

UPDATE ON SYNTHETIC BIOLOGY

Plant Synthetic Biology: Quantifying the Known Unknowns and Discovering the Unknown Unknowns

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One Sentence Summary: Biosensors, advanced microscopy, and single-cell transcriptomics are advancing plant synthetic biology.

1

2 ABSTRACT

3 Our knowledge of plant biology has reached the point where we can begin to rationally engineer
4 plant form and function to meet our needs. From a bioengineer's or synthetic biologist's point of
5 view, the goal of studying developmental biology is to generate a predictive model that specifies
6 the molecular circuitry required to move a cell from one state to another. This model could then
7 serve as a guide for harvesting the most useful parts and logic to enable the engineering of novel
8 states and multi-cell behaviors. Among the most critical parts to understand from this perspective
9 are the signaling molecules that enable intra- and intercellular communication. Several
10 biosensors have been developed in recent years to detect plant-specific signals and secondary
11 messengers. Many other general biosensors have been successfully implemented in plant
12 systems. These biosensors, in combination with single cell 'omics techniques and predictive
13 statistical frameworks, are providing the type of high resolution, quantitative descriptions of cell
14 state that will ultimately make it possible to decode and re-engineer traits associated with higher
15 yields and stress tolerance.

16

17 Being a plant developmental biologist today can feel like a lot like being a cryptographer piecing
18 together fragmented messages with only a partial knowledge of the cipher. Biological signaling
19 is rife with redundancy, feedback, and feedforward motifs acting to dampen or amplify each
20 signal, and modulate outputs depending on position and cell identity. To crack the code of these
21 complex genetic signal processors, it is important to be able to measure, as well as manipulate,
22 both signals and responses. Recent advances in synthetic biology have provided a means to
23 access such tools. Sensitive, genetically encoded reporters (biosensors), in combination with
24 emerging single-cell transcriptomics approaches, are providing increasingly detailed molecular
25 descriptions of cells undergoing developmental transitions (Moreno-Risueno et al., 2015; Efroni
26 et al., 2016; Ristova et al., 2016; Cao et al., 2017). However, in many cases we are still unable to
27 measure key signaling molecules directly with fine spatiotemporal resolution.

28

29 Several excellent reviews have been published recently that describe the application of
30 biosensors to plant systems (Goold et al., 2018; Hilleary et al., 2018; Walia et al., 2018). Here,
31 we review the current state of the art in measuring plant signaling, using principles and tools
borrowed from and inspired by engineering, as well as efforts to use this knowledge to enable

32 rapid, rational re-engineering of plant development. We have arranged this review as an
33 engineering cycle in which we will cover (i) “Designing” biosensors, (ii) “Building” biosensors,
34 including technologies to facilitate the use of biosensors in plants, (iii) “Testing” biosensors and
35 (iv) “Modeling” signaling and development, including our perspective on integrating biosensors,
36 systems approaches and optimal experimental design to generate minimal predictive models of
37 plant development.

38

39 DESIGN

40 The design of any genetically encoded biosensor involves connecting an input modality,
41 which interacts in some way with the species to be measured, to an output modality, which
42 provides some quantifiable product (Figure 1). These modalities may be DNA, RNA and/or
43 proteins. The species to be measured (analyte) may be any molecule or complex of molecules.
44 Input modalities may be promoters that respond to the analyte, naturally occurring proteins
45 domains or engineered novel proteins or nucleic acids, which bind (or otherwise respond) to the
46 analyte. Each input modality offers different advantages and drawbacks. As opposed to direct
47 biosensors, which bind to and report the concentration of the desired species, indirect biosensors
48 have input modalities that are natural or engineered responsive promoters or protein domains,
49 such as degrons, that require additional cellular machinery to respond to the analyte (Brunoud et
50 al., 2012; Larrieu et al., 2015). Often referred to as reporters, indirect biosensors report on the
51 status of the signaling network required to activate the responsive element. While this complex
52 output can be misinterpreted, indirect biosensors have facilitated numerous discoveries,
53 particularly when paired with systems biology approaches (such as transcriptomic and other
54 genome-scale analyses) to decipher network status (Moreno-Risueno et al., 2010; de Luis
55 Balaguer et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2018). Such advances will be discussed further in the Test
56 section.

57 Natural binding domains are often part of the signaling pathway one is trying to measure
58 and may interfere with the native pathway components. The laws of thermodynamics dictate that
59 a system cannot be measured without perturbation (Szilard, 1929), but ideally this perturbation
60 will be controlled for and/or minimized. To study normal development, the presence of a
61 biosensor must not alter normal development. Further, protein engineering may be used to render
62 biosensors orthogonal to the native pathway (Rizza et al., 2017). Novel engineered binding

63 proteins or DNA/RNA aptamers require significant investment but are less likely to interfere
64 with the native signaling pathway, especially if potential off-target interactions are controlled for
65 in the design and screening. Numerous methods for directing the evolution of binding modalities
66 have been developed, including phage-display (Smith, 1985; Tan et al., 2016), microbial cell
67 surface display (Charbit et al., 1986; Freudl et al., 1986; Agterberg et al., 1987; Schreuder et al.,
68 1996; Boder and Wittrup, 1997; Daugherty, 2007; Liu, 2015), ribosome display (Mattheakis et
69 al., 1994; Plückthun, 2012), and many *in vitro* display techniques (Joyce, 1989; Ellington and
70 Szostak, 1990; Tuerk and Gold, 1990; Darmostuk et al., 2015; Tizei et al., 2016). These methods
71 link the genotype and molecular phenotype of large libraries of binding proteins, allowing
72 specific binders to a ligand of choice to be identified and amplified or further characterized. In
73 all cases, expression in the desired host is not guaranteed and further optimization may need to
74 be done, as the expression level of the biosensor combined with the affinity of the input modality
75 for the species of interest determines the dynamic range of the sensor (*i.e.* the range of input
76 concentrations over which the output of the sensor is quantifiable). Because of these challenges,
77 a transient transformation system for screening expression constructs can expedite biosensor
78 optimization.

79 Output modalities largely determine the spatiotemporal domain and resolutions of the
80 biosensor measurements. Fluorescent, luminescent, or chromogenic proteins are typical output
81 modalities. Pairs of fluorescent and/or luminescent proteins capable of Förster Resonance Energy
82 Transfer (FRET) or Bioluminescence Resonance Energy Transfer (BRET) are also frequently
83 used. FRET-based biosensors have the advantage of inherent ratiometric output, allowing the
84 expression of the biosensor to be measured by specifically exciting the acceptor fluorophore, and
85 exciting the donor fluorophore to measure the species of interest. Beyond the common issues of
86 photobleaching and phototoxicity, fluorescence measurements in plants can be particularly
87 challenging given autofluorescence and the potential for stimulation of endogenous
88 photoreceptors (Mylle et al., 2013). Luminescence measurements avoid these problems, as they
89 do not require incident light. BRET further allows tuning of the luminescent emission spectra,
90 facilitating ratiometric measurements or measurement of multiple species at once. All light-based
91 measurements are limited by the penetrance of light through tissue, and the numerous light-
92 absorbing structures in some plant cells limit the useful spectrum. Fortunately, dramatic
93 advances are continually being made in microscopy, photo detection and protein engineering to

94 allow high-resolution imaging across most scales in plants (Rousseau et al., 2015; Clark and
95 Sozzani, 2017; Rios et al., 2017).

96 Connecting the input and output modalities is generally the most challenging and critical
97 aspect of direct biosensor design, as the connection has a large effect on biosensor resolution and
98 dynamic range. Direct genetically encoded biosensors are typically fusions of the sequences of
99 the input and output modalities (Ostermeier, 2009). The most laborious task in direct biosensor
100 engineering is creating a library of fusions and identifying members that undergo structural
101 changes when exposed to the species of interest, which in turn alter their output. Fortunately,
102 there is a wealth of literature containing numerous case studies (recently reviewed in Bolbat and
103 Schultz, 2017; Sanford and Palmer, 2017), since early work on engineering of direct biosensors
104 and protein switches (Siegel and Isacoff, 1997; Doi and Yanagawa, 1999; Prehoda et al., 2000;
105 Tucker and Fields, 2001; Dueber et al., 2003; Guntas and Ostermeier, 2004). Ideally the design
106 space of structurally reasonable fusions is thoroughly explored using protein engineering
107 techniques to vary insertional position, linker residues between the modalities and possibly
108 circular permutation of one or both modalities (Kanwar et al., 2013; Younger et al., 2018).
109 Recently, advances in bioinformatics and decreasing costs of next-generation sequencing have
110 facilitated prediction and experimental determination of sites of potential allosteric regulation
111 (Nadler et al., 2016; Rivoire et al., 2016; Pincus et al., 2017). Folding and stability can be tuned
112 and can also be exploited, either inadvertently or directly, to develop direct fusion biosensors
113 (Tucker and Fields, 2001; Wright et al., 2011; Wright et al., 2014; Choi et al., 2015; Feng et al.,
114 2015; Dagliyan et al., 2016).

115 Transcription factors are an interesting alternative for connecting input and output
116 modalities of direct or indirect biosensors, by allowing recognition of the species of interest to
117 drive expression of any of the above output domains or another genetic circuit (Feng et al., 2015;
118 Khakhar et al., 2016; Younger et al., 2016; Khakhar et al., 2018; Younger et al., 2018). The
119 amplification provided by transcription and translation may result in a wider dynamic range.
120 Additionally, this modular connection allows the biosensor to regulate multiple outputs
121 facilitating both measurement and reprogramming of cellular behavior (Faden et al., 2016;
122 Khakhar et al., 2018; Lowder et al., 2018). However, this synthetic gene circuit approach also
123 limits the spatiotemporal resolution of the sensor to the cellular scale and the turnover rate of the
124 output modality.

125 Biosensors are not limited to detection of monomeric species. Biosensors consisting of
126 short genetic circuits are reminiscent of the enhancer trap (O’Kane and Gehring, 1987) or yeast
127 two-hybrid system (Fields and Song, 1989) and their numerous variants. Advances in
128 microscopy have made possible the *in vivo* application of well-established methods of
129 quantifying proteins, protein complexes, and protein-protein interactions (Magde et al., 1972;
130 Lakowicz et al., 1992). These methods rely on simple translational fusions, similar to classical
131 FRET-based or protein fragment complementation interaction assays (Pelletier et al., 1999), but
132 utilize highly sensitive confocal microscopes, pulsed lasers, and computational methods to
133 quantify interactions *in vivo*. It may also be possible to express antibody-like proteins fused to
134 fluorescent proteins, or pairs of antibodies fused to split fluorescent proteins to detect native
135 proteins or complexes (Carlin et al., 2016).

136 Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy (FCS) measures fluctuations in fluorescence
137 intensity which correlate with the motion of the fluorescently labeled molecule(s) of interest to
138 quantify diffusion (Clark et al., 2016; Clark and Sozzani, 2017). When two different molecules
139 are measured simultaneously in different spectral channels, kinetic parameters of their binding
140 can be inferred from cross-correlation in their diffusion. Another technique, Fluorescence
141 Lifetime Imaging Microscopy (FLIM), aims to overcome these issues with overlap in the spectra
142 of the two fluorophores as well as autofluorescence and photobleaching, which can result in poor
143 signal-to-noise ratios in some instances. These issues associated with traditional wave laser
144 microscopy can be abated by using a pulsed laser and by visualizing the time each fluorophore
145 spends in its excited state after the pulse (fluorescent lifetime) instead of intensity. FLIM can be
146 paired with FCS as well as FRET to measure protein-protein interactions (Boer et al., 2014;
147 Long et al., 2017; Rios et al., 2017). These technologies will improve the sensitivity of existing
148 biosensors and facilitate the development of new biosensor approaches.

149

150 BUILD

151 Direct biosensors are generally developed in microbial organisms and then shuttled into
152 organisms less amenable to transformation. This translation between kingdoms and even
153 translation of indirect biosensors between species is not always perfect. This can be due to a
154 combination of issues with expression, folding, stability, and interference with or divergence of
155 endogenous signaling pathways. In most plants, where targeted insertion is not yet possible, there

156 is the additional complexity of integration site variation and frequent silencing (Jupe et al.,
157 2018). Organisms allowing targeted insertion provide an ideal platform for biosensor
158 development, as more direct comparisons of activity can be made between different biosensors.
159 Targeted genetic insertion also allows reporter-tagging of native gene loci, reducing variation.
160 Plants which readily perform homologous recombination, such as *Physcomitrella patens* and
161 *Marchantia polymorpha*, deserve consideration for both the design and application of biosensors,
162 as there is still much to be learned about their development which may inform work in other
163 species (Cove et al., 2009; Ishizaki et al., 2013). To our knowledge, biosensors have yet to be
164 paired with targeted transgene insertion technology (De Paepe et al., 2013) or “landing pads” for
165 plants. This technology is currently low efficiency and does not allow full specification of the
166 insertion site but does provide more accurate comparison of independent transformants.
167 Homology-directed repair has been demonstrated several times, but usually with low efficiency
168 (Zhao et al., 2016; Čermák et al., 2017; Hahn et al., 2018). Insertional variation in expression can
169 also be mitigated, at least in part, by ratiometric sensors. By expressing a non-functional, or
170 constitutively active, version of the biosensor within the same transgene or cistron, expression of
171 the transgene insertion site can be controlled for and higher fidelity achieved (Wend et al., 2013;
172 Liao et al., 2015).

173 Another challenge across organisms is efficient assembly of unwieldy multigenic
174 constructs. Fortunately, many new toolsets are available for the design and assembly of large and
175 difficult constructs. Several software packages are available for the design and modeling of
176 polycistronic cassettes for biosensors and other applications (Chen et al., 2012a; Hillson, 2014;
177 Harris et al., 2017; Choi et al., 2018; Misirli et al., 2018; Shockley et al., 2018; Watanabe et al.,
178 2018). Several new plant-specific toolkits for assembling the designed constructs have also been
179 developed recently (Engler et al., 2014; Beyer et al., 2015; Shih et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2017;
180 Pollak et al., 2018).

181 One of the aspects of these tools that is most critical to the field of biosensor development
182 is the ability to share and reproduce the design, parameterization, and measurement of biosensors
183 between groups and study systems. Common standards for the description of genetic designs and
184 models have been established (Hucka et al., 2015; Martínez-García et al., 2015; Cox et al.,
185 2018), alongside tools for developing and parameterizing (Harris et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017;
186 Choi et al., 2018; Shockley et al., 2018; Wandy et al., 2018; Watanabe et al., 2018), as well as

187 visualizing and communicating these designs and models (Merchant et al., 2016; Cox et al.,
188 2017; Der et al., 2017; Medley et al., 2018). Laboratory inventory management and electronic
189 laboratory notebook systems have also been developed to provide a higher degree of
190 organization and reproducibility in the wet lab (List et al., 2014; List et al., 2015; Barillari et al.,
191 2016; Craig et al., 2017; Klavins, 2017). The ability of several of these tools to be operated in an
192 integrative notebook environment, containing interleaved narrative with figures and code
193 (possibly of several languages), allows science to be communicated seamlessly and reproducibly
194 (Kluyver et al., 2016; Allaire et al., 2018; Medley et al., 2018). In the future, open sharing of
195 transparent example notebooks documenting complete design-build-test-learn workflows
196 integrating these tools will be the norm. Such examples will provide excellent training and
197 teaching tools, reducing burden, and establishing reproducibility expectations for the field.

198

199 TEST

200 Biosensors have allowed plant biologists to visualize and quantify developmental signals
201 and signaling machinery, as well as provided means to ask better questions as to how
202 development is controlled. To realize our goal of understanding and re-engineering development,
203 we must pair biosensors with systems biology to inform a predictive model of development. Use
204 of systems biology approaches and mathematical modeling paired with transcriptional and
205 translational reporters, cell-type specific promoters and enhancers have led to impressive
206 breakthroughs (Vernoux et al., 2011; Bargmann et al., 2013; Efroni et al., 2016; Je et al., 2016;
207 Sparks et al., 2016; de Luis Balaguer et al., 2017; Wendrich et al., 2017; Drapek et al., 2018;
208 Shibata et al., 2018). For example, Shibata et al. used transcriptome and chromatin
209 immunoprecipitation data to develop a gene regulatory network model controlling root hair
210 growth. This model identified both a key positive and negative regulator of root hair growth
211 which formed a feedback loop. This model allowed the authors to identify, and confirm
212 experimentally, genetic manipulations with strong effects on root hair growth. Indirect
213 biosensors paired with systems approaches have also revealed fascinating dynamics of
214 developmental signaling which are still not completely understood, such as oscillations in auxin
215 response within the root meristem, which determine the positions of future lateral roots (Moreno-
216 Risueno et al., 2010; Xuan et al., 2015; Xuan et al., 2016; Laskowski and Tusscher, 2017). To
217 track down the unknowns of developmental dynamics will require a better understanding of

218 which signals indirect biosensors are integrating, development of new direct biosensors,
219 simultaneous measurement of multiple biosensors, and generation of dynamic omics datasets
220 paired with these sensors.

221 Recently, highly sensitive ratiometric sensors of the auxin signaling network status were
222 developed (Liao et al., 2015) based on improved knowledge of specificity within this network
223 (Boer et al., 2014). These sensors helped revealed new domains of auxin accumulation that were
224 previously predicted by models of auxin transport and production (Scarpella et al., 2006;
225 Grieneisen et al., 2007; Robert et al., 2013). These models were parameterized using
226 translational fusion biosensors, demonstrating the power of the application of multiple
227 biosensors, as the simultaneous measurement of two species facilitates prediction of their
228 dynamic relationship. We highly anticipate proposed future work combining these two high-
229 sensitivity ratiometric sensors (Liao et al., 2015), as well as the development of a direct auxin
230 biosensor (Vernoux and Robert, 2017).

231 A direct biosensor for gibberellin has recently revealed a strong correlation between
232 gibberellin and cell elongation and helped to decipher the role of the light-responsive
233 PHYTOCHROME INTERACTING FACTORS in regulating gibberellin levels (Rizza et al.,
234 2017). Two indirect abscisic acid signaling biosensors have also recently been developed (Wu et
235 al., 2018). These engineered abscisic acid-responsive promoters complement the detection range
236 of existing direct abscisic acid biosensors (Jones et al., 2014; Waadt et al., 2014). These reporters
237 helped to solidify existing knowledge of abscisic acid's roles in the development of lateral roots
238 and stomata. They also revealed differential regulation depending on the sequence of the core
239 cis-regulatory element and cross-regulation of this promoter by stem cell maintenance
240 transcription factors in the stem cell niche. This important finding highlights the importance and
241 power of characterizing promoter-based reporters thoroughly. In the future, pairing direct and
242 indirect biosensors to measure both signaling inputs and transcriptional outputs may facilitate
243 inference of the intervening network and examination of how these networks interact with cell
244 fate (Figure 1).

245 Promoter-based indirect sensors have also been recently used to examine the dynamic
246 relationship between auxin and cytokinin in both barley and soybean (Fisher et al., 2018;
247 Kirschner et al., 2018). These reporters functioned as expected in soybean; however, in barley,
248 the auxin reporters *DR5rev::GFP* (Benková et al., 2003) and *DR5v2* (Liao et al., 2015) were

249 poorly expressed and not auxin responsive (Kirschner et al., 2018). This interesting result
250 compels further examination but may uncover unique paths of evolutionary divergence in auxin
251 signaling components and root development. In soybean, auxin and cytokinin signaling reporters
252 were observed simultaneously in premature root nodules (Fisher et al., 2018). This revealed stark
253 differences in the auxin/cytokinin signaling ratio between premature vascular and parenchyma
254 cells of developing nodules. This pilot study will, we hope, lead to better understanding of the
255 complex roles hormones play in mediating symbioses (Gamas et al., 2017; Betsuyaku et al.,
256 2018; Kunkel and Harper, 2018). Future work integrating multiple biosensors for different
257 developmental signals or different elements within a signaling pathway will greatly improve our
258 understanding of the connectivity and tunability of these signals and the developmental processes
259 they regulate. Integrating nutrient biosensors with developmental signaling will also be crucial to
260 our ability to engineer plants with low resource requirements (Chen et al., 2012b; Upadhyay and
261 Verma, 2015; Okumoto and Versaw, 2017). Novel plant signaling mechanisms are also being
262 revealed by biosensors, such as the recently uncovered glutamate-triggered long-distance
263 calcium signaling following wounding (Toyota et al., 2018).

264 FRET-FLIM and FCS have also helped decipher complex molecular interactions critical
265 to development. FRET-FLIM was recently used to reveal cell-type specific protein-protein
266 interactions between the SHORTROOT, SCARECROW and JACKDAW transcription factors,
267 which regulate cell division and patterning in the root (Long et al., 2017). FCS has also been
268 used to track diffusion and interaction of SHORTROOT and SCARECROW (Clark et al., 2016).
269 These studies clearly show cell-type-specific variation in the composition, structure, and activity
270 of complexes of these transcription factors. Future work employing these techniques to examine
271 dynamics of transcription factor complexes, as well as hormone response complexes (Rios et al.,
272 2017), throughout development will provide a mechanistic understanding of cell fate transitions.

273

274 MODEL

275 Measurements of signals alone is of limited use without a predictive framework for
276 linking developmental signals and cell status to transcriptional and phenotypic outcomes.
277 Formulating our current understanding in the framework of a mathematical model allows us to
278 quantify the completeness of our understanding as the deviation between our model and
279 experimental data. An accurate model and understanding also facilitates rational engineering of

280 plant development (Guseman et al., 2015; Khakhar et al., 2018). If the goal of our collective
281 science is to generate the *simplest* model which most completely predicts plant development,
282 then we must accept that our model is, by definition, incomplete. To achieve a maximally
283 informative yet simple model of development, we must carefully design experiments to
284 minimize the uncertainty in both our model selection and parameterization (Smucker et al.,
285 2018). Several groups have developed frameworks for computational design of the optimal set of
286 experiments to identify the mathematical relationship between the signaling inputs, network
287 status and the developmental outcome, i.e., model selection (Busetto et al., 2013; Apri et al.,
288 2014; Vanlier et al., 2014; Minas et al., 2017; Rougny et al., 2018). Other statistical frameworks
289 aim to design optimal experiments for determining parameter uncertainty in the chosen model
290 (Dehghannasiri et al., 2015; Fan et al., 2015; Imani et al., 2018; Mohsenizadeh et al., 2018). For
291 example, Dehghannasiri et al. provide a method for prioritizing future experiments based on
292 existing knowledge of a gene regulatory network and the desired intervention in the network,
293 where intervention in this case is a therapy targeting a pathological network state. Systems
294 biology approaches including similar frameworks have facilitated inference of networks and
295 logic in plant development (Astola et al., 2014; Fisher and Sozzani, 2016; Ristova et al., 2016; de
296 Luis Balaguer et al., 2017; Minas et al., 2017; Shibata et al., 2018; Varala et al., 2018). In
297 addition to optimally improving our knowledge of developmental networks, connecting signaling
298 network models with phenotypic outcome models are of particular importance to the goal of
299 engineering plant development (Prusinkiewicz and Runions, 2012; O'Connor et al., 2014;
300 Landrein et al., 2015; Mellor et al., 2017; Schnepf et al., 2018). One effort critical to the success
301 of systems and synthetic biology in deciphering development will be the continued collaboration
302 between and integration of statistical modeling, optimal experimental design, and dynamic,
303 multivariate molecular genetics techniques.

304

305 LEARN

306 Synthetic biologists' goals for understanding plant developmental biology are within reach.
307 Mathematical models that integrate cell state data from systems approaches with dynamic signal
308 data from biosensors will greatly support efforts to rationally engineer plant form and function.
309 Such models facilitate prioritization and design of experiments to minimize model parameters
310 and improve the certainty of remaining parameters. Implementing statistical tools to design

311 optimal experiments to improve certainty in model selection and parameterization will allow new
312 questions to be addressed efficiently in the context of existing knowledge.

313 Transdisciplinary approaches combining synthetic, systems and computational biology
314 are making it increasingly straightforward to quantify the dynamic behavior of signals we
315 already know are important (the ‘known unknowns’) and find new signals and circuits (the
316 ‘unknown unknowns’). This knowledge will be invaluable in guiding rapid improvements in the
317 quality and quantity of the foods, fuels, fibers and pharmaceuticals that can be produced by the
318 next generation of crops.

319

320

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327

328 FIGURE LEGENDS

329 Figure 1: Biosensors link detection of an analyte (such as a signaling molecule) by an input
330 modality to a quantifiable change in an output modality. (A) Schematic of a direct biosensor
331 exemplified by a signaling molecule (green) binding protein as the input modality (purple oval)
332 with a fluorescent protein output modality (blue star). This biosensor directly measures the
333 “signal”, *i.e.* concentration of the signaling molecule. (B) Schematic of an indirect biosensor
334 exemplified by a signaling molecule responsive promoter of unknown mechanism (dotted arrow)
335 driving expression of a fluorescent protein output modality (yellow star). This biosensor provides
336 a measure of the response of this signaling pathway. (C) Using biosensors to measure both the
337 signal and response of a developmental signaling network along with plant phenotype leads to
338 iterative improvement of the developmental network model and our understanding of plant
339 development. Improved understanding of auxin signaling dynamics—realized by multiple
340 biosensors and means of functional quantification—has facilitated rational tuning of plant
341 architecture (Guseman et al., 2015; Je et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017; Khakhar et al., 2018;

342 Shibata et al., 2018). Newly developed biosensors (Liao et al., 2015; Rizza et al., 2017; Wu et
343 al., 2018), paired with functional and phenotypic quantification of development, will help crack
344 the code underlying developmental signaling and allow rational breeding and engineering of next
345 generation crops.

346

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348

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ADVANCES

- Studies of single-cell and high temporal resolution 'omics datasets paired with biosensors have provided models of key networks in developmental processes.
- Direct biosensors of gibberellins and abscisic acid, along with improvements in indirect biosensors for auxin and abscisic acid signaling, have expanded our understanding of plant hormone biology and developmental signaling.
- Development and application of FRET-FLIM and FCS methods to study protein and protein complex dynamics *in vivo* have advanced our understanding of transcription factor complex formation in meristem maintenance.

OUTSTANDING QUESTIONS

- How can we quantify the levels and dynamics of diverse signals?
- How can signaling data be efficiently integrated from across fields to generate unifying models of development?
- What tools and information are needed to re-engineer or repurpose these signals for novel ends?

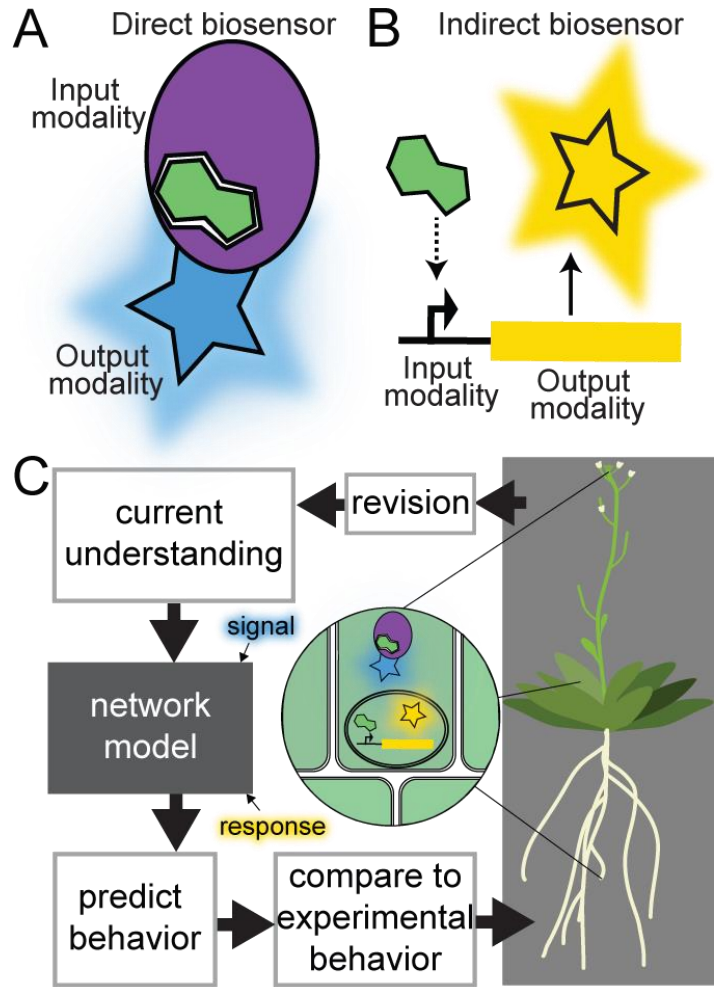


Figure 1: Biosensors link detection of an analyte (such as a signaling molecule) by an input modality to a quantifiable change in an output modality. (A) Schematic of a direct biosensor exemplified by a signaling molecule (green) binding protein as the input modality (purple oval) with a fluorescent protein output modality (blue star). This biosensor directly measures the “signal”, *i.e.* concentration of the signaling molecule. (B) Schematic of an indirect biosensor exemplified by a signaling molecule responsive promoter of unknown mechanism (dotted arrow) driving expression of a fluorescent protein output modality (yellow star). This biosensor provides a measure of the response of this signaling pathway. (C) Using biosensors to measure both the signal and response of a developmental signaling network along with plant phenotype leads to iterative improvement of the developmental network model and our understanding of plant development. Improved understanding of auxin signaling dynamics—realized by multiple biosensors and means of functional quantification—has facilitated rational tuning of plant architecture (Guseman et al., 2015; Je et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017; Khakhar et al., 2018; Shibata et al., 2018). Newly developed biosensors (Liao et al., 2015; Rizza et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2018), paired with functional and phenotypic quantification of development, will help crack the code underlying developmental signaling and allow rational breeding and engineering of next generation crops.

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