Redundant Role in ERAD of *bri1-5*

Our finding that the *irb1-1* mutant is a weak ERAD mutant of *bri1-5* coupled with the fact that the Arabidopsis genome

encodes two potential EDEM homologs (Huttner et al., 2014b) prompted us to test the possibility that AtEDEEM1 functions redundantly with AtEDEEM2 in degrading *bri1-5*. To test our hypothesis, we first transformed a genomic *gAtEDEEM2* transgene into the *irb1-1 bri1-5* mutant and found that while this transgene was able to rescue the *irb1-1* mutation, the percentage of rescued *irb1-1 bri1-5* plants among the resulting *gAtEDEEM2 irb1-1 bri1-5* transgenic lines (a total of 70 lines) was relatively low (~20%; Supplementary Figure 8A) compared to 90% of rescued *gAtEDEEM2 irb1-1 bri1-5* lines (out of 58 lines). This difference in the *irb1-1*-rescuing activity could be caused by the weaker promoter or weaker catalytic activity of AtEDEEM2. To differentiate these two possibilities, we created two additional transgenic constructs *pBRI1::cAtEDEEM1* and *pBRI1::cAtEDEEM2* (c stands for cDNA) using the *BRI1* promoter (*pBRI1*) to drive the expression of AtEDEEM1 or AtEDEEM2, transformed each transgene into the *irb1-1 bri1-5* double mutant, and analyzed the resulting transgenic plants. The transgenic expression of each cDNA construct not only complemented the *irb1-1* mutation but also led to severe dwarfism compared to the parental *bri1-5* mutant, although the percentage of severely dwarfed transgenic lines is higher with the *pBRI1::cAtEDEEM1* transgene than with the *pBRI1::cAtEDEEM2* transgene (Supplementary Figure 8B). Together, these results suggested that the weaker physiological

activity of AtEDEEM2 in *bri1-5* ERAD is likely contributed by its weaker promoter and its weaker biochemical activity.

The functional redundancy between AtEDEEM1 and AtEDEEM2 was further supported by our genetic study. We obtained a T-DNA insertional mutant for AtEDEEM2 (*SALK_095857*, named hereinafter as *edem2-t*) and crossed the mutation into *bri1-5*. RT-PCR analysis showed that the T-DNA insertion resulted in no detectable level of the *AtEDEEM2* transcript (Supplementary Figure 9) while phenotypic examination indicated that the *edem2-t* mutation was not able to suppress the dwarf phenotype of dark or light-grown *bri1-5* mutant or to inhibit the *bri1-5* ERAD (Figures 5A–C), explaining why several independent genetic screens for *bri1-5* suppressors failed to uncover a single *edem2* mutation. However, when the *edem2-t* mutation was crossed into the *irb1-1 bri1-5* double mutant, it enhanced the suppressive effect of the *irb1-1* mutation on *bri1-5*. As shown in Figures 5A,B, the triple *irb1-1 edem2-t bri1-5* mutant has a longer hypocotyl in the dark and is noticeably larger in the light than the *irb1-1 bri1-5* double mutant. Consistent with the morphological phenotypes, the abundance of *bri1-5* in *irb1-1 edem2-t bri1-5* is significantly higher than that of the *irb1-1 bri1-5* double mutant (Figure 5C). A CHX-chase experiment indicated that the increased abundance of *bri1-5* in the *irb1-1 edem2-t bri1-5* triple mutant was caused by near complete inhibition of *bri1-5* degradation rather than by increased protein synthesis (Figures 5D,E). More importantly, the amount of the Endo H-resistant form of *bri1-5*, which was thought to be localized on the PM (Hong et al., 2008), is also higher in the triple mutant than the *irb1-1 bri1-5* mutant (Figure 5C). Taken together, these results demonstrated that AtEDEEM1 and AtEDEEM2 function redundantly in the ERAD process that degrades *bri1-5*, which is consistent with an earlier study on the physiological functions

of AtEDEEM1 and AtEDEEM2 (Huttner et al., 2014b). More importantly, our study revealed that AtEDEEM1 exhibits a stronger physiological activity in promoting *bri1-5* degradation due to its stronger promoter and a stronger biochemical activity.

Simultaneous Elimination of AtEDEEM1 and AtEDEEM2 Results in Inhibition of the C-Branch Terminal α 1,2-Man-Residue Trimming

To directly examine the impact of simultaneous elimination of the two EDEM homologs on the α 1,2-Man residue-trimming activity on misfolded glycoproteins, we intended to analyze the N-glycans on *bri1-5* in Arabidopsis mutants. Due to the failure of the anti-BRI1 antibody to immunoprecipitate the endogenous BRI1/*bri1-5* protein, we generated a *pBRI1::bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL* transgene, consisting of the 1.5-kb *BRI1* promoter, the coding sequences of the entire extracellular domain (ED) of *bri1-5* and green fluorescent protein tagged with the HDEL ER-retrieval motif (Supplementary Figure 10A), transformed it into the wild-type, an *irb1-1 edem2-t* double mutant, and an *eps5-1* mutant. The last mutant is defective in a key client-recruitment factor that recognizes and brings an ERAD substrate to the ER membrane anchored E3 ligase (Su et al., 2011) and was used to stabilize the *bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL* fusion protein for easy detection of exposed α 1,6-Man residue. An Endo H-immunoblot assay with the total proteins of the resulting *pBRI1::bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL* (in the wild-type background) transgenic lines showed that the engineered *bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL* was indeed retained in the ER (Supplementary Figure 10B). As expected, a Kif treatment experiment revealed that *bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL* was degraded *via* a glycan-dependent

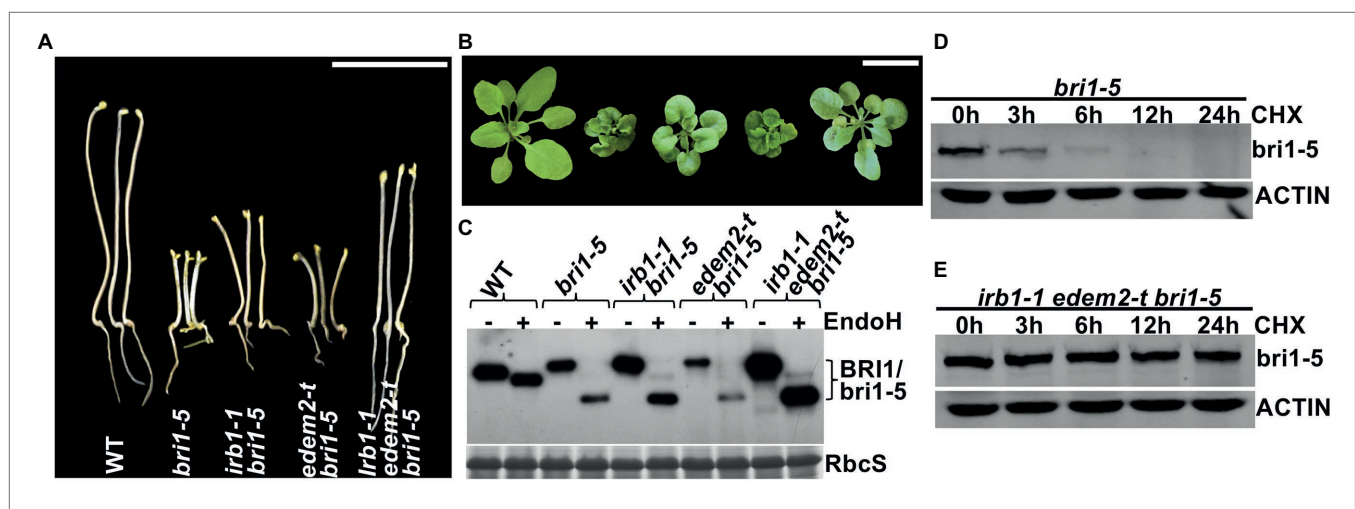


FIGURE 5 | AtEDEEM1 and AtEDEEM2 function redundantly in promoting *bri1-5* ERAD. **(A)** Pictures of 5-day-old dark-grown seedlings of WT, *bri1-5*, *irb1-1 bri1-5*, *edem2-t bri1-5*, and *irb1-1 edem2-t bri1-5*. **(B)** Photographs of 6-week-old soil-grown seedlings. In **(A,B)**, scale bar = 1 cm. **(C)** Immunoblot analysis of the *bri1-5* abundance. Equal amounts of total proteins extracted from 2-week-old light-grown seedlings were treated with or without Endo H, separated by 8% SDS-PAGE, and analyzed by immunoblotting using an anti-BRI1 antibody. The lower strip is Coomassie blue-stained RbcS bands of a duplicated gel as a loading control. **(D–E)** Immunoblotting analysis of the *bri1-5* stability in *bri1-5* and *irb1-1 edem2-t bri1-5* mutant seedlings. Two-week-old seedlings were carefully transferred into liquid $\frac{1}{2}$ MS medium containing 180 μ M CHX for continued growth. Equal amounts of seedlings were taken out at different time points and were immediately used to extract total proteins with 2 X SDS sample buffer. The proteins were subsequently separated by 8% SDS-PAGE and analyzed by western blot with anti-BRI1 antibody. The same filters were also probed with anti-ACTIN antibody to control for equal sample loading.

manner (**Supplementary Figure 10C**), indicating that bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL could be used as a reporter to analyze the impact of the double mutation of AtEDEM1 and AtEDEM2 on the α 1,2-Man-trimming reactions of an ERAD client in Arabidopsis.

A representative transgenic line in each mutant background was used to immunoprecipitate bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL, which was subsequently analyzed by high-resolution liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) to determine the N-glycan structures of the ER retained fusion protein. As shown in **Figures 6A,B**, two major N-glycans, Hex₇GlcNAc₂ (i.e., Man7; Hex refers hexose) and Hex₈GlcNAc₂ (i.e., GlcMan7; Glc refers glucose) were detected at the glycosylation site at residue Asn¹¹² position of the chymotrypsin-digested bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL peptide LNSHIN¹¹²GSVSGF in the *ews5* mutant. In contrast, a different N-glycan profile was observed in the mass spectrum of the protein digest in the *irb1-1 edem2-t* double mutant, in which the two glycopeptide ions were identified to contain N-glycans of Hex₈GlcNAc₂ (i.e., Man8) and Hex₉GlcNAc₂ (i.e., GluMan8). Similar N-glycan distributions were also observed at other glycosylation sites, for example, the two distinct N-glycans were presented at residue Asn⁶³⁶ of peptide NPCN⁶³⁶TISR of the trypsin digest of the immunoprecipitated bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL (**Supplementary Figure 11**). The observation of the difference of one Man residue in the N-glycan structures at residues Asn¹¹² and Asn⁶³⁶ of bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL between *ews5* and the *irb1-1 edem2-t* double mutant is consistent with the functional conservation between AtEDEM1 and Htm1, strongly suggesting that the *irb1-1 edem2-t* double mutations likely inhibit the Man-trimming activity essential for ERAD of bri1-5.

To validate the exact position of the AtEDEM1/AtEDEM2-trimmed α 1,2-Man residue in the N-glycan structures, the immunoprecipitated bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL fusion protein was treated with PNGase F, an amidase that cleaves the covalent bond between the innermost GlcNAc residue and the glycosylated Asn residue (Tarentino et al., 1985). The released N-glycans were fluorescently labeled with 2AB and subsequently separated by HILIC. Individual N-glycan fractions were collected, digested with specific α 1,3-, α 1,6-, or α 1,2/3/6-exomannosidases, and analyzed by UPLC. **Figure 6C; Supplementary Figure 12** show that Hex₇GlcNAc₂ and Hex₈GlcNAc₂ glycans accumulated in *ews5* were sensitive to both α 1,3- and α 1,6-mannosidases, indicating that Hex₇GlcNAc₂ is Man₇GlcNAc₂ with free α 1,3-Man and α 1,6-Man residues (**Figure 6A**). The same cleavage response of Hex₈GlcNAc₂ to both α -mannosidases (**Supplementary Figure 12**) indicated that this is a monoglucosylated GlcMan₇GlcNAc₂ glycan, which is consistent with our earlier conclusion that bri1-5 is retained in the ER by several independent retention mechanisms that include the UGGT-CRT/CNX system (Hong et al., 2008). Our α -mannosidase analysis of the PNGase F-cleaved N-glycans of the immunoprecipitated bri1-5ED-GFP-HDEL of the *irb1-1 edem2-t bri1-5* triple mutant showed that the Hex₈GlcNAc₂ glycan was sensitive only to the α 1,3-exomannosidase but could not be cleaved by the α 1,6-exomannosidase (**Figure 6C**),

indicating the presence of a terminal α 1,2-Man residue that protects the α 1,6-Man residue from its cleavage by the α 1,6-exomannosidase. Taken together, these biochemical analyses confirmed that the *irb1 edem2-t* double mutation blocks the removal of the C-branch α 1,2-Man residue.

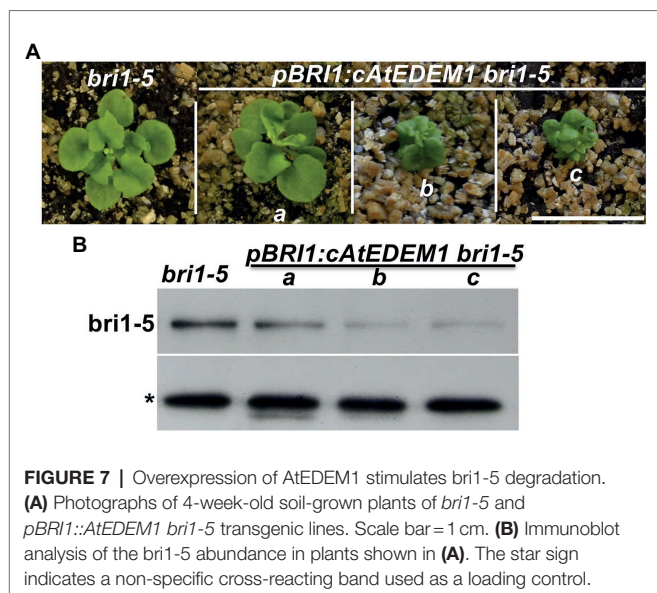
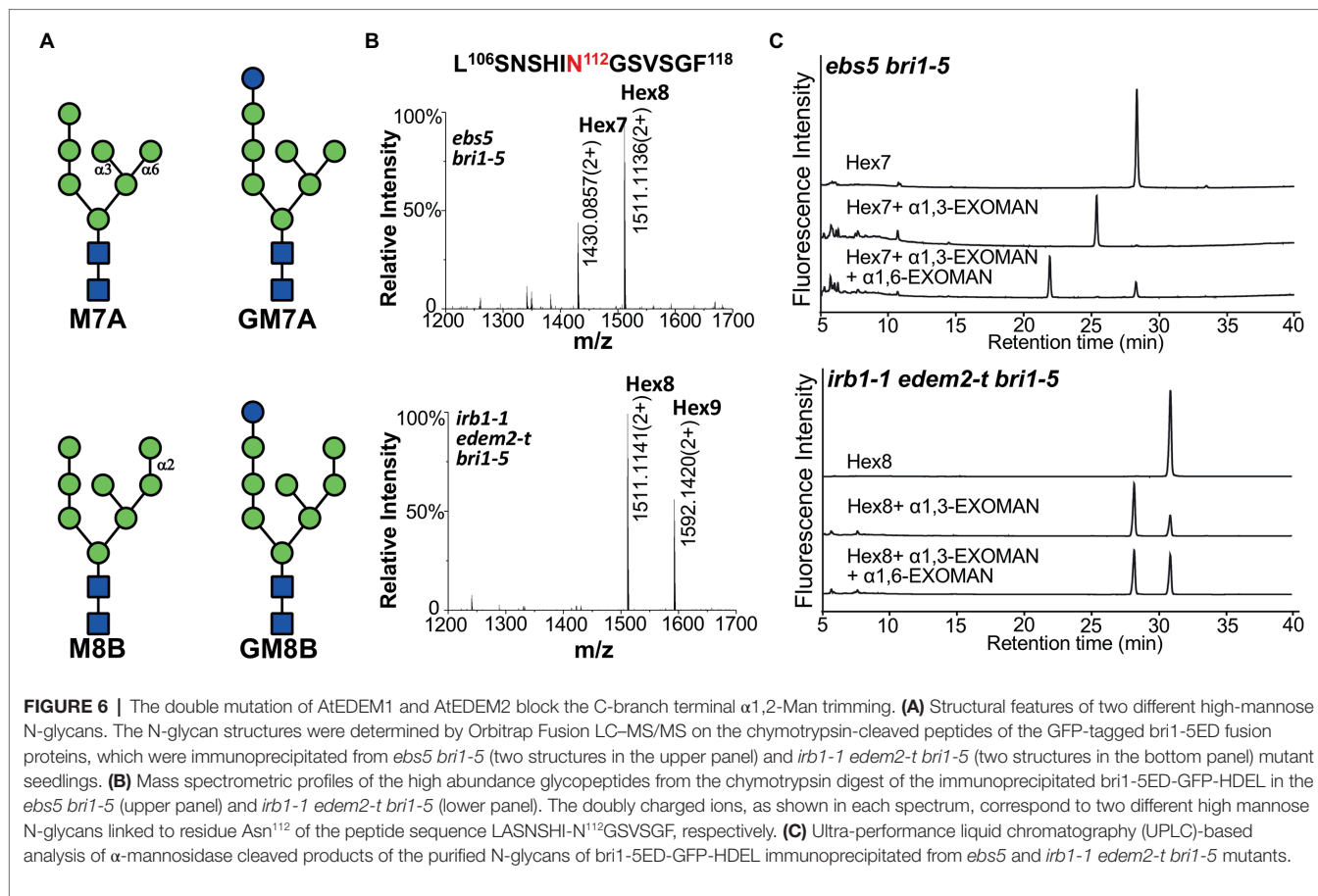
The Arabidopsis EDEMs Catalyze a Rate-Limiting Step of a Plant ERAD Pathway

While performing the transgenic rescue experiments, we noticed that some of the *gAtEDEM1* transgenic lines exhibited stronger dwarfism than the parental *bri1-5* strain (**Figure 3C**). Similar stronger dwarf phenotypes were not observed in our previous experiments that overexpressed *EBS5* or *EBS6* in the *bri1-5* mutant, whose protein products work together to bring a committed ERAD client to the membrane-anchored Hrd1 E3 ligase complex (Su et al., 2011, 2012), suggesting that recognition and recruitment of a marked bri1-5 to the ERAD machinery is not the rate-limiting step. By contrast, similar severe dwarfism phenotypes were observed in the *alg3 ebs3 bri1-9* or *alg3 irb1-1 bri1-5* triple mutant containing mutant BR receptors glycosylated with α 1,6-Man-exposing N-glycans that mark a misfolded protein for ERAD (Hong et al., 2012; **Figure 4D**), indicating that generating the ERAD N-glycan signal is a major rate-limiting step of the Arabidopsis ERAD pathway. Consistent with the severe dwarfism phenotype, an immunoblot analysis showed that the abundance of bri1-5 in those severely-dwarfed *gAtEDEM1 irb1-1 bri1-5* transgenic lines or *alg3 irb1-1 bri1-5* triple mutant was much lower than that of the parental *bri1-5* mutant (**Figures 3D, 4D**). Severely dwarfed transgenic *irb1-1 bri1-5* mutants were also observed when the *BRI1* promoter was used to drive overexpression of the cDNA transgene of *AtEDEM1* or *AtEDEM2* in the *irb1-1 bri1-5* mutant (**Supplementary Figures 6B,C**). When transformed into the single *bri1-5* mutant, the *pBRI1::AtEDEM1* transgene also caused severe dwarfism in the resulting *pBRI1::AtEDEM1 bri1-5* transgenic lines and immunoblot analysis showed that the severely-dwarfed transgenic lines accumulated less bri1-5 than the parental *bri1-5* mutant (**Figures 7A,B**). Taken together, our data strongly suggested that the AtEDEM1/AtEDEM2-mediated cleavage of the C-branch terminal α 1,2-Man residue is a major rate-limiting step in the Arabidopsis ERAD pathway that degrades ER-retained mutant bri1-5 receptor.

DISCUSSION

A Predominant Role of AtEDEM1 in the ERAD Pathway That Degrades bri1-5

While an earlier study using the reverse genetic approach showed that neither *edem1/mns5* nor *edem2/mns4* but an *mns4 mns5* double mutation had any visible impact on the dwarf phenotypes of *bri1-5* and *bri1-9* and concluded that the two Arabidopsis Htm1/EDEM homologs function redundantly in promoting degradation of bri1-5 and bri1-9



(Huttner et al., 2014b), our forward genetic study revealed that six EMS-introduced single nucleotide changes in AtEDEM1 partially suppress the *bri1-5* dwarfism by weakly inhibiting *bri1-5* degradation. Interestingly, the null *irb1-1* mutation (due to defective splicing-caused early translational

termination) failed to suppress the *bri1-9* mutation, which is likely attributed to its weak inhibition of the ERAD pathway that degrades *bri1-5* and *bri1-9* and a potentially weaker receptor function of the PM-localized *bri1-9* compared to *bri1-5*. Consistent with the earlier study (Huttner et al., 2014b), a loss-of-function *edem2-t* mutation had no effect on *bri1-5* degradation and no single EMS-introduced *edem2* mutation has so far been uncovered in several forward genetic screens for extragenic suppressors of *bri1-5* and *bri1-9* mutants, which discovered multiple alleles of *EBS1-EBS7* genes, revealing potential difference between the two Arabidopsis EDEM homologs in stimulating ERAD of *bri1-5* and *bri1-9*. Consistently, while a genomic *gAtEDEM1* transgene could achieve >90% phenotypic complementation out of 83 *gAtEDEM1 irb1-1 bri1-5* transgenic mutants, a similar genomic *gAtEDEM2* transgene only led to ~20% of the *gAtEDEM2 irb1-1 bri1-5* transgenic lines being phenotypically similar to or severer than *bri1-5*. Importantly, when driven by the same *pBRI1* promoter, AtEDEM1 produced higher percentage of severely dwarfed transgenic mutant than AtEDEM2 in the *irb1-1 bri1-5* mutant. As expected, a T-DNA insertional mutation in AtEDEM2 (*edem2-t*) mutation significantly enhances the suppressive effect of *irb1-1* on the *bri1-5* dwarfism as simultaneous elimination of the two AtEDEMs completely blocks the ERAD of *bri1-5*, leading to markedly increased

amount of ER-escaping *bri1-5* carrying the C-type N-glycans. Thus, our study demonstrated that despite functional redundancy of AtEDEM1/MNS5 and AtEDEM2/MNS4, the former α 1,2-mannosidase plays a predominant role in an ERAD process that degrades *bri1-5*. Our conclusion is supported by a recent study revealing a non-redundant role of AtEDEM1/MNS5 in the Arabidopsis ERAD pathway (Sun et al., 2022).

Our study provided further genetic and biochemical support for the key role of the two AtEDEMs in generating the conserved N-glycan signal to mark ERAD substrates. First, both AtEDEMs exhibit significant sequence identity/similarity with Htm1/EDEMs, and AtEDEM1 and Htm1 complemented each other's loss-of-function mutation (**Supplementary Figure 6**). Second, a catalytically-dead mutant of AtEDEM1 failed to rescue the *irb1-1* mutation while the wild-type copy of the transgene fully complemented the *irb1-1* mutation, implying that the predicted α 1,2-mannosidase activity is essential for its physiological function in degrading the mutant *bri1-5* receptor. Third, a T-DNA insertional *alg3-t* mutation, which causes N-glycosylation with truncated Man₅GlcNAc₂ glycans carrying a different free α 1,6-Man residue, could nullify the suppressive effect of the *irb1-1* mutation on the *bri1-5* dwarfism and its inhibitory effect on the ERAD of *bri1-5*, implying that the *irb1-1* mutant was compromised in the activity to generate α 1,6-Man-exposed N-glycans on misfolded glycoproteins. Finally, N-glycan analysis of GFP-tagged *bri1-5ED* proteins purified from *bri1-5* and *irb1-1 edem2 bri1-5* mutant provided a direct *in vivo* evidence for the two AtEDEMs being the ER-localized C-branch-specific α 1,2-mannosidases. However, it remains a possibility that AtEDEMs might function as the necessary cofactors for the suspected C-branch α 1,2-mannosidases. Therefore, *in vitro* enzyme assays using heterologously-expressed AtEDEMs will be needed to definitively prove that AtEDEM1 and AtEDEM2 are indeed active α 1,2-mannosidases that catalyze the C-branch α 1,2-Man trimming reaction of the ER-retained misfolded glycoproteins.

In addition, our investigation revealed that the generation of the conserved N-glycan signal constitute a rate-limiting step in the Arabidopsis ERAD process that degrades *bri1-5*. Our earlier studies showed that overexpression of EBS5 or EBS6, which work together to recruit a committed ERAD client to the ER membrane-anchored Hrd1 E3 ligase, failed to enhance the dwarfism of *bri1-5* and/or *bri1-9* and to stimulate degradation of the corresponding mutant BR receptors (Su et al., 2011, 2012). In this study, we showed that overexpression of AtEDEM1 or AtEDEM2 could enhance the *bri1-5* dwarf phenotype and stimulate *bri1-5* degradation, which is consistent with the morphological and biochemical phenotypes of *alg3 irb1-1 bri1-5* or *alg3 ebs3 bri1-5/bri1-9* mutants that have their ER-localized glycoproteins to be decorated with N-glycans carrying another exposed α 1,6-Man residue (Hong et al., 2012). Our revelation is also consistent with studies in yeast and mammalian systems, which suggested that the α 1,2-Man-trimming reaction (that drives a misfolded glycoprotein into the ERAD pathway) is a slow process to favor refolding over removal.

The Two Arabidopsis EDEMs Evolved Independently in the Green Lineage and May Participate in Different Physiological Processes

Although the two AtEDEMs exhibit relatively low sequence homology (50% identity/64% similarity) with each other, each AtEDEM displays 71–99% identity/81–99% similarity with their respective orthologs from other land plant species, suggesting a very ancient gene duplication event that generated the two EDEM paralogs in the green lineage. It is interesting to note that at least three detected *irb1* mutations, *irb1-2/irb1-6* changing Gly⁴²⁴ to Arg and *irb1-5* mutating Ala³⁴⁷ to Val, alter amino acids that are only conserved in EDEM1 as Gly⁴²⁴ is replaced by Cys and Ala³⁴⁷ is replaced by Pro in EDEM2s (**Supplementary Figure 4**). BLAST searches against existing databases indicated that the genome of the earliest land plant *M. polymorpha* (Bowman et al., 2017) encodes homologs of both AtEDEMs whereas the *Physcomitrella* genome only encodes an AtEDEM2 homolog (Rensing et al., 2008). Similarly, the sequenced genomes of two charophyte green algae whose ancestor was thought to give rise to land plants showed that while *Klebsormidium flaccidum* has homologs of both AtEDEMs (Hori et al., 2014), *Chara braunii*, which is more closely-related to land plants, has only an AtEDEM2 homolog (Nishiyama et al., 2018; **Supplementary Figure 5**). We suspect that the *AtEDEM1* homologous gene might be lost in the genomes of the moss and the *Charophyceae* alga during their 400–500 million year-evolution history. It is interesting to note that a dozen of recently-sequenced *Chlorophyte* algae genomes encode no, one, or two homologs of the AtEDEMs (**Supplementary Figure 5**). For example, *M. pusilla* RCC299, *M. pusilla* CCMP1545, and *Bathycoccus parasinos* (all in the Prasinophytes family) contain a potential AtEDEM1 homolog while the genomes of *Ostreococcus lucimarinus* CCE9901, *Ostreococcus tauri*, and *Chlorella variabilis* encode a potential AtEDEM2 homolog. Interestingly, the three fully-sequenced *Chlorophyte* green algae, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, *Dunaliella salina* CCAP19/18 and *Volvox carteri*, lack any AtEDEM homolog, but *Coccomyxa subellipsoidea* C-169 (known previously as *Chlorella vulgaris* and a close relative of *Chlorella variabilis* NC64A), which belongs to the class *Trebouxiophyceae*, contains homologs of both AtEDEMs (**Supplementary Figure 5**). These analyses strongly suggest that the gene duplication event that created the two EDEMs in the green lineage occurred before the splitting of Streptophytes (consisting of the land plants and their closely-related green algae such as *K. flaccidum* and *C. braunii*) and Chlorophytes (containing most of the remaining green algae). Further phylogenetic studies are needed to know if the EDEM1/2 gene duplication predated the animal-plant split.

Both plant EDEMs are highly conserved throughout the long evolution of the green lineage, implying that each EDEM plays distinct evolutionarily-conserved physiological functions despite shared biochemical activity. As discussed above, our transgenic experiments with *gAtEDEM1/2* genomic and *pBRI1::AtEDEM1/2* cDNA transgenes revealed that the two Arabidopsis EDEMs exhibited a clear difference in rescuing

the null *irb1-1* mutation, which is likely due to different promoter activities and potential difference in biochemical activities of the two AtEDEMs. Gene expression analysis of the two AtEDEMs using the Arabidopsis eFP browser 2.0 (http://bar.utoronto.ca/efp2/Arabidopsis/Arabidopsis_eFPBrowser2.html; Winter et al., 2007) not only revealed a largely-overlapping expression pattern but also detected tissues where *IRB1/AtEDEMI* or *AtEDEMI2* is expressed higher than the other (**Supplementary Figure 13**), suggesting their involvement in different developmental and physiological processes. Analysis of gene co-expression profiles using ATTED-II (Obayashi et al., 2009) seems to support our hypothesis. As shown in **Supplementary Figure 14**, it is *AtEDEMI2* but not *AtEDEMI1* that is co-expressed with known and/or predicted ER chaperones/folding catalysts. A similar finding was previously reported for three Arabidopsis CRTs (Jin et al., 2009). While the two highly conserved Arabidopsis CRTs, CRT1, and CRT2, were known to be co-expressed with ER chaperones/folding enzymes, the plant-specific CRT3, which was responsible for retaining *bri1-9* in the ER, was shown to be coexpressed with genes implicated in plant stress tolerance (Jin et al., 2009). Detailed phenotypic analysis with the *irb1*, *edem2-t*, and *irb1 edem2-t* mutants or transgenic lines that overexpress *AtEDEMI1* or *AtEDEMI2* could be used to investigate if the two AtEDEMs have overlapping yet distinctive biological functions during plant growth and development or plant stress tolerance.

Is EDEM a Folding Sensor of the ERAD Pathway?

One of the remaining mysteries of the ERAD process is how the system determines if a nonnative glycoprotein is a folding intermediate, a repairable or irreparable misfolded protein and should thus be allowed to continue its folding/refolding process or be condemned into the ERAD process. It was previously suggested that the yeast MNS1, the ER-localized α 1,2-mannosidase that specifically cleaves the terminal α 1,2-Man residue from the middle branch of N-linked $\text{Man}_9\text{GlcNAc}_2$ glycan, serves as a timer, due to its slow enzymatic kinetics, to create a discrete time window for a given glycoprotein to attain its native conformation before being marked for degradation by ERAD (Su et al., 1993; Helenius et al., 1997). Although recent studies have convincingly shown that it is Htm1 and EDEMs that generate the conserved N-glycan ERAD signal, the MNS1/ERManI-mediated middle branch α 1,2-Man trimming remains a key event for ERAD because Htm1/EDEMs act only on B-branch trimmed $\text{Man}_8\text{GlcNAc}_2$ but not untrimmed $\text{Man}_9\text{GlcNAc}_2$ for removing the C-branch terminal α 1,2-Man residue (Quan et al., 2008; Clerc et al., 2009). Thus, MNS1/ERManI could still be functionally involved in differentiating a terminally-misfolded glycoprotein from repairable misfolded protein or a folding intermediate, especially when considering a recent *in vitro* assay showing that the human ERManI preferentially removes α 1,2-Man residues from unfolded/misfolded glycoproteins (Aikawa et al., 2012, 2014). However, recent

studies demonstrated that both animal and plant homologs of the yeast MNS1 are not localized in the ER but were instead found mainly in the Golgi body or the ER-Golgi intermediate compartment, making ERManI less likely to be the folding sensor of the ERAD pathway (Huttner et al., 2014b; Benyair et al., 2015; Schoberer et al., 2019). More importantly, a recent study showed that a T-DNA insertion of the Arabidopsis homolog of MNS1/ERManI fails to suppress the dwarf phenotype of *bri1-9* and *bri1-5*, suggesting that the generation of a conserved N-glycan ERAD in plants might not require the B-branch α 1,2-Man-trimming step (Huttner et al., 2014b). It is worthy to mention that a recent yeast study did uncover a Htm1-dependent but MNS1-independent ERAD pathway (Hosomi et al., 2010).

Given their crucial roles in generating the necessary ERAD N-glycan signal and their ER location, Htm1/EDEMs could be directly involved in differentiating terminally misfolded glycoproteins from repairable misfolded glycoproteins or folding intermediates (Shenkman et al., 2018). EDEMs were previously shown to function as molecular chaperones that can bind non-/misfolded proteins but not their native conformers (Hosokawa et al., 2006). However, this chaperone function alone will not qualify Htm1/EDEMs as the folding sensor capable of differentiating a terminally-misfolded protein from repairable misfolded proteins or folding intermediates because all these proteins have hydrophobic residue-exposing surfaces that would interact with a molecular chaperone. EDEMs might need a partner to function as an ERAD folding sensor. Indeed, several recent studies suggested that a protein disulfide isomerase (PDI) might be such a factor that works together with EDEMs to preferentially act on terminally-misfolded glycoproteins that are trapped into a non-native folding state (Gauss et al., 2011; Pfeiffer et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016b). Similarly, three recent studies have shown that binding of ERdj5, ERp56, or TXNDC11 (thioredoxin domain containing 11), three members of the mammalian PDI family (Kozlov et al., 2010), was required to stimulate the redox-sensitive α 1,2-Man-trimming activity of EDEM1 and EDEM3 (Timms et al., 2016; Lamriben et al., 2018; Shenkman et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018). Direct testing *AtEDEMI2*-PDI interaction or identifying *AtEDEMI*-binding proteins could lead to a better understanding on how the two *AtEDEMs* select their substrates to initiate an Arabidopsis ERAD process.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/**Supplementary Material**; further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding authors.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JL conceived the research plans. JL and LinL supervised the project, suggested experiments, and wrote the article

with supports from JM, JV, Y-MS, XP, and ZH. YX initiated, JZ continued, and DW completed the project with technical supports from YC, CZ, and MW. YD performed the exomannosidase digestion experiments with supervision from LiL and JV. Y-MS carried out the mass spectrometry assays. JZ, DW, YX, YD, JV, LinL, and JL analyzed the data and prepared figures. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

FUNDING

This study was supported partly by grants from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC31730019 to JL and NSFC31600996 to LinL), a grant from the National Science Foundation (IOS1121496 to JL), and a grant from the Chinese Academy of Sciences (2012CSP004 to JL).

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to the proteomic core facility at the Center of Excellence for Molecular Plant Sciences, Chinese Academy of Science to perform the N-glycan analysis, the MCDB departmental shared imaging lab of University of Michigan for technical help, and the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center at Ohio State University for supplying cDNA/BAC genomic clones and Arabidopsis T-DNA insertional mutants (*SALK_095857* and *SALK_046061*), Amy Chang for the yeast Δ *htm1* mutant strain, Markus Aebi for the *YEp352-yALG9* plasmid, and Tzvi Tzfira for the *pSITE03-RFP-HDEL* plasmid.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpls.2022.952246/full#supplementary-material>

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