

# **Interaction of nitric oxide with auxin and ethylene signalling in Arabidopsis root gravitropism**

**Kannan Vembu**

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Faculty of Health and Applied Sciences, University of the West of England, Frenchay Campus, Coldharbour Lane, Frenchay, Bristol, BS16 1QY December 2016

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## **Abstract**

Gravitropism is required for the appropriate alignment of the plant root and shoot. According to the Cholodny-Went hypothesis, gravity induces asymmetric accumulation of auxin in the lower side of the root tissue. More recent studies on root gravitropism have also shown asymmetric accumulation of nitric oxide (NO) in response to gravity, and suggested the involvement of ethylene and NO signalling as well as auxin. Hence, this project aimed to investigate how NO, auxin and ethylene signalling interact in root growth, development and gravitropism. Arabidopsis mutants with defects in these hormonal signals were used in gravistimulation experiments. As expected, Col-0 (WT) plants displayed root bending 2 h after gravistimulation, but auxin mutants (*aux1*, *axr2* and *axr3*) did not exhibit any root bending in response to gravistimulation. Roots of ethylene mutants showed reduced root bending compared to WT. Nitrate reductase mutants *nia1* and *nia2* also revealed reduced root bending, and *nia1* showed slower bending than *nia2*. Exogenous application of the auxin NAA and the NO donor SNAP increased gravitropic bending. The application of the ethylene precursor ACC reduced root bending in the presence of NO, but increased bending in the absence of NO.

The localization of NO in response to gravitropism was investigated using confocal microscopy. Gravitropism induced asymmetric accumulation of NO in WT in the lower side of the bending zone of roots, whereas auxin mutants *aux1* and *axr2* localised NO ubiquitously in the root. NIA1 (nitrate reductase 1) transcript levels in WT root tips were measured using qPCR. The NIA1 transcript starts to accumulate after gravistimulation, reaching a two fold higher level after 2 h, before gradually subsiding. The findings suggested that functional auxin signalling is a prerequisite for NO signalling, and that *NIA1* mediated NO induces the root bending.

To ascertain the sub-cellular localization of NIA1 in response to gravity and other hormonal interactions, NIA1 transcriptional and translational mGFP4 reporter constructs were made and transformed into the WT and auxin, ethylene and NR mutant plants. Integration of the reporter construct in the plant genome was confirmed by PCR and sequencing. Initial confocal experiments showed the successful expression of NIA1-driven mGFP4 fluorescence in roots and stomatal guard cells. Further experiments with these transgenic lines will be needed to examine the role of NO in gravitropism and cross-talk with other phytohormones.

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With complete honour and satisfaction, I dedicate this Thesis to my Parents and my new born daughter KavyaShree.

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## <span id="page-21-0"></span>**Chapter 1 Introduction**

## <span id="page-21-1"></span>**1.1 Overview**

To date, scientists have focused mainly on shoot biomass and grain yield to increase food grain production. The first green revolution used more fertilizer to increase crop yield. Root traits are another important factor to increase food grain production. Plant root growth and development plays a central role in overall plant growth which could lead to better shoot biomass and greater yield. One way to increase the nutrient uptake capacity is by improving root system architecture (Den Herder *et al.,* 2010). Simulation studies by Hammer *et al.* (2009) showed that changes in root system architecture are responsible for increased biomass accumulation and historical yield of maize in the US corn belt.

Plant roots respond to many external signals. Gravity is one of the important external stimuli responsible for roots to grow downward (Gravitropism) and it's one of the critical processes in root development. Plant signalling molecules like auxin, ethylene and nitric oxide (NO) are involved in gravitropism (Hu *et al*., 2005; Ma and Ren, 2012). This introduction will discuss plant roots, gravitropism and hormones involved in gravitropism, focussing on NO and its interactions with auxin and ethylene.

## <span id="page-21-2"></span>**1.2 The plant root**

Plant roots play a vital role in anchorage of the plant to the soil and absorption of water and mineral nutrient from it. Root development is therefore a fundamental aspect of plant biology with great economic and ecological importance. Plant roots are susceptible to abiotic stresses like drought, waterlogging, salinity and heavy metals. A better understanding of the signalling pathway and hormone interaction in the root development will pave the way to improve the yield of food crops.

## <span id="page-22-0"></span>**1.3 Basic root anatomy of Arabidopsis**



## <span id="page-22-1"></span>**Figure 1-1: The Arabidopsis root tip (Source: Yvon Jaillais) -http://www.ens-lyon.fr/RDP/SiCE/Resources.html**

Arabidopsis roots (from outside to inside) consist of epidermis, cortex, endodermis, pericycle and vasculature. Quiescent center (QC) and the columella root cap are located in the center of root tip.

The small size and simple anatomy of Arabidopsis is useful to study root traits. Arabidopsis cell layers (from outside to inside) consist of epidermis, cortex, endodermis, pericycle and vasculature (Figure. 1-1). The Quiescent center (QC) is present in the center of root tip. QC and initials forms the stem cell niche in the Arabidopsis root (Stahl and Simon, 2004). All the root cells such as epidermis, cortex, endodermis, pericycle, vasculature and columella are generated from the stem cells around the QC. The QC is mitotically inactive in Arabidopsis under optimal condition (Aichinger *et al.,* 2012), but stress-related phytohormones and DNA damage activate QC cell division (Heyman *et al.,* 2014). The root can be divided into four distinct zones, namely the meristematic zone, transition zone, elongation zone and growth terminating zone. The meristematic zone spreads up to 200 µm from the root cap. All cells in this zone are very active. The transition zone stretches from 200 um to 520 um away from the root cap and cells in this zone grow slowly. Most of the cells in the distal portion of the transition zone participate in cell division. Proximal cells differentiate to enter the cell elongation zone. This zone is easily identifiable because of the presence of nuclei in the centre of the cell, small vacuoles, and the approximately equal length and width of the cells. The elongation zone covers the region from 520 µm to 850 µm. Cells in this zone elongate very fast; vacuoles become very large and push the nuclei to the side of the cell wall. Root hairs develop in this zone from the outer apical portion of the tricoblast (epidermal cells of roots which produces root hairs). The growth terminating zone spreads from 850 µm to 1500 µm from the root cap. Cells in the transition zone are the most sensitive towards external signals such as gravity, humidity, light and oxygen (Verbelen *et al.,* 2006).

#### <span id="page-23-0"></span>**1.3.1 Gravitropism**

Plants respond to an array of environmental and developmental stimuli such as light, temperature and gravity. Gravity is one of the most significant cues to which plants must adapt to survive. Gravitropism is a process that dictates the growth of plant organs along a specific vector relative to gravity. It ensures that roots will grow down into the soil, where they take up water and nutrients whereas shoots will grow upwards, into the air, where they can photosynthesize, reproduce and disperse seed. In crop plants, gravitropism contributes to the optimal utilization of available resources and permits plants prostrated by wind and rain to straighten up.

#### <span id="page-23-1"></span>**1.3.2 Steps involved in gravitropism**

Gravitropism involves several steps organized in a specific response pathway. These include the perception of a gravistimulus, the transduction of this mechanical stimulus into a physiological signal, the transmission of this signal from the site of sensing to the site of response, and a curvature-response which allows the organ tip to resume growth at a predefined set angle from the gravity vector. The primary sites for gravity sensing are located in the cap for roots, and in the endodermis for shoots. The curvature response occurs in the elongation zones for each organ. Upon gravistimulation, a gradient of auxin appears to be generated across the stimulated organ, and be transmitted to the site of response where it promotes a differential growth response. Therefore, while the gravityinduced auxin gradient has to be transmitted from the cap to the elongation zones in roots, there is no need for a longitudinal transport in shoots, as sites for gravity sensing and response overlap in this organ (Masson *et al*., 2002). A combination of molecular genetics, physiology, biochemistry and cell biology, coupled with the utilization of *Arabidopsis thaliana* as a model system, have recently allowed the identification of a number of molecules involved in the regulation of each phase of gravitropism in shoots and roots of higher plants.

#### <span id="page-24-0"></span>**1.3.3 Hormones involved in gravitropism**

Plant hormones are small organic molecules which influence many physiological functions at low concentrations. Hormones can be synthesized locally or transported over large distances to trigger an appropriate response. The hormones auxin, ethylene and nitric oxide have been shown to be involved in gravitropism. The synthesis, perception and physiological roles of these hormones and the interactions between them are discussed in the following sections.

## <span id="page-24-1"></span>**1.4 Nitric oxide as a signalling molecule**

Nitric oxide (NO) is a small, free radical, gaseous, multifunctional lipophilic signalling molecule easily able to diffuse through the plasma membrane. NO reacts rapidly with species containing unpaired electrons such as molecular oxygen, superoxide anions and metals (Mayer and Hemmens, 1997; Crawford, 2006). It was first described in mammals as an endothelium-derived relaxing factor and later shown to be an important signalling molecule controlling many biological functions in humans. The biological importance of NO was widely recognized by the scientific community and to honour this NO was announced as a "Molecule of the year in 1992". In 1998, the Nobel Prize for Physiology and Medicine was awarded to three scientists, Robert F. Furchgott, Louis J. Ignarro, and Ferid Murad for their contribution to the "discovery of NO signalling role in the cardiovascular and nervous systems." Later it was found to be an important signalling molecule in plants (Arasimowicz and Floryszak-Wieczorek, 2007). It participates in all physiological, growth and developmental functions of plants, including seed dormancy, germination, root development, lateral root growth, root gravitropism, stomatal movement, leaf senescence, flowering, pollen tube growth, and fruit ripening. It is also involved in response to biotic and abiotic stress, such as viral and bacterial infections, drought and salt stress (Delledone et al., 1998; Qiao and Fan, 2008).

#### <span id="page-25-0"></span>**1.4.1 NO in plants**

NO was the second gaseous signalling molecule discovered in plants after ethylene. The presence of NO in plants was reported much earlier than the discovery of NO as a signalling molecule in humans. The release of NO from herbicide-treated soybean leaves was first recorded by Klepper (1979). Once NO was identified as an important signalling molecule in an animal system it attracted more attention from plant scientists. The action of NO as a defence signalling molecule in response to bacterial and viral exposure in a plant was first reported by Delledone *et al*. (1998) and Durner *et al*. (1998). During the last two decades, NO biology in plants has been the subject of much research, but much of its signalling pathway remains unclear. Basic questions about how NO is synthesized and used in plants remain to be answered (Wilson *et al*., 2008), and how NO interacts with other plant hormones needs to be established.

#### <span id="page-26-0"></span>**1.4.2 Roles of NO signalling in plants**

It is clear that NO is an important signalling molecule in plants (Freschi, 2013), controlling almost all physiological and developmental functions, either alone or by interacting with other plant hormones such as auxin, ethylene and abscisic acid. It plays a significant role in root growth and leaf expansion, photomorphogenesis and senescence (Beligni and Lamattina, 2001; Neill *et al*., 2003), as well as in rapid physiological reactions such as stomatal closure (Desikan *et al*., 2002, 2004). The involvement of NO in promoting root growth has been observed by Gouvea *et al*. (1997), who found that NO induces cell elongation in a similar way to auxin. A transient increase in NO concentration was shown to be involved in adventitious root development induced by indole acetic acid (Pagnussat *et al*., 2002). The authors suggest that NO could mediate the auxin response in this process. The participation of NO in gravitropic bending in soybean roots has been described by Hu *et al*. (2005). They found an asymmetric accumulation of NO in the primary root in response to gravistimulation. Similarly Pagnussat *et al*. (2002) observed that NO acts downstream of auxin leading to the accumulation of cGMP.

#### <span id="page-26-1"></span>**1.4.3 NO biosynthesis in plants.**

The sources of NO in animal systems was well characterised, but the sources of NO in plants is not clearly understood; this needs to be investigated by further research. Two major enzymatic pathways have been proposed to be involved in NO synthesis in plants, the oxidative and reductive pathways (Moreau *et al.,* 2010). In addition, non-enzymatic pathways are also involved in NO synthesis. The oxidative pathway consists of oxidation of L-arginine, polyamine and hydroxylamine, whereas in the reductive pathway nitrate is reduced by nitrate reductase (NR), plasma membrane bound Ni-NOR (nitrite:NO oxidoreductase) and organelles such as mitochondria and chloroplasts (Figure 1-2).



#### <span id="page-27-0"></span>**Figure 1-2: Various routes of nitric oxide production in plants (re-drawn from Wilson** *et al.,* **2008). Copyright permission License Number-4237640475433.**

In plants NO is synthesized by different pathways in accordance with specific condition and cell type. NO can be produced from nitrite in the cytoplasm, stomatal guard cells and in roots by NR enzyme and also in mitochondria and chloroplasts, by NI-NOR (nitrite: NO reductase) in root the exact mechanism of this pathway is not clearly understood. L-arginine-dependent NOSs (nitric oxide synthases)- mediated NO synthesis has been reported in plants but Atnos1 is not a NOSs. Alternative candidates for this role have not yet been found in plants. NO can also be synthesized from hydroxylamine and polyamine.

#### **1.4.3.1 Do plants contain nitric oxide synthase?**

In animals, NO is generated primarily by three homologous nitric oxide synthases (NOSs), namely neuronal NOS (nNOS), inducible NOS (iNOS) endothelial NOS (eNOS). NOSs are heme-containing proteins belonging to the cytochrome P450 family which oxidize Larginine to L-citrulline and NO using NADPH as an electron donor and molecular oxygen (Mayer and Hemmens, 1997; Lamotte *et al.,* 2005; Crawford, 2006). The existence of NOS in plants is a topic of debate. NOS-like activity in plants has been inferred from studies using NOS inhibitors (L-arginine analogues) to inhibit NO-dependent processes in plant extracts (Baudouin, 2011; Fancy *et al.,*2016). Guo *et al.* (2003) isolated AtNOS1 (*A. thaliana* NITRIC OXIDE SYNTHASE 1) which has 16% homology to a protein from snail (*Helix pomatia)*; this group reported arginine-dependent NO synthesis in plant's, and proposed that AtNOS be considered as a plant's NOS, behaves like mammalian eNOS and nNOS. Atnos1 T-DNA insertion mutants showed reduced NO accumulation and phenotypic defects (low fumarate, pale green leaves, slow growth and reduced chlorophyll content). In contrast, experiments carried out by Moreau *et al.* (2008) showed AtNOS1 did not bind arginine and failed to reproduce the earlier result of NO generation *via* oxidising arginine. They also failed to produce radiolabelled citrulline from [3H] arginine. Based on these results, the protein AtNOS1 is no longer considered to be a NOS; it has been renamed to AtNOA1 (*A. thaliana* NITRIC OXIDE associated 1). AtNOA1 contains a GTPase domain suggesting that it may participate in mitochondrial biogenesis and translation (Zemojtel *et al.,* 2006). So far no genetic evidence for the presence of NOS has been reported in Arabidopsis or in higher plants.

Recently Foresi *et al.* (2010) characterized two NOS sequence from a recently published genome of two photosynthetic green algae *Ostreococcus tauri* and *O. lucimarinus*. They found a sequence in *O. tauri* 45% similar to the mammalian NOS. They also expressed the recombinant *O. tauri* NOS in *E. coli* and found a 2.5 fold higher level of NO than in controls following application of L-Arginine. Cell viability was also increased. Frohilch and Durner (2011) have suggested that higher plants lost NOS during evolution. An intensive genome search in 1000 land plants carried out by Jeandroz *et al.* (2016) did not find any NOS-like enzyme and they concluded plants evolved to synthesize NO by a different mechanism. Arginine-dependent NO production takes place in peroxisomes, mitochondria and plastids (Baudouin, 2011), but the mechanism is unknown.

In animals, hydroxylamine also serves as a substrate for oxidative NO synthesis. Based on this Rumer *et al.* (2009) reported that, the external application of hydroxylamine (HA) to nia double mutant tobacco (*nia 30*) cell culture increased NO emission, but questioned the natural availability of HA in plants. Tun *et al.* (2006) reported polyamine-induced NO synthesis in specific tissues (elongation zone of Arabidopsis root tip and vein and trichomes of primary leaves) in Arabidopsis seedlings.

#### **1.4.3.2 Nitrate reductase (NR)**

NR (EC 1.6.6.1) is a flavoprotein, and a homodimer containing two identical subunits of approximately 100 kDa. Each subunit contains flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD), heme-Fe, and Mo-molybdopterin (Mo-MPT). NR is a cytosolic enzyme primarily involved in nitrogen assimilation, which catalyzes nitrate  $(NO<sub>3</sub>)$  into nitrite  $(NO<sub>2</sub>)$  by  $NAD(P)H$ dependent manner. NR can also further catalyse nitrite into NO by the following reaction:  $NAD(P)H + 3H<sub>2</sub>O<sup>+</sup>+2NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> \rightarrow NAD<sup>+</sup>+2NO+5H<sub>2</sub>O$  (Yamasaki and Sakihama, 2000; Wilson *et al.,* 2008; Gupta *et al.*2011). This reaction has been demonstrated *in vivo* using soybean leaflets by Dean and Harper. (1986), and *in vitro* using purified NR from different plant species by Rockel *et al.* (2002). Both genetic (using *nia1, nia2* mutants in ABA induced stomatal closure) and pharmacological (using NR inhibitor tungstate) studies support the role of NR in NO generation in plants. Nitrite is used as the main substrate to generate NO by NR (Desikan *et al.,* 2002; Bright *et al.,* 2006).

#### **1.4.3.3 Other sources of NO in plants**

Apart from NR and NOS, other enzymatic NO synthesis pathways are also present in plants. The nitrite:NO reductase (ni:NOR) is a 310 kDa, plasma membrane-bound, nitritereducing enzyme converting nitrite into NO using cytochrome C as an electron donor in tobacco roots (Stohr and Stremlau, 2006). Studies in tobacco, pea and barley found that mitochondria are one of the major NO producing organelles, by nitrite reduction in the presence of NADH under anoxic conditions in roots. (Gupta *et al.,* 2005; Gupta *et al.,* 2010). Soybean chloroplasts also synthesise NO via arginine or nitrite (Jasid *et al.,* 2006). Non-enzymatic synthesis of NO has also been reported by Bethke *et al.* (2004) in barley aleurone layer under low pH conditions.

#### **1.4.3.4 NR is the most important source of NO in plants**

As discussed in the previous section 1.4.3, many NO synthesis mechanisms function in plants, but recent studies support NR-mediated NO synthesis as one of the important mechanism in plants (Mur *et al*., 2013). The NR-mediated reductive pathway is one of the best characterised enzymatic sources of NO in plants (Gupta *et al.,* 2011). Pharmacological studies using the NOS inhibitor L-NMMA, and genetic studies, using *Atnos1* and the NR double mutant *nia1 nia2* showed that Indole-3-butyric acid (IBA)-induced NO synthesis solely depends on NR activity. NO synthesis induced by auxin, ethylene, ABA, cytokinin, H2O<sup>2</sup> and hypoxia is NR-mediated. *Arabidopsis thaliana* contains two NR genes, namely *NIA1* and *NIA2*, both located on chromosome 1. They have 83.5% amino acid sequence homology with sequence divergence in the N-terminal region. Both *NIA1* and *NIA2* genes are expressed in roots and leaves, but the expression is tissue specific and responds differently to signals (Cheng *et al.,* 1991). In guard cells, NO synthesis mediated by the NR isoform NIA1 plays a significant role in stomatal closure (Wilson *et al.,* 2008). Cytokinin-mediated increased NR activity in Arabidopsis seedlings is only due to the increased NIA1 transcript level (Yu *et al.,* 1998). NO-mediated lateral root development in Arabidopsis is based on modulation of NIA2 activity by  $H_2O_2$  induced mitogen-activated protein kinase 6 (Wang *et al.,* 2010).

#### <span id="page-30-0"></span>**1.4.4 NO removal in plants**

Once NO has triggered the initial signalling event, it is removed or scavenged by a number of different mechanisms. Increased NO accumulation can be due to reduced rate of removal rather than a higher rate of synthesis (Misra *et al.,* 2010; Wilson *et al.,* 2008). There are four different NO removal mechanism functions in plants (Figure 1-3). First, NO is an unstable and reactive molecule, readily reacting with oxygen to form nitrite and nitrate. Second, NO reacts with reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as superoxide to produce peroxynitrite (ONOO). Another NO removal mechanism is via haemoglobin. Haemoglobins (Hb) have been identified in legumes, non-legumes, and actinorhizal plants. Four subfamilies of Hb are found in plants; symbiotic Hb, mainly found in legumes and a few nitrogen fixing species, and three types of non-symbiotic Hb (nsHb). The physiological functions of nsHb are not fully understood, but in maize and alfalfa classI nsHb (nsHbI) has been shown to convert NO to nitrate by an  $O_2$  and NAD(P)H-dependent reaction. Removal of NO by nsHbI depends on signal specific NO synthesis (Gupta *et al.,* 2011). Finally, NO reacts with the tripeptide glutathione (GSH) to produce S-nitrosylated glutathione (GSNO). GSNO is considered as a NO reservoir, but it can also be further metabolized by GSNO reductase to form glutathione disulphide (GSSH) and ammonia  $(NH<sub>3</sub>)$ . Further investigation is needed to identify the exact NO removal mechanism during a specific plant condition (Neil *et al.,* 2008; Wilson *et al.,* 2008).



#### <span id="page-32-1"></span>**Figure 1-3: Nitric oxide removal mechanisms in plants**

In plants, NO is removed after triggering specific signalling events by four different mechanisms. NO can be converted to nitrate or nitrite by oxygen or react with ROS to produce peroxynitrite or react with haemoglobin to form nitrite (NO<sub>3</sub>) in an NAD(P)H dependent reaction, or reduced to S-nitrosylated glutathione (GSNO) by glutathione (GSH) which will be further reduced to glutathione disulphide (GSSG) and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) by GSNO reductase.

#### <span id="page-32-0"></span>**1.4.5 NO perception and signalling in plants**

NO controls many important plant functions, which suggest plants perceive NO signals and respond accordingly. But the exact mechanism of NO perception is unclear and no plant NO receptor has been identified to date. Due to the reactive nature of NO it may have many NO perceptors (Neil *et al*., 2008; Wilson *et al*., 2008). External stimuli increase NO synthesis which further triggers physiological processes *via* second messengers such as cGMP,  $Ca^{2+}$ , activation of MAP kinase pathways, and modulation of gene expression. Apart from this, post-translational modifications (PTM) of target proteins such as Snitrosylation, tyrosine nitrosylation and metal nitrosylation involve NO directly (Frohlich and Durner, 2011; Astier and Lindermayr, 2012).

Soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC) triggers the synthesis of cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP). The cGMP will trigger a number of downstream signalling reactions. Hu *et al*. (2005) demonstrated asymmetric accumulation of cGMP in the bending zone of soybean roots during gravitropism in a similar way to the accumulation of auxin and NO. They also demonstrated that exogenous application of auxin or NO could increase the cGMP level.

NO also activates signalling through the MAP kinase signalling pathway, which is one of the important signalling cascades where by external stimuli are transduced into a cellular response in mammals, yeast and Fungi (Morris, 2001). MAP kinase genes have also been identified in several plant species. In tobacco, NO activates the salicylic acid induced MAP kinase signalling pathway during pathogen attack (Kumar and Klessig, 2000), and in cucumber NO activates the MAP kinase signalling pathway during IAA-induced adventitious rooting (Pagnussat *et al.,* 2004).

The NO signalling mechanism also functions through post-translational modification (PTM) of target proteins by either direct S-nitrosylation or indirect trans-nitrosylation and nitration of a tyrosine residue. S-nitrosylation is a prototypic redox-based signalling mechanism, involving the formation of S-nitrosothiol (S-NO) by reversible covalent attachment of a NO moiety to the thiol (R-SH) side chain of cysteine (Cys) residue of target protein. S-nitrosylation is one of the most studied NO-dependent PTM in plants, especially during plant defence against biotic and abiotic stress. Based on proteomic studies, more than 200 S-nitrosylated proteins have been identified so far. To date only 15 of the S-nitrosylated proteins were well characterised. (Astier and Lindermayr, 2012).

Tyrosine nitration is one of the PTM of proteins induced by NO, in a non-enzymatic reaction. NO interacts with superoxide  $(O2^{\dagger})$  to produces peroxynitrite  $(ONOO^{\dagger})$ , one of the reactive nitrogen species (RNS) which acts as a nitrating agent, adding a nitro group to the aromatic ring of tyrosine residues. In plants, tyrosine nitration can be detected using antibodies against 3-nitrotyrosine. Saito *et al.* (2006) in tobacco BY-2 cells treated with the 1NF1 elicitor from *Phytophthora infestans* reported tyrosine nitration in a defence response. Similarly Valderrama *et al.* (2007) found tyrosine nitration in response to salt stress in olive leaves.

Metal- nitrosylation is an another reversible PTM like S-nitrosylation. Being a free radical, NO reacts with transition metal centers like iron, copper, heme and zinc fingers. An example is soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC), which is one of the key players in animal NO signalling (Stasch and Evgenov, 2013). NO activates the sGC by binding with its heme domain, which further triggers the synthesis of cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP). The cGMP will trigger a number of downstream signalling reactions. However, a NOsensitive sGC homologue has not yet been identified in plants.

### <span id="page-34-0"></span>**1.4.6 NO interaction with phytohormones.**

In response to wide range of environmental and endogenous stimuli, NO is produced and interacts with all major classes of phytohormones. It also modulates the biosynthesis of other hormones leading to changes in physiological functions. Hormones like auxin, ethylene, abscisic acid, gibberellins, cytokinin and jasmonic acids also influence the endogenous level of NO (Freschi, 2013). Depending upon the signal, NO acts either upstream or downstream of the plant hormones. For example, during root growth and development NO acts downstream of auxin (Simontacchi *et al.,* 2013). In the case of salicylic acid accumulation, NO acts upstream of the signal. Even though NO interacts with many plant hormones, this thesis focusses on auxin and ethylene, and their interactions with NO.

## <span id="page-35-0"></span>**1.5 Auxin**

The first hormone discovered in plants was auxin. Auxin is a multifunctional plant hormone that controls almost all aspects of a plant life such as embryo and fruit development, organogenesis, vascular tissue differentiation, apical hook formation and apical dominance, root patterning, elongation and gravitropic growth. Auxin can stimulate or inhibit cell expansion depending on the concentration and on the sensitivity of the cells. This can result in different effects in different parts of the plant. Auxin promotes cell elongation in shoots and inhibits it in roots. This reflects a dramatic difference in sensitivity of these two organs to auxin (Kaufman *et al*., 1995).

#### <span id="page-35-1"></span>**1.5.1 Auxin biosynthesis**

Indole-3-acetic acid is the predominant form of active auxin found in plants. Auxin is synthesized in young leaves and transported downward to the root tip (Goldsmith, 1977). Understanding of IAA biosynthesis is still incomplete. Stable isotope studies have revealed that IAA can derive from two major pathways: the tryptophan (Trp) dependent and Trpindependent pathways (Fig 1-4). Trp-independent pathway derives IAA from a precursor of Trp, anthranilate, but this pathway is not fully understood. Regulation of these biosynthetic pathways and crosstalk with other signals need to be further investigated (Tromas and Perrot-Rechemann, 2010). The Trp-dependent mechanism is well defined and it is the most important source of auxin. This is categorized into four different pathways based on the intermediates, namely indole acetamide (IAM), indole-3-pyruvic acid, tryptamine and indole-3-acetaldoxime (IAOx) (Saucer *et al*., 2013).


**Figure 1-4: IAA biosynthesis pathways (Source: Tromas and Perrot-Rechemann, 2010) Copyright permission obtained from ELSEVIER France.**

IAA can be synthesized from Trp-independent and Trp-dependent pathways. In the Trp-independent pathway the precursor of Trp, anthranilate, is converted into IAA. Incase of Trp-dependent pathway IAA is synthesized from four different routes. 1) Indolacetamide (IAM) as an intermediate which is transformed into IAA by an aminohydrolase (AMI1). 2) Trp is transformed into indole-3-pyruvic acid (IPA) by an aminotransferase (TAA1) and then IPA decarboxylase transforms IPA into indole-3-acetaldehyde (IAAId) which is then converted into IAA by an IAAId oxidase. 3) Trp is transformed into tryptamine (TAM) by Trp-decarboxylase then the YUCCA (YUC) protein convert, TAM to N-hydroxyl-TAM (HTAM) then subsequently HTAM is converted to IAA by an unknown mechanism. 4) Trp is converted to Indole-3-acetaldoxime (IAoX) by two cytochrome P<sub>450</sub>

#### **1.5.2 Auxin transport in the root**

The mobile signal hormone auxin needs to be transported to accomplish its role of messenger between cells, tissues and organs. As previously mentioned auxin is mainly synthesized in young leaves and transported throughout the whole plant. There are two different types of auxin transport: long distance transport via phloem; and cell to cell auxin transport by polar auxin transport (PAT) through auxin transport proteins. Auxin transport in roots occurs in two distinct directions, acropetally and basipetally, spatially separated in two different tissues (Tanaka *et al*., 2006). The cell-to-cell PAT mechanism depends on active uptake through an influx carrier, such as AUXIN INSENSITIVE1 (AUX1), and facilitated efflux through a carrier such as a member of the PIN-FORMED (PIN) family of proteins. Different expression patterns of PIN proteins form a route for auxin flow and local distribution. Multidrug resistance p-glycoprotein is also involved as an auxin efflux carrier. The auxin transport network-mediated local auxin distribution requires the interaction of PIN proteins with other components to trigger different cellular responses in various developmental processes (Paciorek *et al*., 2006). The response pathway during gravitropism in roots has been separated into three sequential steps: gravity perception, signal transduction, and asymmetric growth leading to bending (Moulia and Fournier, 2009). The bending of the root is driven by formation of a differential auxin gradient between the upper and lower sides of the root and regulated by the polar transport of auxin (Muday and Rahman, 2008).

### **1.5.3 Auxin perception**

In order to induce a biological response, auxin needs to be perceived by receptors. To date three auxin receptors/co-receptor systems have been identified in plants, namely 1) TIR1/AFB- Aux/IAA, 2) SKP2a and 3) ABP1. The former two systems regulate auxin dependent transcription in the nucleus, whereas ABP1 regulate auxin signalling at the plasma membrane. Among these three receptor systems, TIR1/AFB-Aux/IAA is the best described sytem (Vanneste and Friml, 2012; Peer, 2013; Sauer *et al.,* 2013).

### **1.5.3.1 TIR1/AFB-** *auxi***n- Aux/IAA system**

Derepression of auxin response genes occurs during an increase in the intracellular auxin level. In this process auxin acts as molecular glue between domain II of AUX/IAA and Transport Inhibitor Response1/auxin related F-Box (TIR1/AFBs) subunits of the SCF complex, which adds multiple ubiquitins to the AUX/IAA substrate, thus targeting them for degradation by the proteasome (Figure1-5). This allows the derepression of ARF activators and transcription of auxin response genes (Tromas and Perrot-Rechemann, 2010). Arabidopsis contains 6 TIR1/AFBs and 29 AUX/IAA proteins. Experiments in the yeast-two hybrid system by Villalobos *et al.* (2012) showed that the interaction between specific pairs of TIR1/AFBs and AUX/IAAs depends on auxin concentration. This experiment also suggested that AUX/IAA is the determining factor for auxin affinity.



**Figure 1-5: The model for the action of TIR1/AFBs-Aux/IAA (re-drawn from Peer, 2013). Copyright permission License Number: 4237611031191.**

Auxin binds to the Aux/IAA and the F-box protein TIR1, leading to ubiqutinization and degradation of the Aux/IAA. This releases the transcription factor ARF allowing auxinresponsive gene expression.

## **1.5.4 Interaction of nitric oxide with auxin**

NO and auxin function synergistically with each other. During the last decade, most of the NO and auxin interaction studies carried out were related to plant root development. Much less information is available about the role of NO in shoot and reproductive tissues (Freschi, 2013). Involvement of auxin during root development in response to nitrate has been demonstrated by Forde (2002). IAA-induced, NO-mediated adventitious rooting has been reported in cucumber; the authors suggested both NO and cGMP function downstream of auxin signalling (Pagnus *et al.,* 2003). Exogenous application of auxin has been shown to induce NO accumulation in soybean root tip and root protoplast (Hu *et al.,* 2005). These authors also found that unilateral application of auxin *via* agar blocks

increased the accumulation of NO near to the agar blocks. Auxin-induced, NO-mediated root hair initiation and elongation have been reported in both lettuce and Arabidopsis. Application of a NO scavenger reduces the root hair formation (Lombardo *et al.,* 2006). Exogenous application of indole-3-butyric acid (IBA) induces NO-mediated adventitious and lateral root formation in *A. thaliana* (Kolbert *et al.,* 2008). IBA is an inactive form of auxin which needs to be converted to the active form (IAA) for the lateral root formation. Conversion of IBA to IAA takes place in the peroxisome, where NO is synthesised and then induces lateral root formation (Schlicht *et al.,* 2013).

## **1.6 Ethylene**

The phytohormone ethylene  $(C_2H_4)$  was the first example of a gaseous signalling molecule discovered in biological systems, which controls major plant growth and developmental responses. Ethylene is also a key regulator in response to biotic and abiotic stresses (Li and Guo, 2007). As a major plant hormone, it is involved in the regulation of essential physiological processes, such as seed germination, cell elongation, fruit ripening, senescence and abscission, root, shoot and flower development and root nodulation.

## **1.6.1 Ethylene biosynthesis in plants**

Ethylene is synthesised via the methionine-*S-*Adomet-ACC cycle (Figure 1-6). Methionine is an amino acid, which acts as a building block for protein synthesis (Ravanel *et al*., 1998; Wang and Ecker, 2002). 80% of cellular methionine is converted to *S-*AdoMet by SAM synthase. *S-*AdoMet acts as a substrate for many biochemical pathways including polyamines and ethylene biosynthesis, and is also involved in methylation reactions to modify lipids, proteins and nucleic acids. Ethylene is synthesised from *S-*Adomet via 1 aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC), in a two-step reaction catalysed by ACC synthase and ACC oxidase. The first step is the conversion of *S-*Adomet to ACC by ACC synthase (ACS). This reaction also produces 5'-methylthioadenosine (MTA), which is converted back to methionine, which facilitates the continuous supply of methionine for the synthesis of ethylene. ACC is further oxidised by ACC oxidase to produce ethylene, CO<sub>2</sub> and cyanide. Cyanide is further oxidised to β-cyanoalanine to prevent toxicity during high rates of ethylene production (Wang and Ecker, 2002). Environmental and endogenous signals regulate ethylene biosynthesis through the differential expression of ACC synthase genes (Bleecker and Kende, 2000).



## **Figure 1-6: Ethylene biosynthetic pathway (Source: Wang** *et al.,* **2002). Copyright permission License Number- 4237880779137.**

Methionine was catalysed by SAM Synthetase to produce *S*-Adomet by consuming one molecule of ATP per molecule of *S*-AdoMet produced. *S*-AdoMet is the precursor of ACC , its also act as a precursor for polyamine synthesis pathway, ACC is synthesized from *S*-AdoMet by ACC synthase. MTA is the by product of ACC synthesis step, it will be converted back to methionine, this will help to maintain the constant methionine concentration. ACC is the immediate precursor of ethylene, ACC is further catalysed by ACC oxidase to produce ethylene and also generate carbon dioxide and cyanide.

## **1.6.2 Ethylene perception**

Ethylene is perceived in the plasma membrane by a family of five ethylene receptors that includes ETR1, ERS1 ETR2, ERS2, and EIN4 (Figure 1-7). These receptors negatively regulate the ethylene signalling pathway. The ethylene signal is transduced from the membrane to the nucleus through a series of proteins including CTR1, EIN2, EIN5, EIN6, and EIN7. In the nucleus the EIN3/EIN3-like (EIL) family of proteins initiates the effector genes involved in the diverse responses to the hormone (Solano and Ecker, 1998).



**Figure 1-7: Ethylene receptors (re-drawn from Shakeel** *et al***., 2013)**

Arabidopsis contains five ethylene receptors, further divided into two subfamilies based on phylogenetic analysis and structural difference. ETR1 and ERS1 belong to subfamily 1 and contain conserved His-kinase domains. ETR2, ERS2 and EIN4 belong to subfamily 2, and have a diverged His-kinase domain.

## **1.6.3 Ethylene signal transduction**

The first step in the ethylene synthesis pathway is binding of ethylene to its receptors (Figure 1-8). Copper acts as a cofactor for ethylene binding and the receptor activity, which is supplied by intracellular copper transporter RAN1 (Hirayama *et al.,* 1999). RTE1 is located in the ER. In the absence of ethylene, RTE1 activates the ETR1 which acts as a negative regulator of the ethylene response. In the absence of ethylene, receptors activate the CTR1, which is a Ser/Thr protein kinase, thus suppressing the ethylene response (Clark *et al.,* 1998). Down stream of CTR1 is EIN2, which acts as a key player in ethylene synthesis. In the absence of ethylene, the C-terminal end of the EIN2 is phosporylated by CTR1 and will be in an inactive state. In the presence of ethylene, ethylene will bind to the receptor, inactivate the CTR1 and thus dephosphorylate the EIN2 and activate the downstream ethylene signalling events. Upon dephosphorylation C-terminal end of the EIN2 is cleaved and enters the nucleus, where it activates the EIN3 and EIN3 like (EIL1) transcription factor and further initiates the ethylene response (Merchante *et al.,* 2013; Shakeel *et al.,* 2013).



**Figure 1-8: Ethylene signal transduction pathway (copied from Merchante** *et al***., 2013). Copyright permission License Number- 4237611362856.**

In the current model of ethylene transduction pathway, ethylene is perceived by two subfamily of receptor with high affinity. Copper (red circles) act as a cofactor for ethylene binding. (a) In the absence of ethylene signal CTR1 (in yellow) inactivate the EIN2 (in purple) by phosphorylating its C-terminal end. (b) In the presence of ethylene, hormone will bind to the receptor and inactivate the CTR1. This further prevents the phosphorylation of EIN2, and thus C-Terminal end is cleaved by the unknown mechanism and moved into the nucleus and activate the EIN3/EIL1 and degrade the EBF1/2. Finally the transcription factors, EIN3/EIL1 dimerize and activate the ethylene response genes.

## **1.6.4 Interaction between NO and ethylene**

Both NO and ethylene are gaseous signalling molecules. They interact antagonistically during ripening and leaf senescence and synergistically during biotic stress and Fe deficiency. NO may influence ethylene biosynthesis during the maturation and senescence of plant tissue (Arasimowicz and Floryszak-Wieczorek, 2007). Exogenous application of NO to plants decreased the ethylene synthesis by inhibiting ACC synthase activity (Zhu and Zhou, 2007). NO negatively regulates ethylene synthesis in fruits, This could be an useful technique in extending the shelf-life of fresh fruits. The first report on extending the

shelf-life of strawberry and kiwi fruits by NO fumigation has been demonstrated by Lesham and Wills (1998). After this discovery, many scientists used NO to delay the fruit ripening. Short time fumigation of vegetables like broccoli, green pea, and bok-choy with NO increased the shelf life, but the NO concentration required is unique to the vegetables (Soegiarto and Wills 2004). NO alleviates chilling injury and extends shelf life in Japanese plums (Singh *et al.,* 2009). NO fumigation in Kensington Pride mango reduce both ACS and ACO activity, which affects the ACC content and leads to less ethylene synthesis, also affects the fruit softening enzyme such as exo-PG (polygalacturonase), endo-PG and EGase enzyme (Zaharah and Sing, 2011). Apart from this, NO decreases ethylene synthesis by directly binding to the enzyme ACO to produce an ACO-NO complex which further binds with ACC to form a stable ACO-NO-ACC complex. Studies on NO treated peach fruit showed the irreversible conversion of ACC to MACC, a non-volatile metabolite of ACC, which limits the ACC-ethylene conversion (Zhu *et al.,* 2006). In contrast to the above antagonistic interactions, there are a few synergistic effects also reported. NO donors such as SNP and SNAP increase the ethylene production, which has earlier been reported to break the seed dormancy and germination by Gniazdowska *et al.* (2007). In Arabidopsis and cucumber roots, application of GSNO induces the expression of many genes involved in ethylene synthesis like SAM synthetase, ACO, ACS and the 5 methylthioribose kinase which in turn increase the NO synthesis (Garcia *et al.,* 2011). Further studies are needed to understand the cross talk between NO and ethylene, and how they regulate each other under specific conditions.

#### **1.6.5 Interaction between auxin and ethylene**

Synergistic effects of auxin and ethylene have been well defined in the regulation of hypocotyl elongation (Vandenbussche *et al*., 2003), root hair growth and differentiation (Pitts *et al*., 1998), apical hook formation (Lehman *et al*., 1996, Li *et al*., 2004), root gravitropism (Lee *et al*., 1990; Buer *et al*., 2006), and root growth (Pickett *et al*., 1990; Rahman *et al*., 2001). This suggests that these two signaling pathways interact at the molecular level.

Although ethylene and auxin signalling pathways are relatively well characterized, the mechanisms of their interaction are still poorly understood. One interaction occurs at the hormone biosynthesis level; where auxin induces ethylene biosynthesis by upregulation of ACC synthase, the key enzyme in ethylene production (Abel *et al*., 1995). By contrast, ethylene might influence auxin levels because ethylene has been shown to regulate the expression of two genes (WEAK ETHYLENE INSENSITIVE WEI2 and WEI7) that encode subunits of anthranilate synthase, a rate-limiting enzyme in Trp biosynthesis (Stepanova *et al*., 2005), from which pathway auxin is at least partially derived (Woodward and Bartel, 2005).

Another process regulated by both hormones is gravitropic bending of the root. Asymmetric auxin redistribution in the basipetal (from the tip toward the base) direction mediated by the auxin influx (AUX1) and efflux carriers (PIN-FORMED3 [PIN3] and PIN2) is crucial for root gravitropism (Luschnig *et al*., 1998; Marchant *et al*., 1999; Friml *et al*., 2002). Exogenous application of ethylene reduces (Buer *et al*., 2006) or delays (Lee *et al*., 1990) the root gravitropic response. Although ethylene has been shown to down regulate lateral auxin movement in maize (*Zea mays*) root tips (Lee *et al*., 1990) and auxin transport in pea (*Pisum sativum*) epicotyls (Suttle, 1988), the mode of this auxin–ethylene interaction is not known.

#### **1.6.6 ABA induces NR mediated NO synthesis in stomatal guard cells**

The plant hormone abscisic acid (ABA) is mainly synthesized during abiotic stress such as drought, cold and temperature. It helps to regulate transpiration by closing the stomata hence preventing water loss. Desikan *et al.* (2002) showed that external application of ABA increased the NO in stomatal guard cells, and observed that ABA induces NO synthesis and stomatal closure in WT Arabidopsis, but not in NR mutant's. These experiments demonstrated the role of NR in guard cell NO synthesis and its closure.  $H_2O_2$ also induced the guard cell NO synthesis (Bright *et al.,* 2006).

## **1.7 Use of mutants to explore signalling**

Hormone response mutants were the key to elucidate a number of hormonal reaction mechanisms in plants. Further screening of the mutants will help to fill the blanks in hormonal transduction pathways. Plant hormone mutants can be classified into two categories: mutants that are impaired in hormone biosynthesis and mutants that are impaired in their response to hormones (Kende, 2001). The present study used NR, auxin, and ethylene mutants.

#### **1.7.1 NR mutants (***nia1, nia2, nia1nia2***)**

NR is involved in the first step of nitrate assimilation, and in Arabidopsis NR consists of two isoforms of genes, *NIA1* and *NIA2* (Wilson *et al.,* 2008). A single NR mutant does not show any phenotypic variation from Col-0, but showed less NO synthesis. When both the NR genes *NIA1* and *NIA2* are mutated, the importance of *NIA1* can be observed.

The nia1 mutation is a single nucleotide substitution that converts an alanine to a threonine in a highly conserved region of the molybdenum cofactor-binding domain of the NR protein. *NIA1* gene encodes a functional NR protein that contributes to the assimilation of nitrate in Arabidopsis. The *nia2* null mutant was isolated from a chlorate resistant mutant *chl3* and molecular analysis studies proved that the *CHL3* gene sequence is identical to the *NIA2* gene. *nia2* mutant showed less NR activity in the leaf and also are resistant to chlorate. The *nia1, nia2* double mutants shows only 0.5% of wild-type shoot NR activity also normal growth was affected on media with nitrate as the only form of nitrogen (Wilkinson and Crawford, 1993).

#### **1.7.2 Auxin mutants**

## *1.7.2.1 aux1*

The *AUX1* gene primarily functions in the root and *aux1* mutations affect the gravitropic response of the seedling root. Plants with the *aux1* mutation were selected as resistant to both auxin and ethylene (Pickett *et al.,* 1990). AUX1 acts as an auxin influx carrier, which facilitates the uptake of auxin during the gravitropic root bending response (Marchant *et al*., 1999). Mutants in *aux1* are agravitropic but can be rescued by exogenous NAA, a membrane permeable auxin.

## *1.7.2.2 axr2-1*

The *axr2-1* mutation is dominant and located on chromosome three. The mutant plants were isolated as resistant to the plant hormones auxin, ethylene and abcisic acid. Mutants have the phenotypic character of short hypocotyls, agravitropic root and shoot growth and no root hairs (Wilson *et al*., 1990). Timpte *et al*. (1994) proposed that *axr2-1* severely disrupts an early auxin response. It has subsequently been shown that AXR2 is an Aux/IAA7 protein (Nagpal *et al.,* 2000)

#### *1.7.2.3 axr3*

The axr3 mutation is semi-dominant and located on chromosome one. A mutant *axr3* plant shows enhanced apical dominance, reduced root elongation, increased adventitious rooting and no shoot and root gravitropism. AXR3 is an Aux/IAA17 protein (Rouse *et al.,* 1998).

#### **1.7.3 Ethylene mutants**

## *1.7.3.1 ein3-1*

EIN3 (ethylene-insensitive3), is a nuclear transcription factor that initiates downstream transcriptional cascades for ethylene responses. The ein3-1 mutation is a loss-of-function mutation, leading to the suppression of ethylene-mediated effects including gene expression, the triple response (apical hook formation, thickening and shortening of hypocotyl), cell growth inhibition, and accelerated senescence.

## *1.7.3.2 ein3OX*

The *EIN3OX* is a transgenic line which expresses the *EIN3-1* gene under the control of 35S promoter in an *ein3-1* mutant background. *EIN3OX* seedlings show the ethylene triple response phenotype in absence of ethylene.

## **1.8 Analysis of nitric oxide**

#### **1.8.1 Visualization of NO by confocal microscopy using specific dye DAF-2D**

Real time visualization of the production and localisation of NO is achieved by confocal microscope using the fluorescent indicator DAF-2D. This method is useful to analyse the cellular function of NO. DAF-2D was originally designed and synthesized by Kojma *et al*. (1998). Non-fluorescent DAF-2D reacts with NO in the presence of oxygen and yields the highly fluorescent product triazolofluorescein (DAF-2T). Fluorescence intensity is directly proportional to the concentration of NO (Kojma *et al.,* 1998) and has been used frequently to demonstrate NO production in roots (Hu *et al.,* 2005; Stohr *et al.,* 2006; Kolbert *et al.,* 2008), and stomata (Desikan *et al*., 2002). The specificity of this dye to NO has been questioned by researchers, although it is accepted when used with the proper positive and negative controls.

# **1.8.2 Quantification of gene expression by Quantitative Real-Time PCR (Q-RT-PCR)**

Q-RT-PCR can be used to measure changes in mRNA levels and therefore suggest possible changes in the protein level and function in response to the external stimuli. qPCR-based copy number quantification has advantages, such as high sensitivity, low cost and rapid screening, compared to other methods. Real time PCR measures the progress of DNA amplification in real time by using fluorescent probes, like SYBR green-I. SYBR green-I binds to double stranded DNA (dsDNA) and then emits 1000 fold greater fluorescence than when it is free in solution (Valasek and Repa, 2005). An increase in DNA product during PCR therefore leads to an increase in fluorescence intensity and is measured at each cycle, thus allowing DNA concentrations to be quantified.

## **1.9 Transgenic approach to visualize** *NIA1***-mediated NO synthesis.**

Although NO research has fascinated many plant scientists for two decades, the only method available to visualize NO, has been the cell permeable dye DAF-2DA viewed with a fluorescence microscope. Also this method allow visualization of the NO already synthesized in different parts of the plant tissues. However it cannot reveal which NR gene is responsible for the synthesis of NO in a particular plant tissue. Recent studies have shown NR mediated NO synthesis is the most important source of NO in plants, and that *NIA1* plays the major role in NO signalling. So producing transgenic plants expressing the *NIA1* gene tagged with a fluorescent marker will be a viable alternative tool to find the role of the *NIA1* gene in NO signalling. These plants will also be useful to find the location of the *NIA1* expression with particular external stimuli, and to study the hormonal interactions.

#### **1.9.1 Use of green fluorescent protein (mGFP4) as a reporter system**

The green fluorescent protein (GFP) has been used extensively by many scientists in both plant and animal systems. GFP is used for the direct visualization of gene expression and subcellular localization of fusion proteins in living cells (Siemering *et al*., 1996). GFP has two excitation peaks at 400 nm and 475 nm; the former excitation peak is useful to detect GFP fluorescence using a long wavelength UV lamp, the later one is used in the laser confocal microscope. This technique has several advantages over GUS reporter gene. In the present study *mGFP4* has been used to produce the *NIA1* construct. While expressing the original GFP from jellyfish *Aequorea victoria* in *A. thaliana*, the GFP coding sequence was cleaved because the sequence in GFP is similar to the plant intron recognition site. This cryptic intron was removed by using alternative codons and successfully expressed in Arabidopsis (Jim Haseloff *et al.,* 1997).

# **1.10 Aim of the project**

It is clear that there is a considerable interaction between the different signalling pathways during the development of plants and it is likely that auxin, ethylene and NO signalling interact during the gravitropic responses of roots. The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of NO on gene expression in the bending zone of roots during response to gravity.

Specific objectives were

- To analyse the gravitropic curvature of roots in wild type and auxin, ethylene and NR mutants of Arabidopsis.
- To localise the production and accumulation of NO in the roots of Col-0, *aux1, axr2* and *axr3* Arabidopsis seedlings in response to gravity by using confocal microscopy.
- To quantify the changes in NIA1 transcript level in Col-0, *aux1*and *axr2* root zones (root tip, middle region and hypocotyl zones) in response to gravity by using Q-RT-PCR.
- To localise the *NIA1* gene expression during gravitropism, by using mGFP4 tagged *NIA1* transgenic plants.

## **2 Materials & Methods**

## **2.1 Arabidopsis seeds**

*Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh, Colombia ecotype (Col-0) and auxin mutants (*aux1, axr2* and *axr3*), ethylene mutants (*ein3-1 and EIN3OX*) and nitrate reductase mutants (*nia1, nia2 and nia1nia2*) were obtained from Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre (NASC), Nottingham, United Kingdom. All the Arabidopsis genotypes used in this study were in Columbia (Col-0) background.

## **2.2 Growth conditions for plants**

Seed stocks were stratified by storage at  $4^{\circ}C$  for at least three days before sowing. Plants were grown in a growth cabinet (MLR-351H, Sanyo Gallencamp, Loughborough, Leicestershire, UK) at 20<sup>o</sup>C with 12 h of white light (Active Photon flux: 150  $\mu$ Ei/m<sup>2</sup>/S) at 60% relative humidity.

## **2.2.1 Growth on compost**

Plants were grown on Levingtons compost F2+sand (JFC Monro, Hayle, Cornwall, UK). Seeds were sown in trays and then transferred to individual pots (10 cm diameter x 15 cm depth). Plants were watered twice weekly.

## **2.2.2 Growth on MSR3**

#### **2.2.2.1 Surface sterlization**

Prior to germination, seeds were surface sterilized to prevent contamination by immersing in 70% (v/v) ethanol for 15 min and 10% (v/v) household bleach for 15 min, followed by three rinses in sterile water, finally seeds were suspended in 1 ml sterile water.

#### **2.2.2.2 MSR3 plates**

In order to study the gravity bending, seedlings were grown in plant growth medium-MSR3 (Gamborg *et al.,* 1976) in a rectangular plates. MSR3 was prepared using bacteriological agar 0.8% (w/v), 2(N-morpholino) ethanesulfonic acid (MES) 0.05% (w/v), sucrose 0.15% (w/v). Murashige and Skoog basal salt mixture 0.44% (w/v), the pH was adjusted to 5.7 using NaOH. Medium was autoclaved at  $121^{\circ}$ C for 20 min, then poured into a rectangular plates (120 x 120 x 17 mm) inside the laminar flow hood and allowed to set for 20 min. 5-10 surface sterilized seeds were placed in MSR3 plates using a micropipette (Figure 2-1). If the plants required antibiotic selection then MSR3 media was cooled to  $60^{\circ}$ C before the addition of the relevant antibiotic. Kanamycin was used at 50 µg/ml and hygromycin was used at 30 µg/ml.



**Figure 2-1: Schematic representation of MSR3 plates** 

## **2.3 Imaging of root development and gravitropic curvature**

#### **2.3.1 Measuring root gravitropism**

In order to measure the gravity bending, Seeds shown in MSR3 plates were placed vertically in the growth champer in 12 h photoperiod at  $20^{\circ}$ C and 60% humidity. After 5 days, the seedlings were gravistimulated for 2 h by changing the direction of the plate

(Horizantal orientation) by  $90^{\circ}$  and then allowed to bend in a light proof cupboard. Gravity bending was measured in a five-day-old seedlings photographs. A camera (Canon 600D, 18-55 mm IS II Lens) was fixed above the sample. A millimetre-scale ruler is placed at the same focal depth as the subject to provide a scale reference. Plates were photographed at particular time intervals. Root bending curvature was measured from photographs using protractor and ruler.

### **2.3.2 Statistical methods:**

Linear mixed-effects modelling was employed to assess the effect of various plant types on the change over time in the curvature of the individual samples. Analyses started with a model that incorporated:

- fixed effects of plant type interacting with a quadratic change in curvature over time;
- diagonal variance-covariance structure for random effects of quadratic time coefficients;
- weighting for varying plant type within sample variability;
- $\bullet$  AR(1) correlation in residuals.

A backwards elimination approach was taken to find the minimal model that adequately represented the data. Models that differed in either the random effcts specification, plant type within sample variability or AR(1) correlation were compared by likelihood ratio tests. The significance of terms in the fixed-effcts specification was assessed by standard linear regression conditional t-tests. Visual inspection of residual plots of the final models did not reveal any obvious deviations from homogeneity of variance or normality.

All analyses were carried out in the R programming language and environment (R Development Core Team, 2014) using the nlme software package (Pinheiro *et al.*, 2016) for the linear mixed-effects modelling.

Two-way ANOVA was employed to analyse the overall difference between plants and treatments over time in terms of root bending. Turkey Post-hoc test was used to make a pairwise comparison. Normality was checked by Shapiro-Wilk test. Two-way ANOVA analyses were carried out in the IBM SPSS (IBM Corp. Released 2013. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 23.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.).

## **2.4 Detection of endogenous nitric oxide (NO) by confocal microscopy**

Where indicated 50 μl of 100 μM specific NO scavenger 2-(4-carboxyphenyl)-4,4,5,5 tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl-3-oxide (cPTIO) was applied to 5 days old Arabidopsis seedling roots by micropipette and incubated for 15 min. Seedlings were gravistimulated for 2 h by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by  $90^\circ$ . After 2 h of gravistimulation, 50 μl of a 20 μM solution of the cell-permeable fluorescent probe 4, 5 diaminofluorescein diacetate (DAF-2DA); (Calbiochem, San Diego) was applied to the root by micropipette and incubated in the dark for 20 min. Thereafter, roots were washed three times with fresh MES buffer and examined using laser confocal microscopy (DAF-2D excitation 495 nm, emission 515 nm). Slides were prepared by placing the seedling on a glass slide using forceps, the root was covered with immersion oil and coverslip placed on the sample. All micrographs were acquired under identical settings to indicate unadjusted fluorescence differences. Experiments were performed with and without cPTIO and gravistimulation.

## **2.5 ABA treatment for stomatal bioassay**

Whole leaves from transformants and wilt type were incubated in MES-KCl buffer (10 mm 2-morpholino ethane sulfonic acid (MES), 5 mm KCl, 50  $\mu$ m CaCl<sub>2</sub>, pH 6.15) for 2 h under light condition in a growth chamber. After the incubation leef epitermal fragments were obtained from the leaves using a forceps, and they were further incubated at  $25^{\circ}$ C and  $37^{\circ}$ C in light and dark for 4 h in MES buffer contains 150 µm ABA. Col-0 wild type treated with ABA was used as a control. After 4 h of incubation stomata was observed for mGFP4 fluorescence using confocal microscopy.

# **2.6 H2O<sup>2</sup> treatment for root**

Col-0 wild type and transgenic seedlings root were pre-treated with 100  $\mu$ M of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and then gravistimulated for 6 h by chaning the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90°. After 6 h seedlings were placed on a glass slide using forceps, then the root was covered with immersion oil and coverslip. mGFP4 fluorescence was observed using confocal microscopy.

## **2.7 Bacterial growth medium & condition**

*Escherichia coli* DH5-α and *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (GV3101) were grown on solid Luria-Bertani (LB) agar plates consisting of tryptone 10  $gl^{-1}$ , yeast extract 5 g  $l^{-1}$ , NaCl 10 g  $1^{-1}$  and agar 15 g  $1^{-1}$ . The medium was autoclaved at 121<sup>o</sup>C for 20 min and cooled to approximately  $60^{\circ}$ C before the addition of appropriate antibiotics.

## **2.7.1 Antibiotics**

All antibiotics used in this study were purchased from Sigma Aldrich Ltd UK and are listed in the Table 2.1. Antibiotic stock solutions were filter sterilized using 0.22 μm filters (Millipore Corporation, USA). After autoclaving, MSR3 and LB media was cooled to  $60^{\circ}$ C before the addition of the relevant antibiotics.

<b>Antibiotics</b>	<b>Solvents</b>	<b>Stock</b> concentration(mg/ml)	Working $concentration(\mu g/ml)$
Ampicillin	Water	100	100
Kanamycin	Water	100	50
Hygromycin	Water	100	30

**Table 2-1: Antibiotics solution used in this study**



# **2.8 Extraction of nucleic acids**

#### **2.8.1 Extraction of total RNA from Arabidopsis root**

Total RNA was extracted from Arabidopsis roots using Trizol reagent (Sigma Aldrich). Roots were collected from plants gravistimulated for 30 min, 1, 2, 4 and 6 h and nongravistimulated plants. The whole root was separated into three parts (root tip, middle region and hypocotyl region) by using a scalpel blade and frozen in liquid nitrogen. Approximately 100 mg of tissues from the each of the three parts of the roots were ground separately to a fine powder using a pestle and mortar and homogenised with 1 ml of Trizol reagent. Samples were vortexed for 5 min and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. 200 µl of chloroform was added to the samples and tubes were shaken vigorously by hand for 15 s and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. Samples were centrifuged at 15000xg for 15 min at  $4^{\circ}$ C and the clear aqueous phase was transferred to a fresh tube. RNA was precipitated by the addition of 0.5 ml of isopropanol and then further incubated at room temperature for 10 min. Samples were then centrifuged at  $15000xg$  for 1 h at  $4^{\circ}$ C. The supernatant was removed and the pellet was dissolved with 25 μl of RNase free water, 200 μl of 70%  $(v/v)$  ethanol, and then potassium acetate was added to the reaction mixture to a final concentration of 65 mM. The samples were kept at -80°C for 1 h then centrifuged at 15000xg for 1 h 30 min at 4°C. The pellet was washed with 1 ml of 75% (v/v) then 95% (v/v) ethanol, and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. Tubes were centrifuged at 15000xg for 5 min at 4°C. The final RNA pellet was dried briefly under vacuum for 3-5 min and dissolved in 20  $\mu$ l of RNase free water and stored at -80 $\rm{°C}$  until further use.

#### **2.8.2 Extraction of plasmid DNA**

Plasmid DNA was extracted from 1.5 ml overnight grown LB liquid cultures of *E. coli* transformants using GenElute<sup>TM</sup> Plasmid miniprep kit (Sigma Aldrich, UK) following the manufacturer's instructions. The plasmid DNA was eluted from the column using 50 µl  $1xTE$  pH 8.0. Plasmid DNA was stored in a freezer at -20 $^{\circ}$ C until further use.

## **2.8.3 Extraction of plant genomic DNA (gDNA)**

Arabidopsis genomic DNA was extracted from 100 mg of young leaf tissues using a GeneJET Plant Genomic DNA purification kit (Thermo Scientific, UK) following the manufacturer's instructions. The final DNA pellet was dissolved in 100 µl of 1xTE buffer.

### **2.8.4 Quantification of nucleic acid by Nanodrop**

Nucleic acid (DNA and RNA) concentration were determined by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm using a Nanodrop (Thermo scientific). The concentration of a 2 µl sample was calculated based on the absorbance measured at 260 nm x conversion factor (40 for RNA and 50 for DNA). Samples were checked for purity by measuring the absorbance ratio at 260 nm/280 nm for the presence of protein contamination and at 260 nm/230 nm for the presence of solvent or salt contamination.

# **2.8.5 Analysis of RNA samples by agarose gel electrophoresis (Sambrook** *et al.,* **1989)**

The quality of RNA was determined by agarose gel electrophoresis. Agarose  $(1.2\%$  w/v) was mixed with 1X TAE buffer and melted in a microwave oven. The mixture was cooled to  $60^{\circ}$ C and a final concentration of 30 ng ethidium bromide (EtBr) was added, and then mixed gently to avoid bubble formation. The mixture was poured into the gel mould containing comb and was allowed to solidify. 1X TAE buffer was poured into the gel buffer reservoir in the electrophoresis apparatus to about 2 mm above the gel surface. RNA samples were mixed with a final concentration of 1x loading dye. Electrophoresis was carried out at 100 V. After the run, the gel was visualized on a UV (365 nm) transilluminator Fluorchem Q (Alpha Innotech, USA).

## **2.9 cDNA synthesis**

## **2.9.1 DNase treatment**

Removal of genomic DNA from total RNA samples was done using a DNA-*free*TM kit (Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer's instructions. Two units of rDNase I and 0.1 volumes of 10x DNase I buffer was used for 20 μg of RNA in a 50 μL reaction. The mixture was incubated at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 30 min, and then 0.1 volume of DNase inactivation reagent was added to the tube and incubated for 2 min. After incubation, the tube was centrifuged at 10000xg for 2 min, and the supernatant, which contains the RNA, was transferred to a fresh tube and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C.

#### **2.9.2 First strand cDNA synthesis**

First strand complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized from 5 μg of total RNA in a total reaction volume of 50 μl. 5 μg of RNA was mixed with 8 μl of anchored  $dT(18)$ primer, 1 ng of Human Tumour Necrosis Receptor Associating Factor 1 transcript (TRAF spike- NCBI gene bank accession number NM\_005658.4) and 8.5 μl of sterile distilled water. The reaction was incubated at  $70^{\circ}$ C for 10 min, cooled on ice for few seconds, microfuged briefly and allowed to anneal at room temperature for 5 min. 5 μl of 10X RT buffer, 2.5 μl of 20 mM dNTP mix and 4 μl of 0.1M DTT was added and microfuged briefly. 2 μl of superscript III reverse transcriptase (200 U/μl, Invitrogen, United Kingdom) was added to the reaction mixture, briefly mixed and incubated at 42°C for 2 h 30 min. The reaction mixture was heat inactivated at 65°C for 10 min. Finally, the cDNA synthesis reaction was diluted ten times with sterile distilled water and used for RT-PCR.

## **2.10 Polymerase chain reaction**

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed in a PTC200 Peltier Thermocycler (MJ Research). Genomic DNA or cDNA was used as template. The PCR products were analysed by agarose gel electrophoresis (see 2.65).

## **2.10.1 DNA polymerase**

Taq DNA polymerase (Biolabs, UK) was used for general amplification. Amplification of PCR fragments for cloning was performed by using a proof reading polymerase (QIAGEN Long range PCR kit) with exonuclease activity.

## **2.10.2 Primer design**

Primer pairs were designed to be between 18-25 base pair in length, with similar melting temperatures and a GC content of 40-60%. Primer pairs were designed using a primer design program (ABI-primer design 7000, Applied Biosystems). Primer pairs were selected in the final third of the cDNA sequence to give a product of 50-200 bp. All primer pairs were aligned with the Arabidopsis genome sequence from the NCBI database using the nucleotide BLAST search engine to determine their uniqueness. The chosen primers were synthesized by Eurofins Genomics, Germany (Table 2-2).

# **Table 2-2: Oligonucleotide primers**



Primer sequences containing restriction endonucleases recognization sites *KpnI* (GGTACC), *PstI* (CTGCAG), *NotI* (GCGGCCG) are in bold and underlined

#### **2.10.3 PCR conditions**

General PCR conditions are listed in Table 2-3. Annealing temperature was optimized for new DNA templates and primer pairs where they were used for the first time.

<b>Step</b>	<b>Stage</b>	Temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	Time (min)
	Initial denaturation	94	10
2	Denaturation	94	
3	Annealing	60	
$\overline{4}$	Extension	72	1 min/Kb
	Step 2 to 4	34 cycles	
6	Final extension	72	10

**Table 2-3: PCR condition for amplification of** *NIA1* **gene**

#### **2.10.4 Standard PCR**

The polymerase chain reaction (PCR) mixture of 12.5 μl contained 2.5 μl of template (cDNA/gDNA/small amount of colony suspended in water), 2 μl of 10 μM oligonucleotide primers (Table 2-2),  $0.25 \mu l$  of 20 mM dNTP mix,  $1.25 \mu l$  of  $10X$  PCR buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl; pH: 9.0, 50 mM KCl, 1.5 mM  $MgCl<sub>2</sub>$ ), 0.5 U of Taq DNA polymerase and 6 µl of sterile distilled water.

## **2.10.5 Quantitative Real-Time PCR (Q-RT-PCR)**

Q-RT-PCR was performed using a *NIA1* gene specific primer with SYBR green (Primer Design). The reaction mixture of 20 μl contained  $2X$  SYBR green master mix (10 μl), 300 nM of each gene specific primer NIA1F and NIA1R, template cDNA (5μl of diluted) and DNase free water. The reaction was carried out in duplicate in microamp optical 96 well plates (Ambion), which were sealed with a clear plastic adhesive cover (Ambion). Template control (without RNA), enzyme control (without RT enzyme) and sterile water samples were used as negative controls in this experiment. The reaction plate was centrifuged at 1000xg at room temperature. The reaction was performed in 7300 real time PCR system (Applied Biosystems). Reaction conditions were as described in Table 2-4. To derive a standard curve, serially diluted (0.1 ng/ $\mu$ l to 0.00001 ng/ $\mu$ l) pBluescript II SK (+) plasmid was used in the reaction, and the reaction mixture was prepared as described earlier, with M13F and M13R primers (Table 2-2).

<b>Stage</b>	Temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	Time (min)	cycle
Activation	95	10	
Denaturation	95	0.15	40
Annealing/Extension	60	1.0	
Melting curve analysis	95	0.15	
	60	1.0	
	95	0.15	

**Table 2-4: Q-RT-PCR reaction condition**

## **2.10.6 Long range PCR**

Long range PCR was performed to amplify larger DNA fragments (NIA1 promoter and gene) from BAC clone (T32E7), using a two-step PCR programme (Table 2.5). The long range PCR (Qiagen) high fidelity Taq DNA polymerase was used to avoid amplification errors. PCR mixture contains 10 ng of DNA, 10 μM of forward and reverse oligonucleotide cloning primers (Table 2-2), 1 μl of 20 mM dNTP mix, 5 µl of Q solution, 0.5  $\mu$ l of 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.5 U of Long range Taq polymerase, made up to 15  $\mu$ l with RNase free water. PCR amplification was carried out at  $54^{\circ}$ C annealing Temp and an increased extension time (2 min for promoter and 6 min for promoter and gene, Table 2-5). The PCR products were then separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized under UV light.

## **Table 2-5: Two step PCR reaction condition**



## **2.10.7 Inverse PCR**

Inverse polymerase chain reaction (inverse PCR) was carried out to select a single copy transformants and also to know the insert location. The whole plant genomic DNA was isolated and digested with *kpn1-*HF restriction enzyme. This enzyme was chosen because this will give a single cleavage point in the T-DNA region and another cleavage point somewhere in the plant genomic region. Digested products were circularised by T4-DNA ligase enzyme. Primers designed in the known T-DNA regions were used in the long range PCR to amplify the circularised templates.

# **2.11 Cloning and transformation**

# **2.12 Cloning strategy for PG35s-mGFP4 construct**

Digested CaMV35S-mGFP4 gene cassette by *EcoRV* from 35S-mGFP plasmid (Insert) **(Fig. 4-1)**

Digested pG0179 plasmid with *EcoRV* (Vector)



## **Figure 2-2: Overview of cloning strategy for PG35s-mGFP4**

To make a PG35s-mGFP4 construct CaMV35S-mGFP4 cassette was released from the 35S-mGFP plasmid using *EcoRV* and then ligated with the pG0179 plasmid digested with the same enzyme. This construct was cloned into *E. coli* and then sub-cloned into Agrobacterium. CaMV35S-mGFP4 cassette was inserted into Col-0 wild type plants by *Agrobacterium* harbouring PG35s-mGFP4 construct by floral tip method. using *Agrobacterium* harbouring PG35s-mGFP4 construct by floral tip method.



#### **Figure 2-3: Schematic representation of pG35S-mGFP4 construct**

CaMV35s-mGFP4 cassette was cleaved from the pGreen 35S-GFP plasmid by *EcoRV* restriction digestion. The purified cassette was then inserted into the *EcoRV* digested pG0179 plasmid vector. This construct was transferred to the wild type Arabidopsis (Col-0) by floral dip method. Transformed plant was confirmed for the insertion of mGFP4 and used as a control to check the 35S promoter driven GFP expression in plants.

LB- Left border, RB- Right border, hyg- Hygromycin resistance gene, 35S- CaMV35S promoter

## **2.13 Cloning strategy for NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4**



## **Figure 2-4: Overview of cloning strategy for NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 constructs**

To localise the *Nia1* gene expression during gravitropism NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 constructs were made. First pGmGFP construct was made by inserting *mGFP4* gene into pG0179 plasmid in the *Pst1 & Not1* restriction site. Nia1 promoter and Nia1 promoter along with the *Nia1* gene was amplified using PCR and then inserted into pGmGFP construct in the *Kpn1 & Pst1* retriction site. This constructs was cloned into *E. coli* and then sub-cloned into *Agrobacterium*. Cloning was confirmed by colony PCR and restriction digestion. Inorder to produce transgenic plants NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 cassetts were introduced into Col-0 wild type and auxin, ethylene and NR mutants by floral tip method.



#### **Figure 2-5: Schematic representation of NIA1pro-mGFP4 construct**

The 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter fragment was amplified from the BAC clone (T32E7) using PCR long range Polymerase (Qiagen) and then further purified and digested with the restriction enzymes, *Kpn1 and Pst1.* This NIA1 promoter fragment was sub cloned into the pGmGFP4 vector. This construct was transferred to wild type *Arabidopsis* plant Col-0 and auxin, ethylene, NR mutant plants by floral dip method. Transformed plants were confirmed by PCR and used for further interaction studies.



**Figure 2-6: Schematic representation of NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 construct**

The 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter along with *NIA1* gene 3.5 kb (Total length of 5.7 kb) fragment was amplified from the BAC clone (T32E7) by using PCR long range polymerase (Qiagen) and then further purified and digested with the restriction enzymes, *Kpn1 and Pst1.* This 5.7 kb NIA1 fragment was sub cloned into the pGmGFP4 vector. This construct was transferred to the wild type *Arabidopsis* plant Col-0 and auxin, ethylene, NR mutant plants by floral dip method. Transformed plant were confirmed by PCR and used for further interaction studies.

#### **2.13.1 Column purification of amplified DNA fragments**

The amplicon (mGFP4, NIA1 2.2 kb promoter and NIA1 2.2 kb promoter with gene) obtained by long range PCR was separated on a 1.0 % (w/v) agarose gel. The PCR product was column purified with a PCR clean up kit (Sigma) following the manufacturer's instructions. The final concentration of the purified product was checked by resolving in a 0.8 % (w/v) agarose gel.

## **2.13.2 Restriction digestion of insert and vector**

The plasmid DNA (pG0179 and pGmGFP) and purified PCR products (mGFP4, NIA1 2.2 kb promoter and NIA1 2.2 kb promoter with gene) were digested with restriction enzymes to obtain DNA fragments for cloning. Restriction digestion was carried out in 0.5 ml PCR tube containing 1-2 µg of plasmids or purified PCR products, 0.1 volume of buffer, 1-2 U of restriction enzymes and the volume made up to 20 µl using distilled water. Double digestion was performed using buffer in which both enzymes could function at their optimal activity. The digestion was carried out at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 2-4 h.

## **2.13.3 Extraction of nucleic acid from agarose gel**

Restriction digested plasmids (pG0179 and pGmGFP) and amplified DNA fragments (mGFP4, NIA1-2.2 kb promoter and NIA1-2.2 kb promoter with gene) separated by electrophoresis were extracted from agarose gel slices using the Qiaquick gel extraction kit (Qiagen Ltd, Crawley, West Sussex, UK), according to the manufacturers instructions. UV transilluminator was used to visualise DNA bands from agarose gels, which were excised using scalpel blades.
## **2.13.4 Ligation**

DNA fragments were ligated into a linearized vector backbone using T4-DNA ligase (Sigma, UK) in the supplied ligase buffer, according to the manufacturer's instructions. The ligation was carried out in a 1:3 molar ratio of linearized plasmid and insert for every cloning. Reaction mixture was set up consisting of 2 U of T4-DNA ligase, 0.1 volume of ligase buffer and the volume made up to 20 µl using distilled water. Reaction was carried out in a PCR thermal cycler at  $16^{\circ}$ C overnight. The amount of insert to include in the reaction mixture was calculated based on the following equation.

Amount of insert (ng) = 
$$
\frac{\text{Amount of vector (ng) X size of insert (bp)}}{\text{Size of vector (bp)}} \times \frac{\text{Insert: vector}}{\text{molar ratio}}
$$

# **2.13.5 Preparation of** *E. coli* **competent cells**

The *E. coli* strain [DH5α] to be transformed was inoculated into 4 ml LB broth and grown overnight. This was used as mother culture for competent cell preparation. 250 μl of the mother culture was inoculated into 25 ml of LB broth in a 250 ml flask and grown with vigorous shaking at 37°C for about 2 h (OD<sub>600</sub> =  $\sim$  0.6). The culture was transferred to a polypropylene tube and chilled on ice for 10 min. The cell suspension was pelleted by centrifugation at 5000xg for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet was suspended in ice cold 20 mM  $CaCl<sub>2</sub>$  (10 ml). The cell suspension was placed on ice for 20 min and centrifuged at 5000xg for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded completely and the pellet was resuspended in sterile ice cold solution of 20 mM  $CaCl<sub>2</sub>$  (1.0 ml), followed by incubation in ice for 15 min. Competent cells were used immediately for transformation.

#### **2.13.5.1 Transformation of vector into** *E. coli*

10 µl of ligation mixture were added to the competent cells and incubated on ice for 30 min. The cells were then heat shocked for 1 min in a 42°C water bath, and rested immediately on ice for 5 min. To this, 1 ml LB broth was added to each tube, and the tubes were shaken gently to aerate (150 rpm) at 37°C for 1 h. Aliquots of 100 µl and 200 µl from cultures were then spread onto LB agar plates containing the appropriate antibiotics for selection of the plasmid. Plates were incubated at 37°C overnight to develop colonies, and kept at 4°C for longer term storage.

#### **2.13.5.2 Blue white screening**

To select the transformed colonies of *E. coli* carrying the insert DNA (mGFP4) and to eliminate the colonies with self-ligated vector, the α-complementation test was carried out as described by Sambrook *et al.* (1989). The XIA plates (X-Gal, IPTG and ampicillin) were prepared by spreading 40 µl of 0.1 M IPTG and 40 µl X-Gal (20 mg/ml) on LB agar medium containing ampicillin (100 μg/ml). The IPTG and X-Gal solutions were spread 30 min before inoculation. Recombinant colonies of *E. coli* were selected randomly from the LB amp plates and short streaked (Fig. 2-5) with a sterile tooth pick onto the XIA plates. The plates were wrapped with aluminium foil and incubated at 37°C for 12-16 h. The plates were stored at 4°C for 6 h to allow full colour development and the results were recorded.



**Figure 2-7: Schematic representation of short streaked plate 2.13.6** *Agrobacterium* **competent cell preparation** 

A single colony of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain was streaked onto a fresh LB plate with appropriate antibiotics, and incubated for 2 d at 28<sup>o</sup>C. From this plate, a single colony of *Agrobacterium* was picked and used to inoculate a 5 ml of LB with appropriate antibiotics. Cultures were grown overnight at 28°C in a shaking incubator. The next day, 5 ml of overnight culture were added to 500 ml of LB in a sterile 1000 ml flask and shaken vigorously (250 rpm) at  $28^{\circ}$ C until the culture reached an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.5-0.6. Cultures were chilled on ice and centrifuged at  $3000xg$  for 5 min at  $4^{\circ}$ C to pellet the cells. The supernatant was discarded and cells were washed with 20 ml of ice cold TE (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) and then centrifuged at 3000xg for 5 min. The supernatant was discarded completely and the pellet was resuspended in 5ml of LB. Finally cells were pipetted in 0.1 ml aliquots into ice cold 1.5 ml eppendorf tubes. Competent cells were used immediately for transformation.

#### **1.10.1.1 Transformation into** *Agrobacterium* **by freeze-thaw method**

Aliquots of *A. tumefaciens* competent cells were placed on ice. 500 ng each of plasmid construct and pSoup helper plasmid was mixed with the *Agrobacterium* competent cells, the tube was then incubated on ice for 5 min and liquid nitrogen for 5 min. The cells were then heat shocked at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 5 min using a water bath, and the tube rested on ice for 2 min. After addition of 1 ml LB medium, tubes were agitated for 4 h at  $28^{\circ}$ C to allow cells to grow. Aliquots were spread on LB agar plates containing 50 µg/ml Rifampicin, 50 µg/ml kanamycin and 5 µg/ml tetracycline for vector selection. Plates were incubated at  $28^{\circ}$ C for two days for colonies to develop.

## **2.13.6.1 Glycerol stock preparation**

For long term storage, glycerol stocks were prepared from confirmed transformants of *E. coli* and *Agrobacterium*. Single colonies from the transformants were inoculated in 5 ml LB broth with appropriate antibiotics and allowed to grow overnight in the shaker at  $37^{\circ}$ C and  $28^{\circ}$ C. The next day, 500 µl of overnight grown bacterial culture was mixed with 40%  $(v/v)$  sterile glycerol solution in a 2 ml screw cap tube. Glycerol stocks were stored at - $80^{\circ}$ C.

# **2.13.7** *Arabidopsis* **f**l**oral dip transformation**

#### Plant growth

*Arabidopsis* wild type Col-0 and mutant's were grown to flowering stage in the growth champer in 12 h photoperiod at  $20^0C$  and 60% humidity. Plants were grown in an individual pot. 2-3 seeds were showed per pot and allowed to grow for few days, then only one healthy seedlings were allowed to grow until flowerescence stage. To obtain more floral buds per plant, primary inflorescences were clipped and allowed for 5-8 days to produce more secondary inflorescences.

#### Pre-culture

10 ml of LB medium (10 g  $I^{-1}$  tryptone, 5 g  $I^{-1}$  yeast extract, 10 g  $I^{-1}$  NaCl) containing kanamycin, rifampicin and tetracycline was inoculated with *A. tumefaciens* carrying binary vectors and incubated at 28°C with vigorous agitation. After 2 days, 500 ml of LB medium was inoculated with 5 ml of pre-culture and incubated for a further 24 h at 28°C. The *Agrobacterium* culture was then pelleted by centrifugation at 1000xg for 10 min at room temperature. The pellet was suspended in 500 ml of infiltration medium (1x MS salts (Sigma). 1X Gamborg's B5 vitamins (Sigma), 5% w/v sucrose, 50 µl/L Silwet L-77 (Lehle Seeds, Round Rock, Texas, USA)). To prevent soil in pot from falling into infiltration medium, pot soil was covered with aluminium foil. *Arabidopsis* inflorescences with unopened floral buds were dipped into the medium and left to soak for 30 s. After dipping, plants were sealed in a bag and laid on their side for next 24 h. The covers were then removed and the plants rinsed with water and returned to their normal growing conditions. Seeds were collected from plants after 4-5 weeks.

#### **2.13.8 Selection of transformants**

Transformed lines were selected by sowing seeds in the MSR3 plates containing hygromycin (section 1.2.2.2 and 1.2.2.3) to select T-DNA insertion. Transformants which showed normal root development were then transferred to individual pots containing compost.

# **2.14 Sequencing**

Plasmid DNA for sequencing was isolated by the mini prep method (Section 2.6.2). All sequencing reactions were performed by Eurofins Genomics, Germany. DNA sequence data was analysed using BLAST 2 sequencing tool [\(www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/bl2seq\)](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/bl2seq).

# **Chapter 3 Role of NO in root growth and gravitropism**

As discussed in the introduction (section 1.3.1), gravitropism plays a crucial role in causing plant organs to grow in the correct orientation during the early stage of seed germination. It facilitates the roots to grow downwards and the shoots upward. NO plays an important role in plant root development, so it is important to understand the role of NO in the important phenomenon of gravitropism. To achieve this, the following were investigated.

- 1. The gravitropic response of Wildtype (Col-0) and auxin, ethylene, NR mutants over different time intervals.
- 2. The pattern of NO accumulation in the bending zone of wildtype and auxin mutant roots.
- 3. The expression of *NIA1* gene in seedlings during gravitropism.
- 4. The gravitropic root bending response in Col-0 treated with auxin, ethylene and NO donors.

# 3.1 **Gravitropic response in wild type and mutants**

To examine the gravitropic response in the wildtype (Col-0) and auxin mutants (*aux1, axr2* and *axr3*), ethylene mutants (*ein3-1 and EIN3OX*) and NR mutants (*nia1, nia2*), seeds were sown on MSR3 plates and allowed to grow for five days in the growth chamber. After five days, plates were turned by  $90^{\circ}$  vertically and allowed to gravistimulate in the dark. Photographs were taken at different times after gravistimulation (2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 24 h), and root bending was measured and analysed.

# **3.1.1 Gravitropic response in wild type and auxin mutants (Col-0,** *aux1***,** *axr2* **and**  *axr3***)**

The effect of gravity on root bending in wildtype and auxin mutants were analysed, (Fig. 3-1 A). Col-0 seedling roots responded to gravity and bend towards the gravity vector, bending was visible after 2 h of gravistimulation and reached the maximum at 24 h. In contrast, auxin mutants *aux1, axr2* and *axr3* did not respond to the gravistimulation (Fig. 3-1 B, C and D). The *axr3* seedlings have a much shorter root length as compared to *aux1, axr2*. Even though *aux1, axr2* roots did not respond to gravity signals, root coiling was observed from the beginning, whereas Col-0 root grows downwards.



## **Figure 3-1: Col-0 Wild type root showed gravitropic bending but not the auxin mutants**

(Scale bar – 0.5 mm). Col-0 wild type and auxin mutants (*aux1*, *axr*2 and *axr3*) were germinated on MSR3 plates in 12 h photoperiod at  $20^{\circ}$ C and 60% relative humidity. After 5 days past germination, seedlings were gravistimulated by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90°.

# 3.2 **Visualization of NO during gravitropism**

To observe the location of NO produced in plant roots, a NO-specific dye, DAF-2DA was used. This dye will bind with NO and emit fluorescence under the laser confocal microscope (excitation; 495 nm and emission; 515 nm). The fluorescence intensity was directly proportional to the cumulative amount of NO in the root during the gravistimulation. The experiment was designed in such a way to compare the NO synthesis and accumulation during gravitropism. To do that a set of seedlings were treated with cPTIO (NO scavenger) so that it will remove the already synthesized NO from the root. The experiment was done with both cPTIO treated and untreated, gravistimulated and nongravistimulated roots.

# **3.2.1 Gravistimulation induces asymmetric accumulation of NO in Col-0**

Gravistimulation induced the asymmetric accumulation of NO in the bending zone of the Col-0 root (Fig. 3-2 A and B). When the roots were pre-treated with the NO scavenger cPTIO and allowed to respond to gravity, the observed level of fluorescence was reduced throughout the root compared to cPTIO untreated gravistimulated root. In both cases, accumulation of NO was observed in the lower side of the bending region of the root (Fig. 3-2 B). Whereas in non-gravistimulated root (Fig. 3-2 C) and cPTIO pre-treated nongravistimulated root (Fig. 3-2 D) asymmetric accumulation was not found. Equal amounts of fluorescence were observed in upper and lower side of the root. These results demonstrate that gravistimulation induced synthesis and asymmatric accumulation of NO in the lower side of the bending root.





Seeds of Col-0 were germinated and grown in MSR3 plates placed vertically in the growth chamber in 12 h photoperiod at  $20^{\circ}$ C and 60% humidity. After 5 days, the seedlings were gravistimulated for 2 h by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90<sup>°</sup>. For control to remove the initial NO, 100  $\mu$ M cPTIO was applied on the roots by using a micropipette and incubate at dark for 5 min, then gravistimulated for 2 h. Then 20  $\mu$ M NO specific dye DAF-2DA was applied to the roots and incubated in dark for 20 min further, then seedlings were washed three times with fresh MES buffer and samples were observed by confocal microscopy for the presence of NO. Confocal images were obtained from root tip. Fig. 3-2 A gravistimulated Col-0 root. B, gravistimulated cPTIO pretreated Col-0 root. C, non-gravistimulated Col-0 root. D, non-gravistimulated cPTIO pretreated Col-0 root. Excitation 495 nm, emission 515 nm, gain- 4.5, exposures- 35 µs (Scale bar, 50.49 µm). (n=3). II. Fluorescence intensity/pixel was measured using Fiji image analysis software. All data are given as mean± SE; n=5/seedling.

#### **3.2.2** *aux1* **produced ubiquitous amount of NO**

Gravistimulated agravitropic auxin mutant *aux1* root showed elevated levels of NO fluorescence in the root (Fig. 3-3 A). It did not show asymmetrical accumulation of NO upon gravistimulation like Col-0. cPTIO pre-treated gravistimulated root showed reduced level of NO (Fig. 3-3 B). Non-gravistimulated *aux1* root (Fig. 3-3 C) also showed the elevated level of NO fluorescence like *aux1* gravistimulated root. Non-gravistimulated cPTIO pre-treated root showed reduced level of NO (Fig. 3-3 D). These results demonstrate that *aux1* mutant root makes more NO at all the times, but NO does not accumulate asymmetrically in the lower side of the root in response to gravity.





#### **Figure 3-3:** *aux1* **root showed increased NO.**

Seeds of *aux1* were germinated and grown in MSR3 plates placed vertically in the growth chamber in 12 h photoperiod at  $20^{\circ}$ C and 60% humidity. After 5 days, the seedlings were gravistimulated for 2 h by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90<sup>o</sup>. For control to remove the initial NO, 100  $\mu$ M cPTIO was applied on the roots by using a micropipette and incubate at dark for 5 min, then gravistimulated for 2 h. then gravistimulated for 2 h. Then 20 µM NO specific dye DAF-2DA was applied to the roots and incubated in dark for 20 min further. Seedlings were washed three times with fresh MES buffer and samples were observed by confocal microscopy for the presence of NO. Fig. 3-3 A, gravistimulated *aux1* root. B, gravistimulated cPTIO pre-treated *aux1* root. C, nongravistimulated *aux1* root. D, non-gravistimulated cPTIO pretreated *aux1* root. Excitation 495 nm, emission 515 nm, gain- 4.5, exposures- 35 µs (Scale bar, 50.49 µm). II. Fluorescence intensity/pixel was measured using Fiji image analysis software. All data are given as mean± SE; n=5/seedling. Solution and the state of NO fluorescence intensity/pixel was measured and grown in MSR3 plates placed chamber in 12 h photoperiod at 20°C and 60% humidity. After 5 intervals of or 2 h by changing the direction of the pla

#### **3.2.3** *axr2* **auxin mutant makes elevated amount of NO**

Early auxin response mutant *axr2* also did not showed any difference in the level of NO fluorescence in gravistimulated and non-gravistimulated roots (Fig. 3-4 A and C). Both showed elevated level of fluorescence like *aux1* mutants. Gravistimulated cPTIO pretreated *axr2* root showed reduced and equal level of fluorescence in the upper and lower side of the root (Fig. 3-4 B), whereas non-gravistimulated, cPTIO pre-treated *axr2* root



#### **Figure 3-4:** *axr2* **root showed increased level of NO**

Seeds of *axr2* was germinated and grown in MSR3 plates placed vertically in the growth chamber in 12 h photoperiod at 20 $^{\circ}$ C and 60% relative humidity. After 5 days, the seedlings were gravistimulated for 2 h by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90 $^{\circ}$ . For control to remove the initial NO, 100  $\mu$ M cPTIO was applied on the roots by using a micropipette and incubate at dark for 5 min, then gravistimulated for 2 h. Then 20 µM NO specific dye DAF-2DA was applied to the roots and incubated in dark for 20 min further. Seedlings were washed three times with fresh MES buffer and samples were observed by confocal microscopy for the presence of NO. Fig. 3-4 A, gravistimulated *axr2*

root. B, gravistimulated cPTIO pretreated *axr2* root. C, non-gravistimulated *axr2* root. D, non-gravistimulated cPTIO pretreated *axr2* root excitation 495 nm, emission 515 nm, gain-4.5, exposures-35 µs (Scale bar, 50.49 µm). II. Fluorescence intensity/pixel was measured using Fiji image analysis software. All data are given as mean± SE; n=5/seedling.

# *3.2.4* **Effect of gravistimulation in auxin mutant** *axr3*

Gravistimulated *axr3* mutant root showed equal levels of NO fluorescence in the upper and lower side of root (Fig. 3-5 A). Non-gravistimulated root (Fig. 3-5 C), cPTIO pretreated gravistimulated and non-gravistimulated roots (Fig. 3-5 B and D) all showed very low levels of fluorescence.





**Figure 3-5: Confocal images of gravistimulated and non-gravistimulated** *axr3* **root**

Seeds of *axr3* were germinated and grown in MSR3 plates placed vertically in the growth chamber in 12 h photoperiod at  $20^{\circ}$ C and 60% humidity. After 5 days, the seedlings were gravistimulated for 2 h by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90<sup>°</sup>. For control to remove the initial NO, 100  $\mu$ M cPTIO was applied on the roots by using a micropipette and incubate at dark for 5 min, then gravistimulated for 2 h. Then 20  $\mu$ M NO specific dye DAF-2DA was applied to the roots and incubated in dark for 20 min further. Seedlings were washed three times with fresh MES buffer and samples were observed by confocal microscopy for the presence of NO. Fig. 3-5 A, gravistimulated *axr3* root. B, gravistimulated cPTIO pretreated *axr3* root. C, non-gravistimulated *axr3* root. D, nongravistimulated cPTIO pretreated *axr3* root. excitation 495 nm, emission 515 nm, gain- 4.5, exposures- 35 µs (Scale bar, 50.49 µm). II. Fluorescence intensity/pixel was measured using Fiji image analysis software. All data are given as mean± SE; n=5/seedling.

# 3.3 **Quantification of** *NIA1* **gene expression during gravitropism**

## **3.3.1 Isolation of RNA from Arabidopsis root (Col-0)**

Total RNA was isolated from the root tip (I), middle region (II) and hypocotyls region (III) of Col-0, *aux1* and *axr2* seedlings and 3 μg of RNA was electrophoresed in a 1% (w/v) agarose gel (Fig. 3-6). Results showed good quality of intact RNA. RNA was quantified by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm using a Nanodrop machine.



#### **Figure 3-6: Agarose gel electrophoresis of Col-0 RNA samples**

Lanes 1, 4, 7, 10, 13 and 16 represent the RNA from root tips (I), Lanes 2, 5, 8, 11, 14 and 17 represent the RNA from middle region (II). Lanes 3, 6, 9, 12, 15 and 18 represent the RNA from hypocotyls (III).

# **3.3.2 cDNA synthesis from Col-0,** *aux1 and axr2* **RNA samples**

cDNA was synthesized from 5 μg of RNA sample (as described in 2.7) with negative controls (template control (without RNA) and enzyme control (without RT enzyme). 0.3 ng of TRAF (Tumor necrosis Receptor Associate Factor) RNA was mixed with each sample during the reverse transcription which was used as an external normalisation control. Ten times the product was diluted and used as a template for further PCR reactions.

#### **3.3.3 PCR amplification of** *NIA1* **cDNA sequence from Col-0**

cDNA from root tip, middle region and hypocotyl region of Col-0 non-gravistimulated and gravistimulated (30 min, 1, 2, 4 and 6 h) seedlings was used for the PCR amplification of a transcript encoded by the *NIA1* gene. Results showed that all the samples were positive for the expression of *NIA1* gene and gave the expected amplicon size of 150bp (Fig. 3-7).



**Figure 3-7: Agarose gel image of amplification of** *NIA1* **from cDNA of Col-0**

cDNA from the Col-0 root samples were used to check the amplification for *NIA1* gene with *NIA1* primers. Lane M – 100 bp DNA ladder. Lanes 1-3 amplicons of NIA1 transcript from Col-0 non-gravistimulated and lanes 4-9 gravistimulated (30 min (4, 5, 6), 1 h (7, 8, 9) ) roots (root tip  $(1, 4, 7)$ , middle region  $(2, 5, 8)$  and hypocotyl region  $(3, 6, 9)$ ).

# **3.3.4 Quantification of NIA1 transcript by Q-RT-PCR**

To quantify the expression of *NIA1* gene transcript in roots during gravitropism, Q-RT-PCR was performed on total RNA extracted from the root regions (root tip, a middle region and hypocotyl region). RNA was extracted from Col-0, *aux1* and *axr2* nongravistimulated and gravistimulated roots. 5 µg of RNA was reverse transcribed with oligo dT, and 1 ng TRAF spike (Human Tumour Necrosis Receptor Associating Factor 1) used as an internal control. A 10 fold serially diluted M13 pBluescript $SK(+)$  plasmid was used as a standard. Samples were amplified using *NIA1* gene specific primers, TRAF primers and M13 primers (see Table 2.1). Individual sample expression was normalised against the internal TRAF spikes.

# **3.3.4.1 Col-0 root tip shows a gradual increase in NIA1 transcript 2 h after gravistimulation**

Gravistimulated Col-0 root tip Q-PCR analysis showed a gradual increase in NIA1 transcript over the first 2 h, NIA1 transcripts start to increase at 30 min after gravistimulation and showed a 3 fold increase at 2 h, where the gravity bending experiment also showed root bending at 2 h after gravistimulation (Fig. 3-1). After the initiation of root bending, the NIA1 transcript level starts to decrease (4 h) and after 6 h it showed 3.5 fold reduction in transcript level. In the elongation zone a similar NIA1 accumulation pattern was observed. This result clearly showed the accumulation NIA transcript in response to root gravitropism.





qPCR performed on RNA from Col-0 root tip (I), elongation (II) and hypocotyl regions (III). RNA was isolated from the seedlings with the different times of gravistimulation. Samples were analysed for the changes in NIA1 transcript level during the gravistimulation. All data are given as mean± SE; n=2.

# **3.3.4.2** *aux1* **root shows reduction of NIA1 transcript in response to gravistimulation**

The *aux1* root tip Q-PCR analysis showed non-gravistimulated *aux1* root has higher amount of NIA1 transcript. At 30 min after gravistimulation, a 2 fold reduction of NIA1 transcript level was observed but did not show major changes after the initial reduction. In contrast, elongation and hypocotyl regions did not show major changes in transcript level. In general, 3 fold higher NIA1 transcript levels were observed in the root tip, elongation zone and hypocotyl region than Col-0.



**Figure 3-9:** *aux1* **qPCR shows initial reduction of NIA1 transcript in response to gravity**

qPCR performed on RNA from *aux1* root tip (I), elongation (II) and hypocotyl regions (III). RNA was isolated from the seedlings with the different times of gravistimulation. Samples were analysed for the changes in NIA1 transcript level during the gravistimulation. All data are given as mean± SE; n=2.

## **3.3.4.3** *axr2* **root shows negligible amount of NIA1 expression in response to gravistimulation**

3.3.4.4 Gravistimulated *axr2* root tip Q-PCR analysis showed reduced amount of *NIA1* gene expression in root tip, where as in elongation zone transcript level was increased 5 fold at 30 min then it was decreased. In hypocotyl region NIA1 transcript level was increased at 2 h. In general *axr2* root tip, elongation and hypocotyl region NIA1 transcript level was 100 fold lower than *aux1*.



## **Figure 3-10:** *axr2* **showed lower levels of NIA1 transcript in root**

qPCR performed on RNA from *axr2* root tip (I), elongation (II) and hypocotyl regions (III). RNA was isolated from the seedlings with the different times of gravistimulation. Samples were analysed for the changes in NIA1 transcript level during the gravistimulation. All data are given as mean± SE; n=2.

#### **3.3.5 Roots of NR mutant** *nia1* **bend more slower than** *nia2* **and Col-0**

To investigate the importance of NR genes in root bending following gravistimulation, root bending was compared in *nia1*, *nia2* and Col-0 seedlings. *nia1* roots showed slower root bending than *nia2*, and both *nia1* and *nia2* showed much slower bending compared to Col-0 (Fig. 3-11 A). Bending in Col-0 visible 2 h after gravistimulation, whereas in *nia1* and *nia2* bending visible only after 4 h (Fig. 3-11 B). Two-way ANOVA analysis results (Fig. 3-11 A) (Appendix 1) showed that Col-0, *nia1* and *nia2* were significantly different from each other's in terms of over all root bending, also root bending was significantly inteact during the course of time. All Pairwise comparison (Table 6) was carried out for each simple main effect to check exactly which time point Col-0, *nia1* and *nia2* were significantly different from each other. Col-0 and *nia1* was significantly different at alltime points. *nia1 and nia2* were only significantly different at 2, 8 10 and 24 h, and they are not significantly different at 4 and 6 h. Col-0 and *nia2* was significantly different at 2, 4, 6, 8 and 24 h except 10 h. Statistical analysis by linear mixed model also showed significant level of difference in gravity bending between Col-0 and *nia1* (Fig. 3-12), Col-0 and *nia2* (Fig. 3-13) and *nia1* and *nia2* (Fig. 3-14), (Appendix 2 to 4).

<b>Plant type</b>	Over all	2 <sub>hr</sub>	4hr	6hr	8hr	10hr	24 <sub>hr</sub>
Col-0 vs nia1	∗	$\ast$	∗	∗	∗	∗	∗
nial vs nia2	∗	$\ast$	$\overline{\phantom{0}}$		∗	∗	∗
Col- $\theta$ vs nia2	$\ast$	*	$\ast$	∗	∗	$\overline{\phantom{0}}$	$\ast$

**Table 6: Pairwise comparition between Col-0,** *nia1* **and** *nia2*

\*- significantly different; - not significantly different.



## **Figure 3-11. Pair wise comparision of root bending in Col-0,** *nia1* **and** *nia2*

Over all root bending between Col-0 and *nia1* (I), Col-0 and *nia2* (II), *nia1* and *nia2* (III) were compared. Col-0, *nia1* and *nia2* were significantly different from each other in terms of root bending. All data are the mean of n=4 replicates ±SE.



**Figure 3-12: Overall root bending graph for Col-0,** *nia1* **and** *nia2*

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the difference between sample type (Col-0, *nia1* and *nia2*) and impact of time (2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 24 h) on gravity bending. Normality was assessed using Shapiro-Wilks test, samples were normally distributed ( $p > 0.05$ ). There was a statistically significant interaction between sample type and time interval on root bending F (10, 54) = 14.169,  $p = 0.0005$ . There was a statistically significant difference in main effect for sample type F (2, 54) = 224.782,  $p = 0.0005$  and overall time F (5, 54)  $=429.712$ , p = 0.0005.



**Figure 3-13: The** *nia1* **showed slower bending compared to the roots of Col-0 and** *nia2*

Col-0 wild type and *nia1* seedlings were grown in MSR3 plates under a 12 h photoperiod at 20°C and 60% relative humidity. After 5 d seedlings were gravistimulated by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90°. Photographs were taken at different time intervals, root curvature was measured. All data are the mean of n=4 replicates ±SE.



# **Figure 3-14: Comparison of root bending between Col-0 and** *nia1*

A

Root bending between Col-0 and *nia1* was analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 8 samples 1-4 are Col-0, 5-8 are *nia1*. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that *nia1* roots bend slower that Col-0 and showed significant difference between Col-0 and *nia1* in terms of gravity bending. p˂0.05. A and B raw data, C-fitted plot.



# **Figure 3-15: Comparison of root bending between Col-0 and** *nia2*

Root bending between Col-0 and *nia2* was analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 8 samples 1-4 are Col-0, 5-8 are *nia2*. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that *nia2* roots showed lesser bending than Col-0 and showed significant difference between Col-0 and *nia2* in terms of gravity bending. p˂0.05. A and B raw data, C-fitted plot.







# **Figure 3-16: Comparison of root bending between** *nia1* **and** *nia2*

Root bending between *nia1* and *nia2* were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 8 samples 1-4 are *nia1*, 5-8 are *nia2*. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that *nia2* roots bends slower than *nia1*. This model showed significant difference between these two plants in terms of gravity bending. p˂0.05 *nia1* n=4, *nia2* n=4. A and B raw data, C-fitted plot.

#### **3.3.6 Ethylene mutant showed slower root bending than Col-0**

To investigate the role of ethylene in root bending following gravistimulation, root bending was compared in ethylene mutants (*ein3-1* and *EIN3Ox*) and Col-0. Results showed both the ethylene mutants have a slower root bending than Col-0 (Fig. 3-15 A). When comparing the root bending between the mutants, ethylene over-expressing mutant *EIN3Ox* root showed slower and reduced root bending than ethylene insensitive mutant *ein3-1*. *EIN3Ox* mutant takes more than six hours to initiate root bending, hence the root bending starts around 8 h after gravistimulation, whereas in *ein3-1* mutant root bending started just 4 h after gravistimulation. Two-way ANOVA analysis results (Appendix 5) showed that Col-0, *ein3-1* and *EIN3Ox* were significantly different from each other's in terms of overall root bending, also root bending was significantly inteact during the course of time. All Pairwise comparison (Table 7) was carried out for each simple main effect to check exactly which time point Col-0, *ein3-1* and *EIN3Ox* significantly different from each other. Col-0 and *ein3-1* was significantly different at 2, 4, 6, 8 h not differ at 10 & 24 h. *ein3-1* and *ein30x* was significantly different at 4, 8, 10, 24 h. Col-0 and *EIN3Ox* was significantly different at all time points. Statistical analysis using a linear mixed effect model also showed a significant difference in bending between Col-0 and *ein3-1* (Fig. 3- 16), Col-0 and EIN3Ox (Fig. 3-17) and *ein3-1* and EIN3Ox (Fig. 3-18), (Appendix 6 to 8).





\*- significantly different; - not significantly different.



**Figure 3-17. Pair wise comparision of root bending in Col-0,** *ein3-1* **and EIN3Ox**

Over all root bending between Col-0 and *ein3-1* (I), Col-0 and EIN3Ox (II), *ein3-1* and EIN3Ox (III) were compared. Col-0, *ein3-1* and EIN3Ox were significantly different from each other in terms of root bending. All data are the mean of n=4 replicates ±SE.



#### **Figure 3-18: Overall root bending graph for Col-0,** *ein3-1* **and EIN30X**

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the difference between sample type (Col-0, *ein3-1* and EIN30X) and impact of time (2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 24 h) on gravity bending. Normality was assessed using Shapiro wilks test, samples were normally distributed ( $p >$ 0.05). There was a statistically significant interaction between sample type and time interval on root bending F (10, 42) = 11.34,  $p = 0.0005$ . There was a statistically significant difference in main effect for sample type F  $(2, 42)$  = 353.233, p = 0.0005 and overall time F  $(5, 42) = 278.723$ ,  $p = 0.0005$ .



Time after gravistimulation (h)



The ein3-1 and EIN3Ox seedlings were grown in MSR3 plates in 12 h photoperiod at 20°C and 60% relative humidity. After 5 d seedlings were gravistimulated by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by  $90^\circ$ . Photographs were taken at different time intervals, root curvature was measured. All data are the mean of n=3 replicates ±SE.



**Figure 3-20: Comparison of root bending between Col-0 and** *ein3-1*

Root bending between Col-0 and *ein3-1* were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 7 samples 1-4 are Col-0, 5-7 are *ein3-1*. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that *ein3-1* roots bend slower than Col-0. This model showed significant difference between these two plants in terms of gravity bending. p˂0.05. A and B raw data, C-fitted plot



#### **Figure 3-21: Comparison of root bending between Col-0 and** *EIN3Ox*

Root bending between Col-0 and *EIN3Ox* were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 7 samples 1-4 are Col-0, 5-7 are *EIN3Ox*. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that *EIN3Ox* roots bend slower than Col-0. This model showed significant difference between these two plants in terms of gravity bending. p˂0.05. A and B raw data, Cfitted plot



A **B C**

**Figure 3-22: Comparison of root bending between** *ein3-1* **and** *EIN3Ox*

Root bending between ein3-1and *ein3ox* were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 6 samples 1-3 are *ein3-1*, 5-7 are *EIN3Ox*. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that *EIN3Ox* roots bend slower than ein3-1. This model showed significant difference between these two plants in terms of gravity bending. p˂0.05. A and B raw data, C-fitted plot



# **Figure 3-23: Comparison of root bending between** *nia1* **and** *ein3-1*

Root bending between *ein3-1* and *nia1*were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 7 samples 1-4 are *nia1*, 5-7 are *ein3-1*. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that *ein3-1* roots bend slower than *nia1* initially, but later bending was faster than nia1. This model showed significant difference between these two plants in terms of gravity bending. p˂0.05 A and B raw data, C-fitted plot



**B C**

**Figure 3-24: Comparison of root bending between** *nia1* **and** *EIN3Ox*

A

Root bending between *ein3-1* and *ein3ox* were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 7 samples 1-4 are *nia1*, 5-7 are *EIN3Ox*. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that *EIN3Ox* roots bend slower than *nia1*. This model showed significant difference between these two plants in terms of gravity bending. p˂0.05. A and B raw data, C-fitted plot

# 3.4 **Effect of exogenous application of hormone in gravitropism**

#### **3.4.1 NAA increases the rate of gravitropic bending in Col-0**

To investigate the effect of auxin during gravitropism, Col-0 seedlings root were pretreated with 0.1 µM of membrane permeable auxin NAA, NAA was applied on the root by micro-pipette, and then seedlings were subjected to gravistimulation. Photographs were taken at different time intervals (2, 4, 6, 8, 24 h). In this experiment the root bending was measured in Col-0, Col-0 pre-treated with the NO scavenger cPTIO, Col-0 pre-treated with NAA and Col-0 pre-treated with cPTIO and NAA. The results (Fig. 3-21 B) showed gravity induced root bending in Col-0, with a rate of bending that was increased in response to time. Bending starts at 2 h after the gravistimulation and reaches  $90^{\circ}$  around 24 h. Removal of NO by cPTIO reduced the root bending but did not completely inhibit, suggest that NO is not required to initiate root bending, but increases the rate of root bending. Following external application of 0.1  $\mu$ m NAA, root bending was not observed at 2 h, but the root started to bend around 4 h and was increased at 6 h compared to control after gravistimulation. Application of NAA after removing the initial endogenous NO by cPTIO led to greater degree of root bending compared to treatment with cPTIO alone. Roots that had been treated with NAA produced more root hairs (Fig. 3-25 A) in the bending region.



Figure 3-25 A: Application of NAA produced more root hairs in bending zone.

Treatment	pairwise	@2h	@4h	@6h	@8h	@24h
Col-0 vs cPTIO treated	*	$*$				*
Col-0 vs NAA treated		$\ast$			∗	
Col-0 vs cPTIO+NAA treated	$\ast$	$\ast$			$\overline{\phantom{0}}$	
cPTIO treated vs NAA treated	$\ast$	$\ast$		$\ast$	$\ast$	
cPTIO treated vs cPTIO+NAA		$\ast$				
treated						
NAA treated vs cPTIO+NAA treated		$\ast$			$\ast$	

**Table 8: Pairwise wise comparison for Col-0 treated with NAA, cPTIO and NAA+cPTIO** 

\*- significantly different; - not significantly different.

Two-way ANOVA analysis results (Fig. 3-21 B) (Appendix 11) showed that Col-0, Col-0 treated with NAA, Col-0 treated with cPTIO and Col-0 treated with NAA and cPTIO were significantly different from each other's in terms of overall root bending, also root bending was significantly inteact at certain time poins. All Pairwise comparison (Table 8) was carried out for each simple main effect to check exactly which time point Col-0, NAA treated, cPTIO treated and both cPTIO and NAA treated significantly different from each other. Col-0 significantly different from cPTIO treated and both cPTIO and NAA treated, but not different from NAA treated alone. cPTIO treated is significantly different from NAA treated but not different from both cPTIO and NAA treated, NAA treated is not significantly different from both cPTIO and NAA treated. At 2 h all pairs were significantly different. At 4 h none of the pairs were significantly different. At 6 h cPTIO treated was significantly different from NAA treated. At 8 h NAA treated was significantly different from Col-0, cPTIO treated, and both NAA and cPTIO treated. At 24 h Col-0 was significantly different from cPTIO treated, all other pairs were not significantly different. Linear mixed effect model analysis also showed significant differences in gravity bending among the treatments (Fig. 3-22), (Appendix 12).


## **Figure 3-26 B: Overall root bending graph for Col-0 treated with NAA, cPTIO and NAA+cPTIO**

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the difference between treatments (Col-0(control), cPTIO treated, NAA treated, cPTIO+NAA treated samples) and impact of time (2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 24 h) treatment on gravity bending. Normality was assessed using Shapiro wilks test, samples were normally distributed ( $p > 0.05$ ). There was a statistically significant interaction between treatment and time interval on root bending F (12, 60) = 9.288,  $p =$ 0.0005. There was a statistically significant difference in main effect for treatment F (3, 60)  $= 14.517$ , p = 0.0005 and overall time F (4, 60) = 264.411, p = 0.0005.



Time after gravistimulation (h)

## **Figure 3-27: External application of NAA increased the root bending**

Col-0 seedlings were germinated and grown in MSR3 plates in 12 h photoperiod at 20 $^{\circ}$ C and 60% relative humidity. Five days after germination, roots were incubated with 0.1 µM NAA, and then seedlings were gravistimulated by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90°. Photographs were taken at time intervals and root curvature was measured. All data are the mean ±SE of n=4 replicates.



**Figure 3-28: Analysis of the effect of externally applied NAA on root gravitropism** 

Effect of external application of NAA on Col-0 root gravitropic bending in the presence and absence of NO scavenger cPTIO were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 16 samples 1-4 are Col-0, 5-8 Col-0+NAA 9-12 are Col-0+cPTIO 13- 16 are Col-0+cPTIO+NAA. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that significant difference in root bending in the cPTIO applied Col-0, NAA applied Col-0 and both cPTIO and NAA applied Col-0 seedlings. A-raw data, B-fitted plot.

#### **3.4.2 ACC increases the root gravitropic response**

To investigate the effect of ethylene during gravitropism, seedlings root were treated with 25 µM of the ethylene precursor ACC and then subjected to gravistimulation. ACC was applied on the root by micro-pipette, and then seedlings were subjected to gravistimulation. Photographs were taken at time intervals (2, 4, 6, 8, 24 h). In this experiment the root bending curvature was measured in Col-0, Col-0 pre-treated with cPTIO, Col-0 pre-treated with ACC and Col-0 pre-treated with cPTIO and ACC. The results (Fig. 3-23 A & B) showed that roots treated with ACC did not start bending at 2 h, but increased the root bending around 4 h and subsequently slowed down at 6, 8, 24 h. External application of ACC reduced the most of root bending, whereas application of ACC after removing the initial endogenous NO using cPTIO showed increased root bending compared to wildtype treatment with cPTIO alone or with ACC alone (except at 24 h). These results showed that application of both cPTIO and ACC increased root bending (except at 24 h). This suggests that in the presence of NO, ethylene negatively regulates root gravitropism, whereas in the absence of NO, ethylene positively regulates gravitropism.

Treatment	overall	@2h	@4h	@6h	@8h	@24 h
Col-0 vs cPTIO treated	*	∗				
Col-0 vs ACC treated	ж	∗				∗
$Col-0$ vs $cPTIO+ACC$ treated	ж	*				
cPTIO treated vs ACC treated		ж	$\ast$			
cPTIO treated vs cPTIO+ACC treated		×				
$ACC$ treated vs $cPTIO+ACC$ treated		*				

**Table 9: Pairwise wise comparison for Col-0 treated with ACC, cPTIO and ACC+cPTIO** 

\*- significantly different; - not significantly different.

Two-way ANOVA analysis results (Appendix 13) showed that Col-0, Col-0 treated with ACC, Col-0 treated with cPTIO and Col-0 treated with both ACC and cPTIO were significantly different from each other's in terms of overall root bending, also root bending was significantly inteact at certain time poins. All Pairwise comparison was carried out for each simple main effect to check exactly which time point Col-0, ACC treated, cPTIO treated and both cPTIO and ACC treated significantly different from each other. Col-0 significantly different from cPTIO treated, ACC treated and both cPTIO and NAA treated. But cPTIO treated was not different from ACC treated and both ACC and cPTIO treated. ACC treated was significantly different from both ACC and cPTIO treated. At 2 h all pairs were significantly different. At 4 h cPTIO treated was significantly different from ACC treated and both ACC and cPTIO treated. At 6 h and 8 h only cPTIO treated was significantly different from ACC treated, both ACC and cPTIO treated. At 24 h Col-0 was significantly different from cPTIO treated, ACC treated, and both ACC and cPTIO treated. Linear mixed effect model analysis also showed significant difference in gravity bending among the treatments (Fig. 3-24), (Appendix 14).



**Figure 3-29: Overall root bending graph for Col-0 treated with ACC, cPTIO and ACC+cPTIO**

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the difference between treatments (Col-0(control), cPTIO treated, ACC treated, cPTIO+ACC treated samples) and impact of time (2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 24 h) treatment on gravity bending. Normality was assessed using Shapiro wilks test, samples were normally distributed ( $p > 0.05$ ). There was a statistically significant interaction between treatment and time interval on root bending F (12, 60) = 8.818, p = 0.0005. There was a statistically significant difference in main effect for treatment F (3, 60) = 15.689,  $p = 0.0005$  and overall time F (4, 60) = 179.246,  $p = 0.0005$ .



Time after gravistimulation (h)

**Figure 3-30: External application of ACC alone slows root bending. However in the presence of NO scavenger cPTIO, ACC increases the root gravitropic response**

Col-0 seedlings were germinated and grown in MSR3 plates in 12 h photoperiod at 20 $^{\circ}$ C and 60% relative humidity. Five days after germination, roots were incubated with 25  $\mu$ M ACC, and then seedlings were gravistimulated by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90 $^{\circ}$ . Photographs were taken at time intervals and root curvature was



**Figure 3-31: Analysis of the effect of externally applied ACC on root gravitropism** 

Effect of external application of ACC on Col-0 root gravitropic bending in the presence and absence of NO scavenger cPTIO were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 16 samples 1-4 are Col-0, 5-8 Col-0+ACC 9-12 are Col-0+cPTIO 13- 16 are Col-0+cPTIO+ACC. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that significant difference in root bending in the cPTIO applied Col-0, ACC applied Col-0 and both cPTIO and ACC applied Col-0 seedlings. A-raw data, B-fitted plot.

#### **3.4.3 The NO donor SNAP increases the root gravitropic response**

To investigate the effect of NO during gravitropism, seedlings roots were treated with the 50 µM of NO donor SNAP. SNAP was applied on the root by micro-pipette, and then seedlings were subjected to gravistimulation. Photographs were taken at time intervals (2, 4, 6, 8, 24 h). External application of 50 µm SNAP increased the degree of root bending during gravistimulation (Fig. 3-25). Initially NO increases root bending (4, 6, 8 h) and then decrease root bending (at 24 h). Application of SNAP after removing the initial endogenous NO by using cPTIO showed faster root bending compared to roots treated with cPTIO alone, but slower than roots treated with SNAP alone.

Treatment	overall	@2h	@4h	@6h	@8h	@24h
Col-0 vs cPTIO treated	*	$\ast$	$\ast$			∗
Col-0 vs SNAP treated	*		$\ast$	*	∗	
Col-0 vs cPTIO+SNAP treated		∗		*	∗	
cPTIO treated vs SNAP treated	*		$\ast$	*	∗	
cPTIO treated vs cPTIO+SNAP treated	$\ast$		$\ast$	*	∗	
SNAP treated vs cPTIO+SNAP treated						

**Table 10: Pairwise wise comparison for Col-0 treated with SNAP, cPTIO and SNAP+cPTIO**

\*- significantly different; - not significantly different.

Two-way ANOVA analysis results (Appendix 15) showed that Col-0, Col-0 treated with SNAP, Col-0 treated with cPTIO and Col-0 treated with both SNAP and cPTIO were significantly different from each other's in terms of overall root bending, also root bending was significantly inteact at certain time poins. All Pairwise comparison was carried out for each simple main effect to check exactly which time point Col-0, SNAP treated, cPTIO treated and both cPTIO and SNAP treated significantly different from each other. Col-0 significantly different from cPTIO treated, SNAP treated but not different from both cPTIO and SNAP treated. cPTIO treated was significantly different from SNAP treated and both SNAP and cPTIO treated. SNAP treated was not significantly different from both SNAP and cPTIO treated. At 2 h Col-0 significantly different from cPTIO treated and both SNAP and cPTIO treated. At 4 h Col-0 significantly different from cPTIO treated and SNAP treated alone. But not different from both SNAP and cPTIO treated. cPTIO treated was significantly different from SNAP treated and both SNAP and cPTIO treated. At 6 h and 8 h Col-0 is significantly different from SNAP treated and both SNAP and cPTIO treated but not in cPTIO

alone treated, cPTIO treated is significantly different from SNAP treated alone and both cPTIO and SNAP treated, SNAP treated is not different from both cPTIO and SNAP treated. At 24 h Col-0 was significantly different from cPTIO treated, all other pairs were not significantly different. Linear mixed effect model analysis also showed significant difference in gravity bending among the treatments (Fig 3-26), (Appendix 16).



**Figure 3-32: Overall root bending graph for Col-0 treated with SNAP, cPTIO and SNAP+cPTIO**

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the difference between treatments (Col-0 (control), cPTIO treated, SNAP treated, cPTIO+SNAP treated samples) and impact of time (2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 24 h) treatment on gravity bending. Normality was assessed using Shapiro wilks test, samples were normally distributed ( $p > 0.05$ ). There was a statistically significant interaction between treatment and time interval on root bending F (12, 60) = 6.198,  $p =$ 0.0005. There was a statistically significant difference in main effect for treatment F (3, 60)  $= 15.282$ , p = 0.0005 and overall time F (4, 60) = 271.156, p = 0.0005.



Time after gravistimulation (h)

## **Figure 3-33: External application of NO donor SNAP increases the degree of root bending**

Col-0 seedlings were germinated and grown in MSR3 plates in 12 h photoperiod at 20 $^{\circ}$ C and 60% relative humidity. Five days after germination, roots were incubated with 50 µM SNAP and then seedlings were gravistimulated by changing the direction of the plate (Horizantal orientation) by 90°. Photographs were taken at time intervals and root curvature was measured. All data are the mean ± SE of n=4 replicates.



**Figure 3-34: Analysis of the effect of externally applied ACC on root gravitropism** 

Effect of external application of ACC on Col-0 root gravitropic bending in the presence and absence of NO scavenger cPTIO were analysed statistically by Linear mixed-effects model. Curvature versus time for the 16 samples 1-4 are Col-0, 5-8 Col-0+SNAP 9-12 are Col-0+cPTIO 13- 16 are Col-0+cPTIO+SNAP. The fitted relationships are shown from the minimum adequate mixed-effect model. These demonstrate that significant difference in root bending in the cPTIO applied Col-0, ACC applied Col-0 and both cPTIO and ACC applied Col-0 seedlings. A-raw data, B-fitted plot

# 3.5 **Discussion**

Roots are a vital part of the plant since these aid the uptake of water and nutrients from the soil, as well as providing anchorage to the plant. A full understanding of the developmental and signalling mechanism of the root will help us to improve the yield and biotic and abiotic stress tolerance in plants by modifying the genetic makeup of the plant.

Nitric oxide plays many important physiological roles in the plant development. It also interacts with the other plant hormones like auxin, ethylene and abscisic acid. Through understanding of the exact mechanism of nitric oxide signalling and interaction, understanding of its role in the plant root development can be improved.

## **3.5.1 Defects in auxin transport signal affects gravity sensing and response**

Gravistimulation experiments clearly showed Col-0 roots respond to gravity and start to bend upon receiving the gravity signals. Bending was visible to the naked eye after around 2 h, and reached nearly 90° angle around 24 h after gravistimulation. As expected (Bennett *et al.,* 1996; Timpte *et al.,* 1994; Leyser *et al.,* 1996) roots of the auxin mutants *aux1* (auxin transport mutant), *axr2*, and *axr3* (auxin signalling mutant) did not respond to gravity signals. The *axr3* root was short and slow growing as compared to *aux1* and *axr2*. *axr3* root also did not respond to gravitropic signals. Non-gravity response of auxin mutants *aux1*, *axr2* and *axr3* were already reported by Marchant *et al.,* 1999; Wilson *et al.,* 1990; Leyser *et al.,* 1996, present study result also supports that mutation in auxin signalling severely affects the gravity sensing and response. Other than the agravitropic phenotype, *aux1* and *axr2* roots were coiled during the early growth period. This experiment suggests that *aux1* and *axr2* roots also do bend continuously to make a root coil, and this root bending is not related to gravity, and the direction of bending was very random. Also, the time required for each coiling was unknown. This coiling in the auxin

mutant raises questions about the role of auxin in root bending. Ethylene-induced root coiling has been demonstrated in tomato seedlings by Woods *et al.* (1994), who also reported an increased number of coils with increased ethylene concentration. However they failed to induce root coiling in the agravitropic mutant *dgt,* even at a higher ethylene concentration. They concluded that the coiling of roots is not related to gravitropism. *dgt* is less sensitive to auxin. They also found no root coiling in *dgt* in the absence of ethylene. In the experiments reported here, agravitropic auxin mutants exhibited root coiling. This may be because a defect in auxin transport/synthesis induces root coiling or it increases endogenous ethylene levels.

#### **3.5.2 Gravitropism induces asymmetric accumulation of NO**

Detection of NO using confocal microscopy showed gravistimulation induces the asymmetric accumulation of NO in the lower side of the bending zone of Col-0 roots. Gravity induced asymmetric accumulation of NO in the lower side of the bending zone of the root has been demonstrated by Hu *et al.* (2005) in maize and soybean root. Nongravitropic auxin mutants *aux1, axr2 and axr3* did not show asymmetric accumulation of NO in the bending zone, but *aux1* and *axr2* showed elevated level of NO in both gravistimulated and non-gravistimulated roots, whereas *axr3* did not produce much NO in their roots. This study suggests that defects in auxin transport, signalling or response affect NO synthesis during gravitropism and there is a strong interaction between nitric oxide signalling and auxin signalling in plant roots. Hu *et al.* (2005) also suggest that auxin induces the asymmetric accumulation of nitric oxide. current experiments showed gravity induced the accumulation of NO in the lower side of *Arabidopsis* root.

## **3.5.3 NIA1 transcript levels increase during gravistimulation**

Nitrate reductase (NR) mediated NO synthesis occurs in roots (Kolbert and Erdei, 2008). Amplification of *NIA1* transcript from the mRNA of gravistimulated and nongravistimulated Col-0 root samples demonstrated the expression of *NIA1* gene in the root tip, middle region of roots. These results suggest that the *NIA1* gene is expressed in all the parts of the root. Expression of the *NIA1* gene in the non-gravistimulated root revealed that NO is not only involved in the gravitropic response, it is likely to have other basic physiological roles in the development of roots. Few example, Pagnussat *et al.* (2002) demonstrated that NO induces adventitious root formation in cucumber.

Q-PCR results from non-gravistimulated and gravistimulated Col-0 root tips showed a gradual increase in the NIA1 transcript level of about 3 fold after 2 h of gravistimilation. Confocal experiments also showed asymmetric accumulation of NO in the lower side of the Col-0 root at 2 h after gravistimulation. This increased NO accumulation initiates gravitropic root bending at 2 h. After initiating bending, the NIA1 transcript level gradually decreased 3.5 fold after 6 h. Taken together these result support the involvement of *NIA1-*mediated NO synthesis during gravitropic root bending.

The *aux1* root tip contains higher levels of NIA1 transcript than Col-0 at 0 h, NIA1 transcript was attenuated two fold at 30 min and remaining constant till 24 h. Elongation and hypocotyl root zones did not show much change in response to gravity. *aux1* NO levels were higher at all times than in Col-0 and *aux1* seedlings produced 3 fold more NIA1 transcript than Col-0. In contrast, in *axr2* the level of NIA1 transcript was 100 fold lower than *aux1*. At the same time, *axr2* root confocal images showed equal fluorescence to *aux1* root, which suggests that there is a weak correlation between the transcript level and the protein level. There is a possibility that a low level of mRNA is more preferentially translated to an abundant level of functional protein, or the protein has increased stability or a reduced rate of degradation or greater activity in *axr2* than in *aux1*.

#### **3.5.4** *NIA1* **is involved in gravity mediated root bending**

The degree of root bending in gravistimulated Col-0, *nia1* and *nia2 Arabidopsis* seedlings were measured and analysed. The results showed *nia1* seedling bend more slowly in response to gravity than Col-0 and *nia2*. Results from confocal and QPCR also demonstrate the NIA1 mediated NO role in gravity bending.

## **3.5.5 Ethylene response reduces degree of root bending**

The degree of root bending in gravistimulated Col-0, *ein3-1* and *EIN3OX* was investigated. Ethylene insensitive mutant e*in3-1* showed reduced root bending than wild type, whereas the ein3 over producing transgenic line *EIN3OX* showed severely reduced root bending and slower gravity response. Ethylene insensitivity and ethylene response lines showed a similar effect, reduced root bending compared to Col-0, but the intensity of gravity bending was was very less incase of *EIN3OX.*

#### **3.5.6 Externally applied NAA, SNAP increase root bending but not ACC**

To determine the effect of auxin, NO and ethylene on gravity bending, curvature of roots after application of NAA, SNAP and ACC was analysed. Application of NAA and SNAP increased root bending, whereas ACC decreased the root bending. However the application of ACC after removing the NO increased the gravity bending. Buer *et al.* (2006) also reported that the external application of the ethylene precursor ACC to Col-0 seedlings reduced the root elongation and gravitropic curvature. The current experiment also showed external application of ACC reduced the gravitropic curvature. These results suggest that in the presence of NO, ethylene negatively regulates the gravity stimulated bending and in the absence of NO, ethylene positively regulates the root bending.

The aim of the next chapter is to make a NIA1 transcriptional and translational reporter construct with mGFP4 reporter gene to study the expression pattern and subcellular localization of *NIA1* gene in Arabidopsis wild type and mutant seedlings in response to gravity.

# **Chapter 4 Transgenic approach to investigate** *NIA1* **gene expression**

Nitric oxide (NO) plays numerous physiological and developmental roles in plants. NO is synthesized in both an enzymatic and non-enzymatic way. In Arabidopsis, nitrate reductase (NR) activity is one of the enzymatic sources. This enzyme is encoded by two isoform genes namely *Nia1* and *Nia2*. Studies by Kolbert *et al.* (2008) showed that NR genes are the main source of NO for lateral root development. Of these two isoforms, *NIA1* plays the most significant role in NO synthesis (Wilson *et al.,* 2008). Experiments in guard cells have shown the importance of the *NIA1*-mediated NO response during stomatal closure. Most studies the localization of NO in plants is detected by treating the samples with the cell-permeable dye DAF-2DA, which binds NO and is then visualized using a fluorescence microscope. Experiments by Planchet and Kaiser (2006) questioned the specificity of DAF-2DA fluorescence for NO and suggested that other DAF reactive compounds may be present in cells. Another way to understand the expression pattern and localization of individual genes is by making reporter constucts in transgenic plants. Transcriptional and translational fusion of *NIA1-mGFP4* reporter construct was made to study the expression pattern, localization of NO and its interaction with other plant hormones auxin and ethylene.

To achieve this aim, the following cloning work was carried out and presented in this chapter.

- 1. Cloning of the CaMV35S-mGFP4 construct
- 2. Cloning of mGFP4 gene in frame with 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter and 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter with 3.5 kb gene.
- 3. Floral tip transformation of these constructs with Arabidopsis wild type, auxin, ethylene and NR mutants.
- 4. Analysis of the transgenic plants to detect expression of the mGFP4 gene.

# **4.1 Making of 35S-mGFP4 construct**

**4.1.1 Transformation of pGreen35S-mGFP4 plasmid into competent cells of** *E. coli* pGreen plasmid DNA containing the 35S-mGFP4 cassette (Fig. 4-1) was received from John Innescentre (Norwich, UK). Plasmid DNA was diluted 1/100 times and 2 µl was used to transform competent cells of *E. coli,* DH5α. Transformed colonies were short streaked (See Fig. 2-5 in M&M) on LB ampicillin plates. Plasmid DNA was isolated from a single colony of transformed *E. coli* grown in LB ampicillin broth. Quantification of plasmid was done by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm using a Nanodrop.



**Figure 4-1: 35S mGFP4 cassette from pGreen 35S-GFP plasmid** 

The mGFP4 gene shown here in the cassette was a modified GFP developed by Haseloff *et al.* (1997). While expressing the wild type GFP from jellyfish (*Aequorea victoria*) in *A. thaliana*, GFP coding sequence was cleaved, because sequence of GFP is similar to the plant introns recognition site. These cryptic introns in the wild type GFP was removed by codon usage and successfully expressed in the model plant *Arabidopsis.*



## **Figure 4-2: Restriction digestion to release 35S-mGFP4 fragment**

2 µg of pGreen 35S-mGFP4 plasmid were digested with 20 ∪ of *EcoRV* - HF™ enzyme at 37°C for 1 h and then digested products were separated in 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel. The CaMV35S-mGFP4 band was purified using QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen) for further cloning. Lane 1, HyperLadder-1 (Bioline); lane 2, blank; lane 3, *EcoRV* digested PGreen 35SmGFP4 Plasmid showed the cleaved cassette.

## **4.1.2 Cloning of pGreen35S-mGFP4 cassette into pG0179 Vector**

pGreen 35S-mGFP4 plasmid DNA was digested with *EcoRV* and the cleaved product separated by 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel electrophoresis. The 1400 bp 35S-mGFP4 cassette and plasmid backbone can be seen in (Fig. 4-2).

The 35S-mGFP4 fragment was purified from the gel and then ligated with pG0179 vector digested with *EcoRV* (1:1 molar ratio). 10 µl of ligated product was transformed into DH5α *E. coli* competent cells by the heat shock method and spread onto LB Kan X-Gal-IPTG plates for blue white screening. Recombinant colonies appeared white, whereas nonrecombinant formed blue colonies. White colonies were selected and short streaked on LB Kanamycin plates.

#### **4.1.3 Selection of** *E. coli* **transformants harbouring pG35S-mGFP4**

## **4.1.3.1 Screening of** *E. coli* **transformants by colony PCR**

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The presence of the 35S-mGFP4 cassette in pG0179 plasmid in the recombinant *E. coli* colonies was confirmed by colony PCR using forward and reverse primers specific to the *mGFP4* gene. Agarose gel electrophoresis showed amplification of the expected size of *mGFP4* (Fig. 4-3).





A small amount of each single *E. coli* transformant colonies suspended in 15 µl of sterile water was used as a template for PCR to confirm the insertion of 35S-mGFP4 fragment in pG0179 vector. PCR was performed by using the Taq DNA polymerase in the presence of dNTPs using mGFP4 screening primers at  $54^{\circ}$ C annealing temp. Lane1, HyperLadder 1; 2, lane (2-5), recombinant colonies; lane 6, positive control (35S-mGFP4 plasmid).

### **4.1.3.2 Isolation of transformant plasmid for restriction analysis**

Plasmid DNA was isolated from the PCR positive colonies of *E. coli* grown in LB Kanamycin broth. Plasmid concentration was determined by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm using a Nanodrop.

## **4.1.3.3 Restriction analysis pG35S-mGFP4**

One of the recombinant clones was named as pG35S-mGFP4. The recombinant plasmid, pG35S-mGFP4 (Fig. 4-4) on restriction digestion with *EcoRV* released fragments of the expected size, viz.,  $\sim$ 1.4 kb (35S-mGFP4) and  $\sim$ 5.1 kb (vector) (Fig. 4-4).



# **Figure 4-4: Restriction digestion confirming the presence of 35S-mGFP4 cassette in pG35SmGFP4**

Plasmid DNA (0.3 µg) isolated from pG35S-mGFP4 clone was digested with 10 U of *EcoRV*-HF<sup>TM</sup> restriction enzyme at 37<sup>o</sup>C for 1 h. Cleaved product separated in a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel shows the presence of the 1.4 kb 35S-mGFP4 in pG0179 vector. Lane 1, HyperLadder 1; lane 2, pG35S-mGFP4 plasmid digested with *EcoRV*; lane 3, undigested plasmid as a control.



## **Figure 4-5: Schematic representation of NIA1 locus and mGFP4 reporter construct**

A) The structure of NIA1 locus in chromosome 1 (Sequence id: CP002684.1). B & C) Graphical representation of NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1 mGFP4 constructs. Numbers represents nucleotide position relative to the translational start codon

# **4.2 Making pGmGFP4 (pG0179+mGFP4) construct**

# **4.2.1 Cloning of mGFP4 gene into the pG0179 Plasmid**

## **4.2.1.1 Amplification of mGFP4 from pGreen 35S-mGFP4 plasmid**

pGreen 35S-mGFP4 plasmid was used as a template for amplification of the *mGFP4* gene fragment to use in future constructs. The *mGFP4* gene of about 717bp was amplified by PCR, using a set of forward and reverse primers (Table 2-2). The forward primer (mGFP FP) and reverse primer (mGFP RN) introduce *PstI* and *NotI* sites at 5'and 3' ends of the product respectively. An intact band of 717 bp was amplified from the plasmid with mGFP FP and mGFP RN primers by PCR (Fig. 4-6).



#### **Figure 4-6: PCR amplification of** *mGFP4* **gene**

10 ng of pG35S-mGFP4 plasmid was used as a template for the amplification of the mGFP4 coding sequence. The *mGFP4* gene was amplified by using Qiagen Longrange polymerase with mGFP FP & mGFP RN primers annealed at  $54^{\circ}$ C. These forward and reverse primers introduce *Pst1* and *Not1* restriction sites for further cloning. Amplification was verified by gel electrophoresis and visualized under UV light. Lane 1, HyperLadder 1 (Bioline); lane 2&3, blank; lane 4, mGFP4 amplicon.

# *4.2.1.2* **Restriction digestion of mGFP4 gene fragment with Pst1 and Not1**

The PCR amplified *mGFP4* gene fragment was excised from the gel and eluted using a

Sigma gel purification kit. The resulting product was quantified using the Nanodrop and

1 µg of the *mGFP4* gene fragment was used for further digestion with *Pst1 and Not1* together. Restriction digestion was carried out at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 1 h. The product was separated in a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel (Fig. 4-9 A) then the digested gene fragment was excised from the gel and purified by the Sigma gel purification kit.

### *4.2.1.3* **Restriction digestion pG0179 plasmid with Pst1 and Not1**

The pG0179 plasmid (1 µg) was digested with *Pst1* and *Not1* together. Restriction digestion was carried out at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 1 h and the product was loaded on an 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel (Fig. 4-7 B). Digested plasmid was excised from the gel and purified by the Sigma gel purification kit.





2 µg of PCR amplified, purified mGFP4 gene and 1 µg pG0179 vector was double digested with 20 U of Pst1- HF<sup>™</sup> and *Not1*- HF<sup>™</sup> restriction enzymes at 37°C for 1 h. Digested fragments were separated by gel electrophoresis and the band was excised from the gel and purified by QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen) and used for ligation. Lane 1, Hyper Ladder 1 (Bioline); lane 2, blank; lane 3, mGFP4/pG0179 digested with *Pst1 and Not1.*

# **4.2.1.4 Cloning of mGFP4 into pG0179 Vector**

Quantification of *Pst1* and *Not1* digested and purified *mGFP4* gene (insert) and pG0179

vector was performed by comparing with a known concentration of HyperLadder I (Fig.

4-8). A 1:3 insert:vector molar ratio was used for the ligation. Ligation was carried out at

 $16^{\circ}$ C overnight. 10 µl of ligated product was transformed into *E. coli* competent cells by the heat shock method and spread onto LB Kanamycin X-Gal-IPTG plates. White colonies were selected and short streaked on LB Kanamycin plates.



## **Figure 4-8: Gel to determine the concentration of insert and vector**

2 µl of purified *mGFP4* (insert) and (pG0179) vector were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized under UV light. The concentration was determined in comparison with the known concentration of hyperlader and also by Nanodrop*.* Lane 1, HyperLadder1 (Bioline); Lane 2, mGFP4 ; Lane 3, pG0179.

#### **4.2.1.5 Confirmation of pGmGFP4 in** *E. coli* **transformants by colony PCR**

Cloning of *mGFP4* in the pG0179 vector was confirmed by colony PCR with mGFP forward and reverse screening primers. Agarose gel (Fig. 4-9) showed amplification of a band of the expected size for *mGFP4*.



#### **Figure 4-9: Colony PCR confirms pGmGFP4 construct.**

Small amounts of each single *E. coli* recombinant colonies were diluted in 15 µl of sterile water and used as template to confirm the insertion of mGFP4 gene in pG0179 vector. PCR was performed by using the Taq DNA polymerase in the presence of dNTPs with the help of set of mGFP screening primers at 54°C annealing temp. Lane 1, HyperLadder1 (Bioline); lane 2-6, transformant colonies; Lane 7, Positive control 35S-GFP4 Plasmid.

# **4.2.1.6 Restriction analysis of recombinant plasmid pGmGFP4**

Plasmid DNA was isolated and quantified from the PCR positive white colonies of *E. coli* grown in LB Kanamycin broth. The selected recombinant clone was named as pGmGFP4. The recombinant plasmid pGmGFP4 was double digested with *Pst1 and Not1* and released the expected fragments of 717 bp (mGFP4) and 5.1 kb (vector) (Fig. 4-10).



### **Figure 4-10: Restriction digestion confirms the insertion of the mGFP4 gene in pG0179.**

Plasmid DNA was isolated from one of the PCR positive *E. coli* colonies and then digested with *Pst1*-HF<sup>™</sup> and Not1-HF<sup>™</sup> restriction enzyme. Release of a 717 bp band shows the presence of mGFP4 gene in the pG0179 plasmid. This plasmid was named as pGmGFP4. Lane1, HyperLadder1(Bioline); lane 2, pGmGFP4 digested with *Pst1 and Not1;* lane 3, undigested pGmGFP plasmid.

# **4.3 Making NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4**

# **4.3.1 Amplification of 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter and 2.2 kb promoter with 3.5 kb** *NIA1* **gene**

The 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter alone and promoter with its 3.5 kb gene were amplified from bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) T32E7. Nia1P FK and Nia1P RP primers (Table 2- 2) were used for the amplification of the 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter region. Nia1P FK and Nia1R P primers were used for the amplification of the 5.7 kb fragment of promoter and gene. The forward primer (Nia1P FK) and reverse primer (Nia1P RP & Nia1RP) introduce *Kpn1* and *PstI* sites at 5'and 3' ends of produts respectively. The amplified PCR product was checked by agarose gel electrophoresis (Fig. 4-11). The band was excised from the gel and purified for further cloning.



## **Figure 4-11: PCR amplification of 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter and 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter with 3.5 kb** *NIA1* **gene.**

T32E7 BAC clone was used as a template to amplify the 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter fragment alone and 2.2 kb promoter with *NIA1* gene (2.2 kb promoter and 3.5 kb gene = 5.7 kb). In order to amplify the larger PCR product, a two step PCR programme was used. The long range PCR (Qiagen) high fidelity Taq DNA polymerase was used to avoid amplification errors. PCR amplification was carried out in the presence of dNTPs, Q-solution and MgCl<sub>2</sub> at  $54^{\circ}$ C annealing temp and an increased extension time (2 min for promoter and 6 min for promoter and gene). The PCR products were then separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized under UV light. Lane 1, HyperLadder1(Bioline); lane 2, 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter amplicon; lane 3, (5.7 kb) 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter with 3.5 kb *NIA1* gene amplicon; lane 4, blank

# *4.3.2* **Restriction digestion of 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter and 2.2 kb promoter with 3.5 kb** *NIA1* **gene fragment with** *Kpn1* **and** *Pst1***.**

Amplified PCR product of 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter and 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter with 3.5 kb gene fragment was excised from the gel and purified. The resulting product was quantified using the Nanodrop and 2 ug of each gene fragment was used for digestion with *Kpn1* and *Pst1* restriction enzymes. Restriction digestion was carried out at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 1 h. The digested product was loaded in the  $0.8\%$  (w/v) agarose gel (Fig. 4-12 A&B) then the gene fragment was excised from the gel and eluted using the Sigma gel purification kit.



## **Figure 4-12: Restriction digestion of 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter (A) and 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter with 3.5 kb** *NIA1* **gene amplicon (B) with** *Kpn1* **and** *Pst1***.**

2 µg of PCR amplified and purified 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter and 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter with 3.5 kb *NIA1* gene fragments was digested with *Kpn1*-HFTM and *Pst1*-HFTM restriction enzymes at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 1 h. Digested products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and further purified and ligated with *Kpn1*-HF™ and *Pst1*-HF<sup>™</sup> digested pGmGFP4 vector. Lane 1-HyperLadder1(Bioline); lane 2, blank; lane 3- 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter/2.2 kb NIA1 promoter with 3.5 kb *NIA1* gene.

# **4.3.3 Cloning of 2.2 kb promoter and 2.2 kb promoter with 3.5 kb gene into pGmGFP4**

Quantification of *Kpn1* and *Pst1* digested and purified NIA1 promoter, NIA1 promoter with gene (insert) and pGmGFP4 vector was done with the Nanodrop. A 1:3 insert vector molar ratio was used for the ligation. Ligation was carried out at  $16^{\circ}$ C overnight. 10 µl of ligated product was transformed into *E. coli* competent cells by heat shock method and spread onto LB Kanamycin plates. Transformed colonies were confirmed by colony PCR.

# **4.3.4 Restriction analysis of recombinant plasmid NIA1pro-mGFP4**

Plasmid DNA was isolated from the PCR positive colony of *E. coli* grown in LB Kanamycin broth. Quantification of the plasmid was done using the Nanodrop. The selected recombinant clone was named as NIA1pro-mGFP4. The recombinant plasmid NIA1pro-mGFP4 was digested with *Kpn1* and *Pst1* (Fig. 4-13: lane 2), *Pst1 and Not1* (Fig. 4-13: lane 3), to release the expected fragments of 2243 bp (NIA1 promoter) and  $\sim$  5.1 kb (vector), 7.1 kb (promoter+vector) and 717 bp *mGFP*4 respectively.



#### **Figure 4-13: Restriction digestion confirmation of NIA1pro-mGFP4.**

0.5 µg of plasmid DNA isolated from a NIA1pro-mGFP4 transformant was digested with different enzyme combinations to verify the construct. Digestion was carried out at 37<sup>o</sup>C for 1 h. Upon digestion the products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis. Lane 1, Hyperladder1 (Bioline); lane 2, NIA1pro-mGFP4 plasmid digested with *Kpn1 and Pst1*; lane 3, NIA1pro-mGFP4 Plasmid digested with *Pst1 & Not1*; lane 4, undigested NIA1pro-mGFP4.

# **4.3.5 Restriction analysis of recombinant plasmid NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4**

Plasmid DNA was isolated from the PCR positive colonies of *E. coli* grown in LB+Kan broth. Quantification of plasmid was done by Nanodrop. The recombinant clone was named as NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4. The recombinant plasmid NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 was digested with *Kpn1* and *Pst1* (Fig. 4-14 lane 2), *Pst1 and Not1* (Fig. 4-14 lane 3), released the expected fragments size of 5.7 kb (NIA1 promoter and gene) and  $\sim$  5.1 kb (vector), 10.6 kb (promoter+gene+ vector) and 717 bp mGFP4 respectively.



#### **Figure 4-14: Restriction digestion confirmation of NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4**

0.5 µg of Plasmid DNA isolated from NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 transformant was digested with different enzyme combination to verify the construct. Digestion was carried out at 37<sup>o</sup>C for 1 h. Upon digestion product was separated by agarose gel electrophoresis. *Kpn1 and Pst1* enzyme was used to release the 5.7 kb NIA1 promoter and gene and *Pst1 & Not1* was used to release the *mGFP4* gene. Above gel shows the release of correct size of the product corresponding to the enzyme digestion. Lane 1, Hyperladder1; lane 2, NIA1pro-NIA1 mGFP4 plasmid digested with *Kpn1 and Pst1* (released approximately equal size of NIA1 promoter+gene (5.7 kb) and vector (5. kb)); lane 3, NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 Plasmid digested with *Pst1 & Not1*; lane 4, undigested NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4.

# **4.4 Transformation of pG35SmGFP4, NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-**

# **NIA1-mGFP4 constructs into** *Agrobacterium* **strain**

0.5 µg of each construct (pG35SmGFP4, NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4) was transformed into the three separate lot of *Agrobacterium* competent cells with the help of helper plasmid pSoup by a freeze and thaw method (Weigel and Glazebrook, 2006). Cells were spread on LB  $Rif + Kan + Tet$  plates after 3 h incubation at  $28^{\circ}$ C. Recombinant colonies were developed after 48 h incubation at 28°C. Transformed colonies were further confirmed by colony PCR.

# **4.5 Making transgenic plants expressing GFP driven by NIA1**

*Arabidopsis* wild type (Col-0), auxin mutants *aux1* and *axr2*, ethylene mutants *ein3-1* and *EIN3OX* and NR gene mutants *nia1* and *nia2* were transformed by the floral dip method. During the unopened flowerbud stage the inforescence was dipped into the transformation media containing *Agrobacterium* carrying the NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1 mGFP4 construct. To make a control, the 35S-mGFP4 construct was transformed into the WT plant Col-0. Seeds from these plants were collected and transformed plants were selected by allowing them to grow on plates containing  $\frac{1}{2}$  MS media with 30  $\mu$ g/ml of hygromycin. The T-DNA contains the hygromycin resistance gene, so the transformed plants containing the cassette grow normally and produce roots and shoots. In contrast, wild type plants failed to grow on the hygromycin plate. Once the transformed seeds had produced healthy plants with long roots (Fig. 4-15), they were transferred to soil and grown to produce seeds for further analysis.



#### **Figure 4-15: Selection of promising transgenic lines.**

 $T_0$  seeds were surface sterilized and germinated on an MSR3 plate containing 30 mg/ml hygromycin in a 12 h photoperiod at 20°C and 60% relative humidity. Hygromycin resistant seedlings (red arrows) were transferred to soil.

# **4.6 Confirmation of transgenic plants by PCR**

Genomic DNA from young leaves of transgenic plants were isolated and quality of the DNA was analysed by agarose gel electrophoresis (Fig. 4-16). After the hygromycin selection, presence of construct in the transgenic line was confirmed by PCR using mGFP4 screening primers. 10 ng of plant genomic DNA was used as a template to verify transgenic plants. PCR results showed the presence of 717 bp *mGFP4* gene fragments in transgenic plants (Fig. 4-17) and further confirmed by sequencing.



#### **Figure 4-16: Plant genomic DNA isolated from transgenic plants.**

Total plant genomic DNA was isolated from the leaves of transgenic plants, and 2 µl was loaded in the agarose gel and visualized under UV to check the quality of the DNA. Lane 1, HyperLadder1 (Bioline); lanes 2-17, genomic DNA samples.



#### **Figure 4-17: Transgenic plants showed the presence of** *mGFP4* **gene.**

Genomic DNA isolated from transgenic plants was used as a template for PCR. mGFP4 screening primers were used to check the presence of mGFP4 in the transgenic plants. PCR result showed all the transgenic lines harbouring the mGFP4 reporter constructs.

Lane1, HyperLadder1 (Bioline); lane 2-7, transgenic plants. Image showed here is the representative image of transgenic plants screening.

# **4.7 Screening for single copy transgenic lines by inverse PCR**

For each construct, a single copy insertion transgenic line was selected by performing inverse PCR. Total genomic DNA from the young leaves of transgenic plants were isolated and digested with  $KpnI-HF^{TM}$  restriction enzyme, which cleaved one position in the T-DNA region and another one will be somewhere in the unknown plant genomic region (Fig. 4-18). Restriction digested DNA fragments were ligated by T4-DNA ligase; this circularised the cleaved DNA fragments. Primers were designed in the known T-DNA region (forward primer in the 5' end of mGFP4 region and reverse primer in the 3' region of the 2.2 kb promoter) and used to amplify the unknown genomic region. Sequencing of this PCR product showed the insertion region. A single copy insertion line gave a single PCR band in the agarose gel electrophoresis. The size of the PCR products being amplified from the circularised T-DNA will vary, because the cleavage site of *Kpn1* in the plant genome is depending upon where T-DNA integrates. To amplify the unknown size of the product, Qiagen long range PCR polymerase was used, as it allows the amplification of PCR product up to 40 kb in length. The PCR product was run through a 1.5% (w/v) agarose gel (Fig. 4-19). Wild type plant DNA digested with *Kpn1* was used as a control for a PCR which did not give any amplification.

To determine the location of the T-DNA insertion in the independent lines, the PCR fragment was excised and purified using QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen) and sequenced. This sequence was analysed through NCBI BLAST. The final analysed result will showed the insertion region of the T-DNA. These single copy lines were used for further studies.



## **Figure 4-18: Schematic representation of inverse PCR steps to find the single copy insertion line.**

First transgenic plant total genomic DNA was digested with *Kpn*1-HF restriction enzyme and then the digested product was circularised by using T4- DNA ligase. Primers in the known T-DNA region were used to amplify the circularised template by long range PCR. FP, forward primer; RP, reverse primer; RB, right border.



#### **Figure 4-19: Gel electrophoresis to detect single copy insertion lines.**

10 µl ligated and circularised *Kpn1*-digested genomic DNA of transgenic lines was used as a template to select single-copy-insertion lines. Long range PCR was used to amplify the unknown length of the PCR fragment. Lanes 2, 3, 4 and 5 showed random circularised fragments like the WT control (lane 9). Lanes 6 and 7 showed amplified single copy PCR fragments. These band was excised from the gel and used for sequencing.

Gel electrophoresis (Fig. 4-19) showed amplification in lanes 6 and 7 from Col-0 harbouring NIA1Pro-NIA1-mGFP4 transgenic line 2. The amplified fragment (~2 kb) from lanes 6 and 7 was purified from the gel and sent for sequencing. All other lanes showed a similar pattern of fragments to the WT control. These fragments are random circularised DNA fragments from the plant genome. Sequence analysis from Col-0 NIA1Pro-NIA1-mGFP4 transgenic line 2 revealed that T-DNA is located in chromosome 5 at position 24,250,885 (Appendix 12).

# **4.8 Discussion**

Cloning a gene of interest, in-frame with the GFP reporter gene is a useful tool to understand the role of the gene in a biological process as well as its detailed spatial and temporal gene expression profile, and the subcellular localization of the corresponding protein (Zhou *et al.,* 2011). In order to find out the role and function of the *NIA1* gene in gravitropism, the *NIA1*-mGFP4 reporter construct was made. The wild type Col-0, auxin mutants (*aux1, axr2* and *axr3*), NR mutants (*nia1,* and *nia2*), ethylene mutants *ein3-1* and ethylene transgenic line *EIN3OX* were transformed with NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 constructs. In addition Col-0 was transformed with the pG0179 containing 35S-mGFP4, which can be utilized as a positive control. Transgenic efficiency varied among mutants, Col-0, auxin and ethylene mutant showed low transgenic efficiency, whereas the NR mutant harbouring NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 constructs produced high transformation efficiency (data not shown). Lower transformation efficiency may be due to NO toxicity.

 $T_0$  plants were allowed to self and produce  $T_1$  seeds. Further homozygous T1 transgenic lines were selected by germinating them on an MSR3 plate containing 30 mg/ml hygromycin. This is the optimal concentration of hygromycin to decrease the hypocotyl length, produce cholorotic tiny leaves and no root growth in non-transformant plants (Ee *et al.,* 2014). Plants containing the construct produced healthy roots and leaves, whereas the growth of non-transformants was inhibited. A transgenic line with a single copy number was selected based on inverse PCR (Fig. 4-20, 4-21). Insertional position was identified by further sequencing (Appendix 12).
# **Chapter 5 Optimization of mGFP4 expression in transgenic plants**

In the previous chapter, the cloning of 35S-mGFP4, mGFP4 in-frame with the NIA1 promoter and NIA1 promoter along with the *NIA1* gene was described, together with transformation of these cassettes into the WT, NR, auxin and ethylene mutants. Successful integration of these cassettes into the plant genome was confirmed by PCR and inverse PCR followed by sequencing.

GFP has been used as a reporter system in many animal cells and plant species, but while expressing in Arabidopsis wild-type GFP failed to express, because Arabidopsis recognises sequence in the coding region of WT-GFP as a plant intron and undergoes inappropriate splicing (Haseloff *et al.,* 1997). Wild-type GFP requires a strong promoter and low incubation temperature. whereas modified GFP (mGFP) requires higher temperature for fluorescence. GFP protein is highly stable after chromophore maturation and the fluorescence was unaffected up to  $65^{\circ}$ C (Ward and Bokman, 1982). After expression of GFP it has to undergo folding followed by cyclisation, oxidation and dehydration to become a fully functional fluorescence protein (Craggs, 2009). These processes together are called maturation.

ABA and  $H_2O_2$  have been shown to induce NIA1-mediated NO synthesis in stomatal guard cells. Hence to optimize the expression of mGFP4, experiments were carried out in ABA and  $H_2O_2$  treated stomatal guard cells. The results from these experiments are discussed in this chapter.

## 5.1 **Expression of 35S driven mGFP4 in transgenic plants**

In order to examine the expression of mGFP4 in transformed plants, roots and stomatal peels of Col-0 harbouring the 35S-mGFP4 construct along with the negative control were observed by confocal microscopy. Roots showed bright mGFP4 fluroscence, and leaf peels (Fig. 5-1 A&D) showed fluorescence throughout, especially in the guard cells. Images were compared with WT Col-0 plants (Fig. 5-1 B&E). Bright fluorescence from the 35SmGFP4 indicates the successful expression of mGFP4 under the control of the CaMV35S promoter. Quantitative measurement of mGFP4 total fluoresence was carried out using Fiji image analysis software and the results showed the difference in fluorescence level between the root and stomata in the Col-0:35S-mGFP4 and WT plants. Insignificant auto fluorescence was observed in the Col-0 WT plant.





Five day old WT seedlings and transformants harbouring 35S-mGFP4 were used to observe the functional expression of mGFP4. Transgenic plant root (A) and young leaf peel (D) showed bright fluorescence compared to the WT Col-0 root (B) and leaf peel (E). Imaging conditions (excitation, 475 nm; emission, 510 nm; gain, 4.5; exposure, 35 µs) were identical for all the plants in the experiments. Graph C and F showed the difference in the fluorescence intensity (measured by Fiji image analysis software) between the transgenic and control plants (n=3).

# 5.2 **Optimization of time and temperature for mGFP4 expression in transgenic lines**

## **5.2.1 mGFP4 did not fluorescence at 25<sup>o</sup>C after 4 h of incubation**

In order to find the temperature and time required for optimal mGFP4 expression, fluorescence was measured in ABA-treated (section 2.5) stomata at  $25^{\circ}$ C in both light and dark conditions. After 4 h of incubation samples were observed using the confocal microscopy, but no expression of mGFP4 was detected in Col-0 harbouring NIA1promGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 (Fig. 5-2 I); in both the transgenic lines, stomata look similar to WT Col-0, only auto fluorescence in stomatal pore was visible. (due to lack of control at  $25^{\circ}$ C, images were compared to control at  $37^{\circ}$ C in Fig. 5-2 II).

## **5.2.2 mGFP4 expression starts at 37<sup>o</sup>C after 4 h of incubation**

ABA treated samples were incubated at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 4 h in light and dark environments were imaged using the confocal microscopy, WT Col-0 showed auto-fluorescence from the cell wall of the stomatal pore, whereas, Col-0 harbouring NIA1pro-mGFP4 (Light and dark incubated) and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 (Light incubated) stomatal guard cells showed some mGFP4 fluorescence in the guard cells (Fig. 5-2 II).



**Figure 5-2: mGFP4 was not visible after 4 h at 25<sup>o</sup>C, but visible at 37<sup>o</sup>C**

Epidermal fragments from Col-0 harbouring NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 stomata were treated with 150 µM ABA and then incubated at 25 °C and 37°C in both light and dark conditions. samples were observed after 4 h of incubation. Imaging conditions (excitation 475 nm; emission 510 nm; gain, 4.5; exposures, 35 µs) were identical for all the plants in the experiments. The images displayed here were from representative samples  $(n=3)$ .

# **5.2.3 Bright mGFP4 fluorescence was observed at 37<sup>o</sup>C after 6 and 10 h of incubation**

After observing the initiation of mGFP4 expression in stomatal guard cells after 4 h, samples were further incubated up to 10 h and visualized using the confocal microscopy. Col-0 harbouring NIA1pro-mGFP4 guard cells showed NIA1-promoter-mediated mGFP4 fluorescence in both light and dark incubated samples, but the sample incubated in the light showed brighter fluorescence than the sample incubated in the dark (Fig. 5-4). In contrast, Col-0 guard cells harbouring NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 showed NIA1-promoter and gene mediated mGFP4 expression only in the light incubated sample. In the case of *nia1*  harbouring NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4, mGFP4 fluorescence was observed in both dark and light after 6 h of incubation. The sample incubated in light showed brighter fluorescence than the sample incubated in the dark.

Treatment at  $37^0C$  for 10 h



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### **Figure 5-2: mGFP4 fluorescence found after longer incubation at 37<sup>o</sup>C**

Epidermal fragments from Col-0 and *nia1* harbouring NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1 mGFP4 stomata were treated with 150  $\mu$ M ABA and incubated at 37°C in both light and dark conditions. Samples were observed after 6 h and 10 h of incubation. Imaging conditions (excitation 475 nm; emission 510 nm; gain, 4.5; exposure, 35 µs) were identical for all the plants in the experiments. The images displayed here were from representative samples (n=3).

# 5.3 **Expression of mGFP4 in transgenic root**

To demonstrate *NIA1*- promoter and gene mediated mGFP4 expression in roots, Col-0 transgenic seedlings harbouring NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 were incubated with 100  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (section 2.6) and then gravistimulated for 6 h. After 6 h, roots were observed using laser scanning confocal microscopy (Fig. 5-5). In both the transgenic lines, roots showed bright fluorescence compared to control (Col-0) roots. These images represent the expression of NIA1-promoter and NIA1-promoter and gene mediated mGFP4 fluorescence during gravitropism. mGFP4 fluorescence was observed in the lower side of the root, which shows gravity induces the expression of *nia1* gene in the lower side of the root.



Col-0 WT



Col-0-NIA1pro-mGFP4



Col-0-NIA1pro-NIA1mGFP4

#### **Figure 5-3: mGFP4 fluorescence in root induced by gravitropism**

Col-0 seedlings harbouring NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 were pre-treated with 100  $\mu$ M of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and then gravistimulated for 6 h. After 6 h, roots were mounted on slides and images were taken. Transgenic seedling roots showed bright mGFP4 fluorescence. All the images were taken at identical settings (excitation 475 nm; emission 510 nm; gain, 4.5; exposure, 35 µs). The images displayed here were from representative samples (n=3).

# 5.4 **Discussion**

Reporter proteins are useful to monitor cellular events in plants and other organisms. In the past, two important reporter proteins, beta-glucuronidase (GUS) and luciferase (LUC) were used extensively in plants, but they do have limitations. They need an additional substrate to express inside the biological system, and they are not suitable to test primary transformant seedlings because of the destructive nature of the assay. The green fluorescent protein (GFP) from *Aequorea victoria* is being widely used as a standard reporter system in both animal and plant systems. GFP does not require an exogenous substrate and can be used in living cells. Wild-type GFP was successfully expressed in tobacco (dicot), and some monocot plants, but when expressed in *Arabidopsis thaliana* GFP failed to fluorescence. This is because the wild-type GFP mRNA undergoes abberant splicing within its coding sequence, due to a sequence similarity to the plant intron splice site. This splicing limits the use of wild type GFP in Arabidopsis plants. The cryptic intron of the wildtype GFP was modified by altering the codon, and then named as mGFP4 (modified GFP4) (Haseloff *et al.,* 1997). Arabidopsis callus expressing mGFP4 showed a brighter green fluorescence using a handheld 100 W long-wavelength UV lamp and also showed a major peak of fluorescence at 395 nm (excitation) and 509 nm (emission) in the confocal microscopy (Haseloff *et al.,* 1997). Therefore mGFP4 was used in this investigation.

The cauliflower mosaic virus promoter (CaMV35S) is one of the widely used constitutive promoters in plant transformation. Stable integration of 35S gene fused upstream of a GUS reporter gene into the plant chromosome showed GUS expression in all the cells (Jefferson *et al.,* 1987). Dutt *et al.* (2014) reported expression of 35S promoter is species specific with diverse levels of expression found in strawberry, tomato and petunia plants. In the present study, mGFP4 driven by CaMV35S was constitutively expressed in root and leaf cells of transformed Col-0 plants.

Hu *et al.* (2006) have already demonstrated the asymmetric accumulation of NO in soybean and maize root and Desikan *et al.* (2002) demonstrated ABA-induced NO synthesis in stomatal guard cells, but in this current study transgenic plants harbouring NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 construct did not show any fluorescence in H2O2 pre-treated gravistimulated root or in ABA pre-treated stomatal guard cells at room temperature. Lin *et al.* (1994) showed 1.5 kb sequence of 5' flanking region of *NIA1* promoter is enough for nitrate response induction by expressing the native promoter fused with the reporter gene in tobacco plants. In contrast Konishi *et al.* (2011) failed to find 1.9 kb *NIA1* promoter response to nitrate in Arabidopsis. Also, they have reported the downstream sequence of *NIA1* gene along with the promoter was required for the nitrate response. Most of the plant promoters contains its regulatory region within the 2 kb upstream sequence. These 2 kb regions are enough to provide critical information about the gene expression pattern (Xiao *et al.,* 2010). In the present study 2.2 kb NIA1 promoter sequence was used to drive the *mGFP4* expression, however failed to see the mGFP4 expression at room temperature. In addition, expression of modified GFP has been shown to be temperature sensitive and the maturation of GFP protein is depends on time (Haseloff, *et al.,* 1997). To optimise the temperature and time required for the expression of mGFP4, experiments were performed at  $25^{\circ}$ C and  $37^{\circ}$ C in both light and dark conditions. These results showed bright mGFP4 fluorescence at  $37^{\circ}$ C in gravistimulated root and ABA-induced stomatal guard cells. The maturation of mGFP4 takes 6-10 h. Hence, all experiments need to be carried out at  $37^{\circ}$ C. This result demonstrates that the 2.2 kb *NIA1* promoter region is sufficient for expression of the *NIA1* gene, gravity and ABA induces NIA1-promoter, NIA1-promoter and gene mediated expression of mGFP4 in roots and in stomatal guard cells respectively. The mGFP4 fluorescence in the lower side of the root especially in the lower epidermal cells, shows the localisation of *nia1 gene* in gravity bending. Even though several NO synthesis mechanism exist in the plants NR-mediated NO synthesis in the root was reported earlier. Hu *et al.* (2006) also demonstrated the asymmetric synthesis and accumulation of NO in the lower half of the gravistimulated soybean root, induced the gravitropic response, they have also reported putative NR inhibitor (sodium azide) reduces both NO synthesis and gravity bending. This suggested that NR (either *NIA1* or *NIA2* ) plays important role in the NO synthesis and root bending. In the present study, most of the *NIA1*-mediated mGFP4 fluorescence was also observed in the lower side of the gravistimulated root, which shows that gravity induces the expression of NIA1 promoter and gene, especially in the lower side of the root. This experiment results could support the role of *NIA1*-mediated asymmetric accumulation of NO in the lower half of the root during gravity bending. Further studies are required to investigate the role of NIA1 in NO synthesis in root and light to dark induction of NO synthesis in stomatal guard cells. Function, synthesis and interaction of the gene of interest can be thoroughly studied when GFP is cloned in frame with the particular gene or protein (Tian, 1999). With the availability of mutants (auxin, ethylene and NR mutants) harbouring the NIA1pro-mGFP4 or NIApro-NIA1-mGFP4 cassette, further experiments could be performed to study the role of *nia1* in NO synthesis and the interaction between NO, auxin and ethylene during root gravitropism and stomatal opening and closure in response to biotic and abiotic stress.

# **Chapter 6 Summary and future work**

# 6.1 **Summary**

The aim of this investigation was to identify the role of *NIA1* mediated NO synthesis and signalling in root growth and development. Experiment results demonstrating the localisation of *NIA1* during gravitropic bending.

Gravitropic analysis of Col-0 and auxin mutants confirmed that Col-0 responds to gravity and starts to bend towards the gravity signal, whereas auxin mutants did not respond to gravity. Confocal analysis also showed that gravity induced the synthesis and accumulation of NO in the lower side of the bending region of the Col-0 root, whereas auxin mutants did not show any accumulation in the lower side of the root. Quantitative analysis of *NIA1* by qPCR also demonstrate that NIA transcript accumulation increased 2 h after gravistimulation in Col-0 root. It was therefore concluded that gravity induces NIA1 mediated NO synthesis and accumulation, which further induces root bending.

Analysis of root bending in NIA mutants showed that *nia1* bends significantly slower than *nia2* and Col-0. This result suggest that *NIA1* has more prominent role in root bending than *NIA2.* The ethylene mutant *ein3-1* and the over expression line *EIN3OX* both showed slower root bending than Col-0. *EIN3OX* showed significantly reduced and slower root bending than *ein3-1* and Col-0. These results suggest that ethylene negatively regulates root bending. External application of NAA and SNAP significantly increased the root bending, whereas external application of ACC significantly decreased the root bending. Removal of NO using a NO scavenger also significantly reduced gravitropic bending. All these results suggest that NO and auxin positively regulate root bending, whilst ethylene negatively regulates root bending.

Arabidopsis ecotype Col-0 and auxin, ethylene and *NIA* mutants were successfully transformed with *NIA1* transcriptional (NIA1pro-mGFP4) and translational (NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4) reporter construct. These transgenic lines were optimized for mGFP4 expression. Successful expression of ABA and  $H_2O_2$  induced *NIA1*-mediated mGFP4 fluorescence was detected by confocal microscopy in the stomata and root respectively. Further experiments would be carried out to find out the role of *NIA1* in root development and possible NO interaction with other phytohormones during biotic and abiotic stress.

# 6.2 **Conclusion**



#### **Figure 6-1: Model for NO, auxin and ethylene interaction**

Initial stage of gravity perception induces auxin and NIA1 mediated NO signalling, which will produce and differential distribution/accumulation of auxin and NO in the lower side of root. Increased accumulation of auxin and NO in the lower part of cells in the root inhibit cell elongation and initiate gravity bending. After the initiation of gravity bending later stage auxin positively regulated ethylene signalling which produces and accumulates ethylene and negatively regulate the root bending.

## **6.2.1 Proposed model for NO, auxin and ethylene interaction**

Based on the results from current experiments, here proposed a model for interaction between NO, auxin and ethylene signalling during root bending (Figure 6.1). Gravity signals positively regulate auxin signalling which induces the synthesis of *NIA1*-mediated NO signalling, which further induces root bending. Intial gravity perception switches on auxin and *NIA1* mediated NO signalling, which leads to the asymmetric accumulation of auxin and NO in the lower side of the root. Low concentration of auxin and NO in the upper side of the root induces cell elongation, whereas high auxin and NO in the lower side of the root inhibits cell elongation leading to root bending. Later stage auxin positively regulate ethylene signalling, which negatively regulate the NO signalling and decrease the gravity bending. Exposure to ethylene has been shown to rapidly reduce cell elongation (Le *et al.,* 2001). Hence auxin and NO positively regulate root bending, whereas ethylene negatively regulates the root bending.

# 6.3 **Future work**

Further work with NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 transgenic lines would focus on the importance of role of NIA1 in NO synthesis, also to investigate the expression and localisation of *NIA1* and NO in response to gravistimulation, drought, nutrient availability, light and temperature.

Interaction of NO with other phytohormones like auxin, ethylene, ABA, cytokinin and gibberellic acid would be investigated by the external application of IAA, NAA, ACC, ABA and other phytohormones cytokinin, GA. Also it would be possible to study the interactions by crossing the NIA1pro-mGFP4 and NIA1pro-NIA1-mGFP4 transgenic lines with the relavant hormone mutant lines.

The interaction of NO and ABA signalling in stomatal closure would be further investigated with the help of transgenic lines.

Experiments based on the promoter-report-system has provided significant insight in auxin signalling. Spatial and temporal expression of auxin genes during root development, other physiological development and interaction with phytohormones has been demonstrated using a DR5 reporter construct (Chen *et al.,* 2003).

NO is also an important plant signalling molecule that participates in many physiological functions. However, NO research in plants is at an early stage. To date, no receptor for NO has been identified. Therefore, further experiments with the transgenic lines could be a useful tool to explore the importance of NO signalling in plants.

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# Chapter 7 Appendix

# 1. Two-way ANOVA result for Col-0 vs *nia1* vs *nia2*



#### **Tests of Normality**

b. 2hr is constant when plant = nia1. It has been omitted.

c. 2hr is constant when plant = nia2. It has been omitted.

#### **Descriptive Statistics**





l.

### **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**



a. R Squared = .981 (Adjusted R Squared = .975)

## **Estimates**



#### **Pairwise Comparisons**





l.

l.

Based on estimated marginal means

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

#### **curvature**



Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 12.713.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 24.000.

b. Alpha =  $.05$ .



Error bars: +/- 1 SE

# 2. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML for Col-0 vs *nia1*

"Best" fitted model: Random effects: Formula:  $\sim$ -1 + time + I(time^2) | Sample Structure: Diagonal



#### Fixed effects: Curvature  $\sim$  time  $*$  plant + I(time^2)



# Approximate 95% confidence intervals

Fixed effects:



#### Within-group standard error:



#### LRT of fixed effects:



#### Significance of need of quadratic random effect:



## Approaching significance in differences of plant within variability:



#### No signs of AR(1) correlation in residuals:



# 3. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML for Col-0 vs *nia2*

"Best" fitted model: Random effects: Formula: ~time | Sample



Variance function:

Structure: Different standard deviations per stratum Formula: ~1 | plant Parameter estimates:<br>nia2 Col-0 Col-0

1.000000 0.401897

#### Fixed effects: Curvature  $\sim$  (time + I(time^2)) \* plant



#### Approximate 95% confidence intervals Fixed effects:





upper 33.325771619

attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

#### Random Effects: Level: Sample



Variance function:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:"


## LRT of fixed effects:



#### plant within variability:



## No signs of AR(1) correlation in residuals:



## 4. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML for *nia1* vs *nia2*

"Best" fitted model: Random effects:

Formula: ~1 | Sample



Variance function:

Structure: Different standard deviations per stratum Formula: ~1 | plant



#### Fixed effects: Curvature  $\sim$  time: plant + I(time^2)



#### Approximate 95% confidence intervals Approximate 95% confidence intervals

#### Fixed effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

Random Effects: Level: Sample



Variance function



attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:"







## 5. Two-way ANOVA result for Col-0, ein3-1 and ein30x



**Tests of Normality** 

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

b. 2hr is constant when plant =  $e$ in3-1. It has been omitted.

c. 2hr is constant when plant =  $e$ in 3ox. It has been omitted.

d. 4hr is constant when plant =  $ein3ox$ . It has been omitted.

e. 6hr is constant when  $plan = ein3ox$ . It has been omitted.

### **Descriptive Statistics**







### **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**



a. R Squared = .981 (Adjusted R Squared = .973)

#### **Pairwise Comparisons**



Based on estimated marginal means

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

#### **Pairwise Comparisons**





Based on estimated marginal means

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

curvature

Tukey HSDa,b,c



Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) =  $17.142$ .

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 19.636.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used.

Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

c. Alpha =  $.05$ .

## 6. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML for Col-0 vs *ein3-1*

"Best" fitted model:

Random effects:



Col-0 ein3-1<br>1.000000 1.9822 1.982251 Fixed effects: Curvature  $\sim$  (time + I(time^2)) \* plant



Approximate 95% confidence intervals

Fixed effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

Random Effects:

Level: Sample



attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:"

Within-group standard error:



LRT of fixed effects: plant within variability:





## 7. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML for Col-0 vs EIN*3OX*

### "Best" fitted model:



#### Approximate 95% confidence intervals Fixed effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

Random Effects:

Level: Sample





attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:" Within-group standard error:





## plant within variability:



## No signs of AR(1) correlation in residuals:



## 8. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML Ein3-1 vs *ein30x*

"Best" fitted model:





Approximate 95% confidence intervals

Fixed effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

Random Effects: Level: Sample



attr(,"label")

[1] "Correlation structure:"

Variance function:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:" Within-group standard error:



plant within variability:





## 9. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML *nia1* vs *ein3-1*

"Best" fitted model:

Random effects:





Approximate 95% confidence intervals

Fixed effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

Random Effects:



Within-group standard error:  $\mathbf{r}$ 



Approaching significance in differences of plant within variability:



No signs of AR(1) correlation in residuals:



## *10.* Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML *nia1* vs *ein3ox*

## "Best" fitted model:

Random effects: rom errector<br>mla: ~1 | Sampl



Variance function:

Structure: Different standard deviations per stratum Formula: ~1 | plant

Parameter estimates:

ein3ox | nia1 1.0000000 0.3504705

#### Fixed effects: Curvature  $\sim$  (time + I(time^2)) \* plant



#### Approximate 95% confidence intervals Approximate 95% confidence intervals

#### Fixed effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

#### Random Effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:"



LRT of fixed effects:

### significance in differences of plant within variability:



#### No signs of AR(1) correlation in residuals:



# 11. Two way ANOVA for the effect of external application of NAA and cPTIO



## **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**



a. R Squared = .953 (Adjusted R Squared = .938)

### **Multiple Comparisons**

### Dependent Variable: curvature

Tukey HSD



Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) =  $36.354$ .

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



#### **curvature**

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) =  $36.354$ .

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 20.000.

b. Alpha = .05.

## **Pairwise Comparisons**





Based on estimated marginal means

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

## 12. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML for the effect of external application of NAA and cPTIO

Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML

Data: xdata



Variance function:

Structure: Different standard deviations per stratum

Formula: ~1 | plant Parameter estimates:



Fixed effects: Curvature  $\sim$  (time + I(time^2)) \* NAA + CPTIO



intervals(mod)

Approximate 95% confidence intervals

Fixed effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

Random Effects:

Level: Sample



#### Variance function:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:"

Within-group standard error:



# 13. Two way ANOVA for the effect of external application of ACC and cPTIO



## **Between-Subjects Factors**

## **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**



a. R Squared = .935 (Adjusted R Squared = .915)

### **Multiple Comparisons**

### Dependent Variable: curvature

Tukey HSD



Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) =  $40.777$ .

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



**curvature**

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 40.777.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 20.000.

b. Alpha =  $.05$ .

#### Dependent Variable: curvature treatments (I) time interval (J) time interval Mean Difference  $(I-J)$  Std. Error Sig.<sup>b</sup> 95% Confidence Interval for Difference<sup>b</sup> Lower Bound Upper Bound control 2hr 4hr -8.500 4.515 .646 -21.660 4.660 6hr -15.375\* 4.515 .012 -28.535 -2.215 8hr -21.625<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -34.785 -8.465 24hr -51.000<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -64.160 -37.840 4hr 2hr 8.500 4.515 .646 -4.660 21.660 6hr -6.875 4.515 1.000 -20.035 6.285 8hr -13.125 4.515 .051 -26.285 .035 24hr  $-42.500^*$ 4.515 .000 -55.660 -29.340 6hr 2hr 15.375\* 4.515 .012 2.215 28.535 4hr 6.875 4.515 1.000 -6.285 20.035 8hr -6.250 4.515 1.000 -19.410 6.910 24hr -35.625<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -48.785 -22.465 8hr 2hr 21.625<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 8.465 34.785 4hr 13.125 4.515 .051 -.035 26.285 6hr 6.250 4.515 1.000 -6.910 19.410 24hr -29.375<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -42.535 -16.215 24hr 2hr 51.000<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 37.840 64.160 4hr 42.500<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 29.340 55.660 6hr 35.625<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 22.465 48.785 8hr 29.375<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 16.215 42.535 cPTIO 2hr 4hr -12.000 4.515 .101 -25.160 1.160 6hr -17.750<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .002 -30.910 -4.590 8hr -26.000<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -39.160 -12.840 24hr -51.500<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -64.660 -38.340 4hr 2hr 12.000 4.515 .101 -1.160 25.160 6hr  $-5.750$  4.515  $1.000$   $-18.910$  7.410 8hr -14.000<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .029 -27.160 -.840 24hr -39.500<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -52.660 -26.340 6hr 2hr 17.750<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .002 4.590 30.910 4hr 5.750 4.515 1.000 -7.410 18.910 8hr -8.250 4.515 .727 -21.410 4.910 24hr -33.750<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -46.910 -20.590 8hr 2hr 26.000<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 12.840 39.160 4hr 14.000<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .029 .840 27.160 6hr 8.250 4.515 .727 -4.910 21.410 24hr -25.500<sup>\*</sup> 4.515 .000 -38.660 -12.340

#### **Pairwise Comparisons**





Based on estimated marginal means

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

## 14. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML for the effect of external application of ACC and cPTIO

Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML Data: xdata



Random effects:



Variance function:

Structure: Different standard deviations per stratum

Formula: ~1 | plant Parameter estimates:



Fixed effects: Curvature  $\sim$  (time + I(time^2)) \* ACC + CPTIO



## Approximate 95% confidence intervals

Fixed effects:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

Random Effects:

Level: Sample



#### Variance function:



attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:"



# 15. Two way ANOVA for the effect of external application of SNAP and cPTIO



## **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**



a. R Squared = .956 (Adjusted R Squared = .943)

### **Multiple Comparisons**

### Dependent Variable: curvature

#### Tukey HSD



Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) =  $22.550$ .

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



**curvature**

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) =  $22.550$ .

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 20.000.

b. Alpha = .05.

### **Pairwise Comparisons**





l.

Based on estimated marginal means

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

## 16. Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML for the effect of external application of SNAP and cPTIO

Data: xdata



Random effects:



Variance function:

Structure: Different standard deviations per stratum Formula: ~1 | plant

Parameter estimates:



### Fixed effects: Curvature  $\sim$  (time + I(time^2)) \* SNAP + CPTIO



## Approximate 95% confidence intervals



attr(,"label")

[1] "Fixed effects:"

Random Effects:

Level: Sample





attr(,"label")

[1] "Variance function:"

Within-group standard error:



## 17. Sequence analysis for single copy transgenic line selection

#### >C2+3.5-1\_IGFP-F -- 17..823 of sequence

GAGACCACATGGTCCTTCTTGAGTTTGTAACAGCTGCTGGGATTACACATGGCATGGATGAACTATACAAAT AA*GCGGCCGCCA*CCGCGGTGGAGCTCCAGCTTTTGTTCCCTTTAGTGAGGGTTAATTGCGCGCTTGGCGTAA TCATGGTCATAGCTGTTTCCTGTGTGAAATTGTTATCCGCTCACAATTCCACACAACATACGAGCCGGAAGCA TAAAGTGTAAAGCCTGGGGTGCCTAATGAGTGAGCTAACTCACATTAATTGCGTTGCGCTCACTGCCCGCTT TCCAGTCGGGAAACCTGTCGTGCCAGCTGCATTAATGAATCGGCCAACGCGCGGGGAGAGGCGGTTTGCGT ATTGGGCGCTCTTCCGCTTCCTCGCTCACTGACTCGCTGCGCTCGGTCGTTCGGCTGCGGCGAGCGGTATCA GCTCACTCAAAGGCGGTAATACGGTTATCCACAGAATCAGGGGATAACGCAGGAAAGAACATGAAGGCCTT GATTAGCCTTCGGGTTCTGCAAGAGCTTTTGCTTCAGCTCCTTTCCATTTCCATCTAGGCGCCATGGAATTGA GCTGCATATATAGCACTAAAAATCAAACCTTTTGACCAAAAGATGTAAAAGCTTTTCTTAGTCTATTACCAAC CTACAACTCTTATAATCTAGGAAATCAGATAAACATTGTCACTACGACATAGTTGTTTAACGTTTAAGGTATC TTGAAGAACCAAGTAGGAATTGGAAATGAGCAAAACCAGAGCTTTTTGATTCTTTTCCCACTTTTGTATTCAA AAATCAAATCTC

Arabidopsis thaliana chromosome 5, complete sequence Sequence ID: [gb|CP002688.1|L](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nucleotide/332002898?report=genbank&log$=nuclalign&blast_rank=1&RID=H161XY8J015)ength: 26975502Number of Matches: 1



Range 1: 24250885 to 24251168

## **In Col-0 NIA1Pro-NIA1-mGFP4 tranagenic line-2, T-DNA was inserted in chromosome five at 24,250,885 position.**

Sbjct 24251064 ACATAGTTG-TTAACGTTTAAGGTATCTTGAAGAACCAAGTAGGAATTGG-AATGAGCAA 24251121

 ||||| |||| ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||| Sbjct 24251122 AACCAAGAGC-TTTTGATTCTTTTCCCACTTTTGTATTCAAAAATCAA 24251168

Query 251 AACCA-GAGCTTTTTGATTCTTTTCCCACTTTTGTATTCAAAAATCAA 297