The chloroplast protease subunit ClpP4 is a substrate of the E3 ligase AtCHIP and plays an important role in chloroplast function

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Summary

Animal CHIP proteins are chaperone-dependent E3 ubiquitin ligases that physically interact with Hsp70, Hsp90 and proteasome, promoting degradation of a selective group of non-native or damaged proteins in animal cells. The plant CHIP-like protein, AtCHIP, also plays important roles in protein turnover metabolism. AtCHIP interacts with a proteolytic subunit, ClpP4, of the chloroplast Clp protease in vivo, and ubiquitylates ClpP4 in vitro. The steady-state level of ClpP4 is reduced in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants under high-intensity light conditions, suggesting that AtCHIP targets ClpP4 for degradation and thereby regulates the Clp proteolytic activity in chloroplasts under certain stress conditions. Overexpression of ClpP4 in Arabidopsis leads to chlorotic phenotypes in transgenic plants, and chloroplast structures in the chlorotic tissues of ClpP4-overexpressing plants are abnormal and largely devoid of thylakoid membranes, suggesting that ClpP4 plays a critical role in chloroplast structure and function. As AtCHIP is a cytosolic protein that has been shown to play an important role in regulating an essential chloroplast protease, this research provides new insights into the regulatory networks controlling protein turnover catabolism in chloroplasts.

Keywords: chaperone co-factor, E3 ligase, chloroplast protease, protein degradation, ubiquitylation.

Introduction

The mechanism that maintains cellular protein homeostasis is called protein quality control (Gottesman et al., 1997). Molecular chaperones, ubiquitylation enzymes and the 26S proteasome are the major players in protein homeostasis (Wickner et al., 1999). Over the years, we have learned a great deal about protein folding and turnover metabolisms, and have identified most, if not all, components of various chaperone molecules, the ubiquitylation system, and the protein degradation machinery, the 26S proteasome, in eukaryotic cells (Ciechanover et al., 2000; Ferrell et al., 2000; Smalle and Vierstra, 2004). The actions of several chaperone co-factors influence the direction of the pathway that a non-native protein would take: refolding or degradation. One of the chaperone co-factors in protein quality control is CHIP, which binds to the C-terminus of a mouse chaperone protein Hsc70. Binding of CHIP inhibits the ATPase activity of Hsp70 and its substrate binding, preventing other co-chaperones from binding to Hsp90, in turn inhibiting the protein folding activities of both Hsp70 and Hsp90 (Ballinger et al., 1999; Connell et al., 2001; Meacham et al., 2001). Furthermore, CHIP physically links Hsp70 and Hsp90 to the 26S proteasome and promotes degradation of the substrate proteins of Hsp70/Hsp90 (Ballinger et al., 1999; Connell et al., 2001; Meacham et al., 2001). CHIP proteins are U-box-containing E3 ubiquitin ligases that induce ubiquitylation of the substrates of Hsp70 and Hsp90 and stimulate their degradation through the 26S proteasome (Connell et al., 2001; Demand et al., 2001; Meacham et al., 2001). Therefore, CHIP functions largely as a degradation factor in protein turnover metabolism and plays a key role in cellular protein homeostasis, whereby accumulation of misfolded polypeptides to toxic levels is prevented through refolding (via chaperones) or degradation (via proteasome; Cyr et al., 2002; Höhfeld et al., 2001; Murata et al., 2001).
CHIP homologs have been found in most eukaryotes, suggesting that their function is evolutionarily conserved (Patterson, 2002). Recently, we characterized an Arabidopsis protein, AtCHIP, that is structurally similar to animal CHIPS with three tetratricopeptide repeats (TPRs) and one U-box domain (Yan et al., 2003). The TPR is involved in protein–protein interaction (Blatch and Lassle, 1999), whereas the U-box is the active site of the E3 ligase (Hatakeyama et al., 2001; Jiang et al., 2001; Murata et al., 2001). We demonstrated that, like animal CHIP proteins, AtCHIP has E3 ubiquitin ligase activity in vitro. Furthermore, we showed that AtCHIP plays important roles in plant growth and development, as overexpression of AtCHIP in Arabidopsis rendered plants more sensitive to both low and high temperatures. For example, the growth of AtCHIP-overexpressing plants under chilling temperature conditions is severely retarded, whereas, under high-temperature conditions, AtCHIP-overexpressing plants are male sterile (Yan et al., 2003). It is clear that AtCHIP plays a critical role in plant cellular metabolism under temperature stress conditions.

To understand the molecular mechanism of how AtCHIP is involved in the stress response, we identified proteins that physically interact with AtCHIP by using the yeast two-hybrid technique (Luo et al., 2006). Among the AtCHIP-interacting proteins identified was a nuclear-encoded component of the ATP-dependent chloroplast Clp protease complex that is probably involved in protein quality control in the chloroplast stroma (Adam and Clarke, 2002). AtCHIP interacts with ClpP4 in vivo and ubiquitylates ClpP4 in vitro, while the steady-state level of ClpP4 is reduced in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants under high-intensity light conditions, suggesting that the stability of ClpP4 might be directly influenced by AtCHIP ubiquitylation in vivo. The discovery that AtCHIP ubiquitylates ClpP4 in Arabidopsis reveals a novel regulatory mechanism for a chloroplast protease via the degradation of one of its subunit precursors in the cytosol. This finding demonstrates a direct role for the ubiquitin-mediated degradation pathway in regulating the proteolytic activity inside chloroplast.

Results

Chloroplast protein ClpP4 is a substrate protein of AtCHIP

The chloroplast proteolytic subunit ClpP4 was previously identified as an AtCHIP-interacting protein from a yeast two-hybrid screening (Luo et al., 2006). To test whether ClpP4 is indeed a substrate protein of AtCHIP, we conducted an in vitro ubiquitylation experiment using AtCHIP as the E3 ligase, Arabidopsis UBC8 as the E2 enzyme, and ClpP4 as the substrate. As shown in Figure 1, ClpP4 could be ubiquitylated by AtCHIP in vitro. In the presence of all components necessary for the ubiquitylation reaction, at least three proteins of higher molecular mass were detected using a ClpP4-specific antibody (Zheng et al., 2002), in addition to the expected ClpP4 polypeptide. These larger proteins corresponded in size exactly to ClpP4 with one, two or three ubiquitin molecules added, indicating that ClpP4 is indeed a substrate of AtCHIP in vitro.

AtCHIP overexpression reduces the steady-state level of ClpP4 under high-intensity light conditions

Because AtCHIP can ubiquitylate ClpP4 in vitro, the expected outcome of ClpP4 ubiquitylation in vivo would be degradation of ClpP4. To examine this, we analyzed the steady-state level of ClpP4 in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants under various growth conditions. Under normal growth and heat-shock conditions, the relative amount of ClpP4 protein was unaffected in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants when compared to that in wild-type plants (Figure 2a,b). Under high-intensity light condition, however, the steady-state level of ClpP4 decreased significantly in the AtCHIP-overexpressing plants (Figure 2c), ranging from 40% to 70% in the various transgenic lines (Figure 2d). Four AtCHIP-overexpressing plants, O3261, O3486, O472 and O5182, which had been shown to have at least four to fivefold more AtCHIP protein based on our previous study (Yan et al., 2003), appear to have significantly reduced levels of ClpP4, indicating that there is a direct correlation between the increased level of AtCHIP and the decreased level of ClpP4 in these AtCHIP-overexpressing plants under high-intensity light conditions.

The transcript level of ClpP4 is not reduced in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants

The reduced levels of ClpP4 in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants under high-intensity light conditions could be due to reduced expression of ClpP4 at the transcription level. In order to rule out this possibility, we conducted Northern blot

![Figure 1. Ubiquitylation experiment demonstrating that AtCHIP can ubiquitylate ClpP4 in vitro. The substrate used in the in vitro ubiquitylation reaction is ClpP4, and the antibodies used in the Western blot analysis are anti-ClpP4 antibodies. The arrow indicates ubiquitylated ClpP4 subunits.](image-url)
experiments to analyze the ClpP4 transcript after high-intensity light treatment. Our data indicate that there are no major differences at the transcript level between wild-type and AtCHIP-overexpressing plants (Figure 3), suggesting that the difference observed in the protein levels between wild-type and AtCHIP-overexpressing plants is at the post-transcriptional level.

AtCHIP interacts with ClpP4 in vivo

If ClpP4 is a substrate of AtCHIP, these two proteins should interact with each other in vivo. To test this possibility, we conducted co-precipitation experiments using both wild-type and AtCHIP-overexpressing plants. Under normal growth conditions, AtCHIP clearly interacted with ClpP4 because we could pull down ClpP4 from leaf crude extracts by using anti-AtCHIP antibodies (Figure 4a). This interaction is very specific, because no ClpP4 could be precipitated down if no anti-AtCHIP antibodies or unrelated antibodies (e.g. anti-APX3 antibodies) were used in the co-precipitation experiments (Figure 4a). Furthermore, overexpression of AtCHIP only slightly increased the amount of ClpP4 precipitated (Figure 4a). Interestingly, after high-intensity light treatment, the amount of ClpP4 precipitated was significantly increased in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants (Figure 4b), and several proteins with higher molecular weights that are recognized by anti-ClpP4 antibodies are also increased in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants. These data indicate that AtCHIP does interact with ClpP4 in vivo, and overexpression of AtCHIP appears to increase their interaction in vivo under high-intensity light treatment.

ClpP4-overexpressing plants display chlorotic phenotypes and contain non-functional chloroplasts

In order to study the function of ClpP4 in plant cells, we fused a full-length ClpP4 cDNA to the CaMV 35S promoter in a pBIN19-derived vector (Jefferson et al., 1987), and then introduced the construct into wild-type Arabidopsis plants by using the flower-dip transformation method (Clough and Bent, 1998). We generated 33 independent transgenic plants that overexpress ClpP4, with most having just one T-DNA insertion based on segregation data (Table 1). Interestingly, 11 of these plants displayed a chlorotic phenotype when the
rosette leaves were established (Figure 5). To test whether there was a correlation between ClpP4 overexpression and chlorosis, total RNAs were extracted from wild-type and chlorotic ClpP4-overexpressing plants and the levels of ClpP4 transcripts were determined by Northern blot analysis. As shown in Figure 6(a), a two to fourfold increase in ClpP4 transcript level was observed in the various ClpP4-overexpressing plants. A corresponding increase in the steady-state level of ClpP4 protein was also demonstrated by Western blot analysis (Figure 6c), suggesting a causal relationship between increased expression of ClpP4 and the chlorotic phenotype in ClpP4-overexpressing plants.

Other Clp proteolytic subunits are reduced in ClpP4-overexpressing plants

The proteolytic subunits of the Clp protease complex appear to exist in a structured way such that different subunits are represented in a specific stoichiometry (Peltier et al., 2004), and overproduction of one subunit might disrupt the overall structure of the whole complex. We tested whether overexpression of ClpP4 would affect the steady-state levels of other proteolytic subunits by conducting Western blot experiments, and we found that an increased level of ClpP4 did indeed lead to reduced levels of ClpP3 and ClpP5 (Figure 7). Interestingly, the level of ClpP6 was not affected. It appears that there is greater reduction in the levels of ClpP3 and ClpP5 in the chlorotic tissues than in the green tissues of chlorotic plants (Figure 7), which indicates that the loss of Clp complex might be the cause of the chlorosis.

No functional chloroplasts can be found in the chlorotic tissues of ClpP4-overexpressing plants

We next analyzed chloroplast ultrastructure in the green leaf tissues of wild-type plants and in the chlorotic tissues of...
ClpP4-overexpressing plants, and we observed an almost complete absence of functional chloroplast in the chlorotic tissues of the ClpP4-overexpressing plants (Figure 8). The chloroplasts found in the chlorotic tissues of ClpP4-overexpressing plants were devoid of thylakoid membranes, and were generally smaller and more spherical than those in wild-type plants, which were more reminiscent of plastids prior to chloroplast differentiation. Our data indicate that ClpP4 overexpression interferes with normal chloroplast development and the formation of a functional thylakoid membrane network.

ClpP4 overexpression leads to an early-flowering phenotype

In addition to the leaf chlorosis, ClpP4-overexpressing plants bolted and flowered earlier than wild-type plants (Figure 9), with the phenotype being highly reproducible over four generations. As a result, it appears that an increased level of ClpP4 induces early flowering.

Discussion

ClpP4 is a proteolytic subunit of the chloroplast Clp protease in plant cells. Clp proteases are ATP-dependent enzymes that are thought to be major contributors to protein degradation in the chloroplast stroma and in mitochondria (Adam and Clarke, 2002; Clarke et al., 2005; Halperin et al., 2001; Zheng et al., 2002), although their exact role in plants has yet to be defined (Adam and Clarke, 2002; Clarke et al., 2005). In addition to the plastid-encoded ClpP1, there are five nuclear-encoded ClpP and four ClpP-like paralogs in Arabidopsis, all of which are located in chloroplasts except for ClpP2, which is targeted to mitochondria (Halperin et al., 2001; Peltier et al., 2004). To date, all chloroplast ClpP proteins identified have been found to be essential for plant development (Clarke et al., 2005; Kuroda and Maliga, 2003). All chloroplast ClpP and ClpR paralogs associate within a single proteolytic core complex of approximately 325 kDa (Peltier et al., 2004), presumably in a barrel-like structure of two heptameric rings forming a single proteolytic cavity in analogy to the model Clp protease in Escherichia coli (Wang et al., 1997). The Clp proteolytic core depends on its cognate apparatus, which consists of a single hexameric ring of a chaperone regulatory subunit, ClpC in the case of chloroplasts. The overall structure of the Clp protease resembles that of the 26S proteasome in eukaryotes (Horwich et al., 1999; Wickner et al., 1999). Our data indicate that eukaryotic CHIPs not only physically bind to proteasomes (Connell et al., 2001; Demand et al., 2001; Meacham et al., 2001) but may also bind to a component of the Clp protease complex that is a major part of the protein degradation machinery in chloroplasts.

One of the major findings in this study is the discovery that AtCHIP ubiquitylates ClpP4 in vitro (Figure 1). Together with the observations that AtCHIP overexpression leads to a reduced steady-state level of ClpP4 under high-intensity light conditions (Figure 2) and that AtCHIP and ClpP4 interact with each other in vivo (Figure 4), AtCHIP appears to be involved in a ubiquitylation-related process that helps to regulate Clp proteolytic activity in chloroplasts. Under normal growth conditions, AtCHIP overexpression does not lead to ClpP4 degradation, which suggests that other factor(s) might be required for initiating ClpP4 degradation under high-intensity light conditions. These other factor(s)
may include some stress-inducible E2 enzymes or proteins that increase AtCHIP and ClpP4 interaction under high-intensity light conditions (Figure 4b), and which eventually lead to increased ClpP4 ubiquitylation and degradation in AtCHIP-overexpressing plants. Although ClpP4 appears to be a substrate protein of AtCHIP in vivo, one could argue that

Figure 7. Steady-state levels of ClpP3, ClpP5 and ClpP6 in wild-type and ClpP4-overexpressing plants. (a) ClpP3 and its level relative to GapC in wild-type and ClpP4-overexpressing plants. (b) ClpP5 and its level relative to GapC in wild-type and ClpP4-overexpressing plants. (c) ClpP6 and its level relative to GapC in wild-type and ClpP4-overexpressing plants. WT, wild-type; CO2W, chlorotic tissues from ClpP4-overexpressing line CO2; CO2G, green tissues from ClpP4-overexpressing line CO2; CO53, chlorotic and green tissues (about 80% and 20%, respectively) from ClpP4-overexpressing line CO53. GapC was used as the loading control for the Western blot.

Figure 8. Chloroplast structures in wild-type (WT) and ClpP4-overexpressing chlorotic leaves (1 and 2). Bars = 0.5 μm.

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Figure 9. The timing of bolting is shortened in ClpP4-overexpressing plants. WT, wild-type plants; CO6, CO32 and CO68, three independent ClpP4-overexpressing plants. Error bars represent SD, n = 48.

an E3 enzyme should only recognize non-native or damaged proteins, not those proteins detected by the two-hybrid technique in yeast cells. In fact, there is no evidence that E3 enzymes only recognize non-native proteins. On the contrary, ubiquitylation does occur on native proteins, and these ubiquitylated proteins may have altered cellular destination or enhanced activity (Pickart, 2001; Wojcik, 2001).

In this study, we further analyzed the function of ClpP4 in Arabidopsis. We created gain-of-function mutants by overexpressing ClpP4 in transgenic plants, and we obtained a chlorotic phenotype (Figure 5) similar to that found in some ClpP4 antisense plants described by Zheng et al. (2007). The chlorotic phenotype observed in ClpP4-overexpressing plants is probably caused by increased levels of ClpP4 protein in transgenic plants, because the steady-state levels of ClpP4 are clearly higher in transgenic plants than that in wild-type plants (Figure 6). Examination of cellular structures of transgenic plants reveals that no functional chloroplasts could be found in the chlorotic tissues (Figure 8), which explains why these transgenic plants become chlorotic. Our data from analyzing ClpP4-overexpressing plants, together with the data from analyzing ClpP4 antisense plants (Zheng et al., 2006), support the notion that the Clp proteolytic subunits are represented in certain ratios in the Clp complex, and overproduction or under-production of one subunit may disrupt the overall structure of Clp complex, which might lead to degradation of other unassembled subunits in the chloroplast. It appears that the more closely related protein ClpP3 is reduced more than ClpP5, and the least related ClpP6 is almost unaffected in ClpP4-overexpressing plants (Figure 7), suggesting that there might be direct competition between closely related Clp proteolytic subunits in forming the Clp complex, and that Clp complexes in which the Clp4 subunit is over-represented is not functional in chloroplasts.

Nuclear-encoded chloroplast proteins are imported into chloroplasts in an unfolded conformation (Schatz and Dobberstein, 1996), and, during this process, two cytosolic Hsp70 chaperones are probably involved in maintaining unfolded precursors in a transport-competent state (Callebe and Soll, 1999; Fuks and Schnell, 1997; Keegstra and Cline, 1999). As CHIP was initially identified as a chaperone core-factor that negatively regulates Hsp70 (Ballinger et al., 1999), and CHIP can target substrates of Hsp70 to the 26S proteasome for degradation (Höhfeld et al., 2001; Murata et al., 2001), it would not be surprising if AtCHIP competes with Hsp70 for substrate proteins such as the ClpP4 precursor in the cytoplasm prior to its import into the chloroplast, especially when increased demand for protein import into chloroplasts is impaired under certain stress conditions. Indeed, many nuclear-encoded chloroplast proteins were identified from the yeast two-hybrid screening as possible substrates of AtCHIP, such as the small subunit of Rubisco and the chlorophyll a/b-binding proteins (e.g. RbcS-3b and Lhcb6, respectively; Luo et al., 2006). The specific targeting of the ClpP4 precursor for ubiquitylation and degradation by AtCHIP, however, presents a cytosolic control over the amount of ClpP4 precursor available for chloroplast import. Controlling the amount of ClpP4 imported into chloroplasts would affect the amount of functional Clp proteolytic core complex in the stroma. We have recently shown that down-regulation of a single ClpP paralog proportionally reduces the amount of total Clp proteolytic core and thereby functional Clp protease (Sjögren and Clarke, unpublished data).

Protein degradation via the ubiquitin–proteasome system has been extensively studied over the years, and there is a wealth of knowledge regarding the protein degradation system and its involvement in many important cellular processes in eukaryotic cells (Ciechanover et al., 2000; Ferrell et al., 2000; Smalle and Vierstra, 2004). In contrast, little is known about protein degradation in organelles. Only recently have the identity and abundance of the major proteases within chloroplasts been revealed, all of which are of bacterial origin (Adam and Clarke, 2002). Despite this, essentially nothing is known about how the various proteolytic activities within plant organelles such as the chloroplast are regulated. Our discovery that AtCHIP controls protein degradation in the chloroplast improves our understanding of protein quality control in chloroplasts. Animal CHIP proteins have been shown to be critical in protein quality control in the cytoplasm of animal cells (Cyr et al., 2002; Murata et al., 2001; Patterson, 2002), yet our data indicate that AtCHIP may be important in protein degradation metabolism in the chloroplast, hinting that CHIP is probably a regulator that coordinates protein degradation metabolism in both
cytoplasm and organelles. As AtCHIP is an U-box-containing E3 ligase, an understanding of the role of AtCHIP in protein quality control in both cytoplasm and chloroplast as well as in the stress response will contribute significantly to our understanding of protein homeostasis that is central to plant growth and development under normal and stress conditions.

**Experimental procedures**

**Identification of ClpP4 as an AtCHIP-interacting protein**

ClpP4 was identified as one of the AtCHIP-interacting proteins from a yeast two-hybrid screening (Luo et al., 2006). The nuclear gene coding for ClpP4 was previously described by Adam et al. (2001) and Zheng et al. (2002), and was given the gene identification number At5g45390.

**Expression of ClpP4 in bacterial cells and in vitro ubiquitylation of ClpP4**

The full-length ClpP4 gene was amplified from an Arabidopsis cDNA library with the primers Clp-1 (5′-GTCGGAATTTCAAGG-3′) and Clp-2 (5′-GTCGAGCTTGAATAGTACTC-3′), and then cloned into the pET-30b vector (Novagen, Madison, WI, USA) using restriction enzymes EcoRI and ScaI. Recombinant vectors were introduced in the bacterial strain BL21(DE3) for expression in the presence of kanamycin. ClpP4 was purified according to the manufacturer’s protocol (His-Bind Kits, Novagen, Madison, WI, USA). The in vitro ubiquitylation reaction was conducted as described previously (Yan et al., 2003), except that the reaction mixture includes AtCHIP as the E3 ligase, AtUBC8 as E2 conjugase, rabbit E1 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA, USA) as activase, and bovine ubiquitin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). Polyclonal antibodies against ClpP4 (Zheng et al., 2002) were used in the Western blot as shown in Figure 1.

**Construction of transforming vector for overexpressing ClpP4 in Arabidopsis**

The full-length ClpP4 cDNA was amplified from a cDNA library with the primers Clp-3 (5′-GTCGCTAGAGAAGCTTCTTCT-3′) and Clp-2 (5′-GTCGAGCTTGAATAGTACTC-3′), and then cloned into the pBluescript II KS(−) vector (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA) to form a transforming vector that was transformed into the GV3101 and confirmed by PCR.

**Immunoblot analysis**

Leaf proteins were extracted by grinding leaves in liquid nitrogen in extraction buffer (50 mM NaPO4, pH 7.0, 1 mM EDTA). The crude extracts were centrifuged in a microfuge at 13 000 g for 10 min, and the protein concentration in supernatants was determined by the Bradford (1976) method using bovine serum albumin as a standard. About 200 μl of supernatant (containing 500 μg of total proteins) were incubated with 15 μl of anti-AtCHIP antibodies at 4°C for 1 h, and then 50 μl of Protein A–agarose (Sigma catalog number P0932) were added, and the mixture was incubated for an additional 3 h. The Protein A–agarose complex was washed five times with the extraction buffer before adding an equal volume of 2x SDS loading buffer (125 mM Tris-Cl, 2% SDS, 20% glycerol, 200 mM dithiothreitol, 0.01% bromophenol blue, pH 6.8). Samples were boiled at 100°C for 5 min before loading for electrophoresis in a 12% SDS polyacrylamide gel. The conditions for blotting and color development were the same as described previously (Yan et al., 2003), except the antibodies used were anti-ClpP4 antibodies.

**Plant growth and stress treatments**

Arabidopsis seeds (ecotype C24) were surface-sterilized in 75% ethanol for 1 min, followed by soaking in 50% bleach (Clorox, Oakland, CA, USA) for 10 min, and then rinsed extensively in sterile water. Plant seeds were sown on MS agar plates (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) and stored for 4 days at 4°C before being moved to 25°C under continuous white light conditions (150 μmol m−2 sec−1). For bolting time measurement, seedlings of similar size were then transplanted into soil and allowed to grow until flowering. The time of bolting was scored as the time that the inflorescence stalk emerges from the apical meristem. The data represent the means ± SD from 48 plants, and the experiment was repeated three times. For stress treatments, seedlings were then transplanted into soil and allowed to grow for 3 weeks before stresses were applied. The heat treatment consisted of 21 h at 25°C and 3 h at 42°C per day for a week. The high-intensity light treatment consisted of 18 h under normal light (150 μmol m−2 sec−1) and 6 h under high-intensity light (1500 μmol m−2 sec−1) per day for a week.

**RNA isolation and hybridization**

Total RNAs were isolated from Arabidopsis plants using TRIZOL reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), separated by electrophoresis (10 μg per lane), blotted to a nylon membrane, and hybridized with various probes. Hybridization was carried out according to the method described by Church and Gilbert (1984) using probes labeled by random priming. The washing conditions were as follows: twice (10 min each) in a solution of 0.5% BSA, 1 mM EDTA, 40 mM NaHPO4 (pH 7.2) and 5.0% SDS at 63°C, then four times (5 min each) in a solution of 1 mM EDTA, 40 mM NaHPO4 (pH 7.2) and 1% SDS at 63°C. The same filter was used for hybridizations with probes ClpP4 and 18S/ribosomal RNA, consecutively. The conditions for stripping the filter were as follows: twice (15 min each) in 2 mM Tris (pH 8.2), 2 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) and 0.1% SDS.

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Electron microscopic analysis

Three- to four-week-old Arabidopsis plants were harvested and immediately fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.2 M phosphate (pH 7.2) for 8 h at room temperature, and post-fixed overnight at room temperature with 0.5% osmium tetroxide in the same buffer. Tissues were dehydrated with an ethanol series and embedded in an epoxy resin. Thin sections were stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate and examined with a JEOL 1200EX electron microscope at 80 kV (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan).

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