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3

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51 **Stress, Biotic Stress, Model Systems, Plant Cell Death**

52

53 **Abstract/Summary**

54 Programmed cell death (PCD) is fundamentally important for plant development, abiotic stress responses and
55 immunity, but our understanding of its regulation remains fragmented. Building a stronger research community
56 is required to accelerate progress in this area through knowledge exchange and constructive debate. In this
57 Viewpoint, we aim to initiate a collective effort to integrate data across a diverse set of experimental models to
58 facilitate characterization of the fundamental mechanisms underlying plant PCD and ultimately aid the
59 development of a new plant cell death classification system in the future. We also put forward our vision for the
60 next decade of plant PCD research stemming from discussions held during the 31st New Phytologist workshop,
61 “The Life and Death Decisions of Plant Cells” that took place at University College Dublin in Ireland (14-15th June
62 2023). We convey the key areas of significant progress and possible future research directions identified,
63 including resolving the spatiotemporal control of cell death, isolation of its molecular and genetic regulators,
64 and harnessing technical advances for studying PCD events in plants. Further, we review the breadth of

65 potential impacts of plant PCD research and highlight the promising new applications of findings from this
66 dynamically evolving field.

67

68 **Main body**

69 **How to describe an elephant?**

70 Programmed cell death (PCD) research has gained considerable momentum in recent years, with a plethora of
71 new datasets and experimental systems providing key insights into our understanding of molecular regulation of
72 different PCD events in plants. Nevertheless, the existence of a core PCD machinery in plants is under debate
73 and the sequence of events leading to controlled self-destruction of plant cells remains poorly characterised.
74 These open questions, and ways to address them in the future, were the focus of the 31st New Phytologist
75 workshop 'The Life and Death Decisions of Plant Cells' held in Dublin, June 14th and 15th, 2023. The workshop
76 allowed participants, using a diverse set of model systems and approaches, and studying a range of different
77 PCD contexts, to exchange ideas and compare their findings with colleagues. The issue of recommended plant
78 cell death nomenclature and classification systems was also considered; however no unequivocal conclusion has
79 been reached on the matter. This led to a stimulating discussion, evocative of the parable about the blind men
80 and the elephant. In this ancient tale, a group of blind men investigate an elephant by touching a different part
81 of its body, and consequently, each describes a different impression of the animal, comparing it to a snake, a
82 rope, or a tree, depending on whether they touched the trunk, tail, or a leg, respectively. While each blind man
83 is partly right, they will not be able to describe the elephant without finding a way of reconciling their individual
84 observations. This is an excellent analogy to the critical need for knowledge and data integration across systems,
85 experimental models, and investigated cell death scenarios in PCD research, as well as the importance of
86 communication, but also debate, between researchers working in the field (Figure 1). The meeting "The Life and
87 Death Decisions of Plant Cells" provided a small but important forum for such interactions, enabling discussion
88 on triggers, biomolecular markers, subcellular and organellar control, signalling pathways and genes involved in
89 the modulation of the PCD process. In this Viewpoint, we aim to maintain this momentum and include the
90 broader community in the collective effort of integrating data on features of PCD in plants. To achieve this we
91 provide a living document comparing observations across species and experimental models ([Table 1](#)). New
92 entries can be continually submitted, and we invite all colleagues to join this attempt to "describe the (plant
93 PCD) elephant" in more detail and from more perspectives. We are hoping that this initiative will inform the
94 ongoing debate on how cell death programmes in plants should be classified and facilitate development of an
95 updated nomenclature system akin to guidelines suggested for metazoan cell death pathways (Galluzzi et al.,
96 2018). At the moment, some researchers favour PCD as a blanket term, that has been used historically to

97 describe any active, genetically controlled cell death occurring in response to developmental, abiotic and biotic
98 stimuli, as demonstrated by the early publications in the field (Lam et al., 2001, Lam, 2004, Beers, 1997,
99 Greenberg et al., 1994). Other research groups follow classification of plant cell death based on the context in
100 which PCD is occurring (environmental – ePCD and developmental – dPCD) (Olvera-Carrillo et al., 2015) or adopt
101 the recommendations of the Nomenclature Committee on Cell Death 2018 that distinguish PCD as a specific
102 development-related subtype of genetically regulated cell death (RCD) (Galluzzi et al., 2018). Our discussions
103 highlighted that the new nomenclature system for plant cell death pathways should consider issues such as the
104 considerable environmental influences that often shape plant development and associated cell death events, as
105 well as any effect of the proposed new nomenclature system on the communication and collaborative efforts
106 between the plant and animal cell death communities. Furthermore, as our understanding of the mechanisms
107 that orchestrate plant cell death expands, efforts defining subroutines of active cell death programmes in
108 plants, similar to previously proposed classifications based on morphology (Mur et al., 2007, Reape et al., 2008,
109 van Doorn et al., 2011) or key biochemical pathways, such as ferroptosis (Distéfano et al., 2017), will require
110 integration of the large volume of new data and findings that have emerged over the last decade across the
111 diversity of experimental systems. We believe that development of a nomenclature system capturing the plant
112 cell death modalities should, as widely as possible, consult the broad community of scientists who are driving
113 progress in this research area, and we hope that this Viewpoint article will lay the initial foundations of this
114 process.

115

116 **A vision for the next decade of plant PCD research.**

117 **Spatiotemporal, high precision study of PCD in plants**

118 Recent findings and ongoing studies of plant PCD clearly highlight that plant cell death research has entered a
119 new era, where we are gaining more high-level spatiotemporal insights into plant PCD processes and their
120 regulation.

121 *Environmentally-induced PCD:* One of the model systems that has recently provided advances in our
122 understanding of finely-tuned PCD regulation is the hypersensitive response (HR). HR occurs when recognition
123 of pathogen attack leads to a rapid cell death in the cells surrounding the zone of pathogen invasion, preventing
124 the spread of (hemi-)biotrophic pathogens, and contributes to local and systemic defence signalling (Heath,
125 2000, Mur et al., 2007). The identification of resistosomes – immune receptor oligomers, some of which have
126 the capacity to form pores at membranes and act as calcium channels- constitutes a major step in linking
127 immune activation to HR (Wang et al., 2019). In addition, time- and zone- dependent multi-omic approaches
128 have proven a powerful tool for dissecting the molecular networks controlling HR and the formation of

129 boundaries between cells that stay alive and their dying neighbours. In *Arabidopsis thaliana* (hereafter referred
130 to as Arabidopsis), transcriptomic assays have revealed spatio-temporal differences in genes and biological
131 processes regulated in the cells undergoing HR and in the surrounding living tissue, and have consequently
132 defined robust transcriptional *in vivo* cell death markers (Salguero-Linares et al., 2022). Similarly in maize, a
133 combination of transcriptomic, proteomic, and degradomic analyses of dying cells identified time-dependent
134 gene reprogramming and has defined general- and trigger specific- cell death markers (Barghahn et al., 2023).
135 These data underpinned the basis for the mechanistic exploration of new molecular functions involved in life
136 and death decisions, as well as the initiation and execution of cell death. Moreover, *in vivo* imaging techniques
137 are currently being explored as tools to study the dynamics and zonation of HR (Betsuyaku et al., 2017) and the
138 use of genetically encoded biosensors will allow researchers to closely monitor particular processes such as
139 proteolysis or follow changes in redox homeostasis and small molecule fluxes [e.g. Ca^{2+} ; (Fernández-Fernández
140 et al., 2019)]. Cell suspension cultures are another well-established model for studying PCD in plants, which
141 have been recently used in combination with multi-omic approaches to generate new insights into the
142 regulation of cell death and survival decisions in plant cells. The homogenous cell suspension facilitates precise
143 monitoring of PCD rates induced by a broad range of stimuli, thus offering an opportunity to specifically sample
144 cells undergoing PCD. Burke et al. (Burke et al., 2023) compared the transcriptional response to three different
145 PCD-inducing treatments used in combination with three cell death inhibitors; this enabled inference of core-
146 and stimuli- specific gene regulatory networks and isolation of putative transcriptional regulators of PCD that
147 were not previously explored in the context of cell death. Importantly, this study highlighted that, depending on
148 the treatment used to induce cell death, cell cultures can mimic PCD induced by biotic interactions, abiotic
149 stress, and even developmental programmes, and in this way facilitate comparisons between cell death
150 occurring in different contexts. Furthermore, Schwarze et al. (Schwarze et al., 2023) combined the use of
151 Arabidopsis cell suspension culture with cellular fractionation and proteomic profiling to identify proteins
152 released from plant mitochondria upon PCD induction, and to characterise changes in cytosolic protein
153 abundance associated with early stages of PCD. Ease of repeated sampling of cell suspension cultures, and the
154 homogeneity of the observed response, can powerfully support studies aiming to achieve fine resolution of
155 transcriptional and proteomic patterns associated with different stages of PCD. In the near future, single cell
156 approaches will almost certainly provide us with even higher resolution of dynamic spatio-temporal
157 transcriptome maps during ePCD events.

158 *Developmental PCD:* Significant spatiotemporal insights into molecular and cellular processes associated
159 with developmental PCD were provided by studies using the Arabidopsis root cap model (Kumpf and Nowack,
160 2015). Root cap cells undergo highly organised and temporally coordinated PCD to regulate root cap organ size

161 in balance with cell division (Fendrych et al., 2014). As this PCD occurs at the periphery of the growing root tip, it
162 is amenable to a number of analytical approaches, including live-cell imaging (Fendrych et al., 2014), single-cell
163 transcriptomics (Minne et al., 2022), and pharmacology (Dubreuil et al., 2018), as well as cell-type specific gene
164 editing by CRISPR (Decaestecker et al., 2019, Bollier et al., 2021). This model system has facilitated resolving
165 gene regulatory networks (Fendrych et al., 2014, Huysmans et al., 2018, Feng et al., 2023), hormone signalling
166 (Xuan et al., 2016), and autophagy (Feng et al., 2023) involved in developmentally controlled PCD. More
167 recently, the root cap system has been used to analyse the sequence of cellular processes during PCD execution
168 (Wang et al., 2023). Established core events like vacuolar breakdown and plasma membrane permeabilization
169 for non-membrane permeable dyes such as propidium iodide (PI) occurred late in the execution process and
170 were preceded by cellular calcium influx, cytosolic acidification, mitochondrial disintegration, and the
171 breakdown of the nuclear envelope and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (Wang et al., 2023). Interestingly, despite
172 plasma membrane permeability to PI, the leakage of used reporter proteins to the apoplast was not observed,
173 reminiscent of the situation in animal apoptosis (Zhang et al., 2018b). Though it cannot be excluded that the
174 sequence and type of subcellular processes are specific to root cap cell death, the system provides an excellent
175 framework to formulate and test hypotheses to understand the molecular processes of PCD execution *in planta*.
176 Another model system facilitating high precision studies of developmental PCD is provided by leaf perforation
177 formation of lace plant (Gunawardena et al., 2004). Here, the cell death begins in the centre of areas known as
178 areoles, between transverse and longitudinal veins, and continues outwards, stopping four to five cells from the
179 vascular tissue, creating a gradient of living cells surrounding an area of dying cells. The order of cellular events
180 that occur during lace plant PCD was established using a long-term live cell imaging technique (Wertman et al.,
181 2012). Indeed, the accessibility and predictability of PCD during lace plant leaf development, combined with
182 laser capture microdissection-based sampling, recently facilitated comparisons of transcriptional profiles of cells
183 at different stages of PCD and living cells from the non-PCD zone (Rowarth et al., 2021). The spatiotemporal
184 predictability of lace plant PCD also makes it a good subject for computational modelling approaches, used
185 extensively in developmental biology from the molecular to tissue level (Sharpe, 2017). While anthocyanins,
186 reactive oxygen species (ROS), and auxin were all implicated in the control of lace plant leaf PCD (Denbigh et al.,
187 2020, Dauphinee et al., 2017), their exact roles and interactions remain elusive, and are currently subject to
188 computational modelling with the aim of providing a plausible explanation for the underlying mechanisms
189 involved (unpublished data – Sophie Tattrie, Gunawardena’s lab). Finally, the Papaver self-incompatibility-
190 induced PCD (SI-PCD) system provides another excellent model to study PCD and provide spatio-temporal
191 insights in the signalling network involved. SI triggers a Ca^{2+} -dependent signalling network that rapidly inhibits
192 pollen tube growth and later culminates in PCD in incompatible pollen, thus preventing self-fertilisation (Wang

193 et al., 2018). The Papaver SI-PCD system has been transferred to Arabidopsis and is fully functional in both
194 reproductive and vegetative cells (Lin et al., 2015, Lin et al., 2020). This engineered ‘poppydopsis’ system
195 facilitates a broad diversity of genetic approaches (Wang et al., 2020b) and thus represents a powerful resource
196 to test new hypotheses and elucidate genetic components and cellular events involved in and leading to PCD in
197 plants. For example, use of genetically encoded fluorescent probes identified a link between SI-induced ATP
198 depletion and cytosolic acidification (Wang et al., 2022), the latter being required for execution of PCD (Bosch
199 and Franklin-Tong, 2007). The highly complex, hierarchical signalling events involved in SI-PCD are well suited
200 for a systems biology approach: modelling the interactions of various components of SI-PCD may facilitate
201 subsequent examination of these complex and important biological responses in qualitative and quantitative
202 terms.

203 The studies listed above represent only a handful of examples showing that both established and new
204 models for studying PCD, when combined with multi-omics technologies, a diversity of genetic tools, and
205 computational modelling approaches, can collectively inform our understanding of plant cell death as a highly
206 dynamic process involving complex signalling networks. Many of these models are particularly suitable for
207 investigating the role of cell-to-cell communication in life and death decisions in plants. As previously
208 highlighted, integration of a large volume of recent data across these models is one of the challenges ahead, but
209 also an exciting opportunity to understand the details of regulation of cell death processes operating in plants
210 with unprecedented accuracy.

211

212 **Friend, foe or both? - Fine-tuning the regulators that balance cell death or survival outcomes.**

213 Much progress has also been made in terms of exploring the often complex relationships between plant PCD
214 and other pathways. For example, autophagy is emerging as a critical mediator of the balance between cell
215 survival and cell death, rather than simply operating as a pro-survival or pro-death response. In plants and other
216 organisms, autophagy can contribute to cell survival during stress, attenuating cell death by clearing
217 intracellular damage and preventing toxicity (Nelson and Baehrecke, 2014, Guan et al., 2019, Zhu et al., 2019).
218 However, a role for autophagy in the execution of cell death pathways has also been established, depending on
219 the conditions and cell type. For example, during perforation formation in the lace plant leaves, autophagy plays
220 a dual role in promoting cell survival in non-PCD cells and mediating timely cell death in PCD cells (Rowarth et
221 al., 2023). In Arabidopsis root cap, autophagy is involved in the timely cell death of columella cells, but not of
222 the distal root cap cells (Feng et al., 2022). Autophagy can play a positive or negative role in PCD regulation in
223 Arabidopsis (Xu et al., 2017, Kacprzyk et al., 2014, Coll et al., 2014), and in maize it is activated at both cell
224 survival and cell death stages of a prolonged ER stress response (Srivastava et al., 2018). Further, the autophagy

225 is interconnected to ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) protein degradation pathway, with the ER homeostasis
226 modulated by unfolded protein response (UPR), UPS-dependent ER-associated degradation (ERAD) and selective
227 autophagy (reviewed by Chen et al. (2020) and Raffeiner et al. (2023)), putting these pathways at the crossroads
228 between plant cell survival and death occurring in response to ER stress. Future high-resolution studies and
229 modelling approaches will continue to elucidate the link between plant PCD and other pathways that, as
230 demonstrated by the example of autophagy, may be dependent on the PCD context, stage of PCD, timing or
231 intensity of cell death-inducing stimuli. Similarly, studies deciphering the roles of proteases previously linked to
232 plant PCD (Salguero-Linares and Coll, 2019, Stael et al., 2023, Chichkova et al., 2010, Ge et al., 2016, Hatsugai et
233 al., 2015, Lampl et al., 2013) are required, as in many cases it remains unclear whether they act as executioners
234 or alternatively function as signalling molecules that carefully control the cell death initiation. To date,
235 understanding the function of individual proteases in plant PCD has been hampered by the fact that knocking
236 out individual proteases often results in modest, if any, phenotypes, indicating a high degree of genetic
237 redundancy. However, with the advent of CRISPR (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats)
238 technology the community has started addressing this problem by creating higher-order protease mutants
239 (Shen et al., 2019). An example that was thoroughly discussed during the Workshop in Dublin was that of
240 metacaspases, proteases that have been extensively studied as plant PCD regulators since their discovery more
241 than two decades ago (Uren et al., 2000). Pro-PCD role of individual metacaspases was reported in many
242 experimental systems; for example, metacaspase mcll-Pa-dependent autophagy is required for death of embryo
243 suspensor in Norway spruce (Minina et al., 2013) and metacaspase-8 promotes PCD induced by UV and
244 hydrogen peroxide in Arabidopsis (He et al., 2008). Based on their structural resemblance to animal caspases,
245 metacaspases have been often postulated as "caspase-like" or "apoptotic-like" proteins. However, their
246 substrate specificity is certainly not caspase-like (Vercammen et al., 2004, Minina et al., 2020) and a growing
247 body of evidence suggests that at least some of the metacaspases that have been characterised to date
248 participate in stress responses and may be mainly stress sensors rather than cell death executioners. For
249 example, the type II metacaspase AtMC4 is activated upon wounding, generating a signalling peptide essential
250 for the response to this type of stress (Hander et al., 2019). In turn, the type I metacaspase MC1 participates in
251 clearance of harmful protein aggregates formed as a result of proteotoxic stress, a function conserved from
252 fungi to plants (Lee et al., 2010, Hill et al., 2014, Ruiz-Solaní et al., 2023, Coll et al., 2014). On the other hand,
253 both Arabidopsis MC3 and Chlamydomonas CrMCA-II have been shown to be involved in drought and heat
254 stress tolerance, respectively, independently of their catalytic activity (Pitsili et al., 2023, Zou et al., 2023).
255 Collectively, despite the fact that metacaspases may have evolved from the same ancestor as caspases, current
256 evidence indicates that they are not simply executioner caspases in the context of PCD and that they could

257 instead function, or have additional, context-dependent roles, as pro-survival proteins. Accumulating evidence
258 in non-plant fields also supports the idea that other cell death proteins may also have non-lethal roles (Arama et
259 al., 2021). These examples highlighted that nuanced aspects of cell death regulation in plants require further
260 exploration across experimental systems, cell death modalities and stages.

261

262 **Harnessing new technologies and tools to advance our understanding of plant cell death.**

263 Studying plant PCD with high spatiotemporal resolution and dissecting the details of finely tuned regulation of
264 cell death processes will be supported by the increasing accessibility of new technologies, especially if they are
265 applied to the range of model systems available for studying PCD in different contexts.

266 For example, single-cell transcriptomics approaches have started to open up new possibilities in
267 biological research in recent years. Single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) holds great potential to detect the
268 rapid gene expression changes during cell death induction and the early stages of plant PCD. While
269 transcriptional regulation is only one element of PCD control, it has been shown to play decisive roles in both
270 developmental and stress-induced PCD processes (Cubría-Radío and Nowack, 2019, Burke et al., 2020).
271 Interestingly, in the context of developmental PCD in Arabidopsis, scRNA-seq has revealed that only a handful of
272 cells express late PCD-associated genes (Olvera-Carrillo et al., 2015, Wendrich et al., 2020). As such, scRNA-seq
273 approaches can become invaluable in identifying the gene regulatory networks that orchestrate the preparation
274 for PCD *in planta*.

275 Beyond the transcriptional level, more advanced and dedicated proteomics approaches (e.g. redox
276 proteomic, N-terminomics and degradomics) will provide more insights on the intricate networks involved in
277 plant cell death (Huang et al., 2023, Demir et al., 2022, Rowland et al., 2022). Post-translational oxidative
278 modifications, phosphorylation, and certainly protein cleavages and degradation, can provoke rapid alterations
279 or termination to the functionality of either signaling or structural proteins. Therefore, the implementation of
280 innovative proteomics workflows and the use of more advanced mass spectrometry technologies will certainly
281 further advance our knowledge in this area. For example, very little is known regarding possible proteolytic
282 cascades activated during plant PCD, and it would be highly beneficial to systematically identify the substrates
283 of the cell death proteases that actively take part in the process. For this identification, an N-terminal-based
284 degradomics approach could be employed, comparing the *in vivo* population of non-canonical N-termini
285 between two experimental setups, with one set-up missing the protease activity of interest, either by inhibition
286 or mutation. In the absence of the protease, the N-termini missing or with a significantly reduced abundance,
287 will point to candidate substrates that can be subjected to further validation. Techniques based on positive
288 enrichment or negative enrichment of N termini that have been used to study plant proteases include

289 Combined Fractional Diagonal Chromatography (COFRADIC) (Gevaert et al., 2003), Terminal Amine Isotopic
290 Labeling of Substrates (TAILS) (Huesgen and Overall, 2012), and High-efficiency undecanal-based N termini
291 enrichment (HUNTER) (Weng et al., 2019). COFRADIC (Tsiatsiani et al., 2013, Willems et al., 2017), TAILS (Zhang
292 et al., 2018a) and HUNTER (Pitsili et al., 2023), but more research is needed specifically in the context of PCD.
293 Such degradomics techniques have limitations linked to detection threshold and protein cleavage redundancy.
294 Therefore, it might be advantageous to additionally use Proximity-dependent biotinylation labelling techniques
295 such as Turbo ID (Mair et al., 2019) or pupylation-based interaction tagging (PUP-IT) (Ye et al., 2023). Proximity
296 labelling can identify protease partner proteins, as shown for phytaspase (Teplova et al., 2021) and in principle,
297 some protease partners could be substrates, depending on how protease-substrates interact. Further, if it can
298 be demonstrated that a mutated, inactive form of a protease can bind, but not cleave, at least one known
299 substrate then such “dead” protease can be used as substrate trap. For example, a dead-protease-GFP fusion
300 and its interactors could be purified using GFP trap and candidate substrates identified by mass-spectrometry,
301 using an approach previously used for a human rhomboid serine protease (Knopf et al., 2020). Additionally,
302 covalent capture approaches could soon facilitate identification of protease substrates *in planta*. Replacing the
303 catalytic amino acid by a photocaged 2,3-diaminopropionic acid converts the protease cleavage activity into the
304 formation of a covalent bond between the protease and the N-terminal end of the substrate. Subsequently, the
305 trapped substrates can be purified and identified by mass spectrometry (Tang et al., 2022). Systematically
306 identifying protease substrates during plant PCD with support of the above-described approaches is a much-
307 needed step to fully understanding the function of the candidate cell death proteases.

308 Finally, genome editing using CRISPR technology has revolutionised life sciences in recent years, with
309 the field of plant PCD being no exception. Interestingly, CRISPR not only enables us to generate single or higher-
310 order mutants in an efficient and targeted fashion, but also can be used to generate knock-outs in a tissue-
311 specific or inducible manner (Decaestecker et al., 2019, Wang et al., 2020c, Bollier et al., 2021). Such conditional
312 approaches will be particularly suitable for investigating the function of key PCD genes that might lead to
313 pleiotropic phenotypes or even lethality when mutated.

314

315 **Plant PCD research: implications for the future**

316 The recent advances in our understanding of plant PCD necessitate highlighting the breadth of the
317 potential applied impact of studying plant PCD, as well as innovative ways to translate this knowledge
318 from the lab to the field and beyond. Knowledge generated on the molecular mechanisms and cellular
319 events that lead to PCD may be applicable to many agriculturally relevant developmental and defence
320 related cell death events in crops. In addition, in the future it could be used to selectively target and

321 activate PCD pathways in weeds without affecting crop plants, thereby decreasing further herbicide use
322 whilst maintaining yield. Another example of the applied potential of PCD research is deepening our
323 understanding of Papaver SI-PCD that, considering its proven transferability over a large phylogenetic
324 distance, will open opportunities for its exploitation in agricultural systems, for example in the
325 production of F1 hybrids. While discussing agriculturally relevant applications of plant PCD research, a
326 few key points were made regarding studying PCD in the context of a diversity of conditions faced by a
327 plant in its environment. Firstly, plants exhibit a spectrum of responses to environmental stresses,
328 ranging from acclimation to cell death, depending on the stress level. The climate change-associated
329 increasing frequency and intensity of extreme weather conditions leading to heatwaves, droughts and
330 soil waterlogging suggests that cell death inducing levels of abiotic stresses experienced by plants will be
331 reached more often, underscoring the need to strongly integrate PCD research into crop improvement
332 strategies. Secondly, the environmental factors faced in the field may have a considerable effect on
333 developmental cell death programmes. Finally, while lab-based experiments are generally performed
334 under controlled conditions with imposition of a single stress or PCD inducing stimuli, in the field plants
335 encounter multiple simultaneous stresses that can lead to distinct responses (Zandalinas and Mittler,
336 2022). As an example, mutants in autophagy-related genes are more sensitive to stress combinations
337 than to individual stresses (Balfagón et al., 2022). Likewise, research on metacaspases may lead to
338 increased potential to develop new plant varieties that are more resilient to the increasingly volatile
339 weather conditions linked to climate change. For example, the metacaspase AtMC3 is involved in
340 modulating vascular plasticity in response to drought (Pitsili et al., 2023) and overexpressing this
341 protease results in plants that are more tolerant to drought with no apparent negative effects on growth
342 or yield. As different stresses elicit both common and distinct pathways for regulation of programmed
343 cell death (Burke et al., 2023), the coordination of cell death pathways in response to combinations of
344 stresses, and to adverse conditions outside the laboratory, will be an exciting area for future studies and
345 an excellent way to validate the impact of findings on how plant PCD is controlled in real-world
346 scenarios.

347 An example that reinforces the necessity of studying developmental PCD processes in the context of
348 specific environmental conditions is senescence-associated cell death. Senescence is finalized by PCD of
349 all cells of the plant organ (Rogers, 2015). Plant senescence and associated remobilisation of nutrients is
350 critical to crop production especially in cereals (Havé et al., 2016). Critically, senescence requires live
351 cells for the remobilisation and hence there is a carefully orchestrated balance between senescence and

352 eventual cell death. Understanding the regulators of this balancing act has progressed through
353 developments in omics and use of model plants (Woo et al., 2018) with new layers of regulation
354 continuing to emerge including epigenetic reprogramming (Rogers, 2022). However, senescence is not
355 only a developmental programme but also a response to adverse environmental conditions and
356 therefore understanding the tipping point between life and death will be critical for sustained crop
357 production in the face of environmental uncertainty. Even beyond harvest, cell death continues to play a
358 part in food security. Shelf life of fresh produce and cut flowers is dependent on delaying cell death
359 through reduced temperatures of storage and modified atmospheres to slow down metabolism and
360 reduce the senescence and cell death promoting effects of ethylene (Rogers et al., 2023, Zhang et al.,
361 2022). Even in the cow rumen, plants respond to the adverse conditions by switching on stress
362 responses, a specific form of senescence (Hart et al., 2022), and altering the expression of cell-death
363 related genes, and this has important effects on the nutritional value of forage grass. Thus, how cell
364 death is regulated even after harvest has important implications for food security and needs to be
365 carefully considered. Another emerging future area for exploring PCD mechanisms extends not only
366 beyond the confines of the laboratory, but in fact also beyond plant growth on Earth. Spacecraft and
367 non-Earth planetary surface environments present a diverse array of relatively understudied stressors,
368 underlining the critical need to unravel plant developmental responses and stress resilience strategies.
369 This need is highlighted within the recent NASA decadal survey (National Academies of Sciences and
370 Medicine, 2023), which describes 'Plants in Space' as one of 11 key focus areas for the next decade of
371 space research. This will require testing how PCD signalling pathways operate in space habitat, that is
372 characterised by distinct stressors such as microgravity or galactic cosmic rays. The relevance of PCD
373 research to context of plant growth in space is underscored by reports of stem cell niche death induced
374 by ionizing radiation (Furukawa et al., 2010, Fulcher and Sablowski, 2009). In addition to future
375 experiments investigating modulation of PCD in space environments, this can be probed using the Open
376 Science resources, such as NASA's GeneLab (Berrios et al., 2020), providing comprehensive access to 64
377 multi-omic plant datasets from space experiments as well as user friendly analytical tools. The platform
378 has already been harnessed by (Choi et al., 2019) to identify spaceflight-associated induction of genes
379 associated with PCD modulation in *Arabidopsis*, such as *BAG6* (Wang et al., 2020a) and heat shock
380 proteins (Rowarth et al., 2019, Qi et al., 2011), and general repression of peroxidase transcripts that
381 indicate altered redox homeostasis (Kolupaev et al., 2019), suggesting that it is likely that space habitat
382 may have a significant effect on PCD-associated signalling.

383 It is also becoming increasingly clear that plant PCD research may lead to applications that extend
384 beyond plant growth and food production, such as in medicine and production of novel therapeutics.
385 For example, anthocyanins extracted from lace plant, previously shown to modulate the balance
386 between cell survival and cell death in this model species, were recently demonstrated to induce
387 apoptosis in breast cancer cells, but not in the normal mammary cell line (Gunawardena et al., 2021).
388 The underlying mechanism/s responsible for cell death induced by anthocyanins in cancer cells is
389 currently under investigation. Likewise, metacaspase AtMC1, initially studied mainly in the context of
390 plant PCD, has been shown to efficiently degrade aggregated cytotoxic proteoforms (Ruiz-Solaní et al.,
391 2023). Progressive protein aggregation is associated with major neurodegenerative pathologies, such as
392 Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and Huntington's disease, in addition to being a hallmark of
393 ageing. Therefore, AtMC1 based solutions may inform therapies targeting these harmful insoluble
394 aggregates, yet again underscoring the potential of cross-disciplinary knowledge exchange when the
395 field of PCD is considered. Stromal processing peptidase (SPP) is another example of plant protein that
396 may prevent disease-related protein aggregation and death (Llamas et al., 2023). Furthermore, both in
397 Plasmodium and Trypanosoma parasites, metacaspases -being absent in humans- were studied as
398 potential drug targets. Structural information of plant metacaspases and identification of small molecule
399 inhibitors might therefore be important to battle human pathogens, including those triggering neglected
400 diseases (Stael et al., 2023, Yadav et al., 2023). Finally, the ability to manipulate PCD levels in plant
401 suspension cultures using a diversity of approaches (as demonstrated by (McCabe and Leaver, 2000) or
402 (Burke et al., 2023)) may have implications for plant cell-culture based biotechnology and promote the
403 use of plant cell suspension cultures as attractive bioprocessing platforms for production of secondary
404 metabolites, natural plant products and recombinant proteins. The importance of translational biology
405 in PCD is also highlighted by findings from animal systems informing applications in plants. For example,
406 studying the ER stress and UPR in animal models has led to the identification of chemical chaperones
407 that prevent proteins from being misfolded and aggregating *in vitro*, and their subsequent use for
408 academic research and clinical trials (He and Moreau, 2019). Among those chemicals is 4-phenylbutyric
409 acid (4-PBA), which has been used for probing and alleviating ER stress in yeast and plants (Watanabe
410 and Lam, 2008, Yang et al., 2016, Mai et al., 2018). In agreement with its ER stress-resolving activity, 4-
411 PBA was found to abrogate Arabidopsis HR cell death with no apparent effect on avirulent bacteria
412 (Cacas and Champion, 2017). Further work unexpectedly revealed a potent fungicidal activity for this
413 molecule, associated with a broad range of cryptogamic diseases that could potentially be targeted
414 (Cacas et al., 2023).

415 **Conclusions:** Improving our knowledge of plant PCD will have a significant breadth of implications
416 ranging from better understanding of fundamental biological processes operating in plants, to
417 development of innovative solutions to grand challenges in plant science and beyond. Technical
418 advances and newly available resources and data are already contributing to progress in this area and
419 will be further enhanced by data integration and the growth of a stronger research community. Both
420 the early career scientists and principal investigators attending the 31st New Phytologist workshop in
421 Dublin agreed that it is an exciting time to be a plant PCD researcher, and the meeting created an
422 appetite for holding larger conferences open to all members of the plant PCD community. We are
423 looking forward to future opportunities for exchanging ideas and discussing different aspects of the life
424 and death decisions of plant cells.

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431

432 **Authors contributions**

433 All co-authors attended the 31st New Phytologist workshop in Dublin, and subsequently contributed to
434 development of concepts and ideas proposed in this Viewpoint article. JK, RB, AHLANG and PFMC came up with
435 the idea for the workshop and formed the meeting organising committee. JK drafted the first version of the
436 manuscript, that was further developed and approved by all authors. Other authors listed are early career
437 researchers in alphabetical order (LA, MC, SBT, HV), followed by principal investigators in alphabetical order
438 (DCB, MB, NB, JLC, NSC, PG, KK, MKN, HJR, FVB).

439

440 **Competing interests**

441 Nonce declared.

442

443 **References**

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826 **Figures**

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829 **Figure 1. How to describe the plant PCD elephant? Images of PCD research highlight the diversity of**
 830 **experimental systems used by participants of the meeting in Dublin. Integration of data across the systems,**
 831 **communication and debate will underpin the progress in the field, lead to better understanding of the cell**
 832 **death pathways operating in plants, and support the development of an agreed cell death nomenclature and**
 833 **classification systems.** Image credits: 1. *Arabidopsis thaliana* suspension cells that have undergone PCD induced by heat
 834 treatment (J. Kacprzyk), 2. Lace plant window stage leaf close up (A.H.L.A.N. Gunawardena). 3. Senescence in rocket leaves
 835 (H.J. Rogers). 4. Hypersensitive response cell death triggered by *Pseudomonas syringae* carrying the effector AvrRpm1 in
 836 *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Nerea Ruíz-Solaní from N.S. Coll's lab). 5. Chloroplasts forming a ring around the nucleus in the lace
 837 plant during the mid to late stages of PCD (S.B. Tattrie from A.H.L.A.N. Gunawardena's lab). 6. Lace plant fenestrate mature
 838 leaf with perforations formed via PCD (A.H.L.A.N. Gunawardena). 7. GFP-ATG8e labelled autophagosomes in an *Arabidopsis*
 839 *thaliana* root cell (D.C. Bassham). 8. Developmentally controlled programmed cell death at the edge of the root cap in
 840 *Arabidopsis thaliana* (M.K. Nowack). 9. Root hair that has undergone PCD in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Johanna Schwarze from
 841 J. Kacprzyk's lab). 10. Dahlia flowers as a model for studying petal senescence associated PCD (H. J. Rogers). 11. PCD
 842 phenotype of catalase deficient plant (F. Van Breusegem). 12. PCD mediated formation of aerenchyma in barley roots
 843 under waterlogging conditions (Orla Sherwood from J. Kacprzyk's lab).

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849 **Tables**

850 **Table 1. Features of Plant Cell Death.** By creating this live document, we want to facilitate comparing
 851 observations on cell death features across species and experimental models, and stimulate discussion among plant
 852 programmed cell death (PCD) research community. If you would like your own observations and experimental
 853 system for studying plant PCD to be included in this table, please use the submission form included. The table
 854 below will be updated by Dr Joanna Kacprzyk (joanna.kacprzyk@ucd.ie) based on the submitted information.

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856 Note: Below a screenshot of Table 1 is provided. Table 1 is a live online document that will remain open for
 857 submissions from the members of plant PCD research community, available at: <https://shorturl.at/dxHU8>

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Table 1. Features of Plant Cell Death

By creating this live document, we want to facilitate comparing observations on cell death features across species and experimental models, and stimulate discussion among plant programmed cell death (PCD) research community. If you would like your own observations and experimental system for studying plant PCD to be included in this table, please use the submission form below:

[SUBMISSION FORM](#)

The table below will be updated by Dr Joanna Kacprzyk (joanna.kacprzyk@uod.edu.pl) based on the submitted information.

Model and/or Species	REFERENCES	Cell death context studied			Organelle/subcellular compartment involved					Calcium	Reactive Oxygen Species	Signaling	Phytohormones	Other	Trans	
		Developmental	Abiotic	Biotic	Mitochondrion	Chloroplast	Vacuole	Endoplasmic Reticulum	Cell wall							relevant Observations
Arabidopsis cell suspension culture submitted by: Sunth, Kacprzyk, McCabe (contact: joanna.kacprzyk@uod.edu.pl)	Reape et al., 2008, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3113.2008.04607.x	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Potentially	Potentially	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes				Burke et al.
Root hair assay (Arabidopsis and other species) submitted by: Sunth, Kacprzyk, McCabe (contact: joanna.kacprzyk@uod.edu.pl)	Hogg et al., 2011, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3113.2011.04607.x	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Potentially	Potentially	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes				
Lace plant leaf development submitted by: Gunawardena, Nima (contact: nima.gunawardena@del.ac.lk)	Gunawardena et al., 2004	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	ring formation	Yes	Yes	Yes (Ethylene and Auxin)	It shock proteins, antioxidants		
Tunicamycin-induced cell death in Arabidopsis Submitted by: Casca (contact: jean-luc.casca@inra.fr)													Yes (Ca ²⁺)	Yes (Ethylene and Auxin)	It shock proteins, antioxidants	
Biotinylated cell death in Arabidopsis Submitted by: Casca (contact: jean-luc.casca@inra.fr)	Bianchini et al. https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.10.18.562849	No	No	Yes				Yes					Yes (Ca ²⁺)	Yes (Ethylene and Auxin)	It shock proteins, antioxidants	
Hypersensitive cell death induced by Xanthomonas citri in cotton plant Submitted by: Casca (contact: jean-luc.casca@inra.fr)	Casca et al., 2017, doi: 10.1111/mpp.12445 Casca et al., 2009, doi: 10.1007/s12042-009-9629-x	No	No	Yes	no evidence	Yes	no evidence	no evidence					Yes (jasmonates)			Yes (AP2)
Hypersensitive cell death induced by somatostatin effector (Ssp1) in tobacco Submitted by: Casca (contact: jean-luc.casca@inra.fr)	Casca et al., 2008, doi: 10.1111/j.1365-3113.2008.04607.x	No	No	Yes	no evidence	Yes	potentially	yes (conflict)					evidence in cell culture	evidence in cell culture	no evidence	Yes (DTG)
root cap cell death in Arabidopsis submitted by: Hovav (contact: hovav@rb.ac.il)		Yes	No	No	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	potentially			potentially	potentially	potentially			yes
unpollinated stigma senescence induced cell death maize and Arabidopsis submitted by: Hovav (contact: hovav@rb.ac.il)	doi: 10.1093/jxb/erh104 doi: 10.1093/jxb/erh104	Yes	No	No	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence					no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	yes
unfertilized ovule cell death in Arabidopsis submitted by: Hovav (contact: hovav@rb.ac.il)		Yes	No	No	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence					no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	yes
endosperm cell death in Arabidopsis submitted by: Hovav (contact: hovav@rb.ac.il)		Yes	No	No	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence					no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	yes
Cell death in male of maize seedlings submitted by: Basham (contact: basham@arsanet.edu)	DOI: 10.1105/tpc.18.001	No	Yes	No	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	Yes	Yes		unknown	unknown	unknown			Yes
Papaver self-incompatibility induced PCD (SI-PCD) submitted by: Bosch (contact: bosch@abarc.uv.es)	doi: 10.1093/mpp/2004.10.1111 doi: 10.1111/mpp.12445	Yes	No	No	Potentially	no evidence	Potentially	no evidence		Actin cytoskeleton	Yes	Yes	no evidence	Cytosolic acidification	unknown	yes
Hypersensitive cell death in Arabidopsis submitted by: Cell-Immortel (contact: nima.gunawardena@del.ac.lk)	doi: 10.1016/j.mpp.2022.10.001	No	No	Yes	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence	no evidence							yes

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