

Lipids or Proteins: Who is leading the dance at Membrane Contact Sites?

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J.D. Petit did the writing, figure and table.
F. Immel did corrections and advised on manuscript content
L. Lins did corrections and advised on manuscript content
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Keywords

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Abstract

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Understanding the mode of action of membrane contact sites (MCSs) across eukaryotic organisms at the near-atomic level to infer function at the cellular and tissue levels is a challenge scientists are currently facing. These peculiar systems dedicated to inter-organellar communication are perfect examples of cellular processes where the interplay between lipids and proteins is critical. In this mini review, we underline the link between membrane lipid environment, the recruitment of proteins at specialized membrane domains and the function of membrane contact sites. More precisely, we want to give insights on the crucial role of lipids in defining the specificity of plant endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-plasma membrane (PM) MCSs and we further propose approaches to study them at multiple scales.

Our goal is not so much to go into detailed description of MCSs, as there are numerous focused reviews on the subject, but rather try to pinpoint the critical elements defining those structures and give an original point of view by considering the subject from a near-atomic angle with a focus on lipids. We review current knowledge as to how lipids can define MCS territories, play a role in the recruitment and function of the MCS-associated proteins and in turn, how the lipid environment can be modified by proteins.

Data availability statement

Generated Statement: No datasets were generated or analyzed for this study.

1 **Lipids or Proteins: Who is leading the dance at Membrane Contact**

2 **Sites?**

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28 recruitment and function of the MCS-associated proteins and in turn, how the lipid environment can
29 be modified by proteins.

30

31 Introduction

32 From an evolutionary perspective, membrane contact sites (MCSs) have been suggested to be the
33 first contacts between archeon and protobacterium, leading to the emergence of eukaryotic cells
34 (Jain and Holthuis, 2017). More generally, MCSs are described as a very close apposition (10-30
35 nm gap) of membranes of usually two different organelles (intra-organellar MCSs also exist), with
36 specific lipid and protein populations (Bayer et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017). MCSs create micro-
37 environments that are under tight spatial and temporal control. Their main function is to promote
38 fast inter-organellar communication through direct exchange of molecules such as lipids or calcium
39 and through coordinated actions, for instance, with proteins acting in *trans* on the adjacent
40 membrane to control receptor signaling or lipid synthesis (Eden et al., 2010; Haj et al., 2012;
41 Henrich et al., 2018; Himschoot et al., 2017; Muallem et al., 2017). MCSs' capacity to create and
42 modulate micro-environments but also macro-environment at larger scales in the cell, is determined
43 by high regulation of lipids and proteins, both in composition and distribution (Eisenberg-Bord et
44 al., 2016; Gatta and Levine, 2017; Muallem et al., 2017). Many researches have been made on the
45 diversity of membrane lipids and the consequences of their heterogeneous distributions along and
46 across the bilayer (Cacas et al., 2016; Gronnier et al., 2018; Harayama and Riezman, 2018; Sezgin
47 et al., 2017). There is also increasing knowledge about the identity and function of MCS-associated
48 proteins (Eisenberg-Bord et al., 2016; Wong et al., 2018). The exact definition of the MCSs is still
49 being discussed but an emerging consensus is that they are (1) involved in the bulk lipid distribution
50 and/or the fine regulation of membrane lipid composition through (but not only) direct lipid transfer
51 which in turn is critical for local and organellar cellular processes and (2) characterized with the
52 presence of tethering elements to hold the membranes close to each other but without undergoing
53 fusion. Lipid transfer proteins (LTPs) are locally found at MCSs and, in addition to lipid transfer,
54 some are also able to act as tethers (Eisenberg-Bord et al., 2016; Lahiri et al., 2015; Quon et al.,
55 2018; Tong et al., 2018). In turn, the lipids are one of the main actors for LTP/tether recruitment,
56 hence stability and function of MCSs (Bian et al., 2018; Wong et al., 2018). In such an environment,
57 it is challenging to understand the dynamics and relationships between proteins and lipids but also
58 interactions between lipid-lipid and protein-protein inside these confined areas filled with such a
59 dynamic complexity.

60 We chose here to give a global view and additional thoughts on the role of lipids at plant MCSs,
61 mainly at ER-PM MCSs (EPCSs). In this review, we will first describe the different ways lipids can
62 define specific regions and regulate protein complexes through the formation of lipid domains, the
63 regulation of membrane curvature and membrane electrostatics. Secondly, we will look at the
64 importance of lipid exchange at MCSs. Thirdly, we will open a discussion about the particularity of
65 plasmodesmata MCSs and their potential implications in organelle crosstalk, cell-to-cell

66 communication and trafficking regulation. Finally, we list a number of multidisciplinary approaches
67 that could be used to provide a complete view of these structures at (near) atomic and molecular
68 levels.

In review

69 **Membrane lipids create unique environments that define and regulate MCSs**

70 MCSs have specific molecular compositions in both lipids and proteins, which define nano- and
71 microdomains within the organelle. These subdomains are very important for the cellular
72 polarization of signaling events via the formation of protein complexes, notably receptor complexes
73 that are as such spatially and temporally regulated, driving acute signaling pathways (Burkart and
74 Stahl, 2017; Gronnier et al., 2018). The molecular mechanisms leading to subcompartmentalization
75 in general terms are gradually being uncovered and have been shown to involve lipids, membrane
76 biophysical properties and the concerted action of specific protein machineries. Membrane
77 subdivision is arising from the combination of membrane biophysical properties – such as fluidity,
78 thickness, curvature and electrostatics – and has consequences in the recognition pattern of a
79 plethora of lipid environment-sensing protein domains (Lorent et al., 2017; Pérez-Lara et al., 2016;
80 Platre et al., 2018; Prévost et al., 2015; Strahl et al., 2015; Wong et al., 2018).

81

82 Membrane fluidity and domains

83 There are two main elements playing a role in membrane fluidity and lipid domain formation and
84 conservation. A very general feature is the liquid-liquid phase separation, caused by the tendency of
85 sterols to [associate with saturated lipids or proteins](#) and form sterol-enriched ordered domains
86 (liquid ordered Lo *versus* liquid disordered Ld domains) and of unsaturated lipids to tune the phase
87 separation stability (Javanainen et al., 2017; Levental et al., 2016; Weiner and Feigenson, 2018).
88 More precisely, in plants, a model of PM nanodomain has been proposed to involve plant-specific
89 sphingolipids called Glycosyl Inositol Phospho Ceramides (GIPCs). GIPCs possess very long
90 saturated acyl chains and presumably locate in the outer leaflet of the PM. Poly-glycosylated GIPCs
91 tend to increase the size of phytosterol-dependent ordered domains through cooperative interactions
92 [\(Figure 1. A.\)](#) (Grosjean et al., 2015), which likely mirrors poly-phosphoinositides-enriched
93 domains in the inner leaflet, possibly through interdigitation; i.e. interaction through very long fatty
94 acyl chains between outer and inner leaflet lipids (Cacas et al., 2016; Gronnier et al., 2016;
95 Raghupathy et al., 2015).

96 The natural segregation of lipids into domains, caused by their intrinsic properties is used,
97 controlled and balanced by the cell through the action of proteins in order to build functional
98 entities capable of molecular and cellular operations such as signaling (Sezgin et al., 2017). The
99 rigidity/fluidity of the membrane partially derives from the proportion of sterols present in the
100 bilayer, as their stiff planar structure is constraining the acyl chains of neighboring lipids (Dufourc,
101 2008). As a consequence, the presence of nanodomains and membrane-associated cytoskeleton is
102 directly impacting the mobility of peripheral and anchored protein. This so-called anomalous

103 diffusion of membrane-associated proteins and lipids could be as important as membrane
104 compartmentalization for mesoscopic dynamics (100-1000nm) (Wu et al., 2016). In addition, the
105 sterol enrichment together with the orderliness and length of the lipid acyl chains are associated
106 with the thickness of the bilayer (Javanainen et al., 2017). One example of protein sorting
107 associated to lipid nano-domain formation is the distribution of transmembrane domains via the
108 hydrophobic mismatch; i.e. the [propertieslength](#) of the transmembrane domain is correlated to
109 specific lipid domains [\(Figure 1. B.\) having a matching thickness](#) (Lorent et al., 2017; Milovanovic
110 et al., 2015). A recent study describing the plasmodesmata proteome of *Populus trichocarpa* show
111 an increase in the length of the transmembrane domains of plasmodesmata-associated proteins in
112 comparison with membrane-associated proteins (Leijon et al., 2018). This observation is in
113 correlation with the specificity of the membrane composition described at [postcytokinesis](#)
114 plasmodesmata (Grison et al., 2015) and pointing toward a thick “raft-like” membrane.

115 In animals, MCSs between the ER and the *trans*Golgi network are critical for the regulation of the
116 sterol and sphingolipid transfer, mediated by the CERamide Transport protein (CERT) and the
117 OxySterol Binding Protein (OSBP), which is very important for the control of *trans*Golgi lipid
118 composition, hence PM lipid composition (Hanada, 2018; Jain and Holthuis, 2017; Olkkonen, 2015;
119 Yamaji et al., 2008). GIPCs being plant-specific sphingolipids, understanding their role in
120 membranes and how they could indirectly act at MCS by modulating lipid composition would be a
121 major step forward in cell biology. Although some studies have shown enrichment of sphingolipids
122 and phytosterols at some plant MCSs (Fujimoto et al., 2011; Grison et al., 2015), we currently don't
123 know the role of inter-organellar exchange in maintaining these local lipid environments. The
124 remaining enigma behind the role of leaflet interdigitation mediated by the GIPCs' very long chain
125 fatty acids and more globally the asymmetrical distribution of lipids between the inner and outer
126 leaflets of the PM is also worth our attention (Cacas et al., 2016; Gronnier et al., 2016).

127

128 Membrane curvature and lipid packing

129 Another major component of the establishment of specialized membrane domains is membrane
130 curvature and lipid packing. The latter can be described as the orderliness of the lipid arrangement:
131 lipid packing defects arise when cavities in the membrane are formed at the interface with water,
132 exposing aliphatic carbons [\(Figure 1. C.\)](#) (Gautier et al., 2018; Jackson et al., 2016). This property
133 of the bilayer relies upon a balance between the size of the lipid polar head and the degree of lipid
134 unsaturation (Bigay and Antonny, 2012) but also upon the curvature of the bilayer itself (Harayama
135 and Riezman, 2018). Other studies also suggest the formation of lipid packing defects at Lo/Ld
136 boundaries (Tripathy et al., 2018). These membrane biophysical properties can drive membrane

137 adsorption of various peripheral proteins which recognize lipid packing defects through, for
138 instance, amphipathic helices in membrane curvature-sensing proteins (Cui et al., 2011; Simunovic
139 et al., 2015; Vanni et al., 2013). In addition, the curvature itself can drive autonomous sorting of
140 molecules depending on their properties, as it was shown for lipids (Baoukina et al., 2018) and
141 transmembrane proteins (Aimon et al., 2014). In the context of MCSs, highly negatively curved
142 membranes, such as PM inside plasmodesmata intercellular pores, could cluster small polar head
143 lipids like phosphatidic acid and/or specific proteins, to potentially regulate the function of the
144 MCS.

145 Other proteins or local production/degradation of specific lipids have been shown to induce
146 membrane curvature (Choudhary et al., 2018; Ramakrishnan et al., 2018; Tilsner et al., 2016). The
147 transmembrane region of human MCTP2 (Multiple C2 domains and Transmembrane region Protein
148 2), a protein that is suspected to act as a tether at EPCS in neurons (Genç et al., 2017), was notably
149 shown to act as a reticulon domain, constraining the ER network into narrow tubules by inducing
150 curvature (Joshi et al., 2018). An interesting question to ask is whether tether proteins can also
151 shape membranes at MCSs and how this could be linked with inter-organellar exchange. Does the
152 curvature induced by these tethers aim to facilitate lipid extraction for transfer? Sterol extraction
153 could indeed be facilitated at positively curved membranes (Bigay and Antonny, 2012) and maybe
154 more stably incorporated into membranes with no lipid packing defect such as negatively curved
155 membranes, possibly providing a driving force for directional movement.

156

157 Membrane electrostatics and ions

158 The third main element defining membrane and domain identity is the charge carried by the lipid
159 polar heads, more precisely anionic lipids. In plants, phosphatidylinositol-4-phosphate (PI4P) is the
160 major anionic lipid that drives the electrostatic identity of the PM inner leaflet (Simon et al.,
161 2016) but a more recent research shows that the electrostatic field is actually controlled by a
162 combination of several charged lipids, namely PI4P, phosphatidic acid (PA) and phosphatidylserine
163 (PS) (Platre et al., 2018). This three-way electrostatic landscape of plant PM is critical for the
164 creation of specific local charges and thus the recruitment and function of cationic proteins involved
165 in cellular responses, such as the brassinosteroid transport regulator BRI1 KINASE INHIBITOR1
166 (BKI1) and auxin polarity modulators AGC kinases PINOID and D6-PROTEIN KINASE (D6PK)
167 (Barbosa et al., 2016; Platre et al., 2018; Simon et al., 2016).

168 Negatively charged lipids are also critical elements of EPCSs, acting as co-factors for membrane
169 tethering through direct interaction with tether proteins. Few examples are tricalbins (Tcb1-3) and
170 Ist2 proteins in yeast (Manford et al., 2012), extended-synaptotagmins (E-Syt1-3), TMEM16,

171 junctophilins and STIM1 in humans and finally synaptotagmin1/A (Syt1) and MCTPs in plants
172 (Brault et al., 2018; Henne et al., 2015; Tilsner et al., 2016). Indeed, many LTPs/tethering elements
173 possess pleckstrin homology (PH) or C2 domains, which are known anionic lipid-interacting
174 domains (Wong et al., 2018). In animals, MCS tether proteins presenting a series of C2 domains
175 (like E-Syt1) were shown to have conditional environment-mediated structural modifications,
176 which initiate or relay a signal at the MCS scale: decrease of inter-membrane gap, lipid exchange,
177 protein complex formation/loosening (Bian et al., 2018; Saheki and De Camilli, 2017; Zhou et al.,
178 2017). In plants, we are running late on understanding the dynamic molecular mechanisms
179 occurring at MCSs but still, Syt1 C2 domains were shown to interact with anionic lipids
180 phosphatidylinositol phosphate (PIP) (Pérez-Sancho et al., 2015; Schapire et al., 2008) and new
181 insights on the function of MCTP family at plasmodesmata EPCS might give us some clues as their
182 C2 domains also have the capacity to interact with PS and PI4P (Brault et al., 2018).

183 Local lipid modifications, pH and gradients/local concentrations of ions must also be taken into
184 account in the regulation of the membrane electrostatic signature and thus the ability of anionic
185 lipid-protein interactions. We know that MCSs are places of calcium exchange and PIPanionic lipid
186 concentration (Muallem et al., 2017). It is important to consider how the two are related and the
187 consequences it has on MCS functions. For instance, the function of E-Syt1, which relies on the
188 membrane docking ability of its C2 domains with anionic lipids, can be directly modulated by the
189 presence of calcium ions (Bian et al., 2018; Idevall-hagren et al., 2015) but the latter can also shield
190 PIP polar heads and prevent protein binding at places undergoing signaling (Bilkova et al., 2017;
191 Himschoot et al., 2017; Seo et al., 2015) (**Figure 1. D.**) Recent work has also demonstrated the
192 effect of local concentrations of bivalent cations, mainly calcium, on the shaping of membranes
193 containing anionic lipids: the clustering of PS and PI(4,5)P2 caused by ion interactions drives a
194 negative curvature and tubulation of the bilayer (Doosti et al., 2017; Graber et al., 2017). A last
195 element that is able to determine a spatiotemporal electrostatic signature is the pH, which can act on
196 anionic lipids, mainly PA (Shin et al., 2011; Tanguy et al., 2018). It is possible that the pH at MCS
197 could differ from the bulk cytosol and studying its variations at these areas by using pH probes
198 could be interesting.

199 **Lipid exchange at MCS**

200 At MCS, we observe an alternative transport to vesicular trafficking: a direct shuttle/exchange of
201 lipids between membranes. This exchange seems to be a way to guarantee robust mechanism of
202 lipid transfer and regulation between compartments as it results in organellar lipid modifications
203 and plays a major role in cellular events such insulin response (Lees et al., 2017) and neuronal
204 growth (Petkovic et al., 2014). This fast and efficient crosstalk is performed by a specialized group

205 | elade of proteins, the lipid transfer proteins (LTPs) and relies on protein membrane binding through
206 | lipid interaction (mainly anionic lipid and/or calcium-dependent C2 domains and anionic lipid-
207 | dependent pleckstrin homology (PH) domains), but also on the close proximity of the two
208 | membranes (**Figure 1. D.**) (Wong et al., 2018). Non-vesicular transport of lipids by LTPs is
209 | important for the regulation of membrane composition in tight places, which cannot be achieved by
210 | vesicles. It may also play as an essential role in controlling the bulk lipid distribution of organelles.

211 | For example, the Oxysterol Binding Protein (OSBP) and OSBP-Related Proteins (ORP, Osh)
212 | associate with vesicle-associated membrane protein-associated proteins (VAPs) at ER MCSs to
213 | specifically exchange sterols, PS and PIP molecules (Moser von Filseck and Drin, 2016; Olkkonen,
214 | 2015). Osh4 uses the PI4P imbalance created at the ER by PI4P phosphatase Sac1p to exchange
215 | PI4P extracted from the *trans*Golgi network with sterols. This counter-flow process results in sterol
216 | enrichment at the *trans*Golgi network and PI4P pool maintenance at the ER (Saint-jean et al., 2011).
217 | Interestingly, maintaining this PI4P pool at the ER allows the recruitment of CERT in order to
218 | transport ceramide from the ER to the *trans*Golgi (Moser von Filseck and Drin, 2016; Yamaji et al.,
219 | 2008). This trafficking of sterols and -sphingolipids to the *trans*Golgi leads to the indirect
220 | regulation of the PM lipid composition. ORP5/8 also contributes to build the PM lipid signature by
221 | counter-flowing PS to it, in exchange of PI4P and more efficiently PI(4,5)P₂ from the ER (Chung et
222 | al., 2015; Ghai et al., 2017). Overall, it becomes clear that the transport of sterols, sphingolipids and
223 | anionic lipids is critical for the definition of membrane signature and control of lipid composition.
224 | This leads us to believe that lipid exchange at MCSs is at the basis of membrane identity by shaping
225 | their properties through the transfer of specific lipids. It also allows the creation and maintenance of
226 | lipid gradients needed for the function of molecular machineries during cellular actions. However,
227 | our knowledge on how plant lipid transfer at MCS is able to tune organellar function and respond to
228 | signaling pathways remains limited.

229 MCS at plasmodesmata, openings on a very confined space

230 Plasmodesmata are plant-specific channels crossing cell walls and enabling cell-to-cell
231 communication (Brunkard and Zambryski, 2017). They are unique as they allow continuity of PM,
232 ER and cytosol between cells (Figure 1. E.) and provide a direct cytosolic road for cell-to-cell
233 molecular trafficking of metabolites, transcription factors, RNAs and calcium, and their membranes
234 also host signaling pathways' machineries with receptor-like proteins (Brunkard et al., 2015;
235 Brunkard and Zambryski, 2017; Chen et al., 2016a; Furuta et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2005; Rutschow
236 et al., 2011; Tilsner et al., 2016). New insights into the plasmodesmata ultrastructure have revealed
237 extremely tight vicinity (down to 3nm) between the ER and the PM inside the pores, with spoke-
238 like tethering elements connecting the two (Figure 1. E.), and highlighted the plasticity of these
239 membrane junctions during cell growth and development (Nicolas et al., 2017). To some extent, this
240 observation leads to the re-consideration of plasmodesmata as specialized EPCS and questions the
241 function of ER-PM contacts at plasmodesmata (Nicolas et al., 2017; Tilsner et al., 2016). While
242 plasmodesmata are structurally related to MCSs, being sites of ER-PM contacts, we do not know if
243 they are involved in inter-organellar communication yet. Plasmodesmata are however well-
244 established sites of intercellular communication and, over the last decade, they have emerged as
245 important signaling hubs playing a role in ever growing aspects of plant physiology. Merging these
246 two elements results in the possibility of plasmodesmata to be a unique kind of MCS, acting as a
247 node for both inter-organellar and cell-to-cell communication. Indeed, organelle crosstalk would
248 clearly play a role in plasmodesmata function and local lipid transfer activity between the
249 membranes would be conceivable since plasmodesmata are usually 500nm long channels and
250 reaching inside the pore for vesicles is challenging, especially in mature tissues where the cell wall
251 will be thicker.

252 Plasmodesmata are also singular amongst MCSs as they present a unique structural organization
253 and membrane biophysical properties. Inside the pore, both the ER and the PM present extreme
254 curvature, both positive and negative. So instead of two "flat" membrane segments tethered
255 together, plasmodesmata MCS features two membrane tubes nested into each other and sitting at
256 cell interfaces (which is neither inside the cell, neither part of the extracellular matrix). The
257 extremely confined space between the ER and the PM (2-3nm) is also not usual for MCSs and tight
258 connection between the PM and cell wall components might lead us to someday talk about WALL-
259 PM-ER MCSs.

260 A global view of protein population at plasmodesmata is starting to emerge (Brault et al., 2018;
261 Fernandez-calvino et al., 2011; Kraner et al., 2017; Salmon and Bayer, 2013) and few lipidomics,
262 showing specific lipid composition of plasmodesmata-enriched biochemical fraction, have been

263 performed (Grison et al., 2015). However, we currently have little understanding on how the lipid
264 and protein populations are regulating each other and how they play a role in plasmodesmata
265 dynamics. A glimpse on the identity, structure and mode of action of plasmodesmata-associated
266 tethering elements could open the door on understanding the molecular mechanisms taking place at
267 plasmodesmata and potentially bridge extracellular, PM and endomembrane signaling.

268

269 **Understanding the MCS and its dynamics require interdisciplinary approaches**

270 Understanding the dynamics of MCSs and its actors (lipid-protein, lipid-lipid and protein-protein
271 interactions) requires bridging across scales from atomic (or near-atomic) to cellular and tissue
272 levels, to get a comprehensive picture of MCSs. While cellular and tissue-level events can be
273 tackled by classical cell biology (such as confocal microscopy) -and genetic tools, their limits in
274 terms of resolution encourage the use of -in silico, biophysical-based tools and electron microscopy
275 for understanding MCSs at atomic/macromolecular-levels ~~understanding of MCSs, relies on in~~
276 ~~silico and biophysical-based tools~~. Many options are possible but a number of approaches are
277 especially interesting in the context of protein/lipid interaction, hence MCSs (see **Table 1**). For
278 example, molecular modeling and dynamic simulations are relatively easy-accessible ways to study,
279 simultaneously or not, the structure and function of proteins and lipid bilayers at a molecular/atomic
280 level and often bring evidences on questions that could not be answered by other means (Javanainen
281 et al., 2017). Currently, the increasing computational power and the development of efficient coarse
282 grained force fields for an increasing number of molecules (<http://cgmartini.nl/>) (Marrink et al.,
283 2007) allow the simulation of bigger and more complex systems during longer time scales (up to the
284 micro-scale) (Duncan et al., 2017; Hsu et al., 2017), which fit MCS scales.

285 The study of a system closely related to MCSs, the SNARE (Soluble NFS attachment protein
286 receptor)-mediated membrane fusion, involved for example in the highly regulated release of
287 neurotransmitters at the synapse in animals ((Chen and Scheller, 2001)), proves the need for
288 multidisciplinary tools to understand the molecular operations and underlying subtleties. Animal
289 synaptotagmin 1 (Syt1), a tether protein that possesses a transmembrane domain and two C2
290 domains, is a major actor of SNARE as it is implicated in each step of the neurotransmitter release
291 process. For example, the role of PIP, PS and calcium in PM docking of Syt1 C2 domains and
292 bridging of the membranes was revealed by using isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC),
293 fluorescence energy transfer (FRET) and vesicle sedimentation assays, NMR and computational
294 modeling (Lin et al., 2014; Pérez-Lara et al., 2016). Understanding the causes and function of the
295 ring-like oligomerization of Syt1 and the role of tandem C2 domain interaction was performed using
296 electron microscopy, circular dichroism, ITC, atomic force microscopy, flotation and

297 sedimentation assays (Evans et al., 2016; Zanetti et al., 2016). Comprehending the nature of the
298 Syt1-SNARE complex interaction was possible mainly through NMR and molecular modeling and
299 dynamics (Brewer et al., 2015). All these techniques brought an integrated vision of the dynamic
300 molecular mechanisms occurring at this crucial interface. We believe that employing similar
301 resources for MCS-associated processes would undoubtedly bring us new and original insights in
302 these peculiar systems of cell biology.

303 **Conclusion**

304 There is still a lot to be done in the understanding of plant EPCS function and the molecular
305 mechanisms involved in their dynamics and regulation. Important questions concern the function
306 and role of membrane compartmentalization (lipid nanodomains, inner/outer leaflet composition,
307 interdigitation), the molecular mechanisms associated with the tethering machinery at MCSs
308 (tethers' identity, effect of tethering in lipid transfer and signaling pathways) and the roles of the
309 lipid environment in the definition of MCSs (regulation, dynamics). However, increasing technical
310 resources have helped to grasp pieces of the puzzle that we are only now starting to assemble. The
311 complexity arising from the incredible diversity in lipids and proteins and, over all, the complex
312 relationships that interconnect them are not making the task easy to accomplish. The biophysical
313 properties of the membrane derived from the intrinsic nature of a plethora of lipids species and their
314 mutual interactions, is impacting on the recruitment and function of proteins, which in turn are fine
315 tuning their lipid environment. The effects of this cycle are expected to get even more intertwined
316 inside very confined environments, such as MCSs, and the entanglement is such that every
317 molecule and every interaction is part of the dance, driving short or long-term consequences on
318 MCS function.

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330

331 | **Figure 1**

332 | **Hypothetical model of calcium-dependent regulation of protein-plasma membrane**
333 | **interactions at endoplasmic reticulum-plasma membrane membrane contact site (EPCS).** This
334 | hypothetical model gathers the possible interactions involving proteins, lipids and ions that could
335 | occur at membrane contact sites during signaling events. Its goal is to illustrate the complexity of
336 | lipid/protein interactions that can occur at MCS. **A.** In presence of calcium, tether domain A is able
337 | to interact with phosphatidylserine, the inter-membrane gap is small. This allow the exchange of
338 | lipids by the Lipid Transfer Domain (LTD). Tether domain B is not interacting with the
339 | phosphatidylinositol phosphates (PIPs) of the lipid nanodomain as they are shielded by calcium ions
340 | and thus cannot form a complex with the plasma membrane-associated protein C. **B.** In the absence
341 | of calcium, tether domain A is released from the membrane, increasing the inter-membrane gap. The
342 | LTD is not able to exchange lipids anymore. Tether domain B docks onto the lipid nanodomain via
343 | interactions with anionic PIPs and thus is able to form a complex with the plasma membrane-
344 | associated protein C to initiate/relay a signal.

345 | **Figure 1. Membrane biophysical properties and lipid-protein interplay at membrane contact**
346 | **sites (MCSs).**

347 | **A.** Poly-glycosylated GIPCs tend to increase the size and rigidity of phytosterol-dependent ordered
348 | membrane domains (Lo) through hydrogen bonding between the hydroxyl group of the sterols and
349 | the polarized groups of the GIPCs located at the polar/hydrophobic interface. This interaction is
350 | also favored by the umbrella effect of the big GIPCs' polar moiety, which prevent water molecules
351 | to interact deeper into the bilayer ((Grosjean et al., 2015)). **B.** Transmembrane protein distribution
352 | between different lipid domains relies on transmembrane length, surface area and palmitoylation
353 | (adapted from (Lorent et al., 2017)). **C.** Representation of the lipid packing of membrane domains.
354 | Liquid ordered domain are more tightly packed then liquid disordered domains (Ld) because of the
355 | nature of the lipids and degree of their acyl chain saturation. Lipid packing defects arise in liquid
356 | disordered domains. **D.** Hypothetical model of calcium-dependent regulation of protein-plasma
357 | membrane interaction at endoplasmic reticulum-plasma membrane MCS (EPCS). This hypothetical
358 | model gather the possible interactions involving proteins, lipids and ions that could occur at MCS
359 | during signaling events. Its goal is to illustrate the complexity of lipid/protein/ion interactions. The
360 | protein illustrated here represents a lipid transfer protein/tether element that specifically locates to
361 | EPCS upon homodimerisation. **Left.** In presence of calcium, domain A is able to interact with
362 | phosphatidylserine, the inter-membrane gap is reduced, allowing the exchange of lipids by the lipid
363 | transfer domains (LTDs). Domain B cannot interact with the phosphatidylinositol phosphates of the
364 | lipid nanodomains as they are shielded by the calcium ions (**Middle**). **Right.** In the absence of

365 calcium, domain A is released from the membrane, increasing the inter-membrane gap, and binds to
366 the LTD, inhibiting lipid exchange between organelles. Domain B docks onto the lipid
367 nanodomains via electrostatic interactions with anionic PIPs and leads to the formation of bigger
368 lipid domains where protein C can interact with one another and initiate/relay a signal. Note: There
369 are two main domain types allowing peripheral binding of proteins, the anionic lipid and/or
370 calcium-dependent C2 domains (such as domain A in this figure) and the anionic lipid dependent
371 PH domains (such as domain B in this figure). E. Schematic view of plant cell-to-cell junction
372 showing the cell wall (CW), the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) network, plasma membrane (PM) and
373 several plasmodesmata (PD). The *right* insert shows the PD ultrastructure. The close vicinity
374 between the PM and the desmotubule (Dt ;a lumen-free tubule of ER), connected by spoke-like
375 tethering elements, leaves a small inter-membrane gap between the two membranes, called the
376 cytoplasmic sleeve (CS).

377 **Table 1. Non-extensive list of tools usable for atomic/macromolecular-levelintegrated study of**
378 **MCSs.**

Technique	Usage	Reference
<i>In silico</i>		
Hypermatrix	Energy-based calculation of lipid-ligand interactions and 3D arrangements	(Cacas et al., 2016; Deleu et al., 2014)
IMPALA	Energy-based prediction of the insertion of molecules in lipid bilayers	(Basyn et al., 2001; Cacas et al., 2016; Lins et al., 2001)
Molecular dynamics	Atomic & coarse grained simulations to study the behavior over time of lipids bilayers and proteins	(Deleu et al., 2014; Duncan et al., 2017; Gronnier et al., 2017; Yamamoto et al., 2016)
<i>In vitro</i>		
PIP Strips	Determination of protein ability to interact with specific anionic lipids	(Pérez-Sancho et al., 2016)
Liposome flottation/sedimentation assays	Determination of protein ability to interact with a lipid bilayer	(Meca et al., 2018; Pérez-Sancho et al., 2016; Schapire et al., 2008)
Tubule formation by optical tweezers on liposome	Study of membrane curvature-induced sorting of proteins	(Aimon et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2016b; Prévost et al., 2015)
<i>In vitro</i> tethering to reconstitute simplified MCS with isolated protein and controlled lipid and ion environment.	Characterization of the ability of a protein to tether two liposomes using dynamic light scattering and the inter-liposome distance by FRET. Visualize the tethering	(Diao et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2014; Mesmin et al., 2013)

		ultrastructure using cryo-electron microscopy	
Isothermal Calorimetry (ITC)	Titration	Determination of the affinity constant and thermodynamics parameters for the interaction between proteins and liposomes.	(Ghai et al., 2012)
Langmuir Trough		Determination of the kinetics of adsorption and affinity parameters of proteins for lipid monolayers	(Calvez et al., 2011; Eeman et al., 2006; Gronnier et al., 2017)
Solid state NMR		Study lipid-protein interactions and the deformation of the lipid membrane caused by the interaction at atomic level	(Gronnier et al., 2017; Huster, 2014)
<i>In situ</i>			
(Cryo) Electron Tomography		Visualize MCS architecture at macromolecular scale	(Collado and Fernández-Busnadiego, 2017; Nicolas et al., 2017)

In review

380 **Bibliographie**

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In review

