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2 **Short title** Organellar Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling

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10 **The signatures of organellar calcium**

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15 **One-sentence summary**

16 The transport of Ca<sup>2+</sup> across the membranes of subcellular compartments contributes to cytosolic

17 Ca<sup>2+</sup> homeostasis as well as environmental and developmental responses.

18 **FOOTNOTES**

19 **Author Contributions**

20 AC conceived the project and wrote the main body of the article. FR wrote the part on developmental  
21 processes. MG prepared Fig 1. and 3. MCB prepared Box. 2. All authors made comments on the  
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## 41 INTRODUCTION

42 Plants are continuously subjected to environmental changes such as fluctuating light, the day/night  
43 cycle, oscillating temperatures, water availability and interaction with other organisms. Often these  
44 variations can be adverse, being stressful and thus affecting plant growth, development and, in  
45 several cases, causing major yield losses in agriculture. Especially, plants cannot move to a more  
46 comfortable environment to survive and they, thus, need to continuously monitor, and possibly  
47 anticipate, any upcoming stress (Zhu, 2016).

48 Plants' early responses to stress often occur in a time frame of seconds or a few minutes in different  
49 cell compartments, and in these cases, they mainly rely on quick changes of ions' concentrations  
50 (e.g.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ , etc) which are dependent upon their movements across membranes  
51 (Stephan et al., 2016; Behera et al., 2018; Costa et al., 2018; Marti Ruiz et al., 2020; Demes et al.,  
52 2020). Among the ions, it is well-accepted that calcium ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) plays a key role in many signal  
53 transduction pathways (Trewavas and Malhó, 1998; Sanders et al., 2002; Dodd et al., 2010; Kudla  
54 et al., 2010, 2018; Tian et al., 2020). At rest, in plant cells, the cytosolic free  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration  
55 ( $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ ) is in the range of 100-200 nM (Trewavas, 1999; Logan and Knight, 2003; Stael et al., 2012;  
56 Jezek and Blatt, 2017), but it can rise up steeply (often to low  $\mu\text{M}$  concentrations) in response to the  
57 perception of different stimuli (Knight et al., 1997; Ranf et al., 2008). Importantly, the stimulus-  
58 induced increase in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  is not a "digital signal", but an "analog" one that, depending on the  
59 stimulus type and magnitude, assumes a peculiar dynamic often dubbed "cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature"  
60 (Sanders et al., 2002; Kudla et al., 2010, 2018; Tian et al., 2020). The model predicts that different  
61 signatures activate different  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensors (e.g. Calmodulin (CaM), Calmodulin-like proteins (CMLs),  
62 calcineurin  $\beta$ -like proteins (CBLs)), and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  relays (e.g.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent protein kinases (CDPKs),  
63 or calmodulin-dependent protein kinase (CCaMK)) that trigger precise and tailored responses,  
64 altering gene expression and metabolism (**Fig. 1**) (reviewed in Sanders et al., 2002; McCormack et  
65 al., 2005; DeFalco et al., 2009; Hamel et al., 2014; Edel et al., 2017; Kudla et al., 2018; Lenzoni et  
66 al., 2018; Poovaiah and Du, 2018; Liu et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2020). The understanding of how the  
67  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature is generated and shaped to assume its "analog nature" is a key aspect to dissect the  
68 roots of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling, which is traceable to its movement across membranes. Thus, important

69 questions are: i) how do plant cells generate specific  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signatures? ii) which are the mechanisms  
70 for their tight regulation? A simple answer is that generation and shaping of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signatures  
71 is dependent on a coordinate and intertwined activity of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  permeable channels,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transporters,  
72 and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffers (Sanders et al., 2002; McAinsh and Pittman, 2009; Michard et al., 2011; Costa et  
73 al., 2017; Wudick et al., 2018; Behera et al., 2018; Hilleary et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2020). Whereas  
74 it is reported that the major source of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is the apoplast and that the movement of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
75 across the plasma membrane (PM) plays a major role in the generation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients  
76 (Gao et al., 2004; Stael et al., 2012; Costa et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2019; Lopez-Hernandez, 2020;  
77 Tian et al., 2020), increasing evidence demonstrates that subcellular compartments are involved in  
78 the shaping of the signatures, working as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sinks (Qudeimat et al., 2008; Costa et al., 2010; Loro  
79 et al., 2012; Nomura et al., 2012; Bonza et al., 2013; Nomura and Shiina, 2014; Wagner et al., 2015;  
80 Loro et al., 2016; Lenglet et al., 2017; Behera et al., 2018; Corso et al., 2018, Teardo et al., 2019;  
81 Hilleary et al., 2020), as well as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sources (Wang et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2010; Tian et al., 2014,  
82 Shkolnik et al., 2018). Interestingly, some compartments (i.e. chloroplast and nucleus) can also  
83 generate their own organellar  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature (Xiong et al., 2004; Loro et al., 2016; Sello et al., 2016;  
84 2018; Kelner et al., 2018; Leitão et al., 2019) adding a supplementary level of complexity to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
85 signaling (**Fig. 1**).

86 In this update, we will provide readers with evidence that subcellular compartments experience their  
87 own  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients in response to different stimuli, with particular attention to describing those cases  
88 where their role in the shaping of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics and in the regulation of downstream  
89 responses was experimentally observed. We will give examples to demonstrate that cytosolic and  
90 organellar  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  are directly intertwined, as well as that dysfunctions in the transport of other ions can  
91 lead to altered cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signatures and visible phenotypes. For simplicity, we will divide our  
92 update into four different fields of cellular signaling: i) plant responses to abiotic stimuli, ii) plant  
93 responses to biotic stimuli, iii) stomatal movements, and iv) plant developmental processes. We will  
94 not discuss the chloroplast  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signatures observed in responses to light-dark transitions and in  
95 response to heat stress (Sai and Johnson, 2002; Loro et al., 2016; Sello et al., 2016; Frank et al.,  
96 2019; Lenzoni and Knight, 2019; Martí Ruiz et al., 2020), since those two mechanisms are

97 extensively covered in the update by He et al. (2021) of this Focus Issue.

98

## 99 **CONTRIBUTION OF ORGANELLES IN THE SHAPING OF CYTOSOLIC CALCIUM INCREASES** 100 **IN RESPONSE TO SALT AND OSMOTIC STRESSES**

101 Plants are particularly sensitive to abiotic stress, and their perception elicits i) characteristic  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$   
102 increase, ii) activation of protein kinases and phosphatases, iii) modulation of gene expression and  
103 iv) hormone biosynthesis (Gong et al., 1998; van Der Luit et al., 1999; Knight and Knight, 2001;  
104 Tracy et al., 2008; Krebs et al., 2012; Choi et al., 2014a; 2014b; Yuan et al., 2014; Wagner et al.,  
105 2019; Peleg and Blumwald 2011; Zhu, 2002; 2016). In this section, we will detail recent evidence  
106 showing the involvement of different subcellular compartments in the shaping of cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$   
107 signature in response to abiotic stress, focusing on salt and osmotic stress, and reporting, when  
108 available, the consequent downstream effects on the plant's physiology.

109 Salt and osmotic stresses are stimuli that induce in plants a quick  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  increase with dose-  
110 dependent as well as tissue-specific responses (Kiegle et al., 2000). The application of these  
111 stresses has been efficiently exploited to design genetic screenings that were instrumental in  
112 identifying salt- and osmo- sensors as well as key components involved in the signal transduction  
113 (Yuan et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020). Such genetic screenings were based on  
114 *Arabidopsis* (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) seedlings expressing the genetically encoded  $Ca^{2+}$  sensor  
115 aequorin targeted to the cytosol (**Box 1; Fig. 2**). Moreover, the exposure to salt and osmotic stress  
116 of *Arabidopsis* seedlings expressing genetically encoded  $Ca^{2+}$  sensors localised in different  
117 subcellular compartments (**Box 1; Fig. 2**) (reviewed in Stael et al., 2012; Costa et al., 2018),  
118 highlighted that besides the cytosol, also chloroplasts, non-green plastids, mitochondria,  
119 endoplasmic reticulum (ER), Golgi apparatus, and nuclei experience  $Ca^{2+}$  transients (Xiong et al.,  
120 2004; Loro et al., 2012; Ordenes et al., 2012; Bonza et al., 2013; Sello et al., 2016; Huang et al.,  
121 2017; Corso et al., 2018; Kelner et al., 2018; Teardo et al., 2019). In most of the reported cases, the  
122 analysed subcellular compartments showed  $Ca^{2+}$  transients that followed the  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  increase,  
123 therefore, behaving as sinks and not as sources of  $Ca^{2+}$  (reviewed in Stael et al., 2012; Costa et al.,

124 2018). This result allows us to hypothesize a primary role for subcellular compartments in the  
125 shaping of the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature rather than in its generation (McAinsh and Pittman, 2009).

126

### 127 ***Organellar calcium in salt stress responses***

128 Plants expressing genetically  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensors targeted to different subcellular compartments (i.e.  
129 aequorin, Cameleon, R-GECO1, and G-GECO1.2) (Knight et al., 1991; Miyawaki et al., 1997; Zhao  
130 et al., 2011) (**Box 1; Fig. 2**) were instrumental to show that salt stress induces a transient  
131 accumulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the cytosol, ER, chloroplasts/plastids and nucleus (Bonza et al., 2013; Sello  
132 et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017; Corso et al., 2018; Kelner et al., 2018; Teardo et al., 2019). Some  
133 pieces of evidence support the role of ER, chloroplasts, and vacuoles in the dampening and/or  
134 shaping of the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase.

135 The genetic ablation of the ER-localised Arabidopsis  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /cation transporter AtCCX2 (*ccx2*-knockout  
136 (KO) mutant) leads to a reduced salt-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase, and less salt-resistant plants  
137 compared to wild type. Remarkably, *CCX2* overexpression (*CCX2*-OX) has the opposite effect, with  
138 an exacerbation of the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  transient maximum and plants more resistant to salt stress compared  
139 to wild type (Corso et al., 2018). Thus, a link between the magnitude of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature and plant  
140 resistance was proposed. These data highlight the involvement of AtCCX2 and, therefore, of the ER,  
141 in the regulation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in response to salt stress (Corso et al., 2018). The study of AtCCX2  
142 topology in the ER membrane, as well as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport analyses in isolated ER fractions from wild  
143 type and mutant plants, should allow us to better define the AtCCX2 mode of action and its  
144 physiological function.

145 The role of chloroplasts in the regulation of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase in response to salt stress (e.g. NaCl)  
146 was also demonstrated. This evidence came from a genetic screen of Arabidopsis mutants defective  
147 in salt stress-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  elevation that allowed the identification of the chloroplast-localised  
148 glycosyl-transferase QUASIMODO1 (AtQUA1), a protein involved in the stacking of thylakoids  
149 grana. Compared to the wild type, the *qua1-4* mutant exhibited a dramatically greater increase in  
150  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  under NaCl treatment (Zheng et al., 2017), and this effect was linked to the activity of the

151 chloroplast  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor Calcium Sensing Receptor (CAS) (Han et al., 2003; Nomura et al., 2008;  
152 2012). There was no measurement of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  in the chloroplast stroma or thylakoid lumen of the *qua1-*  
153 4 mutant, thus, we lack experimental evidence that the alteration of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  is directly dependent on  
154 a deregulated chloroplast  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  handling. Nevertheless, in independent studies, by using Arabidopsis  
155 plants expressing the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor aequorin directed to the chloroplasts/plastids stroma (**Box 1, Fig.**  
156 **2**), it has been shown that these compartments transiently accumulate  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in response to salt stress  
157 (Sello et al., 2016, Teardo et al., 2019). At the present time, knowledge about the molecular players  
158 ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -permeable channels or transporters in the outer and/or inner membrane) involved in the  
159 chloroplast  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation in response to salt stress is rather limited. The Arabidopsis Glutamate  
160 Receptor-Like Channel AtGLR3.4 is permeable to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Vincill et al., 2012) (**Box 2; Fig. 3**), and  
161 besides being localised in the plasma membrane (PM) (Meyerhoff et al., 2005, Vincill et al., 2012) it  
162 was also reported to be present in chloroplasts (Teardo et al., 2011). Two Arabidopsis independent  
163 AtGLR3.4 mutant alleles, *atglr3.4-1* and *atglr3.4-2*, showed an impaired NaCl-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$   
164 increase and a more salt-sensitive phenotype during seed germination and post-germination growth  
165 compared to wild type plants (Cheng et al., 2018). However, the fact that data regarding the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
166 dynamics in the chloroplasts/plastids of these mutants are lacking, does not allow clear conclusions  
167 to be drawn. In addition, no other evidence has supported the chloroplast localization of GLR3.4,  
168 thus this result might require validation.

169 The role of intracellular compartments in the shaping of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  transients in response to salt stress  
170 was also found in *Physcomitrium patens* (formerly *Physcomitrella patens*), where the mRNA coding  
171 for the tonoplast-localised PIIB-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase (**Box 2; Fig. 3**) PCA1 was shown to be  
172 upregulated by NaCl treatment. *PCA1* loss-of-function mutants ( $\Delta PCA1$ ) exhibit a sustained elevated  
173  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  in response to salt, and an enhanced salt susceptibility and higher cell death rates upon  
174 treatment. Remarkably, the altered  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  response in the  $\Delta PCA1$  lines corresponded with the altered  
175 expression level of stress-induced genes, suggesting the disturbance of a stress-associated  
176 signaling pathway (Qudeimat et al., 2008). Although direct evidence of an impaired  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
177 accumulation in the vacuole in the  $\Delta PCA1$  was not reported, the well-defined role of PIIB-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -  
178 ATPases in the transport of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  out of the cytosol (**Box 2**) strongly supports a direct role of PCA1

179 in the restoration of prestimulus  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ , with the vacuole working as a cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$   
180 capacitor/buffer (Qudeimat et al., 2008). In Arabidopsis, the two tonoplast-localised P1B-type  $Ca^{2+}$ -  
181 ATPase isoforms AtACA4 and AtACA11 (**Box 2, Fig. 3**) have a role in the regulation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  in  
182 leaf epidermal cells in response to bacterial flagellin (flg22) (see next section) (Hilleary et al., 2020),  
183 and in the salicylic acid-dependent programmed cell death pathway (Boursiac et al., 2010), but so  
184 far, in plants, no data are available regarding their role in salt stress, even if ACA4 conferred  
185 protection against osmotic stress such as high NaCl, KCl, and mannitol when expressed in yeast  
186 cells (Geisler et al., 2000). Nevertheless, a key role of the vacuole in the regulation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  in  
187 response to this stress was shown in Arabidopsis. Choi and colleagues, by challenging Arabidopsis  
188 seedling root tip cells with 100 mM NaCl, demonstrated the existence of a long-distance root-to-  
189 shoot cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  wave responsible for the induction of the expression of stress-regulated genes  
190 in the shoot (Choi et al., 2014b). The role of the vacuole in this process was evidenced by the fact  
191 that the ablation of the tonoplast-localized two-pore channel AtTPC1 (Peiter et al., 2005) strongly  
192 dampened the speed of the  $Ca^{2+}$  wave, whereas its overexpression boosted it (Choi et al., 2014b).  
193 Importantly, upon salt stress, the *tpc1*-KO mutant did not show the upregulation of stress related  
194 marker genes in the shoot such as the Multi-Stress-Responsive Zinc-Finger Protein (*ZAT12*) and  
195 the Calmodulin-Related Touch 2 (*TCH2*) (Choi et al., 2014). Despite some controversy about a direct  
196 involvement of AtTPC1 in the release of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the vacuole (Gradogna et al., 2009; Beyhl et al.,  
197 2009; Ranf et al., 2008; Lenglet et al., 2017, Hedrich et al., 2018, Jašlan et al., 2019), these results  
198 demonstrate the importance of this compartment in the plant response to salt stress and in the overall  
199 strategy that plants adopt to cope with it. Of note, Dindas et al. (2021) have recently proposed,  
200 through a modeling approach, that the involvement of AtTPC1 in the long distance signaling is not  
201 due to its direct involvement in the release of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the vacuole, but rather depends on its  
202 capacity to transport  $K^+$  which is regulated by the vacuolar membrane potential. Thus, in accordance  
203 with Jezek and Blatt (2017), the cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  signature could be intimately connected with the flux  
204 of ions other than  $Ca^{2+}$ .

205 Defining the importance of the subcellular compartments in the shaping of cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  signatures  
206 in response to salt stress was achieved by an orthogonal approach. Thanks to the expression, in

207 Arabidopsis plants, of the rat Ca<sup>2+</sup>-binding protein parvalbumin (PV) fused to either a nuclear export  
208 (PV-NES) or a nuclear localization sequence (NLS-PV), the cytosolic or nucleosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> were  
209 selectively buffered (Huang et al., 2017). When both cytosolic and nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels were  
210 monitored in root cells by means of the Cameleon Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensor (YC3.6) (**Box 1, Fig. 2**), both  
211 compartments experienced salt- and osmotic-induced [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] increases. Buffering of nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup>  
212 prevented the nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup> increase but not the cytosolic one, whereas buffering of cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup>  
213 did not affect the nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup> rise. In both cases, in response to salt stress, the length of the primary  
214 root was impaired, and the expression of several abiotic stress-induced genes was deregulated,  
215 especially when nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup> was buffered (Huang et al., 2017). This latter result strongly supports  
216 the idea that the alteration of cellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> signatures, in particular at the nuclear level, has a direct  
217 effect on the regulation of gene transcription and is in accordance with the demonstration that Ca<sup>2+</sup>  
218 can regulate gene expression via CDPK and CaM binding transcription factors (CAMTA) (Reddy et  
219 al., 2011; Dubiella et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2013; Whalley and Knight, 2013; Lenzoni and Knight,  
220 2019; Liu et al., 2020).

221

### 222 ***Organellar calcium in osmotic stress responses***

223 Salt imposes on plant cells both ionic and osmotic stress, but this latter is *per se* detrimental for plant  
224 growth (Xiong and Zhu, 2002; Yang and Guo, 2018). Both hyper- and hypo-osmotic stress elicit  
225 [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>cyt</sub> increases (Yuan et al., 2014; Basu and Haswell, 2020). Similarly to what occurred with salt  
226 stress (see above), the Arabidopsis *ccx2*-KO or *CCX2*-OX plants showed a smaller and a higher  
227 [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>cyt</sub> increase respectively compared to the wild type when subjected to both hyper- and hypo-  
228 osmotic shocks. Moreover, in response to the same stress, the ER of the *ccx2*-KO accumulated  
229 more Ca<sup>2+</sup> than the wild type. Overall, these data demonstrate that the AtCCX2 transporter is  
230 involved in the regulation of Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport between the ER and cytosol (**Fig. 3**) in response to both  
231 hyper- and hypo-osmotic stress (Corso et al., 2018). Interestingly, even if localised to the tonoplast,  
232 the *Oryza sativa* (rice) CCX2 (OsCCX2) (**Fig. 3**) that mediates Ca<sup>2+</sup> /cation transport in yeast, is also  
233 upregulated in response to drought stress (Yadav et al., 2015). However, at present, no information

234 about its putative role in the regulation of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis has been reported.

235 Being triggered by a drop in the soil water potential, hydrotropism can be considered as a response  
236 to a sort of osmotic stress (Dietrich, 2018; Fromm, 2019). The involvement of the ER in the regulation  
237 of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling was recently highlighted in the hydrotropic response of Arabidopsis roots. The  
238 inhibition of AtECA1, a PIIA-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase (**Box 2; Fig. 3**), by the Myc-Interacting Zinc-Finger  
239 Protein 1 (AtMIZ1) determined a slow asymmetric rise of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  in the elongation zone of root tip  
240 cells which was required for the root bending towards areas of higher water potential. The  
241 Arabidopsis *eca1*-KO and the pharmacological inhibition of AtECA1 by cyclopiazonic acid in wild  
242 type seedlings produced a higher  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase and exacerbated the root bending response,  
243 demonstrating the key role of the ER in this signaling pathway (Shkolnik et al., 2018). Remarkably,  
244 by using Arabidopsis seedlings expressing an ER-localized Cameleon  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor (CRT-D4ER)  
245 (Bonza et al., 2013) (**Box 1; Fig. 2**), it was shown that the hydrotropic stimulus triggered a decrease  
246 in ER luminal  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ , supporting a role for the ER as a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  source in this process (Shkolnik et al.,  
247 2018). This latter result is thus a demonstration of direct involvement of the ER in the generation of  
248 a  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  transient through the inhibition of a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pump and not through the opening of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -  
249 permeable channels. A better understanding of how PIIA-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPases are fine-tuned is a key  
250 issue that will deserve attention in the near future.

251 A recent report demonstrated that the lack of the so called AtcMCU, a member of the mitochondrial  
252 calcium uniporter (MCU) family (Baughman et al., 2011; De Stefani et al., 2011; Stael et al., 2012)  
253 (**Box 2; Fig. 3**) localised both in mitochondria and chloroplasts (Teardo et al., 2019), reduced the  
254 stromal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation in response to hyper-osmotic stress, with a consequent higher rise of the  
255  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  peak compared to the wild type (Teardo et al., 2019). The lack of activation of mitogen  
256 activated protein kinase 3 and 6 (MAPK3/6) and a deregulated gene expression pattern in the *cmcu*-  
257 KO plants, suggested the hypothesis that AtcMCU is required for a retrograde chloroplast signaling in  
258 response to the osmotic stress (Teardo et al., 2019). On the other hands, the AtcMCU presence in  
259 mitochondria (Teardo et al., 2019) would suggest that, in the *cmcu*-KO, the hyper-osmotic induced  
260  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics could be altered also in this compartment, but at the present time, data to support  
261 this hypothesis are lacking. Interestingly, AtcMCU did not seem to be involved in the transport of

262  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  into chloroplasts during salt stress thus suggesting its stress-specific role in the osmotic  
263 response (Teardo et al., 2019).

264 The possibility that plastids/chloroplasts represent a hub for the regulation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics  
265 in response to osmotic stress is sustained by another recent study as well. The lack of two plastidial  
266 envelope-localised  $\text{K}^+$  exchange antiporter (KEA) transporters, AtKEA1 and AtKEA2 (**Fig. 3**),  
267 impaired the rapid hyper-osmotic-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase (Stephan et al., 2016). At present, the  
268 mechanism responsible for the alteration of the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature in the *kea1/kea2* mutant is  
269 not understood, and a study of stromal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics is required.

270 Based on the cited works, it is evident that ER, vacuole and chloroplasts/plastids are involved in the  
271 response to different abiotic stresses by contributing to shaping the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics, and  
272 that proper nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics are important for the regulation of gene transcription. Despite the  
273 recent identification of some molecular players involved in the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation in mitochondria  
274 (Wagner et al., 2015; Teardo et al., 2017; Selles et al., 2018), and the proposed role of this organelle  
275 in the salt stress response through retrograde signaling (Vanderauwera et al., 2012), there are no  
276 direct demonstrations that an impaired  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation in this organelle can affect the cytosolic  
277  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature in response to abiotic stress.

278 Even less is known about a possible role of the other compartments, such as the Golgi apparatus,  
279 where the Arabidopsis PIIA-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase AtECA3 and the rice PIIB-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase OsACA7  
280 have been localised (**Fig. 3**) (Mills et al., 2008; Singh et al., 2013). Interestingly, yeast cells  
281 expressing the OsACA7 are less sensitive to salt tolerance (Singh et al., 2013). However, since a  
282 clear role of these two pumps *in planta* has not been reported, further research in this direction is  
283 required.

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## 285 **CONTRIBUTION OF ORGANELLES IN THE SHAPING OF CYTOSOLIC CALCIUM INCREASES** 286 **IN RESPONSES TO BIOTIC STIMULI**

287 One of the earliest events occurring in different plant biotic interactions is a rise in cytosolic and  
288 nuclear  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  (Blume et al., 2000; Oldroyd and Downey, 2006). Plant biotic interactions can be

289 beneficial, as in the case of symbiosis with Rhizobia and Mycorrhiza, or detrimental as in those with  
290 a wide range of pathogens (e.g. *Pseudomonas syringae*). In this section, we will briefly touch on the  
291 role played by the nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in symbiotic interactions, and then we will address more extensively  
292 recent evidence of how organellar  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis is involved in the regulation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
293 signatures in response to pathogen elicitors.

294 Symbiotic interactions have been mainly studied in Leguminosae in which a clear role of nuclear  
295  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling was reported (reviewed in Oldroyd and Downie, 2006; Charpentier, 2018). It is well  
296 known that the perception of nodulation (NOD) and mycorrhizal (MYC) factors trigger characteristic  
297 nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations that are then transduced by the nuclear-localized  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ - and calmodulin-  
298 dependent Ser/Thr protein kinase (CCaMK) (reviewed in Charpentier and Oldroyd, 2013). Since the  
299 symbiosis interaction topic and the role played by nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is so vast, we redirect the readers to  
300 a recent review (e.g. Charpentier, 2018). Nonetheless, it is worth noting that one of the major  
301 discoveries in the field, made by Charpentier et al. (2016), was the identification of the *Medicago*  
302 *truncatula* cyclic nucleotide gated channel 15 (MtCNGC15) as one of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -permeable channels  
303 involved in the generation of NOD-induced nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations (**Box 2; Fig. 3**). Of note,  
304 MtCNGC15, being specifically localised in the nuclear envelope (NE), presumably promotes the  
305 release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the ER directly into the nucleoplasm (Charpentier et al., 2016) even if a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
306 depletion from NE was not reported. Previously, it was also demonstrated that the *Medicago* PIIA-  
307 type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase MtMCA8 is targeted to the inner NE membrane (**Fig. 3**) and is essential for  
308 symbiotic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations, suggesting its role in efficient  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  reloading from the nucleoplasm  
309 (Capoen et al., 2011). A mathematical modeling approach predicted that besides the need for a  
310  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -permeable channel (i.e. MtCNGC15) and a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase (i.e. MtMCA8), the generation of  
311 nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations requires the activity of a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -activated  $\text{K}^+$  channel to counterbalance the  
312 movement of positive charges. The Doesn't Make Infections 1 (MtDMI1) channel is permeable to  $\text{K}^+$ ,  
313 is localised at the NE and is therefore, presumably the component needed to counterbalance the  
314 charge caused by the influx of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  into the nucleoplasm (Granqvist et al., 2012). The same group  
315 later demonstrated that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  can diffuse from the nucleus into the cytosol (Kelner et al., 2018), but  
316 no physiological function has been ascribed to this  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  rise.

317 Pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) are recognized by cell surface receptors (pattern-  
318 recognition receptors PRR) and activate an array of basal defence responses (PAMP-triggered  
319 immunity, PTI) (Zipfel and Oldroyd, 2017; Zhang et al., 2020). In response to PAMPs, the plant  
320 immune system relies on two parallel signal transduction pathways based on MAPK and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
321 signaling leading to transcriptional reprogramming (Boudsocq et al., 2010). In Arabidopsis, the  
322 PAMP flagellin (flg22 peptide) induces a quick  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase in leaves and roots (Ranf et al., 2008;  
323 Yuan et al., 2017; Emonet et al., 2021; Hilleary et al., 2020). The flg22-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  rise is  
324 suggested to be mediated by different classes of PM-localised  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -permeable channels with  
325 evidence supporting a role of both members of GLR and CNGC families (Kwaaitaal et al., 2011; Tian  
326 et al., 2019; Bjornson et al., 2021). Nonetheless, in guard cells the flg22-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase  
327 is, at least partially, dependent on members of the mechanically activated channel AtOSCA family  
328 (AtOSCA1.3 and 1.7) (Thor et al., 2020) suggesting that multiple families of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels contribute  
329 to the overall pattern-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  response in Arabidopsis.

330 Direct involvement of the subcellular compartments in the generation of the flg22-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$   
331 has been predicted (Ma et al., 2017), but experimental evidence is still lacking. Nevertheless, by  
332 using Arabidopsis plants expressing chloroplast-localised aequorin, it was shown that they  
333 transiently accumulate  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the stroma in response to flg22 and that this stromal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient  
334 temporally follows the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase (Nomura et al., 2012). Similarly to what was observed in  
335 response to salt stress (see the previous section), the lack of the chloroplast  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor AtCAS  
336 affected flg22-induced chloroplast  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics, and such a CAS-dependent mechanism was  
337 involved in transcriptional reprogramming through retrograde signaling (Nomura et al., 2012).  
338 Neither clues about the mechanism of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport across chloroplasts' membranes, nor  
339 consequent impairment of the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature was reported. The fact that the *cmcu*-KO had  
340 an impaired  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ -induced chloroplast  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  accumulation (Teardo et al., 2019) makes this channel  
341 a putative candidate to mediate the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx in response to flg22, but there is no direct evidence  
342 for this as yet.

343 The impairment of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport across the tonoplast was also shown to impact the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
344 signature in response to flg22 (Hilleary et al., 2020). The dissection of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics by

345 using the ultrasensitive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor Cameleon YC-Nano 65 (Horikawa et al., 2010; Choi et al.,  
346 2014b) in epidermal leaf cells of Arabidopsis plants lacking the two tonoplast-localised PIIB-type  
347  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase AtACA4 and AtACA11 (**Fig. 3**), revealed that this double KO mutant exhibited higher  
348 basal  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  and a larger flg22-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase compared to the wild type. This was  
349 accompanied by an upregulation of the defense regulator gene *CBP60g* and a higher resistance to  
350 *Pst* bacterial challenge at one day post-inoculation (Hilleary et al., 2020). No attempts to measure  
351 vacuole  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics were carried out. However, the *aca4/aca11* mutant phenotype was  
352 complemented when the PIIB-type PM localised- $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase AtACA8, was (mis-)targeted to the  
353 tonoplast of the mutant. This latter result strongly supports the idea that the observed phenotype of  
354 *aca4/aca11* was directly dependent on the impairment of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  import into the vacuole lumen. Very  
355 similar observations were made in the Arabidopsis *aca1/aca2/aca7* triple KO mutant lacking three  
356 ER-localised PIIB-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPases. In comparison to wild type, the triple mutant showed i) a  
357 higher  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  in leaf cells at rest, ii) an increased magnitude and duration of the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  transient  
358 induced by flg22 treatment, iii) smaller rosettes, and iv) a high frequency of leaf lesions (Ishka et al.,  
359 2021). Similarly to the *aca4/aca11* mutant, the lesions phenotype of *aca1/aca2/aca7* was  
360 suppressed by the expression of a transgene encoding NahG, an enzyme that degrades salicylic  
361 acid (SA) (Ishka et al., 2021). Once again these results demonstrate the importance of the fine tuning  
362 of the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis both at rest and during the recovery of the prestimulus  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ , a  
363 process mediated by active  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transporters present in the tonoplast and ER, extruding  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  out of  
364 the cytosol (Qudeimat et al., 2008; Costa et al., 2017; Hilleary et al., 2020; Ishka et al., 2021) (**Box**  
365 **2; Fig. 3**).

366 Besides Arabidopsis, *Nicotiana tabacum* plants have also been used as a model for several studies  
367 investigating the role of cytosolic and organellar  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the response to pathogen elicitors. *N.*  
368 *tabacum* plants are particularly sensitive to cryptogein, a 10-kD protein secreted by the oomycete  
369 *Phytophthora cryptogea*, that induces a hypersensitive response (HR) in *Nicotiana tabacum* (var.  
370 Xanthi) plants and systemic acquired resistance against various pathogens (Bourque et al., 2002).  
371 Experiments using cells of *Nicotiana tabacum* var. Xanthi expressing aequorin localised to the  
372 cytosol, chloroplast and mitochondria showed that cryptogein was effective in inducing specific  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

373 signatures in each compartment with chloroplasts clearly showing a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase that peaked after  
374 the cytosolic one (Manzoor et al., 2012). Interestingly, a pharmacological approach indicated that  
375 inositol trisphosphate (IP3) could play a role in the cryptogein-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling, suggesting its  
376 possible contribution in promoting a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores (e.g. vacuole or ER)  
377 (Manzoor et al., 2012). Indeed, the silencing of the *N. tabacum* ER-localised P1IB-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase  
378 NbCA1 (**Fig. 3**) accelerated the cryptogein-induced cell death in leaf cells (Zhu et al., 2010).  
379 Importantly, by using a genetically encoded  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor (Case 12) the authors showed that the  
380 downregulation of NbCA1 resulted in an altered cryptogein-induced cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature, with an  
381 increase of amplitude and duration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spikes. These findings suggest that the NbCA1 is involved  
382 in the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  efflux pathway that controls cell death during plant innate immune response (Zhu et al.,  
383 2010). In addition, other proteinaceous elicitors including flg22 were shown to induce in *N. tabacum*  
384 cells, cytosolic and nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  elevations, with this latter apparently dependent on  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$ , IP3  
385 and reactive active oxygen species (ROS) (Lecourieux et al., 2005).

386 The involvement of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport across ER in plant-pathogen interactions was also reported by  
387 studying OsXA10, a *R* gene for resistance to bacterial blight in rice. The OsXA10 protein is localised at  
388 the ER membrane where it is assembled as hexamers potentially working as a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transporter (Tian  
389 et al., 2014). It was shown that the expression of OsXA10 in different systems (e.g. rice, *Nicotiana*  
390 *benthamiana*, and mammalian HeLa cells) triggered programmed cell death in a mechanism that is  
391 dependent on the release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the ER (Tian et al., 2014). In leaf epidermal cells of *N.*  
392 *benthamiana*, the expression of the OsXA10-mCherry fusion disturbed the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis,  
393 inducing a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  depletion of the ER accompanied by a  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase. Similar results were also  
394 obtained by expressing the OsXA10-RFP fusion in human HeLa cells (Tian et al., 2014). Noticeably,  
395 the expression of OsXA10 variants shown to be able to abolish the ER  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  depletion also abolished  
396 the programmed cell death in *N. benthamiana* and HeLa cells as well as the disease resistance in  
397 rice (Tian et al., 2014) strongly supporting, in this specific case, the role of ER as a source of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
398 in the triggering of a  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase and promoting cell death.

399 Whereas the OsXA10 protein has an apparent direct role in the plant response to pathogens through  
400 the regulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis in the ER, other indirect evidence highlighted the importance of

401 proper  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis of this intracellular compartment in response to biotic stress. In  
402 Arabidopsis, the ER localised  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding protein calreticulin 3 (AtCRT3) is essential for the correct  
403 maturation of the EF-Tu receptor (EFR) (Saijo et al., 2009) which recognizes the bacterial elicitor  
404 elf18 on the cell surface (Zipfel et al., 2006). Although  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  measurements in the ER lumen of the  
405 *Atcrt3* mutant are lacking, this result provides indirect evidence about the critical role of ER  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
406 homeostasis in plant immunity.

407 In conclusion, the involvement of ER, vacuole and chloroplasts in the regulation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
408 homeostasis/  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients induced in response to pathogen elicitors has been clearly  
409 demonstrated. In contrast, even if *N. tabacum* plants treated with cryptogein showed an  
410 accumulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the mitochondrial matrix (Manzoor et al., 2012), evidence of a role for  
411 mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  elevations in this physiological context is still missing. However, the fact that a  
412 splicing variant of the Arabidopsis AtGLR3.5 was localized to the inner mitochondrial membrane and  
413 that the *glr3.5* mutant showed accelerated leaf senescence (Teardo et al., 2015), allows speculation  
414 about a role of mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport in the plant responses to biotic stress. On the other hand,  
415 the *glr3.5* showed a mild phenotype regarding the mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake in response to leaf  
416 wounding and no mutant showing a strong impairment in the transport of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  has been reported  
417 yet. The isolation of such a line would represent a good tool to further investigate any possible role  
418 of this compartment in plant-pathogen interactions as well as other responses.

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## 420 **CONTRIBUTION OF ORGANELLES IN THE REGULATION OF CALCIUM HOMEOSTASIS IN** 421 **STOMATAL MOVEMENTS**

422 Stomata are made of a pair of guard cells present mainly in the leaf epidermis, and through them,  
423 plants acquire the  $\text{CO}_2$  needed for photosynthesis and release  $\text{O}_2$ . When stomatal pores are open,  
424 plants, besides exchanging gases, lose water via transpiration, and, therefore, to prevent an  
425 excessive loss of water with consequent plant wilting, the opening of the pores must be finely  
426 controlled (Taiz et al, 2014).

427 Stomata open in response to light and close in response to drought stress, elevated  $\text{CO}_2$ , ozone,

428 low humidity, pathogen attack, and other stimuli (reviewed in Kim et al., 2010). The importance of  
429 stomata in plant physiology has elected guard cells as a highly developed model system for  
430 dissecting signal transduction mechanisms in plants, and for elucidating how individual signaling  
431 mechanisms can interact within a network in a single cell (Kim et al., 2010). Indeed, stomatal guard  
432 cells represent, together with pollen tubes and root hairs (see below) cell models in which  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
433 signaling has been deeply investigated (reviewed in Kim et al., 2010; Jezek and Blatt, 2017).

434 The opening and closing of stomata are mechanistically regulated by the coordinated movement  
435 across plasma and vacuolar membranes of ions (e.g.  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ) and molecules (e.g. malate, glucose),  
436 which by determining the osmotically-driven movement of water, affect cells turgor (Pandey et al.,  
437 2007; Wang et al., 2014; Cubero-Font and De Angeli, 2021; Demes et al., 2020; Flütsch et al., 2020a;  
438 2020b). The passage of ions across membranes is dependent upon the activity of different ion  
439 channels, the gating of which depends on several actors (e.g. membrane potential, phosphorylation,  
440 cytosolic pH, cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) (reviewed in Jezek and Blatt, 2017). In response to drought, plants  
441 synthesize the hormone abscisic acid (ABA) that induces stomatal closure through both  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -  
442 dependent and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -independent signaling pathways (MacRobbie, 1992; Laanemets et al., 2013;  
443 Huang et al., 2019). Guard cells were among the first cell types where *in vivo* analyses of cytosolic  
444  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics were studied by using firstly,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensitive dyes and later, genetically encoded  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
445 sensors (McAinsh et al., 1995; Allen et al., 1999; Garcia-Mata et al., 2003). Years of intense studies  
446 have shown that ABA, plasma membrane hyperpolarization, ROS, external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , among other  
447 stimuli, activate plasma membrane  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  permeable channels leading to cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increases  
448 (Hamilton et al., 2000; Pei et al., 2000; Murata et al., 2001; Kwak et al., 2003). Interestingly, in guard  
449 cells cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increases often occur in the form of repetitive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations whose frequency,  
450 duration, amplitude and transient number, which are linked to fluctuations in the membrane voltage  
451 and in ions' fluxes, regulate the stomatal aperture (Allen et al., 2001; Minguet-Parramona et al.,  
452 2016). Experimental evidence demonstrated that in several cases the generation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
453 transients and oscillations were dependent upon both an influx of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the apoplast (Hamilton  
454 et al., 2000; Pei et al., 2000; Murata et al., 2001), and its release from internal stores (Garcia-Mata  
455 et al., 2003). Molecules like Nitric Oxide (NO), Cyclic ADP-ribose (cADPR), Inositol trisphosphate

456 (IP3), and Inositol hexakisphosphate (IP6) were shown to activate endomembrane channels, thus  
457 promoting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from internal stores (Alexandre et al., 1990; Muir and Sanders, 1996; Wu et  
458 al., 1997; Leckie et al., 1998; Grabov and Blatt, 1999; Garcia-Mata et al., 2003; Lemtiri-Chlieh et al.,  
459 2003; reviewed in Jezek and Blatt, 2017). Of note, ABA activates the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  permeable channels at  
460 the plasma membrane (Hamilton et al., 2000; Pei et al., 2000, Murata et al., 2001; Kwak et al., 2003)  
461 and the consequent influx of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  into the cytosol stimulates the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from intracellular  
462 stores, a process described as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release (CICR) (Grabov and Blatt, 1998, 1999).  
463 While computational and modeling approaches have indicated that the release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from internal  
464 stores may account for more than 95% of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entering the cytosol during  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients  
465 increase (Chen et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Minguet-Parramona et al., 2016), the molecular  
466 identity of channels or transporters mediating this  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release lags behind.

467 Since the slow vacuolar ion channel (SV) coded by the *AtTPC1* gene (Peiter et al., 2005) is  
468 permeable to both  $\text{K}^{+}$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and its activity is modulated by cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , *AtTPC1* was one of  
469 the main candidates predicted to be involved in the CICR process (Hedrich and Neher, 1987; Ward  
470 and Schroeder, 1994; Peiter et al., 2005; Gradogna et al., 2009; Dindas et al., 2021). Although data  
471 showed that *AtTPC1* was required for the inhibition of the light-induced stomatal opening in the  
472 presence of external ABA (Peiter et al., 2005), it was later demonstrated that the *tpc1* null mutant  
473 closes stomata like the wild type in response to ABA, and Methyl Jasmonate (MeJA), but not in  
474 response to external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Islam et al., 2010). Interestingly, when cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  was monitored in  
475 Arabidopsis guard cells expressing the Cameleon  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor (**Box 1, Fig. 2**), *tpc1* did not show  
476 any difference in the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , ABA, and MeJA induced cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations compared to the wild  
477 type (Islam et al., 2010). Thus, apparently, in guard cells a direct contribution of *AtTPC1* in the CICR  
478 process is negligible.

479 On the other hand, the importance of the transport of ions across the tonoplast for proper regulation  
480 of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics has been demonstrated. The Arabidopsis De-Etiolated 3 mutant (*det3*)  
481 lacking the subunit C of the vacuolar  $\text{H}^{+}$ -ATPase showed, in guard cells, altered cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
482 dynamics in response to external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and ROS (i.e.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) compared to wild type (Allen et al., 2000).  
483 To be precise, whereas in the wild type external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  induced characteristic cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

484 oscillations, the *det3* mutant showed sustained cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increases and did not close the  
485 stomata (Allen et al., 2000). Conversely, in the same mutant, ABA was effective in inducing stomatal  
486 closure, showing a wild type pattern of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations (Allen et al., 2000). Thus, it is  
487 plausible that the *det3* mutant, which is defective in  $\text{H}^+$  transport across the tonoplast, also presents  
488 an impaired  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake in the subcellular compartments such as the vacuole and possibly the ER  
489 (Schumacher et al., 1999; Allen et al., 2000). The demonstration that several  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport systems,  
490 including CAXs and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPases (**Box 2**) catalyse a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{H}^+$  exchange (Bonza and De Michelis,  
491 2011; Demidchik et al., 2018) supports the prediction that defects in  $\text{H}^+$  transport can also affect  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
492 transport and its homeostasis (Hills et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Jezek and Blatt, 2017; Dindas et  
493 al., 2021). At present, to the best of our knowledge, no attempts to investigate vacuolar and ER  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
494 dynamics during stomatal movements have been made. As a consequence, the analysis of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
495 dynamics in these two compartments is an important challenge for future research. Available  
496 mutants like the Arabidopsis *aca4/aca11*, and *aca1/aca2/aca7* (Hilleary et al., 2020; Ishka et al.,  
497 2021) already represent an important genetic resource to perform analyses in this direction. [In  
498 support of this, analyses of stomatal conductance carried out in these two mutants showed kinetics  
499 that slowed significantly on repeated  \$\text{CO}\_2\$  elevations compared to the wild type. These results  
500 underpin an important role played by the pools of endomembrane  \$\text{Ca}^{2+}\$  in a sort of a “carbon memory”  
501 of stomatal responsiveness to light and  \$\text{CO}\_2\$  that ultimately affects photosynthesis and water use by  
502 the plant \(Jezek et al., 2021\).](#) Besides ER and vacuole, analyses of nuclear, mitochondrial,  
503 peroxisomal, and chloroplasts  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics have been carried out in guard cells, but their  
504 contribution in the regulation of stomatal movements is still missing. Stimuli, such as hyper- and  
505 hypo-osmotic stress also induce, besides a  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increase, nuclear and mitochondrial  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  rises  
506 (Loro et al., 2012) and plasma membrane hyperpolarization triggers cytosolic and peroxisomal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
507 increases (Costa et al., 2010). Of note, it was demonstrated that the Arabidopsis *cmcu*-KO mutant  
508 failed to close the stomata in response to the osmotic stress and lost water faster compared to the  
509 wild type under drought stress (Teardo et al., 2019). Unfortunately, analyses of cytosolic and  
510 chloroplasts  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics in *cmcu*-KO guard cells are lacking. On the other hand, the dual  
511 localisation of cMCU to both chloroplasts and mitochondria would also require the analysis of

512 mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics. As an intriguing component of the chloroplast  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  regulatory network,  
513 the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensing protein CAS localized in chloroplast thylakoid membranes has been associated  
514 with guard cell dynamics. In particular, the lack of AtCAS activity in Arabidopsis, prevents the  
515 cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase in guard cells and the stomatal closure induced by the administration of  
516 external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Nomura et al., 2008; Weini et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the channels and/or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
517 transporters involved in this mechanism are unknown.

518 The large size of guard cells' chloroplasts and the fact that their imaging is relatively easy, allowed  
519  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  imaging analyses in single organelles (Loro et al., 2016). This analysis showed that the  
520 transition from high-to-low-intensity blue light (needed to excite the Cameleon  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor) (**Box 1**,  
521 **Fig. 2**), induces a transient  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase in the stroma. Interestingly, the stromal [ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ] rise was  
522 characterized by two components: i) a series of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spiking superimposed to ii) a gradual sustained  
523  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase (Loro et al., 2016). These  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spikes were dependent on the availability of cytosolic  
524  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and were not synchronized between individual chloroplasts of the same cell. In contrast, the  
525 gradual sustained  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase occurred independently of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , suggesting an  
526 intraorganellar  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release (Loro et al., 2016). At present, the molecular identity of the channels  
527 and/or transporters involved both in the generation of the sustained and transient stromal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
528 increases are not known, but the Arabidopsis AtBICATs, and AtMCU channels are obvious  
529 candidates (**Fig. 3**) (Frank et al., 2019, Teardo et al., 2019).

530 In the future, the combination of modeling, *in vivo* imaging, and genetics will be instrumental to better  
531 define the role played by the subcellular compartments in the stomatal movements.

532

### 533 **CONTRIBUTION OF ORGANELLAR/CYTOSOLIC CALCIUM HOMEOSTASIS IN PLANT** 534 **DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESSES**

535 As reported above organellar  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics have been mainly studied in relation to plant responses  
536 to both abiotic and biotic stresses. Less is known about their functions during developmental  
537 processes, and only a few cases have reported on the roles of different subcellular compartments in  
538 the regulation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics during development. Nevertheless, plants have at least

539 two well-known systems where a precise spatio-temporal regulation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  is required for the  
540 execution of the proper growth processes: pollen tubes (PTs) and root hairs (RHs) (Schoenaers et  
541 al., 2017). While PTs provide for water-independent propagation of species, RHs confer an increase  
542 in root surface area which enhance nutrient and water uptake and better anchor plants to the soil.  
543 PTs and RHs are filamentous cells that grow unidirectionally by depositing flexible cell wall material  
544 at one side of the cell and exploiting turgor pressure as the driving force for elongation, a process  
545 also referred to as tip growth (Schiefelbein et al., 1993; Feijo et al., 2004). Although these tip-growing  
546 systems are very similar, they also display differences in their growth-related molecular machineries  
547 (Feijo et al., 2004).

548

#### 549 ***Role of organellar calcium in directing pollen tube tip growth***

550 Flowering plant reproduction comprises several sequential steps from pollination to fertilization. PTs  
551 growth is essential for reproduction, and they have long been considered outstanding models for cell  
552 biology for a variety of reasons. One important feature of PTs is their prominent dependence on ion  
553 dynamics to promote and regulate growth (Michard et al., 2017). PTs appropriately adjust turgor  
554 pressure by adapting to changes in external osmolarity (Hill et al., 2012). In 1963 it was revealed  
555 that  $Ca^{2+}$  is essential for *in vitro* PTs cultures (Brewbaker and Kwack, 1963), and the relationship  
556 between  $[Ca^{2+}]$  and PTs growth has been extensively examined. By using both  $Ca^{2+}$  sensitive dyes  
557 or genetically encoded  $Ca^{2+}$  sensors, it was evident that a tip-focused  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  gradient occurred in  
558 growing PTs showing regular oscillations that correlate with growth (Holdaway-Clarke et al., 1997;  
559 Iwano et al., 2009; Michard et al., 2011). It was also shown that the perturbation of the tip  $[Ca^{2+}]$   
560 gradient may affect the growth as well as the viability of PTs (Feijo et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2007;  
561 Winship et al., 2017). As in other cell systems, there is clear evidence that the dynamics of  $Ca^{2+}$   
562 signals in PTs are largely controlled by  $Ca^{2+}$  influx and  $Ca^{2+}$  efflux through the plasma membrane  
563 (**Box 2**). Just to cite some examples, GLRs (Michard et al., 2011; Wudick et al., 2018), CNGCs  
564 (Frietsch et al., 2007; Gao et al., 2016; Pan et al., 2019) and isoforms of PIIB- $Ca^{2+}$ -ATPase (Schiøtt  
565 et al., 2004; Ishka et al., 2021) were demonstrated to be required for the proper PT elongation and

566 growth. In a few cases, it was also demonstrated that growth defects were linked to deregulated tip  
567  $[Ca^{2+}]$  oscillations (Michard et al., 2011, Chen et al., 2015).

568 Knowledge about the role of subcellular compartments in the regulation of the tip- $Ca^{2+}$  dynamics is  
569 rather limited, but some research has highlighted a potential role of ER and mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  in  
570 this process (e.g. Holdaway-Clarke et al., 1997; Colaço et al., 2012; Ishka et al., 2021). Of interest,  
571 was the demonstration that the treatment of PTs with caffeine reversibly stops their growth and  
572 dissipates the tip- $Ca^{2+}$  gradient (Pierson et al., 1996; Diao et al., 2018). In mammalian cells, caffeine  
573 is known to promote the release of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the ER through the activation of IP3 receptors (IP3Rs)  
574 (Taylor and Tovey, 2010; Foskett et al., 2007). Thus, it is reasonable to hypothesize that its effect  
575 on pollen could depend on a disturbance of cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$ , dependent on a  $Ca^{2+}$  release from the  
576 ER. However, no IP3Rs have been identified in superior plants (Edel et al., 2017), and no caffeine-  
577 dependent ER- $Ca^{2+}$  release has been reported so far. Nonetheless, the role of  $Ca^{2+}$  transport across  
578 the ER membrane in the regulation of PTs growth was first highlighted by Iwano and colleagues  
579 (Iwano et al., 2009) who analyzed  $Ca^{2+}$  dynamics in the cytosol and ER lumen of Arabidopsis pollen  
580 tubes by using Cameleon  $Ca^{2+}$  sensors localised in the two compartments (YC4.6 and YC3.6 in the  
581 ER and in the cytosol, respectively) (Iwano et al., 2009). The administration of cyclopiazonic acid  
582 that inhibits the activity of ER-localised PIIA-type  $Ca^{2+}$ -ATPases triggered the PTs' growth arrest and  
583 an ER luminal  $[Ca^{2+}]$  decrease (Iwano et al., 2009). This result allowed the authors to ascribe a role  
584 of ER in the fine regulation of the tip-focused  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  gradient (Iwano et al., 2009). To go deeper  
585 inside the ER/cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  relationships during PTs growth, simultaneous observations of  $Ca^{2+}$   
586 dynamics in these two compartments would be required. Whereas there is no genetic evidence that  
587 the lack of the ER PIIA-type  $Ca^{2+}$ -ATPase AtECA1 activity compromises pollen development and  
588 plant fertility, a very recent work showed that the ablation of three ER-localised PIIB-type  $Ca^{2+}$ -  
589 ATPases, AtACA1, 2, and 7 strongly compromised pollen fertility, with a decrease in pollen  
590 transmission efficiency (Ishka et al., 2021). Single knockout mutants did not show any phenotype  
591 demonstrating the existence of functional redundancy (Ishka et al., 2021). Neither cytosolic nor ER  
592  $Ca^{2+}$  dynamics were however analysed.

593 As reported in the previous sections, plant mitochondria accumulate  $Ca^{2+}$  possibly through the

594 activity of the mitochondrial calcium uniporter complex (MCUC) (Wagner et al., 2015, Teardo et al.,  
595 2017), but a demonstration that *in planta* this complex represents the main route for Ca<sup>2+</sup> import is  
596 still missing. Nevertheless, in Arabidopsis, there are six MCU isoforms (Stael et al., 2012) and  
597 experimental evidence supports a role for AtMCU1 and AtMCU2 in the regulation of pollen  
598 germination. Selles et al. (2018) showed that AtMCU1 and AtMCU2 are expressed in the vegetative  
599 cell and in the germinated PTs but were not detectable in the embryo sac. Remarkably, pollen grains  
600 germination and PTs elongation were reduced *in vitro* in *mcu2*-KO mutants and this ultimately led to  
601 the limited paternal transmission of *mcu2*-KO to the progeny. No reproductive phenotype could be  
602 detected in *mcu1*-KO mutants. These results tend to suggest that mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> homeostasis  
603 is an additional player in pollen germination and PTs growth. However, no measurements of both  
604 cytosolic and mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> were carried out in the PTs of these mutant lines, thus the  
605 conclusion that the observed phenotype is directly linked to a deregulated Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport could not  
606 be drawn yet. Similarly to what was suggested for the ER, simultaneous analysis of Ca<sup>2+</sup> dynamics  
607 during PTs growth in the two compartments would be desirable.

608 Another link in support of a role played by the Ca<sup>2+</sup> handling by subcellular compartments in the  
609 regulation of PT growth came from the indirect evidence that tonoplast-localized Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensors are  
610 required to control the developmental process. In Arabidopsis, the calcineurin B-like proteins AtCBL2  
611 and AtCBL3 are significantly expressed in pollen and PTs. AtCBL2 and AtCBL3 were described as  
612 interacting with the AtCIPK12 at the tonoplast, with evident phenotypic consequences at the level of  
613 vacuolar morphology and PTs' polar growth upon mutation or overexpression of *CBL2/3* or *CIPK12*  
614 (Steinhorst et al., 2015). Interestingly, Tang et al. (2020) demonstrated that seedlings of the  
615 Arabidopsis *cb12/cb13* mutant were severely stunted under low K<sup>+</sup> conditions, a phenotype due to an  
616 impairment in K<sup>+</sup> remobilization from vacuoles. So, it is tempting to speculate that a similar  
617 mechanism could be present in PTs. Since AtCBL2 and AtCBL3 are attached to the tonoplast facing  
618 the cytosolic side, it is conceivable that they are sensitive to changes in the cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> in the  
619 tonoplast microdomain (Knight et al., 1996). At present, there is no evidence that the Ca<sup>2+</sup> regulation  
620 of the CBL2/3-CIPK12 complex in the tonoplast is released from the vacuole, but this is a suggested  
621 hypothesis that may require further research.

622

623 ***Role of organellar calcium in directing root hair tip growth***

624 RHs are tubular extensions from the surface of root epidermal cells (Schoenaers et al., 2017). This  
625 “hairlike” morphology is essential for their role in nutrient and water uptake, plant anchoring in the  
626 soil, and microbial interactions (Vèry and Davies, 2000; Charpentier and Oldroyd, 2013). In RHs, the  
627 tip  $[Ca^{2+}]$  gradient (Wymer et al., 1997, Monshausen et al., 2007, Monshausen et al., 2008; Candeo  
628 et al., 2017) is maintained by an influx of extracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  through hyperpolarization activated  
629 plasma membrane-localised  $Ca^{2+}$  channels (Vèry and Davies 2000), and CNGCs (Brost et al., 2019).  
630 Indeed, similarly to PTs,  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  has emerged as a key component controlling the RHs growth and  
631 its perturbation alters the RHs’ proper developmental program (Monshausen et al., 2008). It is  
632 conceivable that as in PTs, also in RHs the organellar  $Ca^{2+}$  transport can impinge on the cytosolic  
633  $Ca^{2+}$  dynamics. However, at present, the information available regarding their possible contribution  
634 is very scarce. Attempting a comparison with PTs, we might predict that in RHs, the ER and  
635 mitochondria  $Ca^{2+}$  transport could also affect the developmental process. Only a few pieces of  
636 evidence support a possible role of mitochondria in the RHs development. Wang et al. (2010)  
637 demonstrated that treatments of Arabidopsis RHs with latrunculin B or jasplakinolide, which  
638 depolymerize and polymerize actin filaments respectively, decreased the mitochondrial inner  
639 membrane potential, triggered a release of  $Ca^{2+}$  from the mitochondria and induced a  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$   
640 increase in the RHs (Wang et al., 2010). Moreover, the authors highlighted the presence of a  $[Ca^{2+}]$   
641 gradient in mitochondria from the tip to the base of the RH that was disrupted by the drugs. Even if  
642 it is suggestive of a role of mitochondria in the regulation of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$  in RHs development, genetic  
643 evidence in support of this hypothesis is lacking. Teardo et al. (2017) analyzed the roots of seedlings  
644 of the *mcu1*-KO and *AtMCU1* overexpressing plants without reporting any abnormalities in the RHs  
645 development. However, Arabidopsis has six MCU isoforms and at least two of them (*AtMCU1* and  
646 *AtcMCU*) are expressed in RHs (source: eFP browser) (Winter et al., 2007) and all are expressed in  
647 roots (source: Geneinvestigator) (Hruz et al., 2008; Klepikova et al., 2016), therefore the absence of  
648 clear RHs phenotypes might be due to functional redundancy. The generation of higher order *mcu*  
649 mutants should be pursued to analyse their involvement in mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  regulation during RHs

650 development.

651

### 652 ***Role of calcium in root tip growth***

653 Primary root tip growth is another plant development program that seems to be subject to regulation  
654 of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  dynamics by subcellular compartments. Leitão et al. (2019) showed that in Arabidopsis,  
655 nuclear  $Ca^{2+}$  signaling is elemental for proper primary root development, including meristem  
656 development and auxin homeostasis. The genetic ablation of the NE localised AtDMI1, a functional  
657 analogue of MtDMI1 in root symbioses thus a putative ion channel permeable to  $K^+$  that  
658 counterbalances the charge caused by the influx of  $Ca^{2+}$  into the nucleus (Granqvist et al., 2012),  
659 was able to modulate the nuclear  $Ca^{2+}$  signatures, and primary root development (Leitão et al., 2019)  
660 (**Fig. 3**). However, the molecular identity of the  $Ca^{2+}$  permeable channel responsible for the  
661 generation of the nuclear  $Ca^{2+}$  transient is still unknown. Based on structural homology analyses,  
662 AtDMI1 can be classified as a BK channel (Kim et al., 2019). Interestingly, the LjCASTOR BK  
663 channel of *Lotus japonicus*, when expressed in HEK293 cells as a truncated form, lacking the N-  
664 terminus and two transmembrane domains, was shown to be both permeable to and regulated by  
665  $Ca^{2+}$  (Kim et al., 2019). Based on this piece of evidence we might speculate that AtDMI1 could also  
666 be permeable to  $Ca^{2+}$  but this needs to be experimentally demonstrated. Nevertheless, it would be  
667 of major interest to directly monitor the  $Ca^{2+}$  in the NE to have direct proof that this compartment, in  
668 continuity with the ER, is responsible for the observed nucleoplasm  $Ca^{2+}$  transient.

669

### 670 **CONCLUSIONS**

671 Since the publication of the seminal review from McAinsh and Pittman (2009) in which the authors  
672 provided and discussed the first available evidence about the role of subcellular compartments in  
673 the regulation of the cellular  $Ca^{2+}$  homeostasis in plant cells, much progress has been made. In this  
674 Update, we have recapitulated the experimental proofs collected in recent years supporting the role  
675 of the intracellular compartments in the generation and shaping of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{\text{cyt}}$  increases observed in  
676 response to environmental and developmental stimuli (**Fig. 4**). Forward and reverse genetic

677 approaches coupled to the use of imaging tools have now shed light on key roles played by vacuole,  
678 chloroplast/plastid, and ER/NE in the shaping of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics in different  
679 physiological/stressful conditions. In some cases, channels and transporters directly involved in the  
680 movement of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  across the membranes of these compartments were also identified (**Box 2, Fig.**  
681 **3**). However, despite this increased knowledge, understanding of the role played by mitochondria in  
682 the regulation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics is still limited. Equally, the organelles' contribution in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -  
683 dependent stomatal movements needs experimental confirmation (see Outstanding questions).

684 Much work needs to be done. Forward genetic screening based on the use of recently developed  
685 organelle localised  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensors (**Box 1. Fig. 2**), could provide a valuable strategy for the  
686 identification of additional players involved in the accumulation and release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from internal  
687 stores. Moreover, besides using model plants, the identification and the definition of the physiological  
688 role of intracellularly localised  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  permeable channels and transporters should be extended to  
689 important crop species such as rice, for which preliminary results are already available (Singh et al.,  
690 2013).

691

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699

## 700 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

701 **Figure 1.** Biotic and abiotic stress as well as developmental stimuli can trigger cytosolic and  
702 organellar  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  increases. Cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients are decoded by different  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensors and

703 relays such as Calmodulin (CaM), Calmodulin-like proteins (CMLs), calcineurin  $\beta$ -like proteins  
 704 (CBLs),  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent protein kinases (CDPKs), and calmodulin-dependent protein kinase  
 705 (CCaMK) that trigger precise and tailored responses altering gene expression and metabolism.

706

707 **Figure 2.** Overview of organelle-targeted genetically encoded  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  indicators. ER = endoplasmic  
 708 reticulum, GA = Golgi Apparatus.

709

710 **Figure 3.** Channels and transporters localised in subcellular compartments reported to have a role  
 711 in plant developmental processes and stress responses linked to the regulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport  
 712 across membranes. The red question marks indicate that further studies are required. Channels are  
 713 represented in blue, pumps in green and co-transporters in grey. At: *Arabidopsis thaliana*; Lj: *Lotus*  
 714 *japonicus*; Mt: *Medicago truncatula*; Nb: *Nicotiana benthamiana*; Pp: *Physcomitrium patens*, Os:  
 715 *Oryza sativa*.

716

717 **Fig. 4.** Summary of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport mechanisms localised in the subcellular compartments of  
 718 plant cells involved in the regulation of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics for which a physiological response  
 719 in different plant tissues/cell types was demonstrated.

720

721

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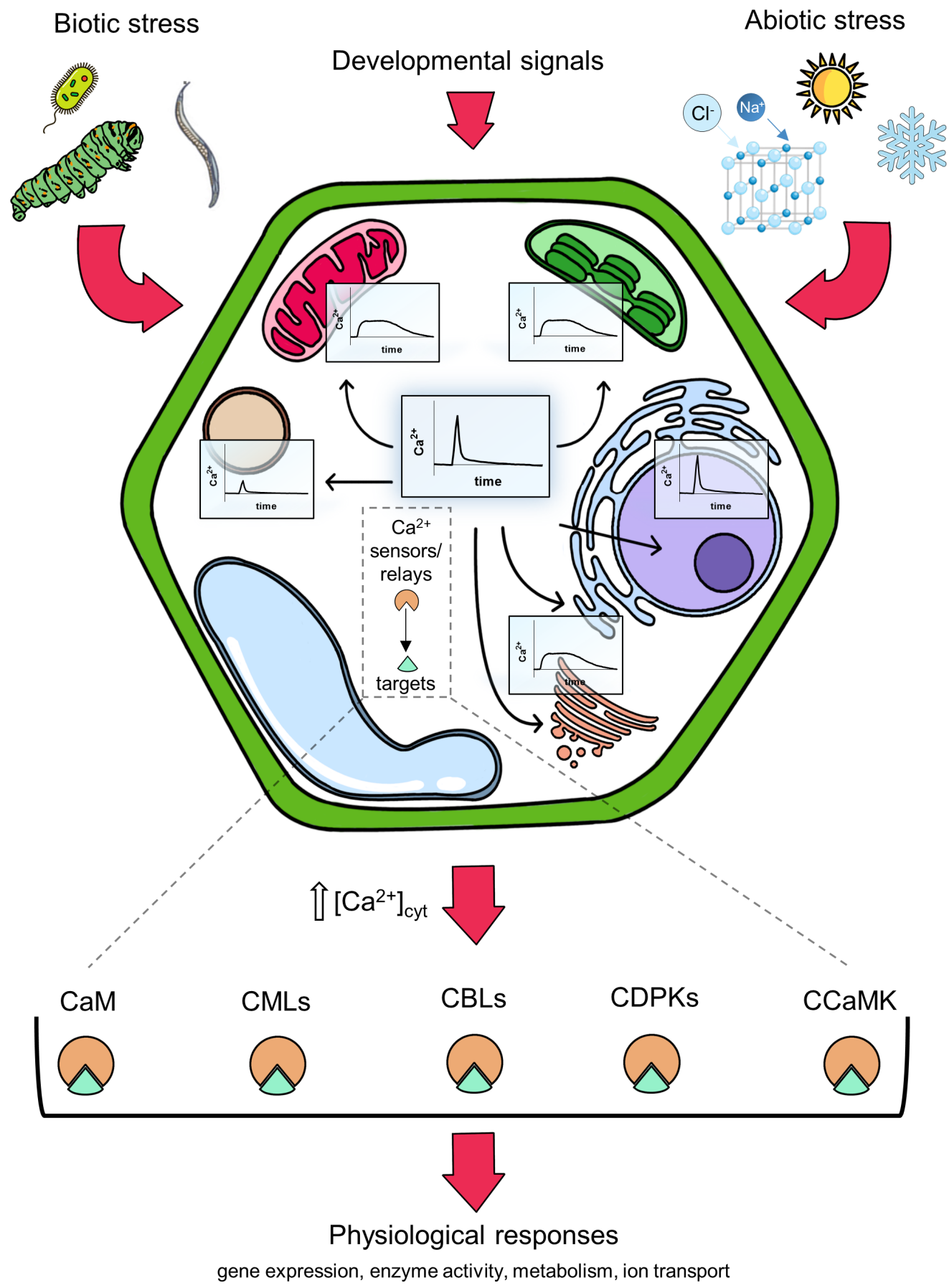
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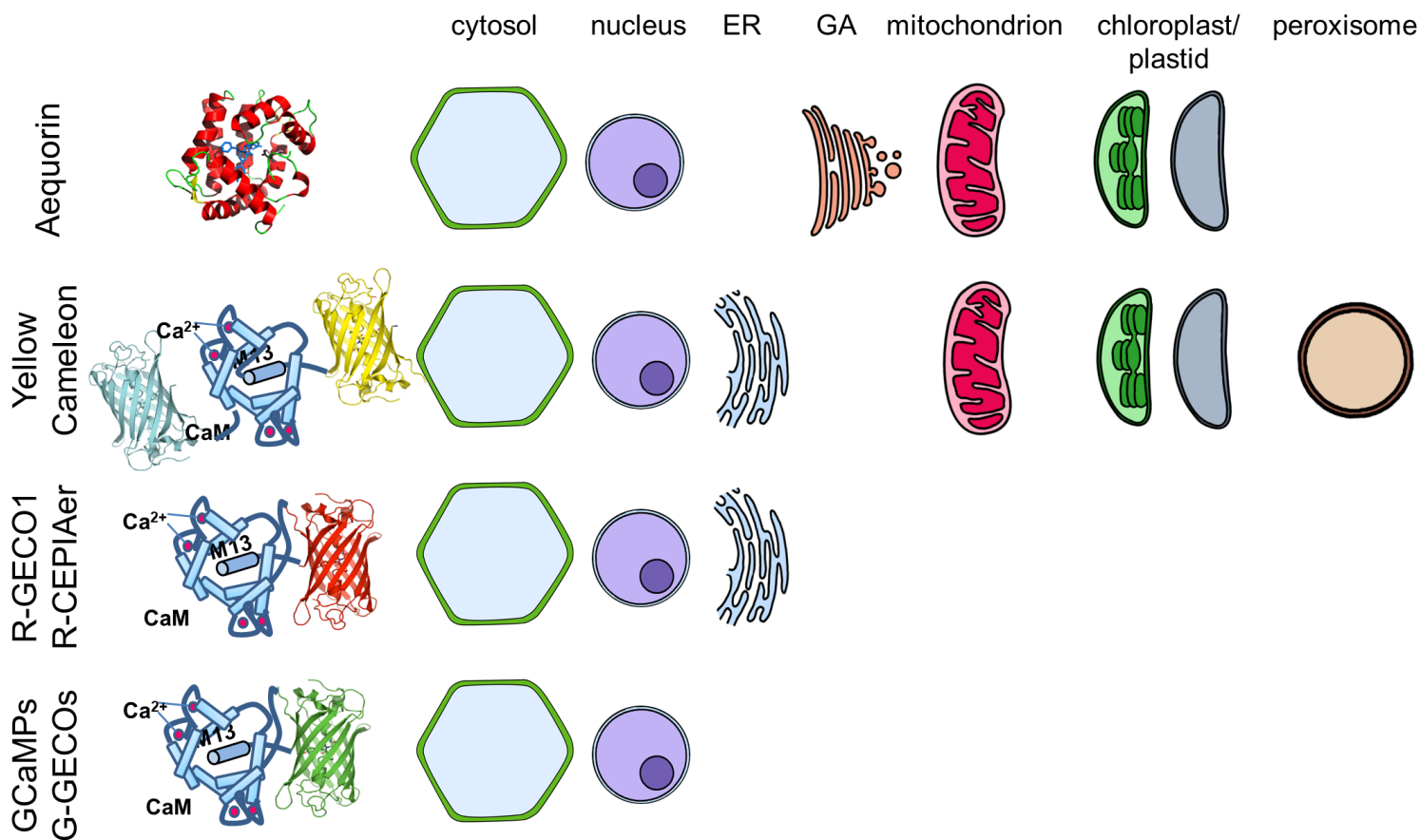
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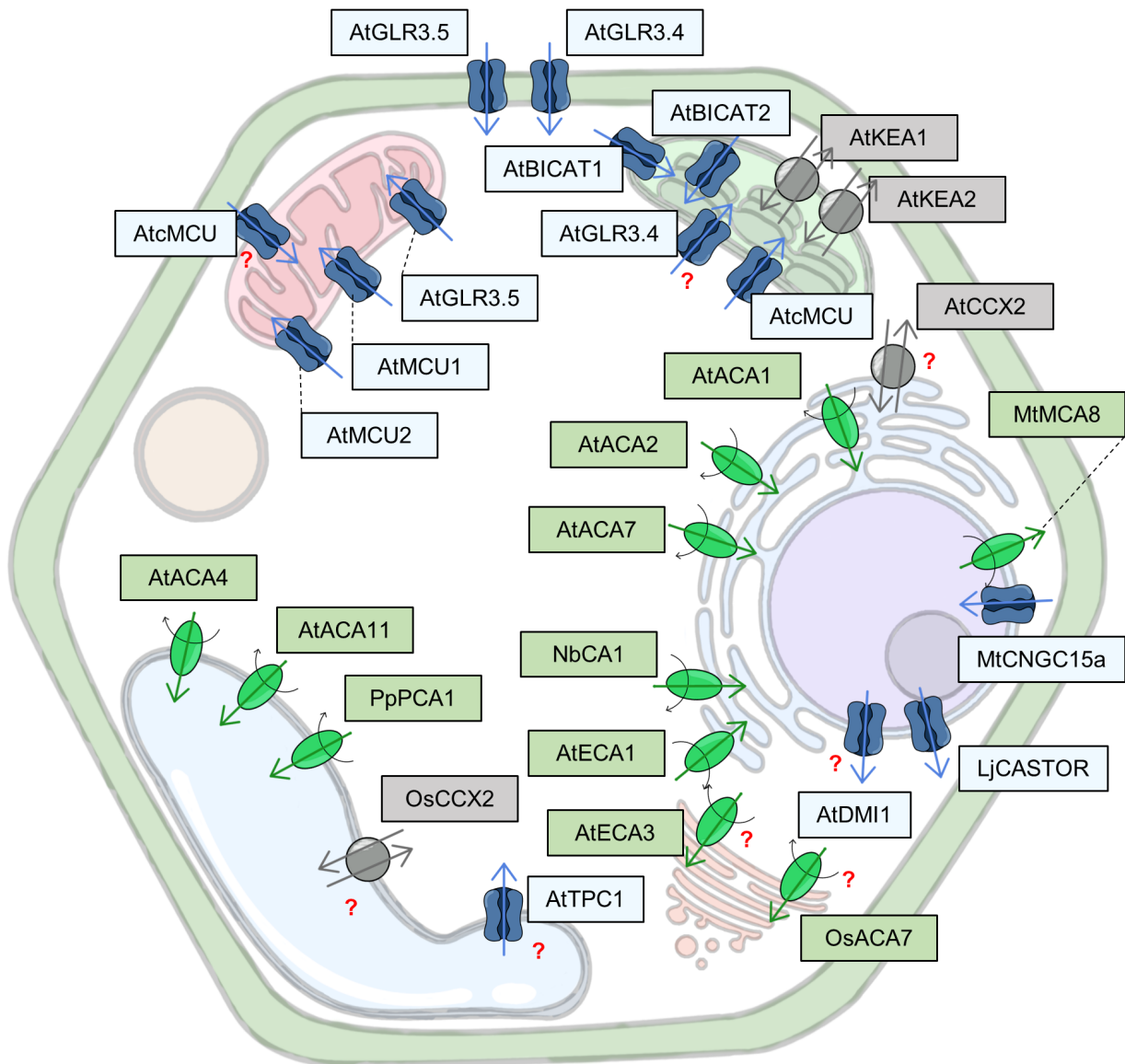





















**Figure 1.** Biotic and abiotic stress as well as developmental stimuli can trigger cytosolic and organellar  $[Ca^{2+}]$  increases. Cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  transients are decoded by different  $Ca^{2+}$  sensors and relays such as Calmodulin (CaM), Calmodulin-like proteins (CMLs), calcineurin  $\beta$ -like proteins (CBLs),  $Ca^{2+}$ -dependent protein kinases (CDPKs), and calmodulin-dependent protein kinase (CCaMK) that trigger precise and tailored responses altering gene expression and metabolism.



**Figure 2.** Overview of organelle-targeted genetically encoded  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  indicators. ER = endoplasmic reticulum, GA = Golgi Apparatus.



**Figure 3.** Channels and transporters in subcellular compartments showing a role in plant developmental processes and stress responses linked to the regulation of Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport across membranes. The red question marks indicate that further studies are required. Channels are represented in blue, pumps in green and co-transporters in grey. At: *Arabidopsis thaliana*; Lj: *Lotus japonicus*; Mt: *Medicago truncatula*; Nb: *Nicotiana benthamiana*; Pp: *Physcomitrium patens*; Os: *Oryza sativa*.

Tissue or cell types	Type of stimulus	Protein name	Compartment involved	References
	Drought stress, CO <sub>2</sub>	AtTPC1 AtcMCU AtACA4 AtACA11 AtACA1 AtACA2 AtACA7	   	Peitier et al., 2005 Islam et al., 2010 Teardo et al., 2019 Jezek et al., 2021 Jezek et al., 2021
	Plant-pathogen interaction; wounding, high light	AtACA4 AtACA11 NbCA1 AtACA1 AtACA2 AtACA7 AtTPC1	  	Hilleary et al., 2020 Zhu et al., 2010 Ishka et al., 2021 Kiep et al., 2015; Vincent et al., 2017
	Pollen germination and development	AtECAs AtACA1 AtACA2 AtACA7		Iwano et al., 2009 Ishka et al., 2021
	Root hairs growth	???		Wang et al., 2010
	Salt and osmotic stress, hydrotropism; root meristem development	AtDMI1 AtECA1 AtCCX2	  	Leitao et al. 2019 Shkolnik et al. 2018 Corso et al. 2018

**Figure 4.** Summary of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport mechanisms localised in the subcellular compartments of plant cells involved in the regulation of cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> dynamics for which a physiological response in different plant tissues/cell types was demonstrated.

## ADVANCES

- Genetically encoded sensors allow the *in vivo* analysis of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dynamics in different subcellular compartments.
- Clear *in vivo* evidence demonstrates that subcellular compartments accumulate and release  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions.
- The alteration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport in the subcellular compartments alters cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signatures with downstream effects on gene regulation and sensitivity to stress.
- Direct and indirect evidence supports the role of the endoplasmic reticulum as both a sink and source of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ .
- Indirect evidence supports the role of the vacuole as both a sink and source of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ .

## OUTSTANDING QUESTIONS

- How are the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport systems of different subcellular compartments regulated?
- Does mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport impinge on cytosolic dynamics in the responses to stress or in developmental processes?
- What is the role of AtcMCU in mitochondria?
- What is the role of Golgi apparatus in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling?
- What is the role of AtECA3 and OsACA7 in the Golgi apparatus?
- Which are the organellar  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport systems involved in the regulation of stomatal movements?
- Can the design of new genetic screenings help to identify additional  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transporters of subcellular compartments?

## BOX 1. Genetically encoded Ca<sup>2+</sup>

### indicators

Genetically Encoded Calcium Indicators (GECI) allow a non-invasive monitoring of free Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentrations ([Ca<sup>2+</sup>]) in different subcellular compartments. In plants, the two mainly used GECIs have been aequorin and Cameleon.

Aequorin enables monitoring of Ca<sup>2+</sup> dynamics by photon emission measurements in transformed plants after reconstitution of the aequorin holoenzyme with the exogenously applied prosthetic group coelenterazine (Knight et al., 1991). Due to its low quantum yield, aequorin suffers from poor spatial resolution. Aequorin has been targeted to the cytosol, nucleus, endoplasmic reticulum (ER), the Golgi apparatus, mitochondria, chloroplasts, and apoplast (reviewed in Costa et al., 2018). To improve the spatial resolution the use of fluorescent Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensors was exploited. The ratiometric Ca<sup>2+</sup> reporter Cameleon was the first fluorescent GECI expressed in plant cells (Allen et al., 1999). Cameleon exploits the Förster Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) property occurring between one fluorescent protein that acts as a donor (e.g. CFP) that, when excited, transfers absorbed energy to a second fluorescent protein, the acceptor (e.g. YFP or cpVenus). The efficiency of FRET depends on the donor-acceptor distance which is dependent upon the CaM-M13 Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent interaction. The CaM-M13

sensor is sandwiched between the two fluorophores (Miyawaki et al., 1997). With Cameleon, the readout is the ratio between acceptor and donor fluorescence emissions which reduces artefacts due to the expression level of the sensor or focus changes. Cameleon has been targeted to the cytosol, nucleus, ER, mitochondria, chloroplasts, and peroxisomes (Costa et al., 2018).

Intensiometric GFP-based Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensors have also been developed and successfully used in plants. We can cite GCaMP3, GCaMP6, and the green and red variants of GECO1 or CEPIA (Zhao et al., 2011; Costa et al., 2018; Kelner et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2020). All these GECIs rely on a change in the sensor quantum yield, measured as a change of the intensity of the emitted fluorescence which depends upon the amount of Ca<sup>2+</sup> bound to the sensory domain. A change of [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] affects the CaM conformation which is transmitted to a circularly permuted variant of green (e.g. cpGFP) or red (e.g. cpmApple) fluorescent proteins. Intensiometric biosensors exhibit a higher signal change compared to a FRET-based sensor, but a change of their expression level could be misinterpreted as a change in free Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration (Costa et al., 2018). GCaMPs, R-GECO1 and R-CEPIA have been targeted to the cytosol, nucleus, and ER (Kelner et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2020).

## BOX 2. Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport systems in plants

Even though plants do not possess canonical Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels, they are equipped with Ca<sup>2+</sup>-permeable channels that establish a hydrophilic path for Ca<sup>2+</sup> diffusion down its electrochemical gradient. Different Ca<sup>2+</sup>-permeable channel families are localized at the plasma membrane (PM), facilitating Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx from the apoplast, but can be also resident at the inner membranes, such as those surrounding the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), Golgi apparatus, mitochondria, chloroplasts, vacuole and possibly peroxisomes.

Ca<sup>2+</sup>-extruding systems actively remove Ca<sup>2+</sup> from the cytosol either by transporting it out of the cell across the PM or into internal organelles. These transporters include Ca<sup>2+</sup> pumps and Ca<sup>2+</sup>/cation antiporters (CaCAs).

Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPases are the major active transport system that ensures the compartmentalization of Ca<sup>2+</sup>. They are members of the P-type ATPases superfamily that use the energy of ATP hydrolysis to pump Ca<sup>2+</sup> from the cytoplasm to the apoplast or into intracellular compartments. Plant cells possess two types of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-pumping ATPase, belonging to subgroups PIIA-type (ER-type Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPase) and PIIB-type

(Auto-Inhibited Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPase) that have been found at the tonoplast, PM, ER, Golgi, nucleus and perhaps also at the plastid envelope. While the autoinhibitory regulative mechanism of PIIB-type members has been extensively studied and characterized, very little is known about the regulation of those belonging to PIIA-type subfamily in plants.

The CaCA superfamily comprises cation/Ca<sup>2+</sup> exchangers (CCX) and Ca<sup>2+</sup>/proton exchangers (CAX) that derive the energy needed to mediate active Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport from the electrochemical gradient of protons across membranes facing the cytosol.

While Ca<sup>2+</sup> pumps are high affinity and low capacity systems, exchangers are characterized by low-affinity but high-capacity Ca<sup>2+</sup> sequestration. The coordinated action of both extrusion mechanisms covers a wide range of physiological cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentrations.

A detailed analysis of different Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport mechanisms across plant membranes has been extensively reviewed in Demidchik et al. (2018).

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