

SnRK1 activation, signaling, and networking for energy homeostasis

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Abstract

The SnRK1 kinases are key regulators of the plant energy balance, but how their activity is regulated by metabolic status is still unclear. While the heterotrimeric kinase complex is well conserved between plants, fungi and animals, plants appear to have modified its regulation to better fit their unique physiology and lifestyle. The SnRK1 kinases control metabolism, growth and development, and stress tolerance by direct phosphorylation of metabolic enzymes and regulatory proteins and by extensive transcriptional regulation. Diverse types of transcription factors have already been implicated, with a well-studied role for the heterodimerizing group C and group S1 bZIPs. SnRK1 is also part of a more elaborate metabolic and stress signaling network, which includes the TOR kinase and the ABA-signaling SnRK2 kinases.

Introduction

Maintenance of cellular and organismal energy homeostasis is obviously vital to all living beings, but particularly challenging for autotrophic and sessile organisms. Plants are typically exposed to combinations of biotic and abiotic stress conditions, which directly or indirectly affect photosynthesis, respiration, or carbon allocation. Upon activation by such energy-depleting stress conditions, SnRK1 (SNF1-related kinase1), similar to its opisthokont orthologs Sucrose Non-fermenting1 (SNF1) in yeast and AMP-activated kinase (AMPK) in animals, downregulates energy-consuming anabolic processes, while inducing catabolic reactions, thereby ensuring that resources are optimally used and redirected in support of stress tolerance and survival [1,2]. Plants also need to deal with diurnal fluctuations, coordinate source and sink activities, and undergo different developmental transitions that are associated with important changes in metabolic activities and requirements. Consistently, SnRK1 also controls many different aspects of plant development, from embryogenesis and germination to flowering and senescence [3,4]. Still, many questions remain about how SnRK1 controls and

coordinates such diverse processes, and how exactly its activity is regulated in response to metabolic status. Here, we highlight some of the latest insight in both the upstream regulatory and downstream signaling mechanisms and discuss how SnRK1 functions in a more intricate network with Target of Rapamycin (TOR) and abscisic acid (ABA) signaling.

SnRK1 regulation: (a) pretty complex

The eukaryotic AMPK/SNF1/SnRK1 protein kinases operate as heterotrimeric complexes with a catalytic α subunit and regulatory β and γ subunits (Figure 1) [1,5-8]. The catalytic α subunits (SnRK1 α 1/KIN10 and SnRK1 α 2/KIN11 in *Arabidopsis*) consist of an N-terminal Ser/Thr kinase domain linked to a C-terminal regulatory domain, which interacts with the regulatory subunits. Phosphorylation of a conserved threonine (T) residue in the catalytic domain 'T-loop' is a prerequisite for kinase activity. The β subunits (SnRK1 β) typically contain a variable N-terminal domain, which is myristoylated, a central carbohydrate-binding module (CBM), and a C-terminal domain for binding of the α and γ subunit. The β subunits thereby act as the complex scaffold, but in addition control kinase activity, localization, and substrate specificity. The γ subunits, finally, typically comprise four highly conserved cystathionine- β synthase (CBS) motifs that can bind adenine nucleotides and hence function as the cellular energy-sensing module of the complex. Green plants, however, use a unique hybrid $\beta\gamma$ subunit (SnRK1 $\beta\gamma$) with an additional N-terminal CBM as their canonical γ subunit (Figure 1), and also encode a plant-specific β subunit isoform (SnRK1 β 3 in *Arabidopsis*), which lacks the N-terminal region and CBM but still assembles into SnRK1 complexes [9**,10].

Studies on animal AMPK and yeast SNF1 have been very useful for SnRK1 research, but despite sharing the overall structure and protective function against energy deficit with its opisthokont counterparts, some striking differences also point to regulatory divergence and plant-specific SnRK1 regulatory mechanisms. For example, AMPK and SNF1 are regulated by nucleotide charge, with AMP and/or ADP competing with ATP for binding to the regulatory γ subunit. In AMPK, this results in a conformational change with dissociation of an auto-inhibitory domain (AID) from the catalytic domain and subsequent allosteric activation, inhibition of T-loop dephosphorylation, and promotion of T-loop phosphorylation [6,7]. SnRK1, however, does not appear to be directly activated by reduced nucleotide charge, consistent with mutations of key residues in the $\beta\gamma$ subunit nucleotide binding sites and the interacting α subunit linker and lack of an AID [9**-11]. Instead of the AID, SnRK1 α harbors a ubiquitin-associated (UBA) domain (Figure 1), which was recently reported to promote T-loop phosphorylation by upstream kinases and maintain catalytic activity [12].

While reversible T-loop phosphorylation is key in AMPK, with phosphorylation levels typically correlating well with (and typically used as a readout of) kinase activity, this correlation is far less clear

in plants [1,13*,14]. The upstream SnRK1-activating kinases SnAK1 and SnAK2 (originally identified as geminivirus Rep protein-interacting kinases or GRIKs) are essential, but appear to auto-phosphorylate/activate, although they are also cross-phosphorylated and inactivated by SnRK1 in an apparent negative feedback loop (Figure 2) [15-17]. SnRK1 also shows significant auto-phosphorylation [13*], suggesting that the upstream kinases may be required for initial phosphorylation and activation of newly synthesized SnRK1 proteins, at least in the proliferating (young and infected) tissues where they are expressed [15]. De-phosphorylation therefore may be a more important regulatory mechanism [14], although recombinant SnRK1 was also reported to be insensitive to dephosphorylation *in vitro* [9**]. Additional upstream kinases (and phosphatases) will likely be identified in different tissues and conditions.

Over-expression of the SnRK1 α subunit is sufficient to confer high and specific SnRK1 activity in leaf cells and transgenic plants [13*]. Such complex-independent activity and significant auto-phosphorylation suggest a default activation of the plant SnRK1 catalytic subunit [1]. This also implies that, rather than being activated upon energy deficit like AMPK and SNF1, SnRK1 is repressed under conditions of energy abundance. This makes perfect sense and is likely more reliable for sessile and autotrophic organisms, that need to cope with large and unexpected fluctuations in carbon and energy supplies. Interestingly, plants seem to more generally prefer negative regulation, as illustrated by the many hormone signalling pathways that make use of (often ubiquitination and proteasome-mediated) inactivation and removal of repressor proteins. This apparently enables faster downstream responses [18], but more extensive (mathematical) modeling and experimentation may confirm additional benefits of such systems for plants.

In line with this hypothesis, sugar-phosphates, such as glucose-6-phosphate, glucose-1-phosphate, and trehalose-6-phosphate (T6P), were reported to inhibit SnRK1 activity (Figure 2) [19,20]. While T6P, an intermediate of trehalose metabolism absent in vertebrates, has dramatic effects on plant growth and development, its exact function has long remained elusive, not least because of its low physiological concentrations [21]. T6P acts as a proxy for sucrose levels [21] and already inhibits SnRK1 at low μ M concentrations, apparently requiring an unknown proteinaceous factor that is only present in actively growing tissues [19]. However, T6P was recently reported to directly bind to the catalytic SnRK1 α subunits (*in vitro*) and to interfere with upstream SnAK/GRIK kinase interaction and T-loop phosphorylation [22*]. It is not yet clear whether the upstream kinases are the elusive missing factor. It will be important to corroborate these findings using complementary biochemical (binding) studies and genetic approaches and to identify the exact T6P binding site(s) and mode(s) of action, as (spatiotemporally) targeted alteration of T6P levels and chemical intervention with T6P analogs have also demonstrated their potential to improve both crop yield and stress resistance [23,24].

In mammals, glycogen binding to the β subunit CBM was also reported to allosterically inactivate AMPK, but in plants it remains unclear whether the SnRK1 CBMs can bind starch (the plant analogue

of glycogen) or other carbohydrates [9**,25]. Maltose (a starch breakdown product) was recently also reported to bind to and activate the SnRK1 complex, involving the CBM of the plant hybrid $\beta\gamma$ subunit [26]. The $\beta\gamma$ subunit, which also acquired a critical role in pollen hydration and germination [27], recruited its CBM around the appearance of the chloroplastidal green plants and hence the rewiring of cytosolic storage to chloroplastic starch metabolism [10]. Chloroplast (or amyloplast) localization of the SnRK1 complex was also reported [25,26], although this is yet to be confirmed by other labs. Phosphoproteomics also identified SnRK1-dependent chloroplast protein phosphorylation, but this regulation may be indirect [28*]. Different studies point to the existence of both cytosolic and nuclear SnRK1 complexes and (most likely β subunit-mediated) association with membranes, but also more punctate localisations have been observed [1]. A detailed microscopic analysis recently revealed the dynamic localisation of the SnRK1 α subunit at the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane and in the nucleus [29]. This is consistent with our findings that the α subunit translocates to the nucleus in response to energy stress to activate gene expression, and that the β subunits negatively regulate this response by myristoylation-mediated cytoplasmic retention (unpublished). Interestingly, the cereal SnRK1-interacting negative regulator proteins (SKINs) similarly antagonize the function of the seed-specific SnRK1A by cytoplasmic retention in response to ABA [30], confirming that localization is another important regulatory mechanism. Remarkably, a number of recent studies suggest that AMPK is also able to sense glucose availability independently of nucleotide charge and that this involves the glycolytic enzyme aldolase (as a metabolic sensor of its substrate fructose-1,6-bisP) and an upstream kinase-containing AMPK-activating complex at the surface of the lysosome [31]. In plants, tonoplast association has not been reported.

SnRK1 also restricts its own activity by sumoylation- and ubiquitination-mediated degradation as an efficient feedback mechanism to avoid a persistent stress response [32]. A similar feedback mechanism involves two ABA- and SnRK1-induced members of the DUF581 (domain of unknown function 581) containing small FLZ (FCS-like zinc finger) proteins, previously identified as possible (downstream) SnRK1 adaptor proteins [33,34]. They interact with SnRK1 at the ER and appear to repress SnRK1 signaling in part by regulating SnRK1 α protein levels [35]. Finally, similarly to AMPK and SNF1, SnRK1 activity is possibly further fine-tuned by additional post-translational modifications (including non-T-loop phosphorylation and acetylation) and was reported to be redox regulated *in vitro* [1,36].

SnRK1 activity: protein phosphorylation and transcriptional reprogramming

Upon metabolic stress, SnRK1 elicits an energy-saving program to maintain or restore homeostasis using two major modes of action: (i) direct phosphorylation and modification of key metabolic enzymes and regulatory (e.g. signaling) proteins and (ii) extensive transcriptional reprogramming [1]. Enzymes involved in primary metabolism (such as sucrose-phosphate synthase, nitrate reductase, and HMG-CoA reductase) were amongst the earliest studied SnRK1 targets and are typically found to be inactivated

upon phosphorylation [1,37]. Quantitative phosphoproteomics analyses are now identifying more putative *in vivo* targets at a larger scale, for example consistent with SnRK1-mediated redirection of carbon flux towards glycolysis and respiration or fermentation under light and oxygen deprivation conditions [28*,38,39]. Importantly, direct SnRK1 phosphorylation events and their physiological significance need to be confirmed by follow-up studies.

In addition to targeting enzymes and regulatory proteins post-translationally, SnRK1 signaling also triggers a transcriptional switch, inducing the expression of genes involved in the major catabolic pathways and autophagy, while repressing genes associated with various energy-consuming processes, including ribosome biosynthesis [13*]. Over 1000 SnRK1-regulated (induced and repressed) genes were identified using transient overexpression of *Arabidopsis* SnRK1 α 1/KIN10 in leaf mesophyll cells as a first step towards analysis of its impact on gene expression, also confirming a role for SnRK1 beyond mere metabolic regulation [13*]. However, the full complement of primary (protein synthesis independent) SnRK1 target genes in intact plants and different (including sink and meristematic) tissues and conditions still remains to be uncovered.

Part of this transcriptional reprogramming is mediated by basic region/leucine zipper motif (bZIP)-type transcription factors (TFs), with a key role for the group C and group S1 bZIPs as signaling hubs coordinating plant development and stress responses [40]. SnRK1 hyperphosphorylation of the group C bZIP63 strongly enhances its ability to homodimerize or heterodimerize with group S1 bZIPs and bind to DNA [41*]. This then also recruits SnRK1 to target promoters where the C/S1-bZIP-SnRK1 complex interacts with the histone acetylation machinery to remodel chromatin and facilitate transcription. This, for example, induces branched-chain amino acid catabolism as an alternative pathway to feed into mitochondrial respiration and generate ATP from non-carbohydrate sources in the absence of photosynthesis [42*]. The group S bZIP11 was also found to directly activate the expression of *INDOLE ACETIC ACID3/SHORT HYPOCOTYL2 (IAA3/SHY2)*, a key negative regulator of auxin signaling and PIN-FORMED (PIN; auxin transport facilitator) expression, providing a straightforward mechanism to control (root) growth in response to energy supply [43*]. It is not yet clear, however, whether this is mediated by a SnRK1-phosphorylated (for example group C bZIP TF) partner. Finally, and in line with an intuitive and previously recognized role for SnRK1 in metabolic entrainment of the plant clock [44-46], bZIP63 was also found to act downstream of T6P and SnRK1, directly binding to the afternoon-phased *PSEUDO RESPONSE REGULATOR7 (PRR7)* promoter [47*]. Consistent with their key function in SnRK1 signaling and metabolic homeostasis, C/S1 bZIP TF expression is also fine-regulated by SnRK1 at the level of transcription and by sucrose-induced repression of translation (SIRT), involving small upstream open reading frames [42*,48].

A steadily increasing number of other types of TFs, involved in diverse metabolic and developmental processes, are now also found to be regulated by SnRK1. Phosphorylation of the INDETERMINATE DOMAIN (IDD)-containing TF IDD8, for example, results in decreased transcriptional IDD8 activity and inhibition of flowering [49]. SnRK1 was also reported to phosphorylate FUSCA3 (FUS3) *in vitro*

and enhance its protein stability (in a cell-free system). Genetic analyses suggest that FUS3 partially mediates SnRK1's repressive effect on the embryonic-to-vegetative (germination) and vegetative-to-reproductive (flowering) phase transitions, but that FUS3 phosphorylation and SnRK1 positively regulate embryogenesis [50,51]. Conversely, SnRK1 phosphorylation promotes the proteasomal degradation of WRINKLED1 (WRI1), reducing lipid biosynthesis [52]. Similarly, SnRK1 delays senescence by phosphorylation and concomitant destabilization of the ETHYLENE INSENSITIVE3 (EIN3) TF [53]. In addition, a number of TFs interact with SnRK1 without evidence for phosphorylation yet, as most recently reported for the STOREKEEPER RELATED1/G-element Binding Protein (STKR1) [1,54]. The previously mentioned SnRK1-interacting DUF581 proteins were also proposed to mediate downstream SnRK1 signaling by acting as tissue- and (stress) stimulus-specific scaffolds for diverse targets, including a number of TFs and DELLA proteins, also reallocating the kinase to specific regions in the nucleus [33,34,55]. Interestingly, part of the gene expression regulation by SnRK1 may be mediated by miRNAs [56].

SnRK1 is part of an intricate metabolic and stress signaling network

SnRK1 acts in an intricate network, that also includes both the generally growth-stimulating and antagonistic TOR pathway and abscisic acid (ABA)-mediated stress signaling (Figure 2). Intense research in the past ten years or so has confirmed a central role for the TOR kinase in the regulation of plant metabolism, development, and stress physiology [57-59]. It has highly conserved functions in the direct control of protein synthesis, autophagy and growth processes in all eukaryotic organisms, and in plants appears to integrate macronutrient, energy (glucose), light, and hormone (notably auxin) signaling [57-59]. SnRK1 is found to function upstream of TOR and appears to confer part of its effects through inhibition of TOR signaling. Profiling of the extensive glucose-induced TOR-mediated transcriptional reprogramming revealed some overlap with (oppositely regulated) SnRK1 target genes [60]. Later studies confirmed inhibition of TOR signaling by SnRK1 under energy deprivation conditions, involving direct phosphorylation of the RAPTOR1B regulatory associated protein of TOR, very similar to mTOR inhibition by AMPK [28*, 62]. Interestingly, there is also evidence of direct (parallel) SnRK1 regulation of typical TOR target processes. For example, while inactivation of TOR enables induction of autophagy, which then recycles cellular components to overcome starvation conditions [63], SnRK1 may also induce autophagy through direct phosphorylation and activation of the ATG1/13 kinase complex [64]. And while SnRK1 activation most likely represses general protein synthesis in part through TOR inhibition (massively saving energy), direct SnRK1 phosphorylation of eukaryotic translation initiation factor eIFiso4G1 was recently shown to mediate the selective translation of hypoxia-induced genes necessary for plants' tolerance to submergence [65]. Future more systematic analyses should further unravel the extent and nature of the SnRK1-TOR interactions in different tissues and conditions.

Several lines of evidence also indicate a close interaction between SnRK1 and SnRK2/ABA signaling (Figure 2). Consistently, overexpression of SnRK1 confers an ABA-hypersensitive phenotype [66]. SnRK2 signaling was recently also reported to be involved in maintaining the metabolic balance required for growth under non-stress conditions [67]. Both putative upstream and downstream molecular links have been found. SnRK1 was reported to phosphorylate group A bZIP TFs, involved in ABA signaling and controlling seed maturation and germination, *in vitro* [68]. Upstream, the PP2C phosphatases ABI1 and PP2CA, two known ABA/SnRK2 signaling repressors, were found to dephosphorylate the SnRK1 T-loop [14]. The plant-specific SnRK2 and SnRK3 (SNF1-related kinase 2 and 3) kinases belong to the same CDPK-SnRK superfamily, but outside the catalytic domain have limited similarity to the SnRK1 proteins [1]. In rice, the SnRK3 protein CIPK15 [calcineurin B-like (CBL)-interacting protein kinase15] was also identified as a putative SnRK1 upstream kinase, mediating seed α -amylases activation under oxygen deprivation, but direct phosphorylation was not reported [69].

Recently, an additional layer of interaction was uncovered with the reciprocal link between ABA/SnRK2 and TOR signaling (Figure 2). Under non-stress conditions, TOR phosphorylates and desensitizes the PYR/PYL (PYRABACTIN RESISTANCE/PYRLIKE) ABA receptors, disrupting interaction with (and inactivation of) the PP2C phosphatases and preventing phosphorylation-dependent SnRK2 activity [70*]. Upon stress, a small fraction of non-phosphorylated ABA receptors binds ABA, enabling SnRK2 de-repression, which then in turn also phosphorylates RAPTOR, resulting in dissociation and inactivation of the TOR complex [70*]. Whether and when TOR regulates SnRK1 activity, through PP2C activation or other mechanisms, requires further investigation.

Conclusions

Significant progress has been made in our understanding of SnRK1 biology, but many questions remain. Plants are typically exposed to (complex combinations of) biotic and abiotic stresses that affect plant metabolic status. However, all living organisms need to prioritize resources, and in the course of evolution a more general trade-off between growth and stress tolerance has been hardwired in genetic networks, notably the one comprising the antagonistic energy-sensing SnRK1 and TOR and the ABA signaling SnRK2 kinases in plants. Improving stress tolerance without yield penalty (or *vice versa*) by fine-tuning or conditional shifting of the balance will therefore require a more detailed insight in the underlying regulatory mechanisms and processes.

Highlights

. While SnRK1/SNF1/AMPK structure and function are well conserved, plants have modified SnRK1 regulation to better fit their unique physiology and lifestyle

- . Rather than being activated by low energy stress, SnRK1 appears to be repressed by high energy signals, including sugar phosphates such as trehalose-6-P (T6P)
- . The SnRK1 protein kinases exert their diverse effects through both direct phosphorylation of enzymes and regulatory proteins and extensive transcriptional reprogramming
- . The group C/S1 bZIP transcription factors play a key role in this transcriptional response (with the group C bZIP63 as a direct SnRK1 target), regulating both growth and metabolism
- . SnRK1 functions in an intricate network with the growth-stimulating and antagonistic TOR pathway and abscisic acid (ABA)-activated SnRK2 signaling
- . Bypassing the trade-offs between growth and stress tolerance to improve crop yield will require more profound insight in the SnRK1-TOR-SnRK2 network

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Figure captions

Figure 1. The SnRK1 heterotrimeric complex. Model of the SnRK1 complex based on individual subunit modelling on the 4RER crystal structure of phosphorylated (activated) AMPK [1]. The space-filling model (left) and cartoon representation (centre) give insight in the α , β and $\beta\gamma$ subunit interactions with the β subunit functioning as the complex scaffold. The plant-specific hybrid $\beta\gamma$ subunit contains four cystathionine β -synthase (CBS) domains (sensing nucleotide charge in AMPK) and an additional carbohydrate binding domain ($\beta\gamma$ CBM), apparently positioning close to the β subunit CBM [1]. The catalytic α subunit (right) harbors the active site, located in a catalytic cleft, and the T-loop with conserved threonine residue which needs to be phosphorylated for kinase activity. An α linker couples the ubiquitin-associated (UBA) domain to the far C-terminal domain (α CTD) involved in interaction with the other subunits as well as with upstream phosphatases [1].

Figure 2. Schematic overview of the SnRK-TOR signaling network, controlling the growth/stress tolerance balance. SnRK1 signaling saves and redirects energy used for active growth and development towards increased stress tolerance and survival under low energy conditions [1]. SnRK1 acts both by inhibition of the growth-stimulating and high energy-activated TOR kinase [57-59] and in a TOR-independent way, e.g. by transcriptional reprogramming mediated in part by the C/S1 group bZIP transcription factor (TF) network [13*,40-42]. SnRK1 signaling in addition cross-talks with abscisic acid (ABA)-induced SnRK2 stress signaling, upstream through their common regulation by the PP2C phosphatases [14], and possibly also downstream by targeting SnRK2-regulated A group bZIP TFs [68]. SnRK2 also represses TOR signaling by direct phosphorylation, resulting in TOR complex dissociation [70*]. In non-stress conditions, TOR activity in turn represses SnRK2 (and SnRK1) signaling via phosphorylation of the PYRABACTIN RESISTANCE1 (PYR1)/PYR1-LIKE (PYL) ABA-receptors and subsequent release of sequestered PP2C phosphatases [70*]. Rather than being activated by low energy stress, SnRK1 appears to be repressed by high energy signals, including sugar phosphates, such as trehalose-6-P (T6P), glucose-6-P (G6P) and glucose-1-P (G1P) [19,20]. This inhibition appears to be mediated by an intermediary proteinaceous factor [53], but T6P was recently also reported to directly bind to the SnRK1 catalytic subunit and inhibit its interaction with and phosphorylation by upstream SnAK/GRIK kinases [22*]. In addition, SnRK1 significantly autophosphorylates and also SnRK3 kinases may function upstream of SnRK1 [69]. Note that this

overview summarizes interactions reported in different species, tissues, or environmental condition, which are not necessarily occurring simultaneously. Full lines and dashed lines specify established and putative regulation, respectively.

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challenging questions in the field. This study now reports the surprising finding that T6P may directly bind to the SnRK1 α subunit (using fluorescence-based microscale thermophoresis) and interfere with upstream kinase interaction and T-loop phosphorylation

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