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**Auxin transport inhibitors block PIN1 cycling and vesicle trafficking**

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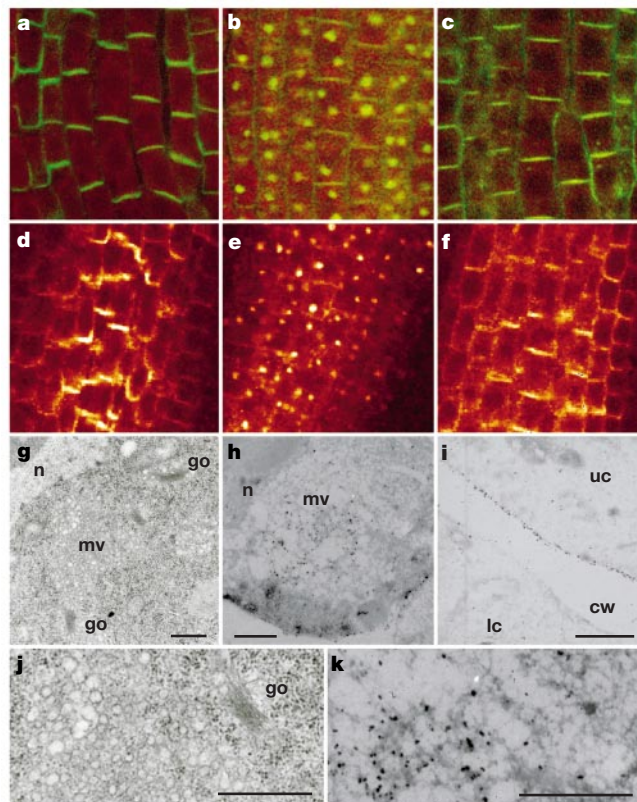
Polar transport of the phytohormone auxin mediates various processes in plant growth and development, such as apical dominance, tropisms, vascular patterning and axis formation<sup>1,2</sup>. This view is based largely on the effects of polar auxin transport inhibitors. These compounds disrupt auxin efflux from the cell but their mode of action is unknown<sup>3</sup>. It is thought that polar auxin flux is caused by the asymmetric distribution of efflux carriers acting at the plasma membrane<sup>4</sup>. The polar localization of efflux carrier candidate PIN1 supports this model<sup>4</sup>. Here we show that the seemingly static localization of PIN1 results from rapid actin-dependent cycling between the plasma membrane and endosomal compartments. Auxin transport inhibitors block PIN1 cycling and inhibit trafficking of membrane proteins that are unrelated to auxin transport. Our data suggest that PIN1 cycling is of central importance for auxin transport and that auxin transport inhibitors affect efflux by generally interfering with membrane-trafficking processes. In support of our conclusion, the vesicle-trafficking inhibitor brefeldin A mimics physiological effects of auxin transport inhibitors.

Polar auxin transport inhibitors are important tools in assessing the role of polar auxin transport in plant development<sup>5–7</sup>. They disrupt auxin efflux from the cell without interacting with the efflux carrier itself<sup>8,9</sup>. However, their mechanism of action has remained elusive despite considerable efforts towards the biochemical characterization of binding sites<sup>10–12</sup> and several screens for auxin-transport-inhibitor mutants<sup>13–16</sup>. *In situ* visualization of *Arabidopsis* putative auxin efflux carriers PIN1 and PIN2 correlated polar auxin transport with their asymmetric distribution in the plasma membrane<sup>17,18</sup>. This coordinated polar localization of PIN1 is not established in *gnom* mutant embryos. *GNOM* encodes a brefeldin A (BFA)-sensitive regulator of vesicle trafficking<sup>19</sup>. Consistent with this, the vesicle-trafficking inhibitor BFA affects auxin efflux from the cell<sup>8,9</sup>, abolishes polar localization of PIN1 and induces its intracellular accumulation<sup>19</sup>.

BFA-induced PIN1 accumulation in two large intracellular compartments was completely and rapidly reversible (Fig. 1a–c). To determine whether this reversible BFA effect reflects protein syn-

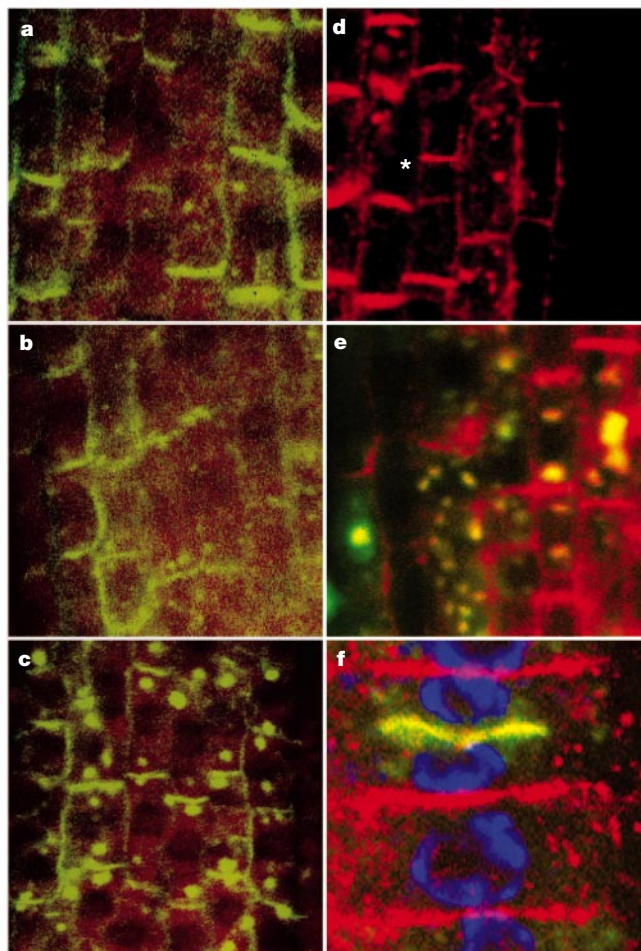
thesis and degradation or continuous cycling between the plasma membrane and endosomal compartments, we inhibited protein synthesis by cycloheximide (CHX). Incubation of roots in 50  $\mu$ M CHX for 30 min reduced <sup>35</sup>S-labelled methionine incorporation into proteins to below 10% of the control value (data not shown). However, treatment with 50  $\mu$ M CHX for 4 h had no detectable effect on the amount of labelled PIN1 at the plasma membrane (Fig. 1d), suggesting that PIN1 protein is turned over slowly. CHX did not interfere with the reversible BFA effect as PIN1 still accumulated in endomembrane compartments (Fig. 1e) and, on withdrawal of BFA, reappeared at the plasma membrane (Fig. 1f). Thus, BFA-induced intracellular accumulation of PIN1 resulted from blocking exocytosis of a steady-state pool of PIN1 that rapidly cycles between the plasma membrane and some endosomal compartment.

In animal cells, BFA alters structure and function of endomembrane compartments, especially the Golgi apparatus, which fuses with other endomembranes<sup>20–22</sup>. BFA seems to have different effects in plant cells. In BFA-treated maize root cells, Golgi stack systems progressively disappear and aggregates of vesicles accumulate in their vicinity, with Golgi markers localizing to the newly formed



**Figure 1** Reversible inhibition of PIN1 recycling by BFA treatment. **a–f**, *Arabidopsis* seedling roots treated with BFA or cycloheximide (CHX) as indicated. **a**, Two-hour buffer control. **b**, Treatment with 50  $\mu$ M BFA for 2 h. **c**, Treatment with 50  $\mu$ M BFA for 2 h followed by 2 h washing out. **d**, Treatment with 50  $\mu$ M CHX for 2 h. **e**, Pre-treatment with 50  $\mu$ M CHX for 30 min, then 50  $\mu$ M BFA and 50  $\mu$ M CHX for 90 min. **f**, Treatment with 50  $\mu$ M BFA for 90 min, then 50  $\mu$ M BFA and 50  $\mu$ M CHX for 30 min followed by 2 h washing out with 50  $\mu$ M CHX. **g–k**, Electron micrographs of root cells after treatment with 50  $\mu$ M BFA for 30 min (**g, h**) and untreated control (**i**). **g**, Ultrastructure. **h, i**, Anti-PIN1 immunogold labelling. Note aggregate of membrane vesicles (mv) in ribosome-free cytoplasm near nucleus (n) and Golgi structures (go) of treated cells (**g, h**). **i**, Untreated control. Note PIN1 label at the plasma membrane of the upper cell (uc) but not the lower cell (lc), cw, cell wall. **j**, Higher magnification of **g**. **k**, Higher magnification of **h**. Scale bars, 1  $\mu$ M.

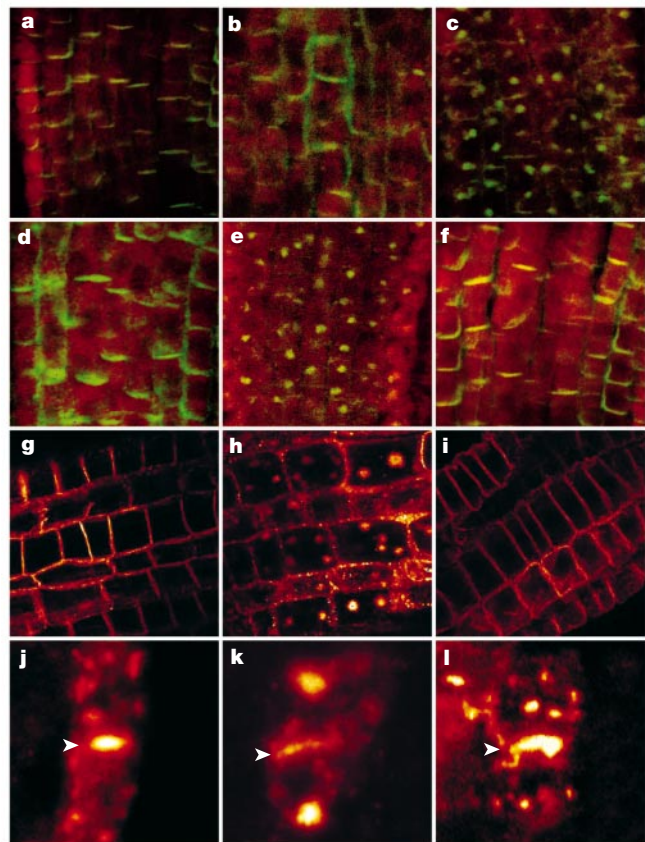
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**Figure 2** PIN1 localization affected by cytoskeleton-depolymerizing drugs. **a–c**, Cytochalasin D (cytD) effect on BFA inhibition of PIN1 (green) cycling. **a**, Treatment with 20  $\mu\text{M}$  cytD for 2 h. **b**, Pre-treatment with 20  $\mu\text{M}$  cytD for 15 min, then 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA and 20  $\mu\text{M}$  CytD for 45 min. **c**, Treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA for 45 min followed by 90 min washing out BFA with 20  $\mu\text{M}$  CytD. **d**, PIN1 staining after 10  $\mu\text{M}$  oryzalin for 2 h—note vesicles in cell marked with asterisk as compared with normal localization in cell below. **e, f**, Colocalization of PIN1 (red) and KNOLLE (green) in small patches (yellow) after treatment with 10  $\mu\text{M}$  oryzalin for 2 h (**e**), and in plane of cell division (yellow) of untreated control (**f**). DAPI staining of nuclei is blue.

BFA compartments<sup>23,24</sup>. In *Arabidopsis* root cells, the BFA-induced PIN1-labelled compartments were juxtanuclear, of a specific size and shape, and mostly two per cell (Fig. 1b). By electron microscopy, we identified aggregates of membrane vesicles of the corresponding size and shape that appeared only after BFA treatment (Fig. 1g, j). The vesicle aggregates were apparent within 30 min of BFA treatment, conditions that left individual Golgi stacks almost intact (Fig. 1g, j). These vesicle aggregates contained PIN1 protein that was apparently internalized from the plasma membrane (Fig. 1h, i, k). This result suggests that BFA compartments consist of vesicle aggregates that derive not only from Golgi stacks, as shown previously<sup>23,24</sup>, but also from an as yet unidentified endosomal compartment.

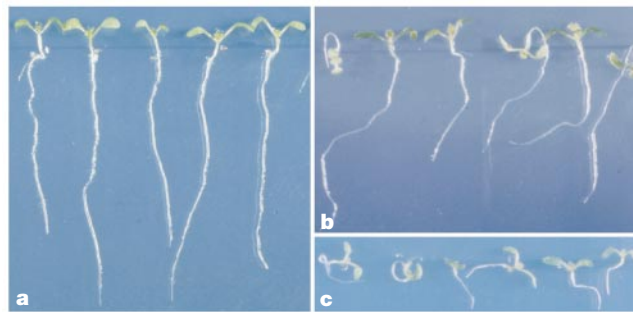
The trafficking of membrane vesicles to sites of delivery takes place along the cytoskeleton<sup>21,22</sup>. To determine cytoskeletal requirements of PIN1 localization, we treated seedling roots with cytochalasin D (cytD) or latrunculin B, which both depolymerize actin filaments<sup>25,26</sup>, or with oryzalin, which depolymerizes microtubules<sup>25</sup>. Cytochalasin D alone had only a slight effect on PIN1 polar accumulation at the plasma membrane, which was reduced, with



**Figure 3** Effects of polar auxin transport inhibitor TIBA on protein trafficking. **a–f**, PIN1. **a**, Treatment with 25  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA for 2 h. **b**, Pre-treatment with 25  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA for 30 min, then 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA and 25  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA for 2 h. **c**, Treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA for 2 h followed by 2 h washing out of BFA with 25  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA. **d**, Treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  benzoic acid for 2 h (compare with **a**). **e**, Pre-treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  benzoic acid for 30 min, then 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA and 50  $\mu\text{M}$  benzoic acid for 2 h (compare with **b**). **f**, Treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA for 2 h followed by 2 h washing out of BFA with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  benzoic acid (compare with **c**). Note that BFA inhibition of PIN1 cycling was blocked only by TIBA but not by benzoic acid, which has no inhibitory activity on auxin transport. **g–i**, PM-ATPase. **g**, Untreated control. **h**, Treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA for 90 min. **i**, Pre-treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA for 30 min, then 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA and 50  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA for 90 min. **j–l**, KNOLLE. **j**, Untreated control. **k**, Treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA for 2 h. **l**, Pre-treatment with 50  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA for 30 min, then 50  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA and 50  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA for 2 h. Arrowheads mark cell plates. Note aggregation of KNOLLE label in large patches in **k** as compared with **j** and **l**.

small irregular dots of PIN1 label sometimes appearing underneath the plasma membrane (Fig. 2a). By contrast, cytD inhibited BFA-induced intracellular PIN1 accumulation (Fig. 2b) as well as its relocalization to the plasma membrane when BFA was washed out (Fig. 2c; compare with Fig. 1b, c). Latrunculin B had the same effects (data not shown). These results suggest that PIN1 cycling is actin dependent. By contrast, oryzalin treatment for up to 6 h did not alter PIN1 localization (Fig. 2d) nor internalization in response to BFA (data not shown), although the microtubules were completely depolymerized (data not shown). However, oryzalin treatment caused irregular patches of labelled PIN1 in some cells (Fig. 2d) that were shown to always coexpress the cytokinesis-specific syntaxin KNOLLE (Fig. 2e), which localizes to Golgi stacks and cell plate<sup>27,28</sup>. PIN1 and KNOLLE colocalized in oryzalin-treated cells (Fig. 2e), and both proteins were also detected at the cell plate of untreated cells (Fig. 2f). Thus, PIN1 seems to traffic along two different pathways, depending on the phase of the cell cycle: an actin-dependent interphase pathway to and from the plasma membrane and a microtubule-dependent cytokinesis pathway to the cell plate. PIN1 accumulation at the newly formed cell plate





**Figure 4** Physiological effects of BFA. Seedlings germinated on vertical agar plates containing different concentrations of BFA. **a**, Untreated control. **b**, Treatment with 10  $\mu\text{M}$

BFA. **c**, Treatment with 20  $\mu\text{M}$  BFA. Note the effect on gravitropic root growth and root elongation in **b** and **c**.

raises the question of how the coordinated polar localization of PIN1 is re-established after cell division, as only one of the two daughter cells would accumulate PIN1 at the correct end. The other daughter cell would initially have PIN1 localized at both ends, necessitating withdrawal of PIN1 from one end to reconstitute the original polarity of the cell.

Polar auxin transport inhibitors, such as 2,3,5-triiodobenzoic acid (TIBA), had only slight effects on PIN1 localization on their own (Fig. 3a). However, clear-cut effects were observed in BFA-treated cells. When cells were pre- and co-treated with TIBA, BFA did not induce intracellular accumulation of PIN1, which instead remained at the plasma membrane (Fig. 3b). Conversely, PIN1 remained at an intracellular position when BFA was washed out in the presence of TIBA (Fig. 3c). By contrast, an inactive analogue of TIBA, benzoic acid, did not interfere with the BFA-induced reversible internalization of PIN1 (Fig. 3d–f). Thus, BFA treatment revealed that polar auxin transport inhibitors block both the removal of PIN1 from and its redistribution to the plasma membrane.

To determine whether polar auxin transport inhibitors affect PIN1 cycling specifically, we analysed their effects on the localization of other membrane proteins whose trafficking is sensitive to BFA. Plasma membrane  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase (PM-ATPase) is turned over rapidly at the plasma membrane<sup>29</sup>. Indeed, BFA treatment led to reversible intracellular accumulation of PM-ATPase in epidermal cells just above the cell division zone of the root tip. The BFA-induced intracellular compartments of PM-ATPase accumulation were similar in size and shape to those that accumulated PIN1 (Fig. 3g, h). In the presence of TIBA, BFA did not induce intracellular accumulation of PM-ATPase (Fig. 3i). Furthermore, recovery from the effect of BFA was blocked by washing with TIBA (data not shown). Thus, PM-ATPase trafficking was sensitive to polar auxin transport inhibitors, as was PIN1 trafficking. We also tested KNOLLE syntaxin<sup>27</sup>. With BFA treatment, small dots of labelled KNOLLE aggregated into larger patches (Fig. 3j, k). This BFA effect was also abolished by co-treatment with TIBA (Fig. 3l). Every polar auxin transport inhibitor that we tested had similar effects on the localization of all three proteins (PIN1, KNOLLE and PM-ATPase), although the effective concentrations were different, with 25  $\mu\text{M}$  TIBA or 1-pyrenoylbenzoic acid (PBA) leading to complete inhibi-

tion of BFA-visualized trafficking, as compared with approximately 200  $\mu\text{M}$  for 9-hydroxyfluorene-9-carboxylic acid (HFCA) or 1-N-naphthylphthalamic acid (NPA). Thus, a common feature of auxin-transport-inhibitor action seems to be a rather general influence on protein trafficking. We therefore tested whether the well established vesicle-trafficking inhibitor BFA might mimic physiological effects of auxin transport inhibitors. *Arabidopsis* seedlings were grown on vertical agar plates supplemented with low concentrations of BFA (Fig. 4). Several processes known to be sensitive to auxin transport inhibitors, such as root and hypocotyl gravitropism and elongation as well as lateral root initiation, were affected by BFA in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 4; Table 1). It is conceivable that compounds that were originally identified as polar auxin transport inhibitors may actually be inhibitors of membrane trafficking.

Our observations indicate that the putative auxin-efflux carrier PIN1 cycles between the plasma membrane and endosomal compartments in an actin-dependent manner. Auxin transport inhibitors block PIN1 cycling but, unlike BFA, leave PIN1 accumulation at the plasma membrane unaffected. This implies that cycling of some component of the auxin efflux machinery is essential for the mechanism of polar auxin transport. Notably, polar auxin transport inhibitors seem to interfere with membrane trafficking in broader terms, suggesting that their seemingly specific physiological effects may reflect a high sensitivity of auxin efflux carrier cycling and the important role of polar auxin flow in plant growth and development. □

## Methods

### Plant material and growth conditions

We grew *Arabidopsis* seedlings (Columbia ecotype) on vertical agar plates at 25 °C for 7 days.

### Inhibitor treatments

Ten–fifteen seedlings were incubated in 1 ml liquid growth medium (0.5×MS medium, 0.8% sucrose, pH 5.8) containing the respective inhibitors or equal amounts of solvents (controls) in 24-well cell-culture plates. Washing was done twice for 10 min and a third washing step was carried out up to the indicated time. Incubations were stopped by fixation. BFA (Molecular Probes), TIBA (Duchefa), NPA (Duchefa), HFCA (Sigma) and PBA (synthesized according to ref. 30) were used as 100 mM stock in DMSO, cyD (Sigma) and oryzalin (Duchefa) as 100 mM stock in ethanol, and cycloheximide (Sigma) as 50 mM stock in water.

### Whole-mount immunofluorescence analysis on root tips

Immunofluorescence analysis was carried out as described<sup>27</sup> or according to ref. 18 using an InSituPro machine (Intavis) for changing solutions. Rabbit polyclonal anti-PIN1 (ref. 17) was diluted at 1:200, mouse monoclonal anti-PM-ATPase at 1:500 and rabbit polyclonal anti-KNOLLE<sup>27</sup> at 1:4,000. Double labelling of KNOLLE PIN1 was done with polyclonal rat anti-KNOLLE serum. CY3- and fluorescein-isothiocyanate-conjugated secondary antibodies were from Dianova. We carried out confocal laser scanning microscopy with Leica microscopes.

**Table 1** Quantitative effects of different BFA concentrations

Area affected	Concentration of BFA			
	0 $\mu\text{M}$	1 $\mu\text{M}$	10 $\mu\text{M}$	20 $\mu\text{M}$
Number of lateral roots	3.05 ± 1.21	3.48 ± 0.94	0.35 ± 0.49	0.10 ± 0.31
Root length (mm)	39.87 ± 3.66	37.70 ± 5.12	23.47 ± 4.91	7.07 ± 1.79
Hypocotyl length (mm)	23.1 ± 2.2	22.2 ± 2.4	18.6 ± 2.0	9.9 ± 2.7

## Immunolocalization on cryosections and electron microscopy

Ultrastructure analysis of chemically fixed sections and immunogold labelling using silver-enhanced nanogold of ultrathin cryosections were carried out as described<sup>29</sup>.

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# Voltage-induced membrane movement

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Thermodynamics predicts that transmembrane voltage modulates membrane tension<sup>1</sup> and that this will cause movement. The magnitude and polarity of movement is governed by cell stiffness and surface potentials. Here we confirm these predictions using the atomic force microscope to dynamically follow the movement of voltage-clamped HEK293 cells<sup>2</sup> in different ionic-strength solutions. In normal saline, depolarization caused an outward movement, and at low ionic strength an inward movement. The amplitude was proportional to voltage (about 1 nm per 100 mV) and increased with indentation depth. A simple physical model of the membrane and tip provided an estimate of the external and internal surface charge densities ( $-5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ C m}^{-2}$  and  $-18 \times 10^{-3} \text{ C m}^{-2}$ , respectively). Salicylate (a negative amphiphile<sup>3</sup>) inhibited electromotility by increasing the external charge density by  $-15 \times 10^{-3} \text{ C m}^{-2}$ . As salicylate blocks electromotility in cochlear outer hair cells at the same concentration<sup>4,5</sup>, the role of prestin as a motor protein<sup>6</sup> may need to be reassessed.

The Lippman<sup>1</sup> equation relates interfacial tension to electrostatic potential. The physical basis for this thermodynamic relationship stems from properties of the double layer adjacent to polarizable interfaces. This region contains excess mobile charges that are attracted to the fixed structural charges or are supplied by external voltage sources. These mobile charges repel each other laterally, creating a local pressure and changing the net surface tension. In lipid monolayers, changes in ionic strength alter the surface pressure (tension)<sup>7</sup>. Membrane movements correlated with action potentials have been observed in crab nerve as well as squid giant axon<sup>8</sup>. In a bilayer membrane with two interfaces, a difference in tension between the interfaces can cause changes in curvature, an effect also known as converse flexoelectricity. Both flexoelectricity (current generation from bending) and its converse have been demonstrated in lipid bilayers<sup>9</sup> and cell membranes<sup>10</sup>.

When an atomic force microscope (AFM) tip indents a membrane, changes in membrane tension will move the cantilever<sup>2</sup>. We have measured these displacements in real time using voltage-clamped HEK293 cells (Fig. 1a). A simple model that applies the Lippmann equation to both interfaces explains the observed movement over a wide range of surface potentials and applied voltage. As the Lippmann equation is derived from thermodynamic principles, the basic model should apply to all membranes.

As can be seen from Fig. 1b, in normal saline hyperpolarizing pulses cause the cantilever to move towards the cell interior, whereas depolarization reverses the movement. At low ionic strength (isotonic 288 mM sucrose, ionic strength 20  $\mu\text{M}$  measured by conductivity) the potential dependence inverts. The time-dependent changes seen in Fig. 1b may result from cytoskeletal relaxation or lipid flip-flop (the movement of lipid molecules between the internal and external monolayers), and are the subject of an ongoing study. The peak displacement is linear with voltage (Fig. 1c) and increases with the mean indentation force (Fig. 1d). The peak displacement as a function of the bath ionic strength is shown in Fig. 2a for both hyperpolarizing and depolarizing pulses ( $\pm 100 \text{ mV}$ , from a holding potential of  $-60 \text{ mV}$ ). Note the reversal of movement at about 10 mM.

We modelled the system by applying the Lippmann equation at both interfaces (assumed independent<sup>11</sup>) and treating the bilayer as an incompressible capacitor. Whereas the mean force on an indent-