1 **Meeting Report: Plant Vascular Biology 2013:** 2 Vascular trafficking 3 Robertas Ursache^{1,*}, Jung-ok Heo^{1,*} and Ykä Helariutta^{1,#} 4 5 6 ¹ Institute of Biotechnology/Department of Bio and Environmental Sciences, University 7 of Helsinki, FIN-00014, Finland 8 * These authors contributed equally to this work. 9 *To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: yrjo.helariutta@helsinki.fi 10 11 12 **Abstract** 13 About 200 researchers from around the world attended the Third International 14 15 Conference on Plant Vascular Biology (PVB 2013) held in July 2013 at the Rantapuisto 16 Conference Center, in Helsinki, Finland (http://www.pvb2013.org). The plant vascular 17 system, which connects every organ in the mature plant, continues to attract the 18 interest of researchers representing a wide range of disciplines, including development, 19 physiology, systems biology and computational biology. At the meeting, participants 20 discussed the latest research advances in vascular development, long and short 21 distance vascular transport and long-distance signaling in plant defense, in addition to 22 providing a context for how these studies intersect with each other. The meeting 23 provided an opportunity for researchers working across a broad range of fields to share 24 ideas and to discuss future directions in the expanding field of vascular biology. In our 25 report, we summarize the latest advances in understanding the mechanism of vascular 26 trafficking presented at the meeting. 27 Key words: Plant Vascular Biology 2013, vascular development, vascular trafficking, 28 29 phloem transport, plasmodesmata. 30 31 Introduction 32 33 The plant vascular system serves as the main route for long- and short distance 34 transport of various compounds throughout the plant body as well as a means of long-35 distance communication (Fig. 1). It consists of two major tissues types - xylem, which

conducts water and nutrients, and phloem, which transports mainly organic compounds. Over the last decade, significant progress has been made in understanding how the vascular system forms and functions, and important new findings in this regard were presented at the PVB 2013 meeting. Despite remarkable progress in understanding the formation of vascular tissues, one of the central questions discussed during the conference was how various signals are transported via the vascular tissues to orchestrate various biological processes throughout the plant with such precision. In this brief report, we highlight some of the answers provided during the PVB 2013 meeting.

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Long Distance Communication – Signaling Dynamics

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48 In this session, molecular mechanisms which enable long-distance trafficking of 49 macromolecules were presented, with a focus on the non-cell-autonomous function of 50 those molecules. 51 Phloem is a major intermediary tissue through which many molecules move, including 52 signaling molecules (De Lucas and Brady, 2013) (Fig. 1). Its structural property as a 53 conduit was emphasized by Noll Gundula (University of Münster, Germany). He 54 highlighted the functional differences between phloem proteins (p-proteins) and 55 for isomes. Both are encoded by the same sieve occlusion gene family (SEO) which 56 plays an important role in rapid wound sealing. (Ernst et al., 2012; Ernst et al., 2011; Froelich et al., 2011; Jekat et al., 2013). William Lucas and his colleague Ham Byung-57 58 kook (University of California, Davis, USA) shed light on the mechanism of phloem-59 mobile RNA translocation in cucurbits. Exploiting the histological advantages of phloem 60 sap extraction, they demonstrated that the ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complex, an 61 assembly between phloem-specific mobile RNAs and RNA-binding proteins (RBPs), 62 mediates the cell-to-cell trafficking of RNA species (Li et al., 2011). They have 63 previously shown that the *Cucurbita maxima* RNA-binding protein 50 (CmRBP50) 64 requires phosphorylation of its C-terminal serine residue for the establishment of a 65 stable RNP complex (Li et al., 2011). As an extension of this discovery, they presented 66 an advanced regulatory mechanism of long-distance trafficking of phloem small-RNAs, additionally highlighting the biological meaning of this communication in terms of gene 67 68 silencing. With regard to gene silencing, a presentation by Chiou Tzyy-Jen (Academia 69 Sinica, Taiwan) gave us a new insight into how mobile microRNA is involved in the

70	maintenance of phosphate (Pi) homeostasis. Previous work has shown that miR399
71	plays an important role in the maintenance of Pi homeostasis by negatively regulating
72	the expression of PHO2, a ubiquitin-conjugating E2 enzyme 24 (UBC24) (Aung et al.,
73	2006; Chiou et al., 2006). In her talk, Tzyy-Jen proposed that initial upregulation of
74	miRNA399 occurs in the shoot under Pi deficient conditions. Rootward movement of
75	miR399 via phloem then results in the cleavage of PHO2 transcripts in the root,
76	stimulating both Pi uptake from the roots and shootward translocation of Pi (Lin et al.,
77	2008; Pant et al., 2008). Their recent studies identified PHO1 and several
78	PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER1 (PHT1) proteins as the downstream targets of PHO2
79	in this regulatory pathway (Huang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2012).
80	The importance of auxin transport as a major morphogenetic signal in plants was
81	revisited by Ottoline Leyser (Sainsbury Laboratory University of Cambridge, UK).
82	Continuous growth in plants is primarily dependent on the activity of meristems located
83	at the tip of the root and shoot. Long distance source-to-sink transport of auxin has
84	been proposed to play a critical role in coordinating the activity of meristems and
85	systemic growth in general. This coordination process is exemplified by the formation of
86	a vascular connection between axillary buds and the main stem (Domagalska and
87	Leyser, 2011). In her keynote address, Leyser provided a comprehensive overview of
88	bud activation, focusing especially on the role of the spatiotemporal regulation of auxin
89	transport dynamics.
90	The research presented in this meeting reflected the increasing use of micrografting as
91	a technique to dissect and understand long distance transport of signals between the
92	shoot and root. An example of the successful application of this technique was provided
93	during Leslie Sieburth's (University of Utah, USA) talk, where she presented a
94	mechanism for the coordination of shoot growth and development by a signal derived
95	from the root. In has been previously reported that the Arabidopsis bypass 1 (bps1)
96	mutant root produces a mobile bps1 signal (Adhikari et al., 2013; Van Norman et al.,
97	2011) that functions in the shoot to arrest its growth. As an extension of this discovery,
98	Sieburth provided evidence that the mobile <i>bps1</i> signal is also involved in maintenance

Mechanisms and dynamics of vascular trafficking

of the shoot apical meristem (SAM).

Drought obviously has a major impact on water uptake by plants and the conductive properties of their vascular system. Despite significant progress in understanding how

105 plants tolerate drought, the mechanisms by which trees react to the drought remain 106 elusive. Drought leads to impaired water transport from the soil to the leaves via the 107 xylem and thus results in plant mortality via hydraulic failure (McDowell et al., 2008; 108 Sperry et al., 1998). However, there have been very few reports about what happens in 109 the phloem in response to drought. Sanna Sevanto (Los Alamos National Laboratory, 110 USA) and colleagues showed that a loss of both conductivity and carbohydrate 111 reserves can coincide in trees during drought. Furthermore, the loss of turgor in 112 phloem restricts access to carbohydrate reserves while hydraulic control of respiration 113 prolongs survival. These studies indicate that phloem plays a key role in drought-114 related mortality, although the exact cascade of events at the cellular level is a question 115 which remains to be addressed. 116 Sucrose is the major transport form of carbohydrates in plants; it is transported from the 117 sites of production in the leaves to sink tissues via the tube-like phloem network (Van 118 Bel, 2003). This network is interconnected via plasmodesmata. As demonstrated 119 previously, the flux and direction of sucrose is controlled by SUC/SUT type sucrose 120 transporters (Aoki et al., 2003; Riesmeier et al., 1993; Sauer, 2007; Sauer and Stolz, 121 1994; Slewinski et al., 2009), proton-driven sucrose transporters that play an essential 122 role in cell-to-cell and long-distance distribution of sucrose within the plant body. 123 Conformational changes in these transporters accompanying the transport of sucrose 124 were previously observed (Carpaneto et al., 2010). Furthermore, Dietmar Geiger (University Würzburg, Germany) and coworkers are investigating the mechanisms of 125 126 reaction cycle of sucrose transporters – the binding of protons to the carrier and its 127 effect on the protein trafficking. 128 Continuing on the theme of sucrose transport, David Braun (University of Missouri, 129 USA) discussed how important it is to understand the molecular mechanisms of carbon 130 partitioning, the process by which photoassimilates are transported from their site of 131 synthesis in the leaves to the rest of the plant body. Although several studies have 132 demonstrated that the control of carbon partitioning is essential for plant growth and 133 development, an understanding of the genetic control of carbon partitioning remains 134 elusive. The aforementioned sucrose transporters (SUTs) are the best known genes 135 that directly load sucrose into the phloem (Lalonde et al., 2004; Sauer, 2007). 136 Characterization of all SUT family members will open up new directions of investigation 137 into the control of carbon partitioning in plants. Furthermore, it will allow the development of new tools for biotechnological approaches to enhance crop yield and 138 139 biofuel production (Slewinski et al., 2009).

The osmotically active transport of sugars via phloem is a key process in phloem function (Ayre, 2011) because it leads to the creation of the hydrostatic pressure gradient between source and sink, the mechanism postulated by (Münch, 1930) to drive the mass flow of phloem sap. Phloem transport is already known to be controlled by an active loading step between bundle sheath cells (BSCs) and the sieve element companion cell complex (SECCC). The abundance of cell connections between the BSC and SECCC determines whether phloem loading will be symplasmic or apoplasmic (Liesche and Schulz, 2012). Alexander Schulz (University of Copenhagen, Denmark) and colleagues are investigating the conversion of diffusional pre-phloem transport into bulk flow via symplastic loaders. Their findings suggest an important role for cell-specific water accessibility along the pre-phloem pathway that needs further investigation. Nitrogen is one the most important nutrients for plants and serves as a major precursor of such critical compounds as chlorophyll, nucleic acids and amino acids. Lack of nitrogen severely affects plant metabolism and growth. Following uptake, nitrogen is immediately used in metabolism, transiently stored, or transported via the vasculature to sink tissues by a large number of well-described nitrogen transporters (Rentsch et al., 2007). Several studies suggest that these transporters play an important role in organic nitrogen uptake, source-to-sink transport, and sink loading for growth and development. Mechthild Tegeder (Washington State University, USA) discussed the identification and characterization of transport processes controlling the partitioning of organic nitrogen between source and sink. She demonstrated that cellular import systems are essential for the partitioning of nitrogen at the scale of the whole plant body. In addition, she provided data demonstrating the importance of nitrogen transporters as key regulators of plant metabolism, growth and development (Tegeder, 2012; Tegeder and Rentsch, 2010). Michael Knoblauch (Washington State University, USA) highlighted the importance of sieve tube structure and its impact on long distance transport. Sieve tube structure has a major impact on transport and unloading; however, questions concerning the basic structure and function of sieve tubes remain unanswered due to their inaccessibility and sensitivity to injury. The detailed structure of sieve plates has been previously investigated by using scanning electron microscopy (Mullendore et al., 2010). These studies provided vital insight into the geometry of pores, plates and sieve elements. New methods to investigate sieve tubes based on in vivo high resolution microscopy

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were discussed, together with the role of phloem proteins encoded by the sieve element occlusion gene family.

An earlier study performed by Carel Windt and colleagues (Forschungszentrum Jülich, Germany) in tomato truss demonstrated that most water transport occurs via the xylem (Windt *et al.*, 2009). This was determined with the help of Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) flowmetry, which provides information not only about the volume of the flow but also flow conducting area and average linear velocity (Windt *et al.*, 2006). Carel Windt is using this technique in various plant species to investigate what fraction of the xylem cross-sectional area conducts water flow.

A novel technique to analyze the three-dimensional xylem network of *Arabidopsis* was presented by Ildoo Hwang (Pohang University of Science and Technology, Korea).

Based on this technique, a flexible framework of the xylem network for water management with multiple layers of regulation was proposed. Such a framework may explain how hydraulic regulation is accomplished at the whole-plant level.

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The role of plasmodesmata in vascular trafficking

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Neighboring plant cells communicate with each other via symplastic transport through the plasmodesmata (PDs) or via the extracellular apoplastic space. PDs are microscopic plasma membrane-lined channels which traverse the cell wall of adjacent cells allowing the movement of various molecules through the symplastic space (Burch-Smith et al., 2011; Cilia and Jackson, 2004; Lucas et al., 2009; Maule, 2008; Oparka and Roberts, 2001; Sevilem et al., 2013). Despite their role in plant development, physiology and defense, the mechanism and regulation of trafficking through plasmodesmata remains poorly understood. A new perspective on the role of PD in the transport of sugars and amino acids was presented by Sylvie Dinant (INRA, France) during the PVB 2013 meeting. Sylvie Dinant and her colleagues described the role of NHL26, a phloem protein targeted to the PD, in regulating PD permeability, which affects sugar signaling at the interface between companion cells and sieve elements. Overexpression of NHL26 leads to slow growth, accumulation of carbohydrates in leaves, higher shoot biomass and defects in sugar export. These data suggest that NHL26 plays an important role in the regulation of plasmodesmata permeability and sugar signaling in companion cells (Vilaine et al., 2013).

Cell-to-cell signaling has been shown to play a critical role in the response to various environmental changes, including plant defense. Before an immune signal spreads

209 throughout the plant body, local cell-cell signaling is required to confine the infection. 210 During this process, PD undergo various structural modifications. Several studies have 211 demonstrated that the permeability, dilation, or structure of PD can be altered in 212 response to infection by microbial pathogens (Benitez-Alfonso et al., 2010; Carpaneto 213 et al., 2010; Schoelz et al., 2011; Ueki and Citovsky, 2011). Jung-Youn Lee (University 214 of Delaware, USA) presented evidence for the role of salicylic acid (SA) signaling 215 components in regulating cell-to-cell connectivity. Application of SA leads to increased 216 callose deposition at the PD and subsequent closure, a response which requires the 217 presence of plasmodesmata-located protein, PDLP5. Mutations in SA signal 218 transduction cause PD closure upon infection by bacterial pathogens. These data 219 suggest that the crosstalk between PDLP5 and the SA signaling pathway plays a 220 critical role in regulating PD permeability upon bacterial pathogen attack (Lee et al., 221 2011; Wang et al., 2013). 222 Kay Schneitz (Technische Universität München, Germany) presented an interesting 223 talk about the role of the kinase STRUBBELIG in regulating inter-cell-layer 224 communication and tissue morphogenesis. In Arabidopsis, the atypical transmembrane 225 leucine-rich repeat receptor-like (LRR-RLK) STRUBBELIG (SUB) has been shown to 226 be critical for a number of developmental processes (Chevalier et al., 2005; Fulton et 227 al., 2009; Kwak et al., 2005; Vaddepalli et al., 2011; Yadav et al., 2008). SUB functions 228 in a non-cell-autonomous manner to mediate inter-cell-layer signaling across cell layers 229 in the ovule, the floral meristem (Yadav et al., 2008), and the root (Kwak and 230 2008). The three STRUBBELIG-LIKE MUTANT (SLM) genes Schiefelbein, 231 ANGUSTIFOLIA (AN), QUIRKY (QKY) and ZERZAUST (ZET) are considered central 232 players in SUB-mediated signal transduction pathways, as the phenotype of these 233 mutants is similar to *sub* mutants in certain respects. 234 Short range cell-to-cell communication in plants involves the selective trafficking of 235 various transcription factors through PD. For example the KNOTTED1 (KN1) 236 homeobox (KNOX) family transcription factors and are essential for stem cell 237 establishment and maintenance and use the PD pathway (Bolduc et al., 2008; Kim et 238 al., 2002b; Lucas et al., 1995; Xu et al., 2011). David Jackson and coworkers showed 239 that KN1 trafficking requires the chaperonins, a group of cytosolic chaperones which 240 are necessary to fold specific substrate proteins. Chaperonins are known to be 241 essential for the cell-to-cell trafficking of a subset of mobile transcription factors, and a 242 critical role for chaperonin-dependent protein trafficking has also been demonstrated in 243 plant stem cell function (Xu et al., 2011). Currently, David Jackson and colleagues are

244 investigating the mechanisms by which chaperonins mediate plasmodesmal transport. 245 These studies may lead to the discovery of new genes controlling trafficking through 246 the PD. 247 The symplastic movement of various signaling molecules through the PD has been 248 shown to play an important role in some developmental programs, including embryonic 249 cell fate and postembryonic organ development (Chevalier et al., 2005; Kim et al., 250 2002a; Nakajima et al., 2001; Xu and Jackson, 2010; Xu et al., 2011). Beyond the well-251 studied role of hormones, the mechanisms that define lateral root architecture remain 252 poorly understood. Yoselin Benitez-Alfonso (University of Leeds, United Kingdom) and 253 colleagues demonstrated that symplastic connectivity plays a critical role in initiating 254 lateral root meristems and determining their position. This connectivity is regulated by 255 PD-localized glucanases, which control callose accumulation and molecular trafficking 256 through PD. This discovery represents a great step forward in our understanding of 257 lateral root formation (Benitez-Alfonso et al., 2013). 258 Another process where cell-to-cell communication through plasmodesmata plays a 259 critical role is dormancy in trees. Earlier studies in trees showed that PD undergo 260 structural modifications in response to a short photoperiod, resulting in a lower size 261 exclusion limit of PD in the SAM (Rinne et al., 2001; Ruonala et al., 2008). 262 Consequently, after the buds are formed, the SAM shifts into a dormant state by closing 263 the PD in all its cells via callose deposition (Rinne et al., 2001; Rinne and van der 264 Schoot, 1998; Ruonala et al., 2008). When the early winter chill comes, it results in the 265 SAM shifting from its disconnected dormant state to a reconnected quiescent state, at 266 the same time as it increases its freezing-tolerance. Christiaan van der Schoot and 267 colleagues (Norwegian University of Life Sciences, Norway) identified a group of genes 268 that are critical for the transition between the two phases. These genes are members of 269 the GH17 family of carbohydrate-active 1,3-betaglucanases, which are enzymes that 270 degrade PD-callose. Their expression is controlled by several factors, such as day 271 length, temperature and genes involved in gibberellic acid biosynthesis and signaling 272 (Rinne et al., 2011). 273 Jae-Yean Kim (Gyeongsang National University, Korea) showed that callose deposition

Gene regulatory networks in vascular development

plays an important role in establishing PIN-driven auxin gradients.

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The establishment of proper tissue layers is a prerequisite for intercellular trafficking. With regard to this issue, an entire session was allocated to vascular development. Siobhan Brady (UC Davis, USA) presented a global-scale view of genetic regulatory networks in root vascular development, focusing especially on cell type specification (De Lucas and Brady, 2013). Ji-Young Lee (Seoul National University, Korea) proposed a genetic regulatory mechanism by which xylem cells are distinguished from the procambium domain. She presented two mobile transcription factors from an AT-hook family transcription factor, AHL3 (AT-HOOK MOTIF NUCLEAR LOCALIZED PROTEIN 3) and AHL4. According to the proposed model, the movement of AHL4 from the procambium to the xylem plays a key role in establishing tissue boundaries in the root meristem. In particular, the protein complex of AHL4 and AHL3 was shown to propel AHL4 movement (Zhou et al., 2013), implying an intriguing regulatory mechanism between transcription factors. Plant hormones and their signaling pathways have been considered as a major controller of vascular cell division and specification (De Lucas and Brady, 2013), an issue that was addressed by several talks in the session. For example, Hiroo Fukuda (University of Tokyo, Japan) proposed a model integrating brassinosteroid (BR) signaling into vascular stem cell fate determination. It has been previously shown that the TDIF-TDR (Tracheary Element Differentiation Inhibitory Factor-TDIF Receptor) pathway plays a role in vascular stem cell maintenance. WOX4, in particular, is known to be a key gene involved in promoting cell proliferation in the procambium and cambium as a positive regulator of the TDIF-TDR pathway (Hirakawa et al., 2010). Fukuda showed that BR signaling functions in conjunction with the TDIF-TDR-WOX4 signal in determining vascular stem cell fates, with the two pathways sharing a common target.

Biotic plant interactions

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The importance of plants' response to biotic stimuli was evinced by several talks in this session. Speakers presented the result of research into the process of infection by root-knot nematodes and plant responses to this invasion. Upon invasion by root-knot nematodes, giant cells are formed in the stele of host roots. Since these cells later serve as feeding sites, it has been proposed that the formation of vascular tissues around them and sustained vascular continuity are critical for the survival of the nematodes (Absmanner *et al.*, 2013). Ulrich Hammes (Regensburg University,

313 Germany) provided evidence that the vascular tissues encircling the giant cells are 314 actively dividing protophloem. In combination with his results, Derek Goto (Hokkaido 315 University, Japan) showed various mutants that repress the nematode infection and 316 proposed a genetic regulatory mechanism involved in nematode infection, focusing on 317 the initial events in particular. 318 Long-distance signal trafficking serves as a pivotal mechanism for the communication 319 between plant and bacteria. For instance, legume species that host rhizobacteria adopt 320 an auto-regulatory mechanism controlling nodulation as a part of stable symbiotic 321 relationship (Reid et al., 2013). In this meeting, Peter Gresshoff (University of 322 Queensland, Australia) introduced the CLAVATA1-like receptor kinase in soybean, 323 which is responsible for the systemic regulation of nodulation. Dubbed GmNARK 324 (Nodulation Auto-regulation Receptor Kinase), this kinase was previously found to 325 interact with the CLE peptides (CLV3-related peptides) (Lim et al., 2011; Reid et al., 326 2011). Of the three CLE peptides in soybean – GmRIC1, GmRIC2, and GmNIC1 – 327 GmRIC1 and GmRIC2 were shown to interact with GmNARK in the shoot, inducing the 328 shoot-derived inhibitor (SDI) signal which subsequently regulates nodulation in the root. 329 It was also proposed that the CLE domain has nodulation suppression residues that are 330 crucial for long-distance signal transmission (Reid et al., 2013). However, the 331 underlying mechanism behind this is still unclear. 332 Pradeep Kachroo (University of Kentucky, USA) shared his research on unraveling the 333 signaling pathways that control defense responses in plants. He highlighted the role of 334 several components of the systemic acquired resistance (SAR) pathway, including the 335 nine carbon dicarboxylic acid azelaic acid (AA), the phosphorylated sugar glycerol-3-336 phosphate (G3P), and two lipid transfer proteins DIR1 (Defective in Induced 337 Resistance) and AZI1 (AA insensitive). SAR has been observed in a variety of flowering 338 plants and can be induced by a broad spectrum of pathogens. Experimental evidence 339 was presented demonstrating that a feedback regulatory loop involving G3P, DIR1, and 340 AZI1 regulates the precise induction of the SAR (Glover and Kachroo, 2013; Kachroo 341 and Robin, 2013; Yu et al., 2013). Cyril Zipfel (The Sainsbury Laboratory, UK) 342 presented evidence of an antagonistic interaction between BR signaling and the innate 343 immune response in plants. Plant immunity is primarily triggered via the recognition of a 344 pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP) by surface-localized pattern-345 recognition receptors (PRRs). The interplay between BR signaling and the immune response was demonstrated on the grounds that BR signaling can inhibit PRRs-346 347 mediated immune signaling (Albrecht et al., 2012).

Aart van Bel (University of Giessen, Germany) highlighted the effect of early biotic and abiotic stimuli on the gating of Ca²⁺ permeable channels. As described earlier by Aart van Bel and colleagues, infection of plants by phytoplasma, bacteria that are obligate parasites of phloem, results in Ca²⁺ influx into phloem sieve tubes, leading to callose deposition and sieve plate occlusion. In addition, phytoplasma infection may cause gating of sieve-element Ca²⁺ channels, leading to sieve-tube occlusion with consequent dramatic effects on both the spread of the infection and photoassimilate distribution (Musetti *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, various injuries initiate longitudinal electrical waves which also enhance Ca²⁺ concentration in sieve elements by altering the gating of Ca²⁺ channels in the plasma membranes. The passage of an electrical wave associated with calcium influx leads to a temporary reorganization of the phloem symplasm. Lateral waves of calcium influx and the symplasmic reorganization may trigger the production of an arsenal of long-distance messages ranging from phytohormones to macromolecules in vascular cells along the sieve tubes (van Bel *et al.*, 2011a; van Bel *et al.*, 2011b).

Concluding remarks

Significant progress has been made in the past several years in the area of plant vascular biology. A number of recent insights into the molecular mechanisms controlling vascular patterning, trafficking and biotic interactions were presented during the meeting. At the same time, it illustrated our need to understand the integration of these processes to control plant growth and development. We noticed a growing interest in understanding long and short distance communication and its impact on vascular tissue formation. These studies will greatly contribute to biotechnologies that can improve agricultural performance. Overall, it was a truly productive meeting, and we look forward to the next Plant Vascular Biology meeting which will be held in China in 2016.

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Fig. 1. Representative image of vascular trafficking. The whole plant image in the middle demonstrates long-distance signal trafficking. Arrowheads indicate source-to-sink translocation of signaling molecules either through phloem (blue arrows) or xylem (pink arrows). Symplastic communication between sieve elements and companion cells is marked with green arrows in the magnified phloem image.

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