# Max Planck-Institut für Molekulare Pflanzenbiologie und Universität Potsdam Arbeitsgruppe Prof. Dr. Bernd Mueller-Roeber 

# Unraveling the ORE1 Regulon in Arabidopsis thaliana: <br> Molecular and Functional Characterization of Up- and Down-stream Components 

Dissertation<br>zur Erlangung des akademischen Grades<br>"doctor rerum naturalium"<br>(Dr. rer. nat.)<br>in der Wissenschaftsdisziplin "Molekularbiologie"<br>eingereicht an der<br>Mathematisch-Naturwissenschaftlichen Fakultät<br>der Universität Potsdam

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Potsdam, den 11.04.2012

Published online at the
Institutional Repository of the University of Potsdam:
URL http://opus.kobv.de/ubp/volltexte/2012/6264/
URN urn:nbn:de:kobv:517-opus-62646
http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:kobv:517-opus-62646

## Dedicated

to my beloved deceased grandma Graciela
"-Try not to become a man of success but rather to become a man of value".
A. Einstein

## Summary

Leaf senescence is an active process required for plant survival, and it is flexibly controlled, allowing plant adaptation to environmental conditions. Although senescence is largely an age-dependent process, it can be triggered by environmental signals and stresses. Leaf senescence coordinates the breakdown and turnover of many cellular components, allowing a massive remobilization and recycling of nutrients from senescing tissues to other organs (e.g., young leaves, roots, and seeds), thus enhancing the fitness of the plant. Such metabolic coordination requires a tight regulation of gene expression. One important mechanism for the regulation of gene expression is at the transcriptional level via transcription factors (TFs). The NAC TF family (NAM, ATAF, CUC) includes various members that show elevated expression during senescence, including ORE1 (ANAC092/AtNAC2) among others. ORE1 was first reported in a screen for mutants with delayed senescence (oresaral, 2, 3, and 11). It was named after the Korean word "oresara," meaning "long-living," and abbreviated to ORE1, 2, 3, and 11, respectively. Although the pivotal role of ORE1 in controlling leaf senescence has recently been demonstrated, the underlying molecular mechanisms and the pathways it regulates are still poorly understood.

To unravel the signaling cascade through which ORE1 exerts its function, we analyzed particular features of regulatory pathways up-stream and down-stream of ORE1. We identified characteristic spatial and temporal expression patterns of ORE1 that are conserved in Arabidopsis thaliana and Nicotiana tabacum and that link ORE1 expression to senescence as well as to salt stress. We proved that ORE1 positively regulates natural and dark-induced senescence. Molecular characterization of the ORE1 promoter in silico and experimentally suggested a role of the 5'UTR in mediating ORE1 expression. ORE1 is a putative substrate of a calcium-dependent protein kinase named CKOR (unpublished data). Promising data revealed a positive regulation of putative ORE1 targets by CKOR, suggesting the phosphorylation of ORE1 as a requirement for its regulation. Additionally, as part of the ORE1 up-stream regulatory pathway, we identified the NAC TF ATAF1 which was able to transactivate the ORE1 promoter in vivo. Expression studies using chemically inducible ORE1 overexpression lines and transactivation assays employing leaf mesophyll cell protoplasts provided information on target genes whose expression was rapidly induced upon ORE1 induction. First, a set of target genes was established and referred to as early
responding in the ORE1 regulatory network. The consensus binding site (BS) of ORE1 was characterized. Analysis of some putative targets revealed the presence of ORE1 BSs in their promoters and the in vitro and in vivo binding of ORE1 to their promoters. Among these putative target genes, BIFUNCTIONAL NUCLEASE I (BFN1) and VND-Interacting2 (VNI2) were further characterized. The expression of $B F N 1$ was found to be dependent on the presence of ORE1. Our results provide convincing data which support a role for BFN1 as a direct target of ORE1. Characterization of VNI2 in age-dependent and stress-induced senescence revealed ORE1 as a key up-stream regulator since it can bind and activate VNI2 expression in vivo and in vitro. Furthermore, VNI2 was able to promote or delay senescence depending on the presence of an activation domain located in its C-terminal region. The plasticity of this gene might include alternative splicing (AS) to regulate its function in different organs and at different developmental stages, particularly during senescence. A model is proposed on the molecular mechanism governing the dual role of VNI2 during senescence.

## Acknowledgments

During these past few years I have one of the most enriching times of my entire life. I growth as a science person, I proved my capacities, my patient, my limits and my self-confidence. I learned the real value of my friends, my family and the simple things of life that I left in my country Colombia. The most valuable knowledge is not only the one that I learn as a molecular biologist is the one that help me to improve my life to become a better person and reinforces my moral and my ethics. Nevertheless, none of this valuable life lessons would have been possible without the friendship and encourage of all my friends, family and supervisors.

I would like to acknowledge my Ph.D supervisors, Prof Dr. Bernd Mueller-Roeber and Dr. Salma Balazadeh for giving me the opportunity to make my Ph.D thesis in the group and introduce me in the fascinating world of plant molecular biology, let me grow as a scientist. I want to thank the DAAD (Akademischer Austausch Dienst) for the financial support, the opportunity to learn another language and the facilities to integrate me into the German culture. I am heartily thankful to the DAAD representative for Latin America, Arpe Caspary for his friendship, for believing in me and my capacities. I wish also to thank the former Colombia referat Mrs. Silke Hamacher for her efficient work and nice attitude.

I want to thank exclusively Dr. Judith Lucia Gómez-Porras. She careful read and editorial assisted my thesis. She established with me nutritive scientific discussions and her criticisms, support and humor were the most powerful inputs to complete successfully the final level of my Ph.D. I want to thanks Dr. Alex Ivakov and Matt Neville to point key aspects to improve the document. I want to thanks Dr. Francesco Licausi for stimulating discussions of the experiments, improvements on the document and his unconditional friendship. I received thoughtful suggestions, discussions and warm spiritual support from my Ph.D committee members Prof. Dr. Ingo Dreyer and Dr. Dirk Hincha. All of them directed me become a good scientist.

I would specifically like to thank Dr. Eugenia Maximova who always takes the time to help me in microscopy, Dr. Karin Köhl and her Greenteam especially Linda Bartetzko, Katrin Seehaus, Sven Roigk, Helga Kulka, Britta Hausmann and Katrin Lepa for taking excellent care of plants and transformations and giving me always a smile and good advices; Josef

Bergstein for the excellent photography work and nice conversations. Many thanks go also to the IT team; the administration team and the media kitchen for making my time at the MPI-Golm better and efficient.

I want to thank all members of the Molecular Biology Department at the University of Potsdam especially Mathias Christoph, Eike Kamman, Dr. Dagmar Kupper, Antje Scheneider, Karina Schulz, Radoslaw Lukoszek, Dr. Minh Hung Nguyen and Ines Nowak for guiding me and teach me key aspects for my daily lab work. Also thanks for their friendschip and be always open to help me. I also want to thank Nooshin Omranian, Mamoona Rauf, Arif Muhammad, Prashant Garapati and Amin Omidbakhshfard for their support.

My especial appreciation goes to my collaborators; Prof. Dr. Amnon Lers (Volcani Center, Israel), Dr.Gang-Ping Xue (CSIRO Plant Industry, Australia) and Prof. Dr. Wolfgang DrögeLaser (Julius-Maximilians-Universität Würzburg) for excellent discussions and improvement on the article.

I also keep in my hearth grateful my friends Daan Weits, Dr. Federico Giorgio, Anna Flis, Monika Chodasiewicz, Asdrubal Burgos, Rodrigo Caroca, Ignacia Bustos, Susana Salem, Dr. Sonia Osorio, Dr. Clara Sanchez, Phuong Anh Pham, Dr. Dimas Riveiro, Soledad Garcia, Dr. Samuel Ardvison, Dr. Martin Lauxmann, Romy Schmidt, Dr. Josefus Schippers, Claudia Sanabria, Justyna Tomala, Raul Trejos, Maryory Leyton, Niels Weisbach and Katharina Berger. All of them support me through my Ph.D taking me out of my routine, improving my research and making my life much happier and easier.

I offer my most sincere gratitude towards Dr. Flavia Vischi, Dr. Fernando Arana, Dr. Diego Riaño-Pachón, Dr. Magarita Perea-Dallos and Dr. Nestor Riaño my close friends for their sincere support and because without your continue positivism and encourage it would have been impossible for me to begin and complete this work successfully

Special thanks to Family Brozio, Family Lieutenant, Family Peña-Andrade and Andrea Diaz for making me feel at home in Germany.

The impulse to embark into this adventure and the encouragement and love to go to the end comes from my beloved friend and partner Hernando Leyton. He has never accepted less than my best efforts. Thank you.

Lastly, I offer my deepest regards and blessings to my whole family especially to my beloved mom Cristina, my young brother Alejandro, Emilse, Anatilde and Sebastian who supported me, shared with me all the stresses and teach me the most important values in life.

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1. General concepts of plant senescence and its regulation

The process of aging and senescence in humans and plants has been the focus of major studies for a long time (Breeze et al., 2011; Howard et al., 2009; Kirkwood and Austad, 2000; Lim et al., 2007; Thomas 2002). A primary motivation for this is to understand what controls the decline of tissue and organ functionality and reproduction ability when higher organisms age, and which factors determine the length of life. Certainly, both aspects have a broad spectrum of explanations ranging from an inherent genetic control present in each organism to external factors such as environmental conditions and natural selection. In the following, I will give an overview of current knowledge with respect to the physiological process of senescence in plants.

Two major theories of senescence are currently acknowledged and have been developed mainly in the animal field: the antagonistic pleiotropic theory and the mutation accumulation theory. Both theories suggest that two classes of mutations are responsible for senescence: those with beneficial early-life, but deleterious late-life effects; and late-acting mutations with purely deleterious effects (Jing et al., 2007; Kirkwood and Austad, 2000). In animals and yeast, those theories have been well demonstrated based on physiological and molecular studies on individuals at the population and species levels (Kirkwood and Cremer, 1982; Williams, 1957). Plants exhibit modular growth, exposes a propensity for vegetative reproduction, and can begin senescence in one or more organs at different times throughout the life-span of the plant. Without doubt, senescence in plants exposes particular features that do not fit well into these theories (Bleecker, 1998). In an effort to reconcile the theories about animals with plants, some authors have proposed to scale them down and treat an individual leaf as an autonomous entity (Thomas, 2002). I agree with the concept that has already been exposed by different authors in which leaf senescence is conceived as a detrimental consequence of an indirect selection for traits that favor nutrient salvage, remobilization, and reassimilation to optimize the plant genome for reproduction (Bleecker, 1998; Jing et al., 2007). This highly regulated and orderly process controls an efficient redistribution of
valuable resources (especially nitrogen and carbon) to other developing organs (Bleecker, 1998; Breeze et al., 2011; Buchanan-Wollaston 1997; Gan and Amasino, 1997).

The concepts described above are complemented by the fact that leaf senescence can be influenced by hormonal and developmental processes and is fuelled by experimental and modeling assays in which a differential expression of genes is evident among the whole process (Buchanan-Wollaston, 1997; Pontier et al., 1999). Despite the fact that plants suffer drastic ultrastructural changes during the breakdown of chloroplasts, a decrease of cytoplasmic volume and ribosomes, and the dismantling of various organelles, other cellular entities remain largely intact initially to guarantee effective gene expression and energy production during the senescence process. Thus, the plasma membrane, mitochondria, and the nucleus remain intact until the latest senescence stages (Gan and Amasino, 1997). Apart from environmental nutrition deficiency and other stresses, plants ultimately initiate and progress leaf senescence in an independent manner. Arabidopsis thaliana is a monocarpic model plant, in which senescence is controlled by the reproductive structures. The seeds are being produced while the plant starts to senescence, reusing the storage nutrients from photosynthetic tissues (Gan and Amasino, 1997).

During the reassimilation and dismantling process, plants exhibit a strong biochemical activity to degrade most of the macromolecules such as chlorophyll, proteins, and lipids. Later, different strategies are used to modulate the progression of senescence, like hormonal changes and redistribution of the metabolic flux, particularly with respect to nitrogen and sugars (Lim et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2008; Noodén and Guiamet 1996; Otegui et al., 2005; Quirino et al., 2000).

Following this line of argument, the functional characterization of senescence-regulatory networks and their underlying genes represents an appropriate way to further discern the ongoing processes during senescence. In addition, such an approach will allow studying senescence from a cross-kingdom phylogenetic view and will likely add to our understanding of the evolutionary paths through which senescence developed.

### 1.2. Dismantling of chloroplasts

Chloroplasts break down early during the senescence process, prior to the loss of mitochondria and nuclei (Lim et al., 2007), and concomitantly undergo a progressive decrease in photosynthetic rate. The major fraction of nitrogen (70-90\%) exported from senescent leaves comes from the degradation of Rubisco, light-harvesting chlorophyll a/bbinding proteins, and proteins from Photosystem II (PSII) and Photosystem I (PSI) which are located in the stroma and thylakoid membranes (Morita, 1980). During chloroplast formation in young, growing leaves, pigments and proteins are assembled as active and interacting complexes; therefore, the dismantling of these complexes during senescence
is a prerequisite for the enzymatic degradation of the individual components. A series of characteristic events can be observed during senescence using electron microscopy, x-ray diffraction, and immunological and fluorescence techniques (Barton, 1966; Biswal et al., 2003; Freeman et al., 1978; Hurkman, 1979; Sundqvist and Dahlin, 1997; Suzuki et al., 1997). One of the earliest changes is the disappearance of stacked grana regions followed by the elongation of lamellae. This distension is followed by massive degradation with a concomitant increase in the number and size of lipid droplets called plastoglobules and a swelling of the intrathylakoid space (Baker, 1992; Biswal, 1995; Biswal and Biswal, 1984; Matile et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2003).

Recently, it was shown that chloroplasts remain outside of the vacuole, even at late stages of senescence, while the thylakoid membranes are internally dismantled. As thylakoids were dismantled, Rubisco large subunit protein (Lhcb1) and chloroplast DNA levels declined, but variable levels of mRNA persisted. This observation demonstrates that even though certain plastid components are degraded in the vacuole, the whole chloroplast was not transported into the vacuole for degradation, as suggested in previous studies (Evans et al., 2009; Minamikawa et al., 2001; Wittenbach et al., 1982).

### 1.2.1. Control of chlorophyll catabolism

During autumn, it is common to see beautifully colored leaves. This is a result of the action of the catabolic pathway of chlorophyll (Chl), combined with the partial retention of carotenoids, and the accumulation and unmasking of colorless breakdown products with newly synthesized red anthocyanins and dark-colored oxidation products of phenolic compounds. Nevertheless, some authors propose that the removal of greenness in leaves has been underestimated, even though it is catalogued as the simplest and most easily measured index of leaf senescence syndrome (Thomas, 1997). Evidence indicates that the physiological pathway of yellowing is a robust and consistent component of the senescence syndrome and justifies its study in isolated organs and tissues in the plant (Ougham et al., 2008). Chlorophyll degradation is a symptom of the transition of chloroplasts to gerontoplasts. A gerontoplast is defined as a distinctive senescence-specific form of plastids and is entirely catabolic. Developing gerontoplasts persist and remain intact throughout leaf senescence (Baker, 1992; Parthier, 1988). As leaf senescence proceeds, chlorophyll (Chl) levels decrease and photochemical efficiency of photosystem II and Rubisco protein levels decline (Evans et al., 2009). Pathogen attack, as well as other biotic or abiotic stresses, can also accelerate premature leaf senescence and color change. Nevertheless, this pathological degreening has only a superficial resemblance to true senescence, proposed by some authors as "pseudosenescence". According to these authors, pseudo-senescence differs from the senescence in its genetic and biochemical components. Furthermore, it seems that senescence maintains viability in tissues that would otherwise rapidly divert into the pseudosenescence pathway and, therfore, avoid premature cell death (Ougham et al., 2008).

The catabolic pathway of chlorophyll (Chl) during senescence and fruit ripening leads to the accumulation of colorless breakdown products so called non-fluorescent chlorophyll catabolites (NCCs) (Hörtensteiner, 2006). During catabolism, chlorophyll follows a route that initiates when chlorophyll is separated from the binding proteins within the thylakoid membranes (Ougham et al., 2008). In the first proposed pathway, the chlorophyllase enzyme (Chlase) hydrolyses the ester linkage of the phytol chain to the porphyrin macrocycle of chlorophyll (Jacob-Wilk et al., 1999; Matile et al., 1999; Tsuchiya et al., 1999), releasing phytol and chlorophyllide. In a second step, magnesium dechelatase removes the $\mathrm{Mg}^{2+}$ ion from the tetrapyrrole, converting chlorophyllide to the chlorin molecule pheophorbide (Pheide a) (Shioi et al., 1996). Chlorophyll and its immediate catabolites are colored and strongly excited by ambient light. Thus, the catabolic route is organized in a way to avoid photodynamic damage by free pigments. The opening of the tetrapyrrole ring is a two-stage reaction which is catalyzed by PaO (Phaephorbide a oxygenase) and adds oxygen across the methine bridge between rings A and B (Hörtensteiner, 2006). A metal chelating substance (MCS) has been shown to be required for the activity of magnesium dechelatase (Tadashi, 2005). This pathway avoids the risk of photodamage, and the green color disappears when PaO opens the macrocycle of Pheide a (Rodoni et al., 1997) and the red chlorophyll catabolite (RCC), a photoactive red pigment, appears (Ougham et al., 2008). Immediately after this reaction, the RCC reductase abolished the photodynamic properties of RCC, resulting in the production of the colorless fluorescent Chl catabolite (pFCC) (Ougham et al., 2008; Schenk et al., 2007). The colorless linear product is exported from the plastid and in different ways depending on the plant species, may conjugate in the cytosol before being transported into the cell vacuole where the final chemical modification may take place (Hörtensteiner, 2006; Kräutler and Hörtensteiner, 2006; Tanaka and Tanaka, 2006). However, evidence inconsistent with this model has been presented by other authors. $\mathrm{AtCLH1}$ and AtCLH 2 are the only two Chlase genes reported in Arabidopsis, and it has been shown that (i) neither of these isoforms is localized to plastids, (ii) double knockout mutant plants are still able to degrade chlorophyll during leaf senescence (Schenk et al., 2007), (iii) their activity could be detected prior to the onset of senescence (Benedetti and Arruda, 2002), and (iv) increases in Chl synthesis are also accompanied by increases in Chlase activity (Roca and MínguezMosquera, 2003). This inconsistence generated an alternative description of the pathway during senescence. This model postulates that the removal of $\mathrm{Mg}^{2+}$ to form pheophytin occurs first and is followed by the removal of the phytol tail, catalyzed by pheophytinase (PPH) without a direct interaction with chlorophyll. This perspective generated the idea that chlorophyll synthesis and breakdown are metabolically separated during leaf senescence, and a careful revision of proposed pathway, as well as new experiments, are suggested to clarify the pathway of chlorophyll degradation during leaf senescence (Eckardt, 2009).

As a final step, the nonfluorescent chlorophyll catabolites (NCCs) produced during the opening of Chl macrocycles are deposited into the vacuole with any recycling of the nitrogen contained within them (Hinder et al., 1996; Tommasini et al., 1998). This presupposes that
degradation is required in principle to facilitate access to more valuable materials present in thylakoid proteins and lipids and to detoxify the cell of these highly reactive compounds, maintaining the viability of the cell during the process and not a nutrient salvage (BuchananWollaston et al., 2003; Matile et al., 1999).

### 1.2.2. Chloroplast protein loss

Protein metabolism guarantees normal development and homeostasis in a plant cell. This complex process involves a broad spectrum of enzymes and manifold proteolytic pathways localized in different subcellular compartments (Grudkowska and Zagdanska, 2004; Vierstra 1996). Nitrogen exists mainly in chlorophyll and proteins. More than $75 \%$ of leaf protein is located within the chloroplast (Feller et al., 2008a). Rubisco is the most abundant protein on earth and contributes up to $50 \%$ of the soluble proteins and up to $30 \%$ of total leaf nitrogen in leaves of C3 plants (Ellis, 1979; Feller et al., 2008b). Some plant species are able to complete a life-cycle based on the initial supply of nitrogen during young developmental stages and eventually achieve good seed production. The most fundamental process in N -reabsorption is degradation of proteins, and its efficiency is close to $90 \%$, thus being one of the most efficient of all metabolic pathways (Himelblau and Amasino, 2001; Mei and Thimann, 1984).

Many genes involved in protein turnover, such as proteases (e.g. cysteine and aspartic proteases) (Woo et al., 2004) and protein kinases, are significantly upregulated during senescence (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005). All of the amino acids derived from protein catabolism during senescence may be redistributed within the plant via the phloem and serve as basis/raw materials for protein synthesis in other organs of the plant. During senescence, a preferential expression of a specific set of "senescence-associated genes" (SAGs) has been reported, and based on the functional classes involved, there are three principal pathways that might regulate protein degradation: the ubiquitin/proteasome system; the chloroplast degradation pathway; and the vacuolar and autophagic (APG) pathway (Liu et al., 2008).

In the ubiquitin/proteasome pathway, the covalent attachment of the 76 -amino acid protein ubiquitin is used as a signal to target specific proteins for degradation by the 26 S proteasome (Smalle and Vierstra, 2004). The principal enzymes involved are an ubiquitin-activating enzyme (El), ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme (E2), and ubiquitin protein ligase (E3). Expression profile analysis during leaf senescence in Arabidopsis revealed a large number of genes of the ubiquitin- 26 S proteasome pathway, suggesting that ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis might be an important step in protein degradation outside the chloroplast (Park et al., 1998). It has been shown that $U B Q 3$ and $U B Q 4$ are the predominant polyubiquitin genes up regulated, while other ubiquitin-related protein genes are also highly represented (Lin and Wu, 2004).

Proteolysis of chloroplast proteins (Chlp) takes place during the transition from proplastid to plastid, or during senescence (Adam, 1996). Proteases localized to the stroma, the
thylakoid membrane, and the thylakoid lumen have been described (Adam et al., 2001). The Arabidopsis genome contains at least 23 genes predicted to encode Chlp proteases located in the stroma, and most of them have been described during leaf senescence (Adam et al., 2001; Adam and Clarke, 2002; Gottesman, 1996; Liu et al., 2008; Sakamoto, 2006). Nevertheless, degradation of the light-harvesting complex of Photosystem II (LHCII) is still poorly characterized, and the protease/proteases involved, as well as their exact role, remain to be uncovered (Liu et al., 2008).

The autophagy (APG) pathway is a catabolic process that allows recycling of cytoplasmic components (including organelles) into monomers and is the last proposed pathway of protein degradation. Through this pathway, protein degradation occurs via micro or macroautophagy. In microautophagy, targeted cytosolic components are enclosed in lysosomal or vacuolar membranes via invagination (Klionsky and Ohsumi, 1999; Mukaiyama et al., 2002). By contrast, macroautophagy takes place in the cytoplasm and is initiated with the generation of membranes that can eventually fuse and form autophagosomes in which enclosed material can be transported into the vacuoles and degraded by vacuolar exo- and endoproteases, such as cysteine proteinase (SAG12), aspartic proteinase, serine proteinase, and other peptidases which are well documented during leaf senescence (Buchanan-Wollaston, et al., 2003; Buchanan-Wollaston, et al., 2005; Klionsky and Ohsumi, 1999; Lin and Wu, 2004). Recently, it has been reported that autophagosome formation requires essentially two ubiquitin-like proteins, ATG8 and ATG12, which conjugate with phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) and ATG5, respectively, forming ATG8-PE and ATG12-ATG5 complexes in higher eukaryotes (Geng and Klionsky, 2008). Other studies in wheat, soybean, tobacco, and Arabidopsis revealed the presences of vesicles in the cytoplasm that include Rubisco and/or Rubisco degradation products and other stromal proteins, and also small senescence-associated vacuoles involved in the degradation of chloroplast proteins (Chiba et al., 2003; Martínez et al., 2008).

### 1.2.3. Degradation of membrane components and lipid breakdown

In plants, like in other eukaryotes, lipids are used for membrane biogenesis, in molecular signaling, as a source of energy, and as a protective layer that does not permit desiccation and infection. The chloroplast and other organelles present in plant cells have the capacity to synthetize fatty acids and confer to plants not only a different lipid composition, but also a different metabolic pathway when compared to animal cells. Contrary to animal lipid bilayers, chloroplast and other plastids are largely composed of galactolipids, rather than phospholipids, as the predominant lipids in green tissues. The thylakoid membrane system is mainly composed of phosphatidylglycerols, whereas most of the limited phosphatidylcholine in chloroplasts is associated with their outer membrane (Cullis et al., 1996). These fatty acids cannot be transported for long distances in the plant; due to this, the only way to use them as a practical carbon reserve for growing tissues is through the conversion of acetylCoA to sucrose by beta-oxidation. The content of fatty acids in green leaves represents
around $5 \%$ of their dry weight and $10 \%$ of the total energy (Nishimura et al., 1993; Schmid and Ohlrogge, 2002).

It has been reported that the levels of monogalactosyl diglyceride, digalactosyl diglyceride, and phospholipid phosphatidylglycerol decline at the onset of leaf senescence accompanied by a progressive decrease as senescence advances. In contrast, waxes present in Arabidopsis leaves exhibited only a minor reduction during senescence (Ferguson and Simon, 1973; Fong and Heath, 1977; Harwood et al., 1982; Koiwai et al., 1981; Wanner et al., 1991; Yamauchi et al., 1986). Active metabolism of fatty acids is a typical feature of seed germination and seedling growth. In addition, the process is also necessary during senescence to guarantee the flux of stored carbon from leaves to other developing organs like seeds, and to eliminate negative effects of free fatty acids after the hydrolysis of lipids (Graham, 2008). Membrane disruption has been proposed to be a key event in plant senescence. One of the most characteristic features in membrane deterioration is a progressive decline of phospholipid levels with a relative enrichment of free fatty acids and sterols in the membranes, accompanied by an increase in the level of different enzymes (McKersie and Thompson, 1978; Thompson et al., 1982).

It is well documented that leaf peroxisomes are transformed directly to glyoxysomes during senescence (Nishimura et al., 1993). The peroxisome of senescent leaves metabolize the fatty acids after hydrolysis by the $\beta$-oxidation pathway (Gerhardt, 1992). Lipid-degrading enzymes, such as phospholipase D (PLD), phosphatidic acid phosphatase, lipolytic acyl hydrolase, and lipoxygenase, constitute the first degradation machinery of membrane phospholipids (Thompson et al., 1998). Some of the products from lipid catabolism may serve as substrates for other reactions; this is the case for free linoleic acid that is released during membrane lipid degradation and later used for jasmonic acid biosynthesis (Creelman and Mullet, 1997).

When lipid-degrading enzymes degrade membrane phospholipids and release free fatty acids, the bilayer structure of the membrane is perturbed. This facilitates the action of other lipid-degrading enzymes like SAG101 acyl hydrolase, which was proposed to be one of the key enzymes during the onset of leaf senescence (Thompson et al., 1998; Yang and Ohlrogge, 2009). In addition, some authors have suggested an additional nonenzymatic oxidation pathway that includes an autoxidation due to reactive oxygen species, such as superoxide anion, hydrogen peroxide, and hydroxyl radical (Fong and Heath, 1977; Paliyath and Droillard, 1992; Thompson et al., 1998). Finally, plants can use the fatty acids from this step of lipid degradation to obtain energy by oxidation of the fatty acids. The glyoxylate cycle produces succinate and malate. These are converted to oxaloacetate, which then enters into the gluconeogenesis pathway to produce sugars and, ultimately, sucrose. This final product can then be transported by the phloem to other plant organs (Buchanan-Wollaston, 1997; Smart, 1994).

### 1.3. Integration of hormonal changes during leaf senescence

Senescence of different organs in the plant can be regulated by external and internal factors. Internal factors influencing senescence include the developmental stage as well as endogenous levels of phytohormones and other growth substances. These factors may act individually or in concert (He et al., 2001). In general phytohormones are able to promote or repress the senescence process. Cytokinin, auxin, gibberellic acid (GA), and polyamines are considered to delay senescence, whereas ethylene, abscisic acid (ABA), jasmonic acid (JA) and its derivative methyl jasmonate (MeJA), salicylic acid (SA), and brassinosteroids (BRs) are thought to be involved in its induction. Published data show an overlap between different hormone signaling pathways during normal plant development and in response to different abiotic and biotic stresses, making the study a real complex task (Lim et al., 2001). Research on phytohormones and their influence on plant senescence is normally based on the external application of the hormone, the measurement of endogenous levels before and after the onset of senescence, and finally, molecular analysis in which modification of the phytohormone levels in specific organs is measured in mutants or transgenic lines. A vast amount of documentation is available on the effects of plant hormones during senescence. In the following, I present a brief overview of the documentation and try to highlight important findings regarding hormonal effects on senescence.

### 1.3.1. Hormones promoting senescence

A correlation between ethylene production and leaf senescence has been reported in several plant species. An increase in the level of ethylene promotes senescence and some of its specific components, such as the degradation of chlorophyll, proteins, and other macromolecules, a rise in the expression of different senescence associated genes (SAGs), and the enhancement of catabolic enzyme activities (Mattoo and Aharoni, 1988). Molecular analysis of the ethylene perception and signal transduction mutants etrl and ein2 revealed an increase of the lifespan as a consequence of a delay in the onset of senescence (Aeong Oh et al., 1997; Grbic and Bleecker, 1995). Nevertheless, some authors have pointed out that ethylene, itself, is neither necessary nor sufficient for promoting leaf senescence in some species such as Arabidopsis. Furthermore, this hormone may promote senescence only in mature or old leaves, and in comparison to floral organs or fruits, its effect on leaves is considerably less pronounced (Grbic and Bleecker, 1995).

The second plant hormone responsible for the promotion of senescence is JA. Some studies of wild type Arabidopsis plants revealed that the exogenous application of this phytohormone might induce premature senescence in attached and detached leaves, but its exogenous application to mutant coil plants could not induce premature senescence, suggesting the importance of the complete signaling pathway to promote leaf senescence (He et al., 2002). Transcriptional analysis revealed an upregulation of genes involved in JA biosynthesis during
leaf senescence; but even when plants underproduce JA (in the case of JA mutants), there is no significant retardation in leaf senescence, and this hormone pathway probably plays just a secondary role or complements other signaling pathways during senescence (Gan and Amasino, 1997; Harms et al., 1995).

SA is another hormone involved in plant senescence. Its role in the process has recently been documented. SA plays a role in the initiation of senescence and may share the same pathway as stress responsive genes. The endogenous levels of SA increase in parallel with the progression of senescence, and Arabidopsis plants with a deficiency of SA exhibit a retardation of senescence and changes in SAG expression (Abreu and Munné-Bosch, 2008; Morris et al., 2000).

The last two plant hormones involved in the promotion of senescence are brassinosteorids (BRs) and abscisic acid (ABA). Despite evidence for a positive influence on the progression of senescence, their specific roles are still unclear. In the case of BRs, there is evidence for the induction of senescence by external application of 24-epibrassinolide (eBR). Furthermore, Arabidopsis mutants which lack BR, such as $\operatorname{det} 2$ or bril, show a leaf senescence phenotype (Bishop and Koncz, 2002; Clouse, 1997; Clouse et al., 1996). In addition, reactive oxygen species (ROS) signaling may have links with the BR signaling pathway, and through this, may mediate BR-induced senescence.

### 1.3.2. Hormones delaying senescence

Cytokinins have the strongest effect on the longevity of plant organs, and their impact in delaying senescence is one of the most documented topics in plant physiology (McCabe et al., 2001; Richmond and Lang, 1957). Modifications in cytokinin biosynthesis allowed detection of a delay of senescence in different plant organs and a significant increase in plant productivity (Gan and Amasino, 1995; Nelson, 1988), whereas reduction of the endogenous levels resulted in an acceleration of the process (Masferrer et al., 2002). There is an inverse correlation between the endogenous cytokinin levels and senescence progression. Mutants carrying defects in the cytokinin biosynthesis pathway gave strong evidence of its effect in the retardation of senescence (Gan and Amasino, 1996). Due to the fact that cytokinins are implicated in a wide range of physiological processes in plants and are often influenced by developmental processes of other organs/tissues, the effect of this phytohormone depends on several external and internal factors and varies under different experimental conditions (Gan and Amasino, 1995; Gan and Amasino, 1996).

Auxins are the second group of plant hormones involved in the retardation of senescence; external application of the hormone delays senescence, and a negative correlation exists between the endogenous auxin levels and the degree of leaf senescence. Some of the
senescence features, like chlorophyll loss and protein degradation, were established by the application of either synthetic or natural auxins (Noodén and Leopold, 1988). A more recent study finds that overexpression of the Arabidopsis thaliana YUCCA6 gene, which encodes a member of the flavin monooxygenase protein family that limits de novo auxin biosynthesis, exhibits the classic delayed, dark-induced and hormone-induced senescence in detached rosette leaves, as showed the mutant (Kim et al., 2011).

The effects of gibberellins on natural senescence, and their relationship with senescence, are not fully understood. Experimental data suggested that GAs are able to inhibit mitotic and postmitotic senescence in pea apical buds (Zhu and Davies, 1997), and postmitotic leaf senescence in many other plant species. The mitotic, or proliferative senescence is defined when germline-like meristem cells lose their ability to undergo mitotic cell division. In contrast, the postmitotic senescence refers to an active degenerative process that occurs in organs such as leaves and floral petals (Gan, 2003). The increase in GAs by external application inhibits the degradation of chlorophyll, proteins, and/or nucleic acids in leaves (Noodén and Leopold, 1988). Among different kinds of gibberellins, GA4 has a strong effect in delaying leaf senescence in different species (Gan, 2010; Kappers et al., 1998; Ranwala and Miller, 2000). Like other groups of hormones, the effect of GAs is highly dependant on many internal and external factors as well as the species being used for the study.

### 1.4. Abiotic and biotic stresses

Leaf longevity and abiotic stress are closely related terms, and strong evidence supports the model that both physiological plant traits are regulated by a partially overlapping set of complex molecular networks (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Breeze et al., 2011). Stress is generally understood as the reaction of a biological system to extreme environmental factors that, depending on intensity and duration, may cause significant changes in the system (Godbold, 1998; Orcutt and Hale, 2000). Favorable or disadvantageous factors press the plants throughout their entire life. Plants are sessile organisms and cannot move away from adverse environmental conditions or perturbations. To compensate for this deficiency, plants have developed a variety of molecular strategies against biotic and abiotic stresses. According to this idea, each organism displays a specific genetic tolerance to a specific stress. The definition of stress is present in the cases where external changes exceed this tolerance, and plants must not only change their metabolism but also lose the equilibrium. Thus, the normal energy consumption, growth, development, and productivity are affected and finally cause bodily injury, disease, or aberrant physiology (Gaspar et al., 2002; Mandre, 2002). Those biotic stressors are concerned with the mechanism of interaction between different species like in the case of diseases and herbivores; these are of particular interest to forest and agricultural systems (Orcutt and Hale, 2000). Abiotic stressors may be of physical or chemical character and include stresses associated with temperature, salinity, and drought, and they may act alone or in combination. (Mandre, 2002; Orcutt and Hale, 2000).

Various gene expression-profiling studies revealed that many genes encoding NAC transcription factors are induced during both natural and abiotic stress-induced senescence (Buchanan-Wollaston, 1997; Olsen et al., 2005; Uauy et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2001, 2003; Balazadeh et al., 2008b). Therefore, the functional characterization of senescenceassociated NAC transcription factors may provide important information with respect to understanding senescence-regulatory pathways and their overlap with stress-response signaling pathways.

### 1.5. Regulation of gene expression: the role of transcription factors

The development of any organism depends on proper coordination of gene expression. The genetic information encoded in the DNA must first be converted into mRNA through the action of RNA polymerase II in a process called transcription; subsequently, the produced transcript serves as a template for the generation of a specific protein through translation. RNA polymerase II cannot bind directly to promoters and initiate transcription itself. Therefore, one of the most important points in this mechanism is the regulation of gene transcription via transcription factors (TFs). TFs are a very broad category of DNA binding proteins with a positive (activation) or negative (repression) effect on transcription. The central role of transcription in the process of gene expression is exemplified by general transcription factors (GTFs), such as TFIIA, TFIIB, TFIID, TFIIE, TFIIF, and TFIIH, present in eukaryotes. These are necessary not only for control in a large-scale regulation of different genes, but also for the initiation of transcription itself (Facciotti et al., 2007). A key challenge in genetic research is to understand how TFs bind the correct DNA sequence to control gene expression. Transcription establishes a control point for regulating gene expression and gives the ability to perform different functions by generating alternative splicing of the same transcript. Several factors are required to locate and orient the RNA polymerase correctly, and each is given by different time-specific molecular events at the end the expression of a gene. In addition to the GTFs, recognition and response to regulatory signals requires promoter-regulatory sequences (cis-regulatory elements). The specific recognition of a ciselement is given by the conformation and three-dimensional structure of the TF, allowing its DNA to bind. A multiprotein complex called transcriptional mediator, or mediator complex, is required to transmit signals from transcription factors to the RNA polymerase II initiation complex (Fig. 1) (Latchman, 2008).


Figure 1. Schematic view of the molecular events in the expression of a gene. (1) Transduction of signals from the cell surface to the nucleus. (2) Beads on a string form of chromatin. (3) Nucleosome disassembly by SWI/SNF complexes and histone chaperones. (4) In combination with general transcription factors, RNA polymerase II forms the preinitiation complex (PIC). This complex is assembled at the core promoter region and is able to initiate transcription. The core promoter is the minimal promoter (approximately 34 bp up-stream of the start codon) which is required for transcription initiation. It is form by TBP (TATA binding protein), some activators (as TF), and some coactivators. Those factors are required to transmit regulatory signals from transcription factors to the RNA pol II. In addition to promoters, other regulatory regions, such as enhancers, may be required for full expression. (5) Gene transcription by RNA polymerase II.

TF families are classified based on structural similarities. The PlnTFDB (Plant Transcription Factor Database) reports 2657 protein models and 2451 distinct protein sequences of Arabidopsis thaliana arranged in 81 gene families (Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2010). Classification of those TFs is given on the basis of sequence similarities, most often in the DNA-binding domain (DBD) (Guo et al., 2005). Within families, the members are similar to each other only in their DNA-binding. The names of the DBDs (e.g., AP2/ ERF or EREBP, WRKY, NAC) are also used as the names of the transcription factor families. Frequently, the same family binds DNA in a sequence-specific manner, and this region is highly conserved. In contrast, the transcription regulatory domain (TRD) has been classified according to its amino acid profile, i.e., as acidic, glutamine-, proline- or serine/threonine-rich, and exhibits protein segments that determine the three-dimensional structure of the TF with a relative flexibility (Luscombe and Thornton, 2002; Skriver et al., 2010; Tompa, 2005). The NAC transcription factors, along with the MYB, AP2/EREBP,
and bHLH proteins, are the largest families of transcription factors in the plant kingdom (Riechmann et al., 2000). The specificity of the DNA-binding activity could be modulated by the presence of more than one domain in a single TF as well as homodimerization or heterodimerization. Modifications like phosphorylation, glycosylation, nuclear transport, and oligomerization are important post-translation modifications that can control TF activity (Meshi and Iwabuchi, 1995).

### 1.5.1. Molecular regulation of senescence

Breakdown of different macromolecules, and their massive remobilization from senescent to young tissues, requires that cells retain their nuclear integrity to allow for effective transcription and further translation of proteins; thus nuclei remain intact until the very late stages of senescence. In the particular case of senescence, regulation of the process is reported to be strictly controlled by the molecular interaction of genes known as senescence associated genes (SAGs) and modulated by internal and environmental signals (BuchananWollaston, 1997; Gan and Amasino, 1997). It is well known that its progression can be inhibited by enucleation and inhibitors of RNA and protein biosynthesis, and it is highly controlled by gene expression (Noodén and Leopold, 1988). There are more than 100 genes differentially up regulated during the process. Among them, NAC and WRKY TFs constitute a large proportion of the senescence-regulated genes already assigned to play an important role in Arabidopsis senescence (Balazadeh et al., 2008a,b; Breeze et al., 2011). Despite the importance of senescence, few SAGs have been completely characterized; some of them, like SAG12 (encoding a cystein protease), SAG13 (oxidoreductase), SAG101 (acyl hydrolase) from Arabidopsis (He and Gan, 2002), and LSC54 (a gene encoding methallothionein) from Brassica napus (Buchanan-Wollaston, 1994) are highly upregulated during the onset and progression of senescence. Nevertheless, their expression is not exclusive to the senescence process, and expression of SAG12 and SAG13 was also reported in floral organs. Other genes involved in the genetic control of senescence, like the senescence-associated gene 1 (SEN1), are detectable during all stages of leaf development but show a significant increase in expression during senescence (Gan and Amasino, 1997).

### 1.5.2. The NAC transcription factor family

The NAC transcription factor family was first reported as the RESPONSIVE TO DEHYDRATION 26 (RD26) gene in Arabidopsis. The name "NAC" has been derived from the first letters of the first three genes described as containing the NAC domain: (i) the petunia gene $N A M$ (no apical meristem); (ii) ATAF1/2; and (iii) CUC2 (cup-shaped cotyledon) from Arabidopsis (Miyoshi et al., 2002; Nakashima et al., 2007; YamaguchiShinozaki et al., 1992). NAC proteins appear to be widespread in plants. For example, the genome of Arabidopsis thaliana contains around 100 NAC-encoding genes, whereas NAC
genes appear to be absent from algae and other eukaryotes, indicating that the family has emerged from an event likely related to the water-to-land transition in plants along with the challenges that this transition may have imposed (Arabidopsis, 2000; Lang et al., 2010; Ooka et al., 2003; Riechemann et al., 2000). NAC transcription factors are related to a variety of plant-specific processes, such as development of plant-specific organs (Aida et al., 1997; Souer et al., 1996), responses to plant hormones (Greve et al., 2003; Xie et al., 2000; Yang et al., 2011), and responses to drought and high salinity stresses (Balazadeh et al., 2008b; Balazadeh et al., 2010a,b; Seki et al., 2002; Yamasaki et al., 2008). Analysis of conserved amino acid residues and construction of a phylogeny with the conserved NAC domain in Arabidopsis, rice, lycophyte (Selaginella moellendorffii), and moss (Physcomitrella patens) gave strong support for an early appearance of NACs in an ancient plant lineage, which probably emerged after the separation of lycophytes and other vascular plants prior to the separation of monocots from dicots (Nakashima et al., 2011). Crystallography and global transcriptional analysis not only revealed a structural similarity, but also demonstrated that the NAC domain lacks a classical helix-turn-helix motif, and it possesses a new type of TF-fold consisting of a twisted beta-sheet that is surrounded by a few helical elements (Olsen et al., 2005b).

The typical NAC domain (DNA-binding domain) is located in the N-terminal region and is divided into five conserved regions, or subdomains (A to E), containing around 150 amino acids (Ooka et al., 2003; Yamasaki et al., 2008). This domain also contains a nuclear localization signal. In contrast, the variable C-terminal region contains a transactivation domain and exhibits protein-binding activity (Seo et al., 2008; Tran et al., 2010; Yamasaki et al., 2008) (Fig. 2.A). Additionally, some NACs from Arabidopsis and rice have been shown to contain $\alpha$-helical transmembrane motifs in the terminal part of the C-terminal region. These motifs help the proteins anchor to intracellular membranes, and at the same time, make them inactive; only through controlled proteolytic cleavage from this anchor can the proteins recover their activity and exert their functions (Kim et al., 2007). Even though NAC proteins share a common structure, recent studies revealed few atypical NAC genes that show variations from the usual structure. Some encoded only the NAC domains, while others exhibit a C-terminal NAC domain with variable regions in the terminal part of the N-terminal region (Christiansen et al., 2011; Ooka et al., 2003) (Fig. 2.B).


Figure 2. Structural characteristic of NAC proteins. (A) The highly conserved NAC domain is located at the N-terminal region and consists of five sub domains (A to E). The C-terminal region includes a highly divergent transcriptional activation region. (B) Structural modifications of the typical NAC protein. Some NAC proteins exhibit transmembrane domains (TM) in the C-terminal region. Other NACs encode only the NAC domain or have the NAC domain in the C-terminal region. Modified from (Christiansen et al., 2011; Ooka et al., 2003).

The molecular characterization of NAC proteins began with the report of two NAC proteins that were able to activate the Cauliflower Mosaic Virus (CaMV) 35 S promoter in yeast (Souer et al., 1996), and it was followed by the characterization of NAC1, AtNAM and ANAC019 in Arabidopsis, and others in Brassica napus (Duval et al., 2002; Ernst et al., 2004; Hegedus et al., 2003; Xie et al., 2000). Later, the core sequence (CACG) was identified as the DNA motif recognized by the ANAC proteins ANAC019, ANAC055, and ANAC072 that allows their binding to a fragment of the ERD1 (EARLY RESPONSE TO DEHYDRATION STRESS 1) promoter (Tran et al., 2004). One year later, the consensus binding sequences of three members of the NAC family were determined by two different methods. The DNA protein binding (DPB)-CelD-fusion method was used to identify the consensus sequence of the wheat TF TaNAC69, a homologue of AtNAP from Arabidopsis (Xue, 2005), and the CASTing (cyclic amplification and selection of targets) method allowed the identification of the core binding sequence (CGT(G/A)) of ANAC019 and ANAC092 (Olsen et al., 2005a). After determinating the core sequence, electrophoretic mobility gel shift assays (EMSAs) confirmed that NAC domains are able to bind to a sequence containing one identified binding site (CGTG) and a sequence containing two identified binding sites in a palindromic orientation (TTGCGTGTTNNCACGCAA) (Olsen et al., 2005a). One of the most recently characterized NAC genes is ORS1, a paralog of ANAC092 that positively regulates senescence through a regulatory network that might be involved in the cross-talk between salt and $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{2}$-dependent signaling pathways. Determination of its consensus binding sequence was reported and analyzed among ORS1 down-stream genes (Balazadeh et al., 2011).

The large number of biological processes regulated by NAC TFs in plants not only highlights their general importance in plant biology, but also indicates that its functional characterization will provide valuable information about the initial inputs and final outputs through which plants regulate the senescence syndrome.

### 1.6. Aim of the thesis

Leaf senescence is a complex developmental process that delimits the lifespan of one of the most important organs responsible for photosynthesis in plants. During senescence, leaves undergo a massive degradation process that affects all of their physiological traits including their photosynthetic capability. Leaf senescence requires a tight control that ensures the synchronous dismantling of the cellular components, relocation of the degraded products, and maintenance of the nucleus integrity in the leaf until the very end. Primarily, senescence regulatory genes and their signaling networks must be fully characterized to understand senescence as an integrative process. The progress in the plant senescence field must later be extended to practical approaches to improve food longevity and decrease food losses in all stages of the crop postharvest system, as well as to understand the environmental factors that cause precocious senescence, which makes plants more susceptible to diseases and plagues.

My contribution to this ambitious idea is contained in the main objective of my thesis: unravel the signaling cascade through which ORE1, a key regulator of leaf senescence, exerts its function. To this end, I analyzed particular features of ORE1 up-stream and downstream regulatory pathways.

## Chapter 2

## Unraveling the up-stream regulatory pathway of ORE1

Part of this work was published in The Plant Journal (2010), 62, 250-264.
"A gene regulatory network controlled by the NAC transcription factor ANAC092/AtNAC2/ORE1 during salt-promoted senescence"

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### 2.1. Introduction

The plant transcription factor ORE1 (At5g39610) has been reported to play a key role in natural and induced senescence in Arabidopsis (Kim et al., 2009; Balazadeh et al., 2010a,b; Breeze et al., 2011). A general approach to unravel transcriptional regulatory pathways includes the analysis of the up-stream signaling pathways that control the expression of the respective gene. Besides others, this involves the identification of cis-regulatory elements (CREs) present in the promoters of the genes under analysis and, subsequently, the search for TFs that bind to them. Currently, CREs of the ORE1 promoters are poorly characterized. There are only one up-stream regulator of ORE1 described thus far: miR164. This regulation corresponds to a trifurcate feed-forward regulation that involves EIN2, miR164, and ORE1 (Kim et al., 2009). EIN2 is a membrane-spanning protein whose biochemical functions are still unknown, but genetic studies indicate that it is absolutely required for ethylene signaling (Alonso et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2009). It has been shown that ORE1 expression increases in an age-dependent manner, apparently through induction by EIN2. miR164
targets ORE1 and down-regulates its expression. However, expression of miR164 decreases with age through an unknown mechanism. This complex regulatory mechanism suggests that ORE1 expression is tightly regulated to avoid up-regulation in young leaves that lead to premature senescence and cell-death (Kim et al., 2009). The MADS-box transcription factor SEPALLATA3 (SEP3) was characterized based on a genome-wide DNA-binding profile and targets ORE1. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP), followed by ultrahigh-throughput Solexa sequencing (ChIP-seq), were used to obtain direct target genes of SEP3 and construct a framework for a hierarchical transcriptional network underlying the formation of floral organs. Interestingly, the study determined that SEP3 binds in vivo to the ORE1 promoter. Nevertheless, the biological relevance of this interaction remains unknown (Kaufmann et al., 2009). Understanding how the expression of ORE1 is modulated is essential to reconstruct its regulatory network and provide information on the molecular mechanisms that control senescence in Arabidopsis.

### 2.2. Results

### 2.2.1. Tissue-specific expression of ORE1 is conserved in Arabidopsis thaliana and Nicotiana tabacum

Reporter genes were used to investigate the tissue-specific expression of ORE1 transgenic lines harboring a 1.5 kb sequence up-stream of the start codon ATG fused to the Staphylococcus $\beta$-glucuronidase (GUS). Prom1-ORE1:GUS constructs were transformed into $A$. thaliana ecotype Col-0 and $N$. tabacum L. cv. Samsun plants. Independent transgenic lines of the T4 and T5 generations were used to assess the GUS activity mediated by the ORE1 promoter. We identified conserved expression patterns in both species among different organs and tissues. Representative expression patterns are shown in Figure 3. In both species, the expression of GUS was observed in most tissues from early stages right after germination to the end of the plant's life cycle. Strong and rapidly appearing GUS activity was observed in mature embryos extracted from seeds (detected already after 30 minutes of staining) and in cotyledons (Fig. 3. Panel A.a-f). Embryos were extracted after imbibition in water for 10 hours to avoid damage of the tissues while removing the testa. The expression of the ORE1 promoter in cotyledons and in the tip and margin regions of the leaves in young seedlings ( 15 -day-old) was in accordance with reported progression of aging from the tip to the base of the leaves (Fig. 3. Panel B.a-b) (Hill, 1980). In primary roots, we observed ORE1 promoter-driven GUS staining particularly in the columella root cap (Fig. 3. Panel B.c-d). GUS activity was absent in young leaves (data not shown). In contrast, older leaf parts exhibited the same expression patterns detected on seedling leaves (tip and margin regions) when senescence became apparent. GUS staining was evident in response to mechanical damage in mature leaves in both species (Fig. 3. Panel C and D.c-d). Expression was also detected in floral organs, especially in sepal and petal tips and mature anthers in Arabidopsis and tobacco. Strong GUS activity was detected in

Panel A

Panel C


## Panel B



Panel D


Figure 3. ORE1 driven GUS expression in tobacco and Arabidopsis. Panel A. (a) Tobacco and (b) Arabidopsis seeds with testa. Faint GUS staining was detected near to the testa rupture site in Arabidopsis (indicated by arrow). (c-d) Tobacco and Arabidopsis mature embryos without testa before GUS staining, respectively. (e-f) The same embryos after GUS staining ( 30 minutes). Panel B. (Upper corner right). (a) Tobacco seedling (15-day-old) after 12 hours GUS staining. (b) Arabidopsis seedling (15-day-old) after one hour GUS staining. Strong GUS activity was detected in both species in cotyledons and the tip regions of leaves in Arabidopsis (indicated by arrows). (c) Tobacco and (d) Arabidopsis main roots from seedlings (15-day-old). Strong GUS staining in the columella root cap and among the roots covering the elongation zone (indicated by arrows). Panel C. (Lower corner left) (a) Young tobacco flower. Promoter GUS expression was absent in immature anthers and was weak in the stigma papillae and tip region of the sepals (indicated by arrows). (b) Mature tobacco flower exhibited strong promoter GUS activity in mature anthers and faint activity in sepal tips (indicated by arrows). (c-d) Mature leaves from tobacco showed strong GUS activity in the tip of the leaves and also in response to mechanical damage. Panel D. (Lower corner right) (a) Arabidopsis unfertilized flower at stage 12 of development into mature plant (28-dayold) showing strong GUS activity in tips of sepals and in upper part of stigma corresponding to the stigmatic papillae. GUS activity was absent in immature anthers (indicated by arrow, flower was opened for picture). (b) Open flower from mature Arabidopsis at stage 15 of development exhibiting strong GUS activity in mature anthers and faint activity in tip region of sepals. (c-d) Arabidopsis leaves from mature plant (40-day-old). GUS promoter activity detected in response to mechanical damage (left) and in tip region of the leaves corresponding to oldest tissue (right).
the stigma at the stigmatic papillae in unfertilized Arabidopsis young flowers at stage 12 of floral development. This was when the stigmatic papillae was visible, the petals reach the height of the medial stamens, and anthesis had not yet taken place (Smyth et al., 1990). In a mature plant at stage 15 ( 28 days old), strong GUS activity was also detected in the stigmatic papillae of mature stigma in the opened mature flowers when stigma extended above the long anthers (Ferrándiz et al., 1999) Immature anthers and petals did not show any GUS activity in Arabidopsis or tobacco (Fig. 3. Panel C-D.a). Expression was also detected in floral organs, especially in sepal tips and mature anthers in Arabidopsis and tobacco.

### 2.2.2. ORE1 controls dark-induced senescence in Arabidopsis

It is well established that senescence can be triggered and enhanced by endogenous and exogenous factors (Bleecker, 1998; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Gan and Amasino, 1997; Gepstein et al., 2003; Howard et al., 2009; Weaver and Amasino, 2001). Despite the relevance of light as an exogenous factor involved in both senescence inhibition and promotion, the regulatory pathways involved in those processes are not well understood (Biswal and Biswal, 1984; Noodén and Guiamet, 1996; Weaver and Amasino, 2001). Based on published studies, the absence of light is more commonly considered an inducer of senescence. The artificial induction of senescence has been reported in detached leaves placed for several days in the dark (Weaver and Amasino, 2001). Several genes associated with dark-induced senescence have been identified in Arabidopsis (Blank and McKeon 1991; Kleber-Janke and Krupinska 1997; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Van Der Graaff et al., 2006). To test whether ORE1 plays a role in dark-induced senescence, Arabidopsis wild type plants, as well as 35S:ORE1 overexpressor line and the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant (Balazadeh et al., 2010a), were assayed. As an additional control, plants transformed with an empty vector (E.V.) were included.

Senescence was artificially induced in Arabidopsis leaves by darkness. Detached leaves from 27-day-old plants corresponding to the lines described above were incubated for four days. Leaves were placed on moist filter paper and incubated at room temperature. As a control, detached leaves from the same lines were placed on moist filter paper under longday photoperiod (16 hours of light; 8 hours of darkness). As seen in Figure 4, wild type anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant and empty vector (E.V.) control leaves that were kept in a long-day photo period showed only slight yellowing in some leaves. Moreover, the tissue became dry in comparison to leaves placed in darkness. When compared to control detached leaves (E.V.), senescence was notably pronounced in leaves from the 35S:ORE1 overexpressor line that had been placed in darkness. Senescence was inhibited in leaves from the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant when compared to wild type leaves that had been placed in darkness. Thus, we suggest that ORE1 constitutes a key transcriptional regulator of the dark-induce senescence network.


Figure 4. ORE1 overexpression enhances the effect of dark-induced senescence in Arabidopsis leaves. Detached leaves from 27-day-old plants from wild type (Wt), anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant, 35S:ORE1 overexpressor line, and Empty Vector (E.V.) control were placed in the dark. Leaves from E.V. and Wt served to compare the effect on anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant and 35S:ORE1 overexpressor line, respectively. Control detached leaves from each tested line were placed in moist filter paper in open boxes. Overexpression of ORE1 enhanced dark-induced senescence, whereas senescence was delayed in the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant. Underlined detached leaves exhibited the clearest comparative patterns.

### 2.2.3. Salt stress enhances ORE1 expression

Screening of microarrays from public repositories revealed that ORE1 was induced by salt stress in roots and shoots of Arabidopsis (Hruz et al., 2008; Winter et al., 2007). Furthermore, He et al. (2005) reported that intact ethylene and auxin signaling pathways are required for salt stress responsiveness in seedlings. To test if the response of ORE1 to salt stress is regulated at the transcriptional level, Arabidopsis Prom-ORE1:GUS lines were grown on Murashige-Skoog (MS) (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) agar plates without salt. After 15 days, seedlings were transferred for 40 hours to a liquid MS medium containing 150 mM NaCl . GUS activity was enhanced in salt-treated seedlings compared to untreated controls ( $\mathbf{F i g}$. 5.g-h). We also analyzed ORE1 promoter activity in transgenic tobacco plants (Nicotiana tabacum). Elevated GUS activity was observed in salt-treated ( 150 mM NaCl ) leaves and other tissues including anthers, sepals, and petals (Fig. 5.a-f). The elevated expression of ORE1 detected by histochemical analysis was confirmed by fluorometric measurements using 4-methylumbelliferyl-beta-D-glucuronide (4-MUG) and qRT-PCR (detailed information about these experiments has been published in Balazadeh et al., (2010)).


Figure 5. Salt stress activates transcription of the ORE1 promoter. Left panel. GUS expression in different tobacco organs. (a) Anther, (b) flower, and (c) leaves were placed in water for 40 hours as controls. (d-f) Enhanced GUS activity in leaves and floral organs after 40 hours of salt treatment $(150 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl})$. Right panel. Two-week-old Arabidopsis seedlings were treated for 40 hours with (g) 0 mM NaCl (Control) or (h) 150 mM NaCl .

### 2.2.4. ORE1 senescence-specific expression is regulated by cis-elements in the 5'UTR

The specific relationship among gene regulatory networks is dependent on direct interactions between transcription factors and cis-regulatory elements (CREs) in promoter regions. One major area of study focuses on the understanding of the interaction between transcription factors and different CREs. Some well characterized CREs include the abscisic acidresponsive element (ABRE) (Marcotte Jr et al., 1989; Mundy et al., 1990), the dehydrationresponsive element (DRE) (Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki, 1994), the C-repeat motif (Baker et al., 1994), and the W-box (Rushton et al., 1996), among others. Therefore, the elucidation of CREs that confers specificity in the expression of a given TF is crucial to understanding its regulatory pathway.

To gain further insights into the regulation of ORE1 expression, promoter deletions were made to narrow down regions that confer the specific expression patterns observed (see patterns in Fig. 3). Results obtained with the long version of the ORE1 promoter ( 1.5 kb ) were described above (section 2.2.1). Two principle criteria were used to select the positions for the promoter deletions: (i) the presence of conserved sequences within the OREI promoter, taking into consideration sequences that are present in orthologous promoters
from other plant species (Fig. 6.A); and (ii) the locations of CREs predicted to be present in the promoter (Table 1).

We produced two deletions that encompassed 230 bp (Prom2-ORE1:GUS) and 120 bp (Prom3-ORE1:GUS), respectively, up-stream of the start codon ATG, and transformed Arabidopsis plants. GUS staining patterns were determined in transgenic plants and compared with those obtained in plants harboring the 1.5 kb long up-stream region fused to the GUS reporter gene. The expression patterns were conserved in at least $70 \%$ of the evaluated plants (Prom2-ORE1:GUS; data not shown). The only visible difference between lines was a slight reduction in GUS activity in some senescent tissues, like leaves and cotyledons, of plants carrying the shortest version of the ORE1 promoter (Prom3-ORE1:GUS) (see Fig. 6). Balazadeh et al., (2011) analyzed conserved regions of ORE1 up-stream of the ATG (1 kb upstream of the ATG). This region included the 5'UTR regarded as a specific, highly conserved marker segment. Nevertheless, the analysis of the two truncated promoters described above suggested that a region proximal to the ATG is important to confer ORE1 senescence-specific expression observed in leaves. Thus, we performed a comparative promoter analysis. First, we searched for clade orthologs of ORE1 that exhibited high amino acid similarity using the Phytozome webpage (Goodstein et al., 2012). The program performed a sequence alignment of all proteins in the platform against the sequence of ORE1. Any peptide similar to ORE1 was listed with its percentage of similarity in parenthesis. Arabidopsis lyrata (97.2\%), Capsella rubella (81.8\%), Brassica rapa (89.8\%), Manihot esculenta (69.5\%), Populus trichocarpa (67.7\%), and Vitis vinifera (67.7\%) proteins were selected based on the highest similarity to ORE1 from the species listed. The up-stream sequences of these genes, corresponding to the peptides, were retrieved and compared to the ORE1 promoter ( 120 bp up-stream of the ATG). The MEME Suite web server (Bailey et al., 2009) searched for conserved motifs to predict conserved putative regulatory elements (Baileyet al., 2009). As shown in Figure 6.A, the selected up-stream sequences share conserved motifs among different plant species and may be taken as putative CREs important for ORE1 tissuespecific expression. The program allowed us to define three different conserved motifs, although only the first and second motifs were present in Arabidopsis thaliana. Notably, the first motif identified in Arabidopsis is similar to the LE $\sim 5$ UTR-Py-rich stretch motif. This motif has been described as a CRE that confers a high transcription level without the need for further up-stream CREs except for a TATA-box (Daraselia et al., 1996; Lescot et al., 2002). Furthermore, this motif consists of highly conserved ORE1 putative orthologs. The second motif is similar to a described light responsive AAAC-motif, and is placed around 50 bp up-stream of the ATG; it is only conserved between Arabidopsis thaliana and Capsella rubella. We performed a CRE analysis to identify previously described CREs present in the ORE1 promoter ( 1.2 kb ) (Table 1). This analysis led us to identify two LE $\sim 5$ UTR-Py-rich stretch motifs in the $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR of ORE1. Despite the high similarity between the promoters of ORE1 and ORS1 (70\%) (Balazadeh et al., 2011), ORS1 does not have a LE~5UTR-Py-rich stretch motif in the proximity of the ATG (data not shown). The motifs obtained by MEME
are similar to some CREs that have already been described. As shown in Figure 6.A, the region 100 bp up-stream of the ATG showed the presence of a motif highly similar to the LE $\sim 5$ UTR-Py-rich stretch motif (exact location -111 bp ) and a second motif similarity to the AAAC-motif that corresponds to a light responsive motif (exact location 50 bp upstream of the ATG).

To test if the CREs identified in silico may have relevance in vivo, we designed new deletions. The final constructs were designated Prom4-ORE1:GUS, Prom5-ORE1:GUS, and Prom6ORE1:GUS. The regions covered by these constructs are schematically shown in Fig. 6.B. Three independent lines per construct were selected for further analysis. Prom6-ORE1:GUS lines that lacked the entire $5^{\prime}$ UTR showed highly reduced GUS activity that was in some cases almost undetectable (see Fig. 6.B). In contrast, Prom3-ORE1:GUS lines, carrying a small fragment of the $5^{\prime}$ UTR ( 120 bp ) where one LE $\sim 5$ UTR-Py-rich stretch motifs lay, showed GUS activity in the tip and margin regions of senescent leaves (Fig. 6.B) and in cotyledons of seedlings (data not shown). Both expression patterns are characteristic features of the senescence syndrome. In Figure 6.B, it is shown that Prom5-ORE1:GUS lines carrying the same up-stream region as Prom6-ORE1:GUS lines, plus a short region of the 5'UTR, have the characteristic ORE1 expression pattern in senescence leaves. The part of the $5^{\prime}$ UTR
 clearly show that ORE1 promoter activity was highly dependent on the presence of the 5'UTR. In particular, the two LE~5UTR-Py-rich stretch motifs appeared to be necessary for the tissue-specific expression of ORE1 during senescence. Nevertheless, a visible reduction of GUS activity in Prom5-ORE1:GUS and Prom3-ORE1:GUS lines suggests that other CREs outside the 5 'UTR are needed to reach the high expression levels during senescence. Interestingly, the ORE1 promoter contains more than 13 motifs described as light responsive elements and circadian regulatory elements within the first 1.0 kb up-stream of the ATG. One heat stress responsive element (HSE), a drought regulator element (MBS), and three TCrich repeat elements involved in defense and stress responses are also predicted in the upstream region (Table 1). These data are in good agreement with our findings regarding darkinduced senescence (see section 2.2.2) and ORE1 activity in wounded leaves (see section 2.2.2) and in response to salt stress (see section 2.2.3). Further experiments are required to confirm which of these predicted CREs are, in fact, involved in dark-induced, salt stress, and wounded responsiveness of ORE1.


Figure 6. Deletion analysis of the ORE1 up-stream region. (A) Non-coding sequences conserved in the ORE1 promoter and six ORE1 orthologs ( 120 bp up-stream of the ATG). The first motif is highly similar to the LE~5UTR-Py-rich stretch motif and is highly conserved in the promoters of ORE1 orthologs (B) Four different deletions in the ORE1 promoter showed that the decrease of ORE1 expression is dependent on the presence of the 5 'UTR. Boxes shown in colors indicate CREs predicted by the PlantCARE database (Lescotet al., 2002). (1) Represents the sites of two predicted TATA-boxes. (2) Represents two predicted LE~5UTR-Py-rich stretch motifs (positions -111 and -136 from the ATG) that may confer high transcription levels (Daraselia et al., 1996).

Table 1. Putative CREs found in the $O R E 1$ promoter ( 1.2 kb up-stream of the ATG).

| MOTIF | SEQUENCE |  | MATRIX <br> SCORE | STRAND | POSITION ${ }^{\text {A }}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |

a Numbers represent the locations of the regulatory elements relative to the ATG. Distal CREs correspond to position -1281. Proximal CREs correspond to position -1 .

* Motifs present in the 5 'UTR


### 2.2.5. ATAF1 positively regulates ORE1 expression

The identification of the crosstalk between different signal transduction pathways, especially in relation to senescence, abiotic stress tolerance, and leaf growth in general, is a major task in our research group. Based on transcriptional profiling of lines overexpressing the NAC TF ATAF1 under the control of an estradiol-inducible promoter (after 10 hours and 24 hours of estradiol induction), ATAF1 was identified as a potential up-stream activator of ORE1 (Fig. 7). Like ORE1 (At5g39610), ATAF1 (Atlg01720) also encodes a NAC TF; both have
been reported as senescence associated genes (SAGs) (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Balazadeh et al., 2008b). Additionally, both genes are regulators of common signaling pathways related to drought and wounding responses, salt stress response, (Balazadeh et al., 2010a,b; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Mauch-Mani and Flors 2009; Wu et al., 2009), and defense response (Al-Daoud and Cameron 2011; Collinge et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2009).


Figure 7. Transcription levels of ORE1 and ATAF1 in ATAF1 inducible overexpressor (ATAF1-IOE) lines upon estradiol (EST) induction. ORE1 transcript abundance increased concomitantly with ATAF1. Maximal level of ORE1 transcript abundance was reached after 10 hours of EST induction.

The induction of ORE1 upon inducible overexpression of ATAF1 suggests a possible direct control of ATAF1 over ORE1 and, by this, the regulation of natural and stress-induced senescence. In order to test a direct interaction in vivo between ATAF1 and ORE1, I used protoplast transactivation assays. The ORE1 promoter ( 1.0 kb up-stream of the ATG) was amplified by PCR from Arabidopsis genomic DNA (ecotype Col-0), cloned into the pENTR/ D-topo vector (Invitrogen), and then recombined into the Gateway-compatible destination vector $p 2 G W L 7.0$ (Karimi et al., 2002) to obtain the final reporter vector ORE1-LUC. The effector plasmid was the $35 S$ :ATAF1 construct. For detailed descriptions, see sections 2.4.3 and 2.4.7. Briefly, a dual-reporter system determines the transcriptional activation of the ORE1-LUC promoter. Activation is detected by the relative light emitted from firefly luciferase (LUC) enzymatic activity. The internal control reporter, Renilla luciferase (35S:RLuc) (Licausi et al., 2011) provides the parameter to normalize the data and calculate ORE1$L U C$ promoter activity (Fig. 8.A). Arabidopsis mesophyll cell protoplasts co-transfected with the ORE1-LUC and 35S:ATAF1 constructs showed high luciferase activity indicating an activation of the ORE1 promoter by the ATAF1 TF (Fig. 8.B).


Figure 8. Protoplast transactivation assay of ATAF1 and ORE1 promoter. A. Schematic representation of the transactivation assay. Effector and reporter/control vectors are shown. B. Relative luciferase activity detected in mesophyll cell protoplasts co-transfected with ORE1-LUC and 35S:ATAF1. Results are the mean of two biological replicates with three technical replicates per probe. Data were normalized to the corresponding Renilla luciferase activity. $* P<0.05$.

### 2.3. Conclusions

In this study we confirmed the evolutionary conservation of ORE1 expression in two different plant species (Arabidopsis thaliana and Nicotiana tabacum). The conservation of ORE1 expression is extended from early mature embryos and primary roots until advanced stages of aging. Also the responsiveness to salt stress of ORE1 is conserved in both species. We found that ORE1 positively regulates dark-induced senescence. The characterization of the ORE1 promoter led us to suggest that the $5^{\prime}$ UTR plays an important role in mediating the characteristic expression pattern observed during natural senescence. ORE1 is transcriptionally activated by another NAC transcription factor, ATAF1. Considering that ATAF1 has been reported as a senescence associated gene (SAG) (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Balazadeh et al., 2008b) and that ATAF1 activates the expression of ORE1, we propose ATAF1 as a positive regulator of ORE1 in the regulatory pathway that mediates age-dependent senescence. Further analyses are required to confirm direct regulation of ORE1 by ATAF1.

### 2.4. Experimental procedures

### 2.4.1. General

Standard molecular techniques were performed as described (Sambrook and Russell, 2001). Oligonucleotides were obtained from MWG (Ebersberg, Germany). DNA sequencing was performed by MWG. Unless otherwise indicated, other chemicals were purchased from Roche
(Mannheim, Germany), Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), or Sigma (Deisenhofen, Germany). The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR; http://www.Arabidopsis.org/) and the Plant Transcription Factor Database (http://plntfdb.bio.uni-potsdam.de/v2.0/) were used to obtain CDS and promoter sequences. The tools used for sequence analyses were provided by the National Center for Biotechnology Information (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) and NCBI's BLAST database/genebank (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) (Altschul et al., 1997). qRT-PC reactions were conducted using an ABI PRISM 7900HT sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems Applera). Except for those already published, primers used during this study are described and codified by an internal labor code (Annex 1).

### 2.4.2. Plants and growth conditions

All Arabidopsis thaliana lines used were in the wild type (Col-0 ecotype) background. Seeds from Arabidopsis and tobacco were surface sterilized with $70 \%$ ethanol (1 minute), $20 \%$ sodium hypochlorite ( 30 minutes) and rinsed with sterile water (six times). Arabidopsis seeds were immediately germinated on Murashige-Skoog (MS) half-strength medium (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) supplemented with 7\% agar and $1 \%$ sucrose. Seeds were stratified for 48 hours in the dark at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and then transferred into a climate chamber with 16 hours of day light provided by fluorescent light at $100 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \sec ^{-2}$ intensity and a day/night temperature of $20 / 16^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and relative humidity (RH) of $60 / 75 \%$. In the case of tobacco, plants were grown with 16 hours of day light at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 8 hours of darkness $\left(20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right.$ ). The homozygous T-DNA insertion line (anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant) originated from the SALK collection (ID 090154) described in Balazadeh et al. (2010a). In cases were plants were grown directly on soil, seeds were stratified for one week at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, then transfer to long-day photoperiod in phytotron and after two weeks transferred into a climate chamber with 16 hours of day light provided by fluorescent light at $100 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m} \mathrm{mec}^{-2}$ intensity and a day/night temperature of $20 / 16^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and relative humidity $(\mathrm{RH})$ of $60 / 75 \%$.

### 2.4.3. Constructs

Description of the Prom-ORE1:GUS and the 35S:ORE1 overexpressor line were given in Balazadeh et al., (2010a).

Prom3-ORE1:GUS. A 120 bp genomic fragment up-stream of the start codon (ATG) of ORE1 (At5g39610) was amplified by a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using forward (110) and reverse (111) primers. The isolated fragments were inserted first into plasmid pCR2.1-TOPO (Invitrogen), and after sequencing were fused via BamHI and NcoI sites to the GUS reporter gene into $p$ CAMBIA1305. 1-hygromycin (CAMBIA).

ORE1:GUS promoters. The promoter regions corresponding to $1.0 \mathrm{~kb}, 263 \mathrm{bp}$, and 250 bp up-stream of the ATG, respectively, were amplified from genomic DNA by PCR using an Advantage HF 2 PCR Kit (Clontech) with gene-specific forward and reverse primer sets for
each promoter region (Annex 1). The fragments were subcloned into a pENTR-D-TOPO vector (Invitrogen) to generate the entry vectors pProm4-, pProm5-, and pProm6- ORE1ENTRY. Entry vectors were recombined into Gateway destination vector $p K G W S F 7,0$ using the LR reaction mix II (Invitrogen) to obtain the final reporter vectors Prom4-, Prom5-, and Prom6-ORE1:GUS.

ORE1-LUC. This vector was used as a reporter vector in the transactivation assays (section 2.2.5). The pProm4-ORE1-ENTRY entry vector was recombined into Gateway destination vector $p 2 G W L 7.0$, which is a recombination of the gateway vectors $p B G W L 7.0$ (transcription reporter vector) and p2GW7.0 (overexpression vector) (Licausi et al., 2011) using the LR reaction mix II (Invitrogen) to obtain the final reporter vector ORE1-LUC.

ATAF1-IOE. PCR was used to amplify the ATAF1 (Atlg01720) coding region using Arabidopsis Col-0 leaf cDNA as a template and by using forward (204) and reverse (205) primers (Annex 1). The ATAF1 cDNA was inserted into the pCR2.1-TOPO vector and, after sequence confirmation, cloned via XhoI and SpeI sites into the pER-8 vector (Zuo et al., 2000).

35S:ATAF1. The vector was used as effector plasmid in transactactivation assays (section 2.2.5). The ATAF1 (Atlg01720) coding region was amplified by PCR using a combination of forward (206) and reverse (207) primers (Annex 1) and by using Arabidopsis Col-0 leafcDNA as a template, and then it was inserted into pUni/V5-His-TOPO (Invitrogen). After sequence confirmation, the cDNAs were cloned via added PmeI/PacI sites into a modified pGreen0229 plant transformation vector (www.pgreen.ac.uk) containing the Cauliflower Mosaic Virus (CaMV) 35 S promoter located in the PmeI/PacI restriction sites (Skirycz et al., 2006).

### 2.4.4. Plant transformation

Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV2260 and GV3101 (pMP90) containing specific ORE1 promoter deletions fused to the GUS reporter gene were used to transform tobacco and Arabidopsis, respectively. In all cases, positive clones were confirmed by PCR and sequencing. Agrobacterium cultures were grown overnight (O.N) in constant agitation (200 $\mathrm{rpm})$ at $28^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in liquid Yeast -Extract -Broth (YEB)/ rifampicin ( $50 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{ml}$ )/gentamicin $(20 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{ml})$ and the bacterial resistance marker antibiotic hygromycin ( $10 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{ml}$ ). In the case of Arabidopsis, wild type (Col-0) flower buds were immersed in the suspension of A. tumefaciens and transformed by dipping method (Bechtold and Pelletier, 1998; Clough and Bent, 1998). In the case of tobacco plants, a transformed Agrobacterium pellet was collected by centrifugation ( 4000 rpm ) for 10 minutes at room temperature (RT). The pellet was resuspended in $10 \mathrm{~mL}(10 \mathrm{mM}) \mathrm{MgSO}_{4}$. Leaf squares of tobacco plants grown in vitro (max. 4-week old) were placed in resuspended bacteria for 3-4 minutes. Leaf squares were transferred to MS media for two days and placed in the dark and RT. The callus formation
initiated in only putative transformed leaf squares; untransformed leaf squares yellowed after 3-5 days. The transformed leaflets developed into bright white-green calluses and were transferred to shoot induction tobacco media containing gentamicin ( $20 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{mL}$ ) and carbenicillin ( $500 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{L}$ ).

### 2.4.5. Histochemical GUS assay

Histochemical in situ staining was used to determine the expression pattern in different tissues of transformed-GUS plants. Plant tissues at different developmental stages were submerged in a staining solution of 50 mM sodium phosphate $\mathrm{pH} 7.0,0.1 \%$ (v/v) Triton X-100, 0.1 mM potassium ferricyanide, 0.1 mM potassium ferrocyanide, 1 mM Na 2 EDTA $\mathrm{pH} 8.0,20 \%(\mathrm{v} / \mathrm{v})$ methanol, and $0.5 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{mL} 5$-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-b-D-glucuronid acid (X-gluc; Duchefa). Samples were incubated at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for a period of several hours to overnight depending on the tissue type, construct, and color rate. Chlorophyll was removed by submerging the samples in ethanol $70 \%$ ( $\mathrm{v} / \mathrm{v}$ ). GUS staining was visualized using a stereomicroscope Leica MZ 12,5 with software LAS (Leica).

### 2.4.6. Dark-induced senescence

Experiments for artificial induction of senescence were performed with all rosettes leaves of 27-day-old plants from wild type (Wt), anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant, 35S:ORE1 overexpressor line and Empty Vector (E.V.). Detached leaves were incubated in the dark into boxes on moist filter paper during four days at RT (room temperature). As control detaches leaves from the same lines were placed on moist filter paper under long-day photoperiod (16 hours light; 8 hours darkness) on moist filter paper. In both cases filter papers were maintained always humid.

### 2.4.7. Salt treatment for Arabidopsis and tobacco plants

Arabidopsis seedlings were grown in long-day conditions (section 2.4.2) and after two weeks were transfer to liquid media and treated for 40 hours with 0 mM NaCl (Control) or 150 mM NaCl . In the case of tobacco, detached leaves and flowers from different developmental stages were isolated from mature tobacco plants (five months after sowing) and treated for 40 hours with 0 mM NaCl (Control) or 150 mM NaCl . Immediately after treatment, tobacco and Arabidopsis seedlings were stained with GUS buffer as described in section 2.4.5.

### 2.4.8. Dual-luciferase assay

This experimental procedure was used in different assays, and for this reason, the description will be given as a general protocol. Promoter regions of ORE1 putative target genes were used as reporter plasmids: a 1.0 kb up-stream of the translation start site were amplified
from genomic Arabidopsis ecotype Col-0 DNA to generate reporter final constructs. A detailed description of each prom-LUC construct is described in the experimental procedure section of each chapter. In this case, we used ORE1-LUC construct as the reporter (section 2.4.3). Renilla luciferase CDS was amplified using pRL-null (Promega) as a template. The resulting amplicon was ligated into the pENTR/D-topo vector (Invitrogen) and subsequently recombined in $p 2 G W 7$ (Karimi et al., 2002) using the LR clonase enzyme (Invitrogen) to generate the 35S:RLuc normalization vector (Licausi et al., 2011). A 35S:ATAF1 construct was used as effector plasmid (described in section 2.4.3). The effector, reporter, and reference plasmids were co-transfected into mesophyll cell protoplasts that were prepared from rosette leaves of 4-week-old Arabidopsis plants, as reported by Sheen (Sheen, 2002). The protoplasts had a maximum reaction volume of 10 ul and contained 6.0 ug DNA of each construct. Luciferase activity was assayed with the Dual Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega), and the luminescence was read in a GloMax 2020 Luminometer (Promega). All tests were performed in 3-4 independent biological replications with three technical replications per assay. Assays by t -test using the SigmaPlot software (http://www.sigmaplot. com) were statistically significant.

### 2.4.9. cDNA synthesis and quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)

Total RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, and qRT-PCR were done as previously described (Balazadeh et al., 2008b; Caldana et al., 2007). Primer sequences used for qRT-PCR analysis to quantify transcript levels of ORE1 (At5g39610) and ATAF1 (At1g01720) are given in Annex 1. The PCR reactions were run on an ABI PRISM 7900HT sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems Applera). At least five measurements were carried out to determine the mRNA abundance of each gene in each sample. The absence of genomic DNA was verified by PCR using forward (202) and reverse (203) primers designed to amplify an intergenic region in a control gene (At5g65080). cDNA was produced from $2.0 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ total RNA using SuperScriptT III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen). cDNA synthesis efficiency was controlled by qRT-PCR amplification of a housekeeping gene ACTIN2 (At3g18780) using specific forward (204) and reverse (205) primers (Annex 1). Data analysis was performed using SDS 2.2.1 software (Applied Biosystems Applera). Amplification curves were analyzed with a normalized reporter ( $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{n}}$ : the ratio of the fluorescence emission intensity of SYBR Green to the fluorescence signal of the passive reference dye) threshold of 0.2 to obtain $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ values (threshold cycle). Dates were normalized to ACTIN2 as follows $\Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}=\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ (gene) - $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ (ACTIN2). The expression was measured with three replicates in each PCR run, and the average $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ was used for relative expression analyses. Relative transcript abundance was determined using the comparative $\Delta \Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ method $\left(\Delta \Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}=\Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}\right.$ (condition of interest) $\Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ (control condition)), and the Fold Change ( Fch ) was calculated using the expression $2^{-\Delta \Delta C T}$, where the obtained results were $\log _{2}$ transformed. In some cases, the expression was expressed as $40-\Delta \Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ to improve visualization.

## Contributions

The Prom 1-ORE1:GUS, ORE1-IOE, 35S:ORE1 lines and anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant screening were performed by Dr. Hamad Sidiqui (Molecular Biology, Potsdam University). ATAF1-IOE constructs were provided by Dr. Dagmar Kupper (Molecular Biology, Potsdam University). 35S:ATAF1 construct and ATAF1 transcriptome data were provided by Prashant Garapati, Ph.D student of Prof. Dr. Mueller-Roeber's Group.

## Chapter 3

# A calcium-dependent protein kinase CKOR positively regulates the expression of three ORE1 putative target genes 

This work has been developed through a collaboration with Prof. Tina Romeis's Group (Biochemistry of Plants Group. Institute of Biology. Freie Universität Berlin)

### 3.1. Introduction

Cells are exposed to a broad spectrum of internal and external stimuli. The cell-to-cell interactions during development, as well as the environmental fluctuations and stresses, constitute messages that need a correct integration into the molecular signaling pathways to generate specific and appropriate responses (Krebs, 1993). Signal transduction frames include post-transcriptional modification ofsundry proteins by kinases. During protein phosphorylation, protein kinases covalently link phosphate groups to the target proteins (Feilner et al., 2005). Calcium-dependent protein kinases (CDPKs) are a group of serine/threonine kinases that are regulated by a $\mathrm{Ca}^{+2} /$ calmodulin complex. Therefore, calcium-stimulated kinase activities could be activated by direct calcium biding (Cheng et al., 2002). Because osmotic stress elicits calcium signaling (Knight et al., 1997), calcium-dependent protein kinases are prime candidates that link the calcium signal to down-stream responses (Zhu, 2002).

In order to interact with their target DNA sequences, transcription factors (TFs) need to be located in the cell nucleus. Several TFs are constitutively nuclear, and phosphorylation and dephosphorylation by protein kinases and protein phosphatases take place within the nucleus. However, TFs can be mobilized between cytoplasm and the nucleus, and in many cases this mobilization is regulated by phosphorylation/dephosphorylation (Whitmarsh and Davis, 2000). DNA binding activity of TFs may also be regulated indirectly by phosphorylation at residues that are remote from the DNA binding domain. The deletion of genes that encode protein kinases and protein phosphatases that target particular transcription factors, as well
as targeted mutations of the codons that encode the phosphoacceptor sites on TFs, provide genetic evidence for the importance of these signaling molecules in regulating particular functions of a transcription factor (Whitmarsh and Davis, 2000). For instance, the NAC transcription factor ORE1 has been reported as a putative substrate of the mitogen-activated protein kinases (MPKs) MPK2, MPK5, MPK8, and MPK10 in vitro (Popescu et al., 2009). However, the implications in planta of this modification remain unknown.

A phosphoproteomic approach using transgenic lines that were overexpressing a CDPK named CKOR (for calcium-dependent kinase regulating ORE1) revealed ORE1 is one of the few proteins differentially phosphorylated (unpublished data, Biochemistry of Plants Group, Prof. Tina Romeis, Freie Universität Berlin). We determined that the overexpression of ORE1 led to a significant increase in the transcriptional activation of three putative target genes of ORE1 (BFN1, VNI2 and RNS3) in vivo, and that ORE1 binds directly to the promoters of their putative targets (see Chapter 4). Furthermore, BFN1, VNI2, and ORE1 are senescence associated genes (SAGs) (Balazadeh et al., 2008a; Breeze et al., 2011; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Guo et al., 2004), and RNS3 is involved in inorganic phosphate (Pi) remobilization during Pi starvation and senescence. The molecular mechanisms initiated by nutrient remobilization during senescence are poorly characterized, but in the case of Pi starvation, ribonucleases are considered to play important roles in the remobilization process (Bariola et al., 1994). Here, we show that the transcriptional activation of BFN1 (Atlg11190), VNI2 (At5g13180), and RNS3 (At1g26820) is strongly influenced by the co-expression of CKOR. Mesophyll protoplasts co-transfected with CKOR showed an increase in transcriptional activity, while protoplasts co-trasfected with a mutated version of CKOR (that renders an inactive kinase) showed a marked decrease in the transcriptional activity of BFN1, and they left the activity of $V N I 2$ and $R N S 3$ undistinguishable from the basal activity.

### 3.2. Results

### 3.2.1. CKOR influences the transcriptional activation of ORE1 direct targets

ORE1 is a key regulator of natural and induced senescence, and evidences suggest that interaction to BFN1, VNI2 and RNS3 could play an important role in senescence regulation. In an effort to identify the effect of ORE1 phosphorylation by CKOR, we tested the expression of ORE1 targets in cells co-transformed with two different versions of CKOR. The promoter regions ( 1.0 kb up-stream of the start codon (ATG)) of $B F N 1, R N S 3$, and $V N I 2$ were cloned into the Gateway destination vector p2GWL7.0 (Licausi et al., 2011) that contains the firefly luciferase reporter gene $(L U C)$. Thus, the expression of $L U C$ is under the transcriptional control of each promoter. The final vectors BFN1-LUC, RNS3-LUC, and VNI2-LUC(Chapter 4, section 4.4.4) were used as reporters. Two different versions of CKOR were used as effector vectors: either the wild type version of the protein (CKORac), or a mutated version (CKORm) where one aspartic acid is replaced by alanine in the catalytic domain (rendering
the kinase inactive) (see section 3.4.3). As an internal control, we used reporter Renilla luciferase (35S:RLuc) (Licausi et al., 2011) to normalize the data and calculate the activity of each tested promoter. We co-transfected Arabidopsis wild type mesophyll cell protoplasts in a series of protoplast transactivation assays using the PEG method (Sheen, 2002). Each promoter-LUC construct and 35S:RLuc were co-transfected with/without CKORac (active form) or with/without CKORm (inactive form). In each case, we evaluated the promoter activation upon overexpression of CKOR (active or mutated) as well as the basal promoter expression.

All promoters showed a basal activity (BFN1, VNI2, and RNS3), likely due to the TFs present in the protoplasts (including ORE1) that can activate these promoters. BFN1 exhibited the stronger basal activity ( 10 -fold) compared to VNI2 or RNS3. Thus, we inferred that protoplasts from five-week-old plants have a stronger BFN1 expression than VNI2 or RNS3 (Fig. 9.A). Co-transfection with a catalytically active CKOR protein (CKORac) increased the expression of all promoters tested in comparison to the basal expression (Fig. 9.A-C). In contrast, co-transfection with the catalytically inactive CKOR (CKORm) resulted in a transcriptional activity undistinguishable from the basal activity for VNI2 and RNS3, and a significant decrease of transcriptional activity in the case of BFN1 (Fig. 9.D-F).

To explain the increase in transcriptional activation observed in BFN1, VNI2, and RNS3 upon co-transfecting with CKORac (Fig. 9.A-C), we hypothesized that CKORac overexpression may have resulted in increased ORE1 phosphorylation that, in turn, increased the activation level of its direct targets. These results provide some insights into the role of CKOR as a positive regulator of BFN1, VNI2, and $R N S 3$ perhaps through the phosphorylation of the transcription factor ORE1 (Fig. 9.A-C).

On the contrary, the overexpression of CKORm, which is unable to phosphorylate its targets, led to a decreased level of BFN1 promoter activity and a decrease in activities that are undistinguishable from the basal activity for the promoters of VNI2 and RNS3. This result may indicate that the overexpression of CKORm, which is unable to phosphorylate ORE1 (although is able to bind the protein), hinders the normal activity of ORE1. Thus, an excess of CKORm leads to an even lower BFN1 promoter activity. The basal activity of the other tested promoters (VNI2 and RNS3) is already so low at the starting conditions that overexpression of CKORm has just a minor effect on these promoters. Currently, our collaborating partner (Biochemistry of Plants Group, Prof. Dr. Tina Romeis, Freie Universität Berlin) is carrying out further experiments to unravel detailed interactions between CKOR and ORE1.

### 3.3. Conclusions

We suggest that ORE1 is post-transcriptionally regulated by CKOR. The phosphorylation of ORE1 plays a crucial role in its activity and favors the transcriptional activation of its targets

BFN1, VNI2, and RNS3. Nevertheless, phosphorylation seems to affect the activation of BFN1 more severely than the other promoters. These results provide important information related to additional mechanisms influencing the activity of ORE1.


Figure 9. Activation of ORE1 direct targets by CKOR. (A-C) Co-transfection of BFN1:LUC, VNI2:LUC, and RNS3:LUC with 35S:RLuc and with or without (basal) CKORac (active form). (D-E) Co-transfection of BFN1:LUC, VNI2:LUC and RNS3:LUC with 35S:RLuc and with or without (basal) CKORm (inactive form). Data represent mean values $\pm$ standard deviation (SD) $(\mathrm{n}=2) 3$ technical replicates. Luciferase values are normalized to the corresponding Renilla expression level.

### 3.4. Experimental procedures

### 3.4.1. General

Standard molecular techniques were performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.1.

### 3.4.2. Plant material

Plant material and growth conditions were similar to those described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2.

### 3.4.3. Constructs

Promoter-LUC constructs: promoter regions spanning 1.5 kb up-stream of the ATG of VNI2, BFN1, and RNS3 were amplified from genomic DNA by PCR using an Advantage HF 2 PCR Kit (Clontech) with gene-specific forward and reverse primers (Annex 1). Promoter fragments were subcloned into pENTR-D-TOPO vectors (Invitrogen), to generate individual entry vectors. The entry vectors were then recombined into a $p 2 G W L 7.0$ Gateway destination vector which is a recombination of the $p B G W L 7.0$ gateway vector (transcription reporter vector) (Karimi et al., 2002) and p2GW7.0 vector (overexpression vector) (Licausi et al., 2011) ) using the LR reaction mix II (Invitrogen) to obtain the final BFN1-LUC, VNI2-LUC, $R N S 3-L U C$ reporter vectors.

CKORac and CKORm: Plasmids containing the constitutively active and mutated versions of CKOR in the pXCS-G-StrepII binary vector were kindly provided by G. Durian (Freie Universität Berlin). This vector uses the pamPATMCS backbone (accession number AY436765) and allows convenient and rapid expression of proteins in planta (Witte et al., 2004). The effectors vectors are named CKORac and CKORm for normal (active) and mutated (inactive) versions, respectively.

### 3.4.4. Dual-luciferase assay (Transactivation assay)

A detailed description of the procedure was given in Chapter 2, section 2.4.7. Based on previous data (data not shown) for this particular assay, the time of protoplast co-transfection was decreased from 24 hours to 14 hours to avoid tissue damage and cell death.

## Chapter 4

# Inferring putative targets of ORE1 through transcriptome-based expression analysis 

Part of this work will be submitted to The Plant Journal with the tittle:

"Expression of BIFUNCTIONAL NUCLEASE1 (BFN1) during senescence in Arabidopsis is regulated by the NAC transcription factor ORE1/ANAC092/AtNAC2"

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### 4.1. Introduction

Plant senescence is a highly regulated process that involves many regulatory proteins, including transcription factors (TFs), which control the expression of target genes and constitute up-stream control elements of gene regulatory networks (GRNs). ORE1, a NAC TF, has recently been shown to be a central regulator of senescence in Arabidopsis thaliana (Balazadeh et al., 2008; Balazadeh et al., 2010a; Kim et al., 2009). In our previous work, we identified ORE1 responsive genes using estradiol-inducible overexpressor lines (ORE1$I O E)$ (Balazadeh et al., 2010a). Many of the up-regulated genes encode proteins known to function in the degradation of different macromolecules as part of the mechanism of
nutrient salvage that occurs in plants during senescence (Bleecker, 1998). The ORE1 regulon includes proteins involved in further signal transduction pathways such as other TFs (NAC TF among them). In this study, in order to identify direct target genes of ORE1, additional global transcriptome analyses were carried out. Inducible ORE1 overexpressing plants (ORE1$I O E$ ) were incubated for two hours in estradiol (EST). To account for artifacts cuased by the use of EST, further global expression profiling experiments were made using Arabidopsis mesophyll cell protoplasts transformed with a $35 S:$ ORE1 construct and harvested six hours after transfection. We determined the ORE1 binding site (BS) and its frequency within the promoter regions of putative target genes. Additionally, our results showed that ORE1 is able to bind to the promoters of BFN1,VNI2, and RNS3 in vitro and to transactivate them in vivo. Our data strongly suggests that BFN1,VNI2, and RNS3 are putative direct targets of ORE1.

### 4.2. Results

### 4.2.1. Transcriptome profiling reveals a core set of putative ORE1 direct targets

In our previous study, we observed that after five hours of estradiol induction, 218 genes were differentially expressed. From these, 170 were significantly up-regulated and 48 were significantly down-regulated (Balazadeh et al., 2010a). In this study, in order to identify direct targets of ORE1, additional expression profiling experiments were carried out using cells/ plants that were overexpressing ORE1 constitutively (using the strong constitutive promoter 35 S (CaMV) Cauliflower mosaic virus) or inducibly (using an estradiol-inducible promoter). $\log 2$ intensity values were converted to $\log 2$ fold change ratios by comparing the intensity of induced/transformed and uninduced/untransformed plants/cells. Differentially expressed genes were determined by setting a twofold cut-off $(\log 2 \pm 1)$. Our data revealed that 78 genes were differentially expressed after two hours EST induction in ORE1-IOE plants. From these genes, 54 were up- and 24 were down-regulated (Annex 3). After five hours of EST induction in our new profiling experiments, 269 genes were differentially expressed. From these, 195 genes were up- and 74 were down-regulated (Annex 4). Six transcription factors were identified after five hours ORE1 induction including one zinc-ion binding factor (At2g28200), one signal transduction response regulator (At2g40670), one MYB TF (At3g10590), and three members of the NAC TF family (ANAC010, ANAC041, and VNI2). In our datasets, we observed that the number of up-regulated genes after EST induction increased around fourfold (from 54 after two hours to 195 after five hours). Among them, only less than $1.0 \%$ overlapped (two genes). The number of down-regulated genes increased threefold (from 24 after two hours to 74 after five hours), and none overlapped between datasets. Upon transient overexpression of ORE1 in mesophyll protoplasts, 831 genes were found differentially expressed, of which 643 were up- and 188 were down-regulated (Annex 5 only in the electronic version). Venn diagrams show overlapping up- (Fig. 10.A) or down-regulated genes among datasets (Fig. 10.B). Taking together all datasets, 731 genes were significantly up-regulated while 273 were significantly down-regulated upon ORE1
overexpression. There is a larger overlap between genes up- or down-regulated from five to six hours overexpression (144 up- and 10 down-regulated) than from two to five hours overexpression (Fig. 10.A-B). Interestingly, there were no common down-regulated genes among the three datasets (Fig. 10.B). We were able to identify a set of 17 commonly upregulated genes among the three datasets (Fig. 10.A).


Figure 10. Differentially expressed genes in plants/cells overexpressing ORE1. (A-B) Venn diagrams to compare up/ down-regulated genes in OREI-IOE-2 hours plants, ORE1-IOE-5 hours plants, and 35S:ORE1-6 hours protoplasts. (C) Hierarchical clustering based on 54 up-regulated genes after two hours of EST induction (OREI-IOE plants). Ten clusters were identified and color coded from right to left.

The cluster analysis, based on genes significantly up-regulated in ORE1-IOE plants induced for two hours with EST ( 54 genes), revealed ten different patterns of expression when compared to datasets two (ORE1-IOE induced five hours with EST) and three (constitutive overexpression for six hours in protoplasts). In Figure 1.C, cluster 1 (in red) includes highly up-regulated genes in all data-sets. Clusters 2 and 3 (in light and dark yellow, respectively) include highly up-regulated genes in at least two datasets and less induced in the other. Cluster 4 (in green) encompasses up-regulated genes in data set one and three, but not differentially expressed or slightly down-regulated genes in data set two. Clusters 5,6 , and 7 (in different shades of magenta) group up-regulated genes in data set one and not differentially expressed or slightly down-regulated genes in datasets two and three. Cluster 8 (in white) groups up-
regulated genes in data set one, slightly up/down-regulated genes in data set two, and not differentially expressed genes in data set three. Clusters 9 and 10 (in light and dark blue) group up-regulated genes in data set one, slightly up- or down-regulated genes in data set two, and not differentially expressed or down-regulated genes in data set three. The common set of up-regulated genes (17) comprises clusters 1,2 , and 3 . These 17 genes (Table 2) are good candidates to be direct targets of ORE1 as they are rapidly induced after ORE1 overexpression (two hours) and are expressed in elevated levels at later time points (five hours) and in mesophyll cell protoplasts transiently overexpressing ORE1 for six hours. From 17 up-regulated genes, 14 are senescence associated genes (SAGs) (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Parlitz et al., 2011; Van Der Graaff et al., 2006; Balazadeh et al., 2008a; Breeze et al., 2011). We aimed to determine the role of other NACs within the ORE1 regulon and included VNI2 (ANAC083) and ORE1 (ANAC092) to complete our set of putative ORE1 direct targets. VNI2 is one of the six TFs that were up-regulated at later time points (after five hours EST induction) as we described before, and based on published data (Breeze et al., 2011), we decided to test a possible auto-regulation of ORE1; therefore, we also include ORE1 itself in our analyses (Table 2).

Table 2. Common set of up-regulated genes upon ORE1 overexpression. Expression is given as Log2 Fch (fold change). Data represent the mean of three biological replicates for ORE1-IOE-5 hours and two biological replicates for the ORE1$I O E-2$ hours datasets and transfected protoplast (six hours). Bold letters indicate the subset of selected putative genes to prove direct interaction with ORE1.

| AGI | Description | IOE-2 h | IOE-5 h | Protoplast-6 h |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT5G39610* | ORE1/ANAC092/ATNAC2/ATNAC6 (Arabidopsis) | 3,646 | 3,454 | 3,259 |
| AT1G02470* | similar to unknown protein | 1,065 | 2,955 | 1,736 |
| AT1G02660* | lipase class 3 family protein | 1,052 | 2,397 | 3,677 |
| AT1G11190* | BFN1 (BIFUNCTIONAL NUCLEASE I); | 2,029 | 5,291 | 10,026 |
| AT1G26820 | RNS3 (RIBONUCLEASE 3); endoribonuclease | 1,060 | 4,634 | 10,553 |
| AT1G48260* | CIPK17 (CIPK17); kinase | 1,027 | 2,454 | 4,437 |
| AT1G73750 | similar to unknown protein similar to unknown protein | 1,178 | 2,616 | 2,928 |
| AT1G74010* | strictosidine synthase family protein | 1,404 | 2,782 | 1,303 |
| AT1G80450* | VQ motif-containing protein | 1,445 | 1,191 | 1,642 |
| AT2G31945* | similar to unknown protein | 1,253 | 2,230 | 1,469 |
| AT2G47950 | similar to unknown protein | 2,757 | 1,863 | 1,803 |
| AT3G13672* | seven in absentia (SINA1) family protein | 1,806 | 4,338 | 4,002 |
| AT3G45010* | SCPL48 (serine carboxypeptidase-like 48) | 1,109 | 3,689 | 4,292 |
| AT4G04490* | protein kinase family protein | 1,017 | 1,605 | 1,509 |
| AT4G18425* | similar to unknown protein | 1,542 | 4,984 | 10,013 |
| AT4G19810* | glycosyl hydrolase family 18 protein | 1,620 | 3,973 | 2,712 |
| AT5G13170* | nodulin MtN3 family protein (SAG29) | 2,083 | 4,549 | 9,151 |
| AT5G39520* | similar to unknown protein | 1,373 | 4,205 | 3,047 |
| AT5G13180* | VNI2/ANAC083 (Arabidopsis) | 0,615 | 2,119 | 1,035 |

* Senescence up-regulated genes (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Parlitz et al., 2011, Van Der Graaff et al., 2006; Balazadeh et al., 2008a; Breeze et al., 2011).

In an attempt to characterize particular pathways that are over-represented in the set of differentially expressed genes, we classified the genes into functional categories using PageMan (Usadel et al., 2006). Over-representation was assessed using the Wilcoxon rank sum test. We selected the set of commonly up-regulated genes ( 17 genes, presented in Table 2). Due to the fact that we could not identify a set of commonly down-regulated genes, we assayed the over-represented functional categories in down-regulated genes of each dataset and produced a consolidated table of over-represented functional categories in all three data sets. Over-representation is assayed by comparing the categories in the set under analysis with the represented functional categories of the whole Affymetrix ATH1 array.

Significantly over-represented categories in the set of commonly up-regulated genes involved "lipid metabolism and degradation," "secondary metabolism," "stress" (particularly "abiotic stress"), "RNA processing" (particularly "ribonucleases"), "DNA synthesis and chromatin structure," "protein, posttranscriptional modification, and degradation," and "signaling" (particularly "receptor kinases") (Table 3a). Significantly over-represented functional categories in the set of down-regulated genes included "RNA regulation of transcription," "lipid metabolism and degradation," "stress" including both, abiotic and biotic, "secondary metabolism" (particularly "phenylpropanoids"), "hormone metabolism," "redox," and "transport." In the case of over-represented categories in down-regulated genes, the $P$-values are not given since for each dataset we obtained a $p$-value. Nonetheless, in all cases, the differences observed are statistically significant (Table 3b).

Table 3. Significantly over-represented functional categories in up- or down-regulated genes after six hours constitutive overexpression of ORE1 ( $35 S$ :ORE1/6 hours cotransfected protoplasts) relative to the categories represented by the ATH1 array. (a) Up- and (b) down-regulated categories found using the Wilcoxon statistical test.

## Functional Category P-value

| a) Up-regulated classes | $7,92 \mathrm{E}-04$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| Lipid metabolism, degradation | $7,92 \mathrm{E}-04$ |
| Secondary metabolism | $7,92 \mathrm{E}-04$ |
| Stress.abiotic | $7,92 \mathrm{E}-04$ |
| RNA.processing, ribonucleases | $7,92 \mathrm{E}-04$ |
| DNA Synthesis, Chromatin structure | $7,92 \mathrm{E}-04$ |
| Protein. postranslational modification, degradation | $7,92 \mathrm{E}-04$ |
| Signaling.receptor kinases | $4,15 \mathrm{E}-10$ |
| Development unspecified |  |
| b) Down-regulated classes |  |
| RNA regulation of transcription |  |
| Lipid metabolism, degradation |  |
| Stress, biotic, abiotic |  |
| Protein |  |
| Development unspecified |  |
| Secondary metabolism, phenylpropanoids |  |
| Hormone metabolism |  |
| Redox |  |
| Transport |  |

### 4.2.2. Characterization of the ORE1 binding site and its occurrence in putative target genes

The group of genes that are direct targets of a transcription factor can be identified among early responsive genes by screening for the presence of its binding site (BS). Therefore, the characterization of the sequences bound by a transcription factor is an essential step in the identification of true targets. Olsen et al. (2005) reported the binding site of ORE1 as TTAGGACGTGATCATAG. The binding site of other NAC TFs has been characterized by the DNA-binding-protein-CELD method (DBP-CELD). Xue et al. (2005) reported that sequences bound by NAC TFs are rather long, including two consensus motifs separated by a spacer that is a few bp long (Balazadeh et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2012; Xue 2005). To deduce the BS of ORE1, our collaboration partner, Dr. Gang-Ping Xue, performed a binding site selection assay using a fusion protein consisting of a translational fusion of the ORE1 cDNA to a 6-His-tagged cellulase D (CELD), which serves for the affinity purification of the ORE1DNA complex (Xue, 2005) (Fig. 11.A, C-D). As shown in Figure 11.B, positive clones carrying the ORE1-CELD construct were identified by a light red halo around the clones growing on a medium containing CMC (carboxymethyl cellulose). The halo is produced by the hydrolysis of cellulose and is visible after staining with a Congo-Red solution. A detailed description of the assay is given in experimental procedures section 4.4.4.


Figure 11.ORE1-BS selection assay. (A) Schematic representation of the ORE1-CELD construct. (B) E. coli colony expressing ORE1-CELD; bacteria were plated in sterile LB medium supplemented with Carboxymethyl-Cellulose (CMC, sodium salt). Positive colonies are detected after staining with a clear halo due to the positive cellulase activity. (C) Schematic representation of the CELD method. (D) ORE1 has high affinity to a target DNA where two core motifs, (RMGTR) and (YACGY), are spaced by 5-6 bp.

It has been shown that NAC TFs require more stringent binding sequences, not just the conserved core motif. Previously, we had reported RCGTR(4-5n)RYACGCAA as the consensus sequence recognized by ORS1/ANAC059 (Balazadeh et al., 2011). According to Ooka et al. (2003), ORS1 and ORE1 are closely related proteins and represent paralogous in Arabidopsis. Within their NAM domains, they share an overall amino acid identity of $94 \%$ and a sequence identity of around $41 \%$ at the C-terminal region. Considering such high similarity between the NAM domains, we hypothesized that ORE1 binding specificity may be similar to that of ORS1. We tested the binding affinity of ORE1 with the ORS1BS and with different oligonucleotides with small variations (substitutions or deletions/ additions). As shown in Table 4, ORE1 binding specificity to ORS1-BSs (ORS1) is very high (1.00). Nevertheless, a transversion in the first motif (ORS1m2) from C to A causes only a slight reduction in binding from 1.00 to 0.93 , while a transition in the second binding motif (ORS1m1) from G to A results in a greater reduction in binding affinity from 1.00 to 0.63 . To test the influence of the spacer between the first and second motifs, deletions and additions analyses were carried out (motifs ORE1m5 to ORE1m7). It can be seen that a spacer of either 4 bp or 7 bp causes a drastic reduction in binding affinity (from 1.00 to 0.17 and 0.33 , respectively). These data allowed us to conclude that ORE1 preferentially binds to the consensus sequence RMGTR(5-6n)YACGY (Fig. 11.D).

Table 4. ORE1 binding sequence determined by comparison with the ORS1-BS. Tested oligonucleotides are in the first column. Grey shadowing indicates the first core motif of ORE-BS, and red coloring indicates the spacer. Blue indicates the second core motif of ORE1-BS. Transitions are underlined in each case.

| Selected oligonucleotides |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Synthetic oligos |  | Sequence |  | ORE1 |
| ORS1 | CGGGGTT ACGTA | CGGCA | CACGCAACCGTGC | $1.00 \pm 0.09$ |
| Mutated oligos (substitutions) |  |  |  |  |
| ORS1m1 | CGGGGTT ACGTA | CGGCA | CACACAACCGTGC | $0.63 \pm 0.01$ |
| ORS1m2 | CGGGGTT AAGTA | CGGCA | CACGCAACCGTGC | $0.93 \pm 0.11$ |
| ORS1m3 | CGGGGTT GCGTA | CGGCA | CACGCAACCGTGC | $1.13 \pm 0.02$ |
| ORS1m4 | CGGGGTT ACGTA | CGGCA | CACGIAACCGTGC | $1.20 \pm 0.20$ |
| Mutated oligos (deletions and additions) |  |  |  |  |
| ORS1m5 | CGGGGTT ACGTA | GGCA | CACGCAACCGTGC | $0.17 \pm 0.01$ |
| ORS1m6 | CGGGGTT ACGTA | CCGGCA | CACGCAACCGTGC | $1.07 \pm 0.06$ |
| ORS1m7 | CGGGGTT ACGTA | CTCGGCA | CACGCAACCGTGC | $0.33 \pm 0.01$ |

Values are means $\pm$ SD of three assays.

### 4.2.3. ORE1 activates its putative target genes in vivo

We performed a series of in vivo and in vitro analyses to test whether ORE1 can directly bind and activate the promoters of its putative target genes. First, we searched in silico for the
presence of the ORE1 binding site as determined by the DBP-CELD method (section 4.2.2) in the promoter regions of BFN1 (1084 bp), VNI2 (1571 bp), RNS3 (1062 bp), ORE1 (1281 bp), SINA1 (1018 bp), and SAG29 (831 bp) (sequences refer to up-stream of the start codon ATG). The program fuzznuc from EMBOSS was used to search for the presence of the complete or partial ORE1-BS that covers at least the first core motif (http://helixweb.nih.gov/emboss/ $\mathrm{html} /$ fuzznuc.html) (Rice et al., 2000). We identified 11 putative binding sites in BFN1, 19 in VNI2, nine in RNS3, eight in ORE1, 16 in SINA1, and 13 in SAG29. Notably, exclusively up-stream sequence of VNI2 exhibited a putative ORE1-BS spanning the whole ORE1-BS RMGTR(5n)YACGC. This binding site corresponds to the sequence GAGTATGGTTTACGC and is located 164 bp up-stream of the ATG. BFN1 contains the second longest version of the ORE1-BS with a transversion in the second motif ( T instead of A in the twelve position) the sequence is ACGTATGAGACTCGC and is located 196 bp up-stream of the ATG (Annex 2).

To test whether ORE1 activates the promoter regions of its putative target genes in vivo, we performed a series of transactivation assays. The promoter regions of the putative target genes linked to the firefly luciferase reporter (BFN1-LUC, VNI2-LUC, RNS3-LUC, SAG29-LUC, SINA1-LUC, and ORE1-LUC) were co-transfected into Arabidopsis mesophyll protoplasts in the presence or absence of ORE1 fused to the Cauliflower Mosaic Virus (CaMV) 35S promoter (35S:ORE1) (Balazadeh et al., 2010a) by PEG-mediated transformation (see Experimental Procedures, section 4.4.8). As shown in Figure 12, luciferase activity was significantly higher if the promoters of $B F N 1, V N I 2$, and $R N S 3$ were co-transfected with 35S:ORE1, indicating that ORE1 transactivates the expression of these targets in mesophyll cell protoplasts. Promoter activity of SAG29, SINA1, and ORE1 was not significantly different from basal expression; therefore, we concluded that these genes might not be direct targets of ORE1 (Fig. 12).


Figure 12. Protoplast transactivation of ORE1 and promoter regions of its targets. Promoter-LUC constructs were co-transfected into mesophyll protoplast with $35:$ RLuc and with/without $35 S: O R E 1$. Luciferase activities were determined with the Dual Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega) 24 hours after transfection. Transfections were conducted in triplicate, and repeated once with a separate set of plants. Luciferase activities were normalized to corresponding Renilla luciferase activities ( $* P$ value $<0,05$ ).

### 4.2.4. ORE1 binds to its putative target genes in vitro

Regulation of gene expression is in part mediated through the direct interaction of transcription factors with their consensus motifs located in the promoter of targets. In order to investigate the physical interaction of ORE1 with promoter regions of its putative target genes, we performed electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs). We designed primers by (Annex 1) flaking one of the ORE1-BS identified by the program fuzznuc (except for the gene SAG29) (Fig. 13.A). In our analysis, we included a primer designed for SINA1, although we found that in vivo this promoter is not significantly transactivated by ORE1 overexpression (section 4.2.3). We selected the longest and perfect biding site of VNI2 and $B F N 1$ genes, and we selected RNS3 and SINA1 oligos by searching for a sequence containing the invariable core for ORE1 (ACGTA) and tested in CELD method (section 4.2.2). As a positive control, we used the sequence that showed the highest binding affinity in the CELD experiment: ORS1 synthetic oligo 5'-CGGGGTTACGTACGGCACACGCAACCGTGC-' 3 (Table 4). Recombinant ORE1 protein fused to glutathione S-transferase (GST-ORE1) was incubated with $5^{\prime}$-DY682-labeled 40-bp double-stranded DNA fragments containing the different ORE1-BSs. GST-ORE1 was able to bind to all tested promoter fragments, including promoters that were not effective in the transactivation assays. All probes contained the same concentration of ORE1 protein and oligonucleotides. Thus, we assume that differences in band intensity are related to differences in binding affinity that may reflect the effect of the presence of the two core motifs of ORE1-BS. As shown in Figure 13.B, GST-ORE1 protein complexes migrate slower than the free DNA due to the interaction of ORE1 with its targets. ORE1 exhibited the strongest affinity to the VNI2 promoter fragment in comparison to all other promoter-fragments tested. We attribute this strong affinity to the presence of a complete and perfect version ( 15 nucleotides) of the ORE1-BS in the VNI2 promoter fragment. In the cases where the fragments span only the first core motif, like for RNS3, or only up to the first nucleotide of the second core motif, like in SINA1, the biding affinity was strongly reduced. Nevertheless, in the case of BFN1, the promoter fragment contained 15 nucleotides of the ORE1-BS and exhibited a low binding affinity. The BFN1 promoter fragment contained a transversion in the second core motif of ORE1-BS (see above section 4.2.3). Therefore, we concluded that conservation of the first and second motif is essential to preserve ORE1 binding affinity. Binding affinity was significantly reduced if unlabeled promoter fragments were added in excess (competitor). The competition was dose-dependent, and no mobility shift was detected if the competitor was added in excess, indicating specific binding of ORE1 (Fig. 13.B).


Figure 13. ORE1 binding activity in vitro by EMSA. (A) Schematic representation of 5'-DY682-labeled 40-bp DNA fragments (B) Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs). Positive shift for all tested ORE1-putative-target genes in the presence of GST-ORE1 protein is indicated by a red arrow. Free DNA-oligos are seen at the bottom of the gel.

### 4.3. Conclusions

The transcriptome analyses provided important information about early regulated genes upon overexpression of ORE1. We identified a set of 17 commonly up-regulated genes that are highly and rapidly induced upon ORE1 overexpression. In contrast, we did not identify commonly down-regulated genes, and therefore, propose that ORE1 functions as a transcriptional activator like many other NAC TFs. The analysis for over-represented functional categories among the genes up- or down-regulated revealed that up-regulated genes are associated primarily with the degradation of macromolecules and signaling. We designed a list of six up-regulated genes to test if they are direct targets (BFN1, VNI2, RNS3, ORE1, SINA1, and SAG29). All the genes selected are known senescence-associated genes (SAGs), and two of them encode NAC TFs (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Balazadeh et al., 2008a,b; Breeze et al.,2011). We have characterized ORE1-BS as RMGTR(5-6n) YACGY and found that all selected targets contained different versions of ORE1-BSs in their promoters. ORE1 was able to bind to all of them in vitro (except for SAG29 that was not tested). Additionally, BFN1, VNI2, and RNS3 were significantly transactivated by ORE1 in
mesophyll cell protoplasts from Arabidopsis. Our results provide convincing evidence that supports BFN1, VNI2 and RNS3 as direct targets down-stream of ORE1. Further analyses are required to elucidate the biological relevance of these targets in the context of natural and induced-senescence.

### 4.4. Experimental procedures

### 4.4.1. General

Standard molecular techniques were performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.1.

### 4.4.2. Plant material

The plant material and growth conditions used were similar to those described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2.

### 4.4.3. Plant transformation

Arabidopsis transformation was performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.4.

### 4.4.4. Constructs

Description of the overexpressor construct (35S:ORE1) was given in Balazadeh et al. (2010a).

Promoter-LUC constructs: promoter regions spanning 1.5 kb up-stream of the translation start codon ATG of VNI2, BFN1, RNS3, ORE1, SINA1 and RNS3 were amplified from genomic DNA by PCR using an Advantage HF 2 PCR Kit (Clontech) with gene-specific forward and reverse primers (Annex 1). Promoter fragments were subcloned into a pENTR-D-TOPO vector (Invitrogen, www.invitrogen.com) to generate individual entry vectors. The entry vectors were then recombined into the Gateway destination vector $p 2 G W L 7.0$ which is a recombination of the gateway vectors $p B G W L 7.0$ (transcription reporter vector) (Karimi et al., 2002) and p2GW7.0 (overexpression vector) (Licausi et al., 2011) using the LR reaction mix II (Invitrogen) to obtain the final BFN1-LUC, VNI2-LUC, RNS3-LUC, ORE1-LUC, SINA1-LUC, and SAG29-LUC reporter vectors.

ORE1-CELD: ORE1 cDNA was amplified by PCR from leaf cDNA with forward (116) and reverse (117) primers (Annex 1). The amplified fragment was inserted into pCR2.1-TOPO and then cloned via NheI and BamHI sites into plasmid pTacLCELD6XHis (Xue, 2005) to create an ORE1-CELD in-frame fusion construct (pTacORE1LCELD6XHis).

### 4.4.5. Transient expression of ORE1 in protoplasts for transcriptome profiling

The protoplast preparation protocol was adapted from Sheen (2002). Arabidopsis mesophyll cell protoplasts were isolated from leaves (the second and/or third/fourth pair) of 5-weekold Col-0 (CS60000) plants grown on soil under long-day (16 hours light/8 hours dark) conditions. Leaves were placed in enzyme solution ( $1 \%$ cellulase R10, $0.3 \%$ macerozyme R10 (Yakult Honsha, Tokyo, Japan), 0.4 M mannitol, $20 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 10 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{CaCl}{ }_{2}, 20 \mathrm{mM}$ MES, $0.1 \%$ BSA (Sigma A-6793), pH 5.7) for 8.5 hours. Protoplasts were collected and kept on ice in W5 medium ( $154 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl}, 125 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{CaCl}_{2}, 5 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 2 \mathrm{mM}$ MES, pH 5.7) for 13 hours in the growth cabinet. Protoplasts were transferred to MMG solution ( 0.4 M mannitol, $15 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl} 2,4 \mathrm{mM}$ MES pH 5.7 ), and subjected to PEG transfection. To $2.12 \times 10^{6}$ protoplasts, a total of $250 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ plasmid DNA was added followed by 30 minutes of incubation in 1 vol. of PEG solution ( $40 \%$ PEG $3500,3 \mathrm{~mL} \mathrm{H} \mathrm{O}, 0.2 \mathrm{M}$ mannitol, 0.1 M $\mathrm{CaCl}_{2}$ ). After transfection, the samples were diluted with 2 vol. of W 5 solution and collected by centrifugation at 100 g for two minutes. Protoplasts were then resuspended in 4 mL WI medium ( 0.5 M mannitol, $20 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 4 \mathrm{mM}$ MES, pH 5.7 ), transferred to 5 cm Petri dishes pre-coated with $5 \%$ calf serum, and incubated for 6 hours in the growth cabinet. After the incubation, protoplasts were collected, and $100-200 \mathrm{mg}$ aliquots were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen for subsequent RNA isolation and expression profiling.

### 4.4.6. Gene expression analysis by microarray

Three micrograms of quality-checked total RNA obtained from leaves of two and three biological replicates of IOE-ORE1 and wild type lines, respectively (two hours and five hours after $10 \mu \mathrm{M}$ estradiol treatment), and two biological replicates of the mesophyll cell protoplasts transiently overexpressing 35S:ORE1, were processed for use in Affymetrix GeneChip hybridisations (GeneChip® Arabidopsis ATH1 array) as described (Redman et al., 2004). RNA was obtained from IOE-ORE1 and wild type 15-day-old seedlings grown in half MS (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) media with the selective antibiotic hygromycin (as described in Chapter 2). Seedlings were transferred from solid to liquid MS media one day before treatment to minimize secondary effects by stress. Seedlings of ORE1-IOE and wild type were treated/non treated with EST and, immediately after, whole seedlings were frozen in liquid nitrogen ( N ) for RNA extraction. ATH1 arrays allow the analysis of around 24.000 Arabidopsis genes. Labeling, hybridization, washing, staining, and scanning procedures were performed by Affymetrix Authorized Service Provider (ATLAS Biolabs, Berlin, Germany) as described in the Affymetrix technical manual. Raw data (CEL files) obtained from RNA hybridization experiments were normalized with the affyPLM package from the Bioconductor software project (Gentleman et al., 2004) using the GCRMA that uses GC content of probes in normalization with RMA (Robust Multiple array Average) and gives one value for each probe set instead of keeping probe level information ( Wu and Irizarry, 2004).The heat map was produced using the software gplots from R. The Log2FC
results for the 54 probe sets up-regulated in the ATH1 Affymetrix after two hours inducible overexpression of ORE1 were clustered together with the corresponding results after five hours inducible overexpression and 6 hours constitutive overexpression. The hierarchal clustering was performed using Euclidian-distance as the method of pairwise distance calculation. The dendrograms group treatments (columns) and probe sets (rows) according to their similarity (Warnes et al., 2009)

### 4.4.7. ORE1 binding affinity to ORS1 perfect and mutated binding sites

This work was performed in collaboration with Dr. Gang-Ping Xue, CSIRO Plant Industry, St. Lucia, Australia. The DNA-binding activity of ORE1-CELD protein was measured using methylumbelliferyl $\beta$-D-cellobioside (MUC) as substrate as described in Xue (2002). DNAbinding assays with a biotin-labeled single-stranded oligonucleotide, or a biotin-labeled double-stranded oligonucleotide without a target binding site, were used as controls.

### 4.4.8. Dual-luciferase assay

Dual-luciferase assay was performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.7. Promoter regions of ORE1 putative genes were used as reporter plasmids: a 1.0 kb up-stream of the ATG was amplified from genomic Arabidopsis ecotype Col-0 DNA to generate reporter final constructs: BFN1-LUC, VNI2-LUC, RNS3-LUC, SAG29-LUC, SINA1-LUC, and ORE1-LUC (described in section 4.4.4). As an effector plasmid, a 35S:ORE1 construct was used. Normalization of data was performed based on relative luciferase of the 35S:RLuc normalization vector (Licausi et al., 2011).

### 4.4.9. EMSA

For protein expression and purification, the ORE1 cDNA was recombined in vitro into the Gateway vector pDEST24 (Invitrogen) encoding a C-terminal GST-tag, and transformed into the E. coli expression strain BL21 (DE3) pLysS (Agilent Technologies). The pDEST15 vector (Invitrogen) was used for expression and purification of GST alone. Expression of GST and ORE1-GST fusion proteins was carried out in $400-\mathrm{smL}$ cultures and induced at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ by 1 mM isopropyl thio- $\beta$-D-galactoside for 3 hours. Harvested cells were lysed in 20 mL GST lysis buffer ( 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer, $\mathrm{pH} 7.3,150 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl}, 1 \mathrm{mM}$ EDTA, $0.2 \%$ Triton $\mathrm{X}-100,1 \mathrm{mM}$ dithiotreitol, 1 mM phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride, $10 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ aprotonin, $10 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ leupeptin, 2 mM benzamidin) and ultrasound treatment. According to the instructions of the manufacturer, the supernatant of ultracentrifuged samples was used for affinity purification with 70 mg of pre-equilibrated glutathione-agarose beads (SigmaAldrich). Aliquots of the elution fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and Coomassie staining. One-mL fractions containing the purified proteins were pooled and dialyzed against PBS buffer ( 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.4 and 150 mM NaCl ). Concentrations
of purified proteins were determined by SDS-PAGE and Coomassie staining using BSA standards. 5-DY682-labeled DNA fragments were obtained from MWG (Ebersberg, Germany). Sequences of labeled DNA fragments, unlabeled competitors, and mutated fragments are given in Annex 1. Annealing was performed by heating the primers to $100^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ followed by slow cooling to room temperature (RT). Binding reaction was performed at RT for 20 minutes as described in the Odyssey Infrared EMSA kit instruction manual. DNAprotein complexes were separated on $6 \%$ retardation gel while DY682 signal was detected using the Odyssey Infrared Imaging System for LI-COR Biosciences.

## Contributions

Dr. Gang Ping Xue performed the CELD experiment. Dr. Wolfgan Dröge Laser performed transient overexpression of ORE1 in Arabidopsis protoplasts (35S:ORE1/6 hours). Dr. Hakan Dortay and Katharina Schulz produced recombinant ORE1-GST protein.

## Chapter 5

# Expression of BIFUNCTIONAL NUCLEASE1 (BFN1) during senescence in Arabidopsis is regulated by the NAC transcription factor ORE1/ANAC092/AtNAC2 

A version of this work will be submitted to The Plant Journal

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### 5.1. Introduction

Senescence is a regulated process associated with the final developmental stages in plants. It can also be triggered by abiotic and biotic stresses. Several of the more than 20 senescence up-regulated NAC TFs in Arabidopsis thaliana have been shown to regulate senescence, including (among others) AtNAP/ANAC029 (Guo and Gan, 2006), ORE1/ANAC092/ AtNAC2 (Balazadeh et al., 2010a,b; Kim et al., 2009), and ORESARA1 SISTERI/ORS1/ ANAC059 (Balazadeh et al., 2011) which all promote senescence, and recently, the NAC factor VASCULAR-RELATED NAC-DOMAIN (VND) INTERACTING2 (VNI2, ANAC083) has been reported to integrate ABA signaling and leaf senescence (Yang et al., 2011). ORE1 has been shown to be a central regulator of senescence in Arabidopsis thaliana (Balazadeh et al., 2010a,b; Breeze et al.,2011). Despite the amount of available data, the exact mechanisms
that govern the onset and progression of senescence remain unknown at present, but direct interactions between this NAC TF (ORE1) and their target genes are clearly needed for this process. ORE1 has recently been shown to play a role in developmental and induced senescence as well as programmed cell death (PC) (Balazadeh et al., 2010a,b; Kim et al., 2009).

It was establish that the orel-1 allele isolated from an EMS-mutagenized pool, and the ore1-2 allele isolated from a population of fast neutron-mutagenized Col-0 seeds, conferring the delayed leaf senescence phenotype (Aeong Oh et al., 1997; Kim et al., 2009) as well as the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant. In contrast, ORE1 overexpression strongly enhances senescence (Balazadeh et al., 2010a). Kim et al. (2009) proposed a trifurcate feedforward pathway involving ORE1, microRNA164 (miR164), and EIN2 (ethylene insensitive 2) ensuring highly robust regulation of leaf senescence and aging induced cell death. ORE1 expression is positively regulated by EIN2 but negatively by miR1 64 with leaf age. EIN2 functions as a negative regulator of miR164 expression in an age-dependent manner. Agedependent down-regulation of miR164 leads to accumulation of ORE1 expression. Despite clear evidence of ORE1 as a key role in the regulation of leaf senescence, knowledge about the molecular mechanism(s) and gene network(s) through which ORE1 exert its senescence regulatory function is still limited. We have previously described genes whose mRNA expression is rapidly induced upon ORE1 induction (ORE1 regulon), and are, therefore, candidates for being direct targets of ORE1 (Chapter 4). Bioinformatics analysis and network modeling, based on high-resolution time-course profiles of gene expression during leaf development, predict genes whose expression is positively influenced by ORE1 (Breeze et al., 2011). BFN1, which is among the genes that are rapidly and positively regulated by ORE1, encodes a type I nuclease; it shares high amino acid sequence similarity to DSA6 nuclease, which is associated with petal senescence in daylilies (Panavas, 1999), and to ZEN1 nuclease, which is associated with PCD in Zinnia elegans (Ito and Fukuda, 2002). BFN1 expression was already enhanced by around fourfold two hours after EST treatment in ORE1-IOE lines. Its expression further increased to fortyfold within five hours of EST treatment. An extreme activation of BFN1 expression (a thousandfold) was observed in the 35S:ORE1 six hours after protoplast transfection (section 4.2.1). BFN1 expression has been shown to be specifically enhanced during leaf and stem senescence, as well as in the floral abscission zone and during developmental PCD (Breeze et al., 2011; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Farage-Barhom et al., 2011; Pérez-Amador et al., 2000; Wagstaff et al., 2009). Intracellular localization studies revealed that at later stages of senescence, BFN1-GFP is localized with fragmented nuclei in membrane coated vesicles, suggesting the role for BFN1 in regulated nucleic acid degradation occurs during senescence and developmental PCD (Farage-Barhom et al., 2011). In Chapter 4 we obtained strong evidence that support a possible direct interaction of BFN1 by ORE1. Here, we demonstrated that ORE1 specifically activates the $B F N 1$ promoter. $B F N 1$ and $O R E 1$ tissue-specific expression show largely overlapping patterns, reaffirming the idea of co-expression. We proved that binding of ORE1
to $B N F 1$ promoter is highly specific, and single mutations in ORE-BS that are present in the BFN1 promoter hardly affect binding activity in vivo. Moreover, we revealed that senescence-enhanced expression of BFN1 is abolished in the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant, indicating ORE1 as a major regulator of BFN1 expression during senescence. Our results give convincing data that supports $B F N 1$ as a direct target down-stream of ORE1.

### 5.2. Results

### 5.2.1. Overlapping patterns of transcriptional activities of BFN1 and ORE1 promoters

The elevated expression of BFN1 in the cells and transgenic plants overexpressing ORE1 indicated that the NAC TF acts as an up-stream positive regulator of BFN1. We, therefore, analyzed the extent of co-expression of both genes in Arabidopsis plants. Gene expression profiling data revealed induction of both $B F N 1$ and $O R E 1$ during leaf and pistil developmental senescence (Breeze et al., 2011; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Farage-Barhom et al., 2011; Pérez-Amador et al., 2000; Wagstaff et al., 2009) and during dark- and salt-induced senescence (Balazadeh et al., 2010b; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005). Moreover, expression of both genes was highly induced upon 180 minutes ABA treatment in 7-day-old seedlings (Arabidopsis Hormone Database) (Jiang et al., 2011) and significantly reduced in the ein2 mutant that lacks a major component of the ethylene signaling pathway (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005). To investigate the extent of overlapping promoter activities during senescence, we looked at ORE1 and BFN1 promoter activities using promoter- $\beta$-glucuronidase (GUS) reporter lines. Transgenic Arabidopsis lines expressing the GUS reporter gene, driven by the 2.3 kb BFN1 up-stream region (Farage-Barhom et al., 2008) or the 1.5 kb ORE1 upstream region (Balazadeh et al., 2010a), were analyzed side by side to identify unique and overlapping expression patterns of both genes. In general, expression patterns of both promoter fusions were highly similar in leaves and floral organs at different developmental stages, while expression was largely absent in young tissues, consistent with the function of both genes during senescence (Fig. 14). Examination of GUS expression in 15 -day-old seedlings revealed high BFN1 and ORE1 expression in cotyledons as well as in the tip regions of leaves. $B F N 1$ expression was faint in roots (Fig. 14.a) compared to ORE1 expression in the same tissues (Fig. 14.f). In both BFN1 and ORE1 plants 40 days after sowing (DAS), GUS activity was specifically detected in tip and margin regions of senescence leaves (Fig. 14.b,g). GUS activity was prominent in the stigma, mature anthers, and sepals of mature/fully opened flowers (flower stage 13/14 as classified by Ferrandiz et al. (1999) (Fig. 14.d,i and c,h). Expression in mature siliques was detectable in abscission zones (AZ) at the bottom and upper parts of the valve margins for both Prom-ORE1:GUS and Prom-BFN1:GUS (Fig. 14.e,j). We also observed GUS expression in Prom-ORE1:GUS lines in the replum of mature fruits and faintly in Prom-BFN1:GUS (Fig. 14.j). Thus, our data largely demonstrated overlapping expression patterns for the NAC transcription factor ORE1 and its direct down-stream target BFN1.


Figure 14. Histochemical GUS staining of Prom-BFN1:GUS and Prom-ORE1:GUS in Arabidopsis. Plants were transformed with Prom-BFN1:GUS (top) and Prom-ORE1:GUS (bottom): (a, f) Arabidopsis seedlings (15-day-old) exhibited strong GUS activity in cotyledons and tip regions of leaves. (b, g) Arabidopsis leaves (40 DAS) showed strong GUS activity in the tip and margin regions of leaves corresponding to the oldest tissues. (c, h) Bolting branch with young and old flowers. GUS was observed in mature/opened flowers. GUS activity was observed in the flower abscission zone (indicated by arrows). (d,i) close-up of mature/opened flowers (flower stage 13/14 as classified by Ferrandiz et al. (1999). Strong GUS activity on stigma and mature anthers was detected. GUS activity was faint in sepals (indicated by arrows). $(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{j})$ close-up of mature siliques. GUS activity was detected in abscission zones (AZ) at the bottom and upper part of the siliques. In the case of Prom-ORE1:GUS, promoter activity was also detected in the replum (indicate by arrows) and along the aperture site of the valves.

### 5.2.2. Altered level of BFN1 protein in ORE1 transgenic plants

Nuclease I enzymes are involved in the degradation of RNA and single-stranded DNA during several plant growth and developmental processes, including senescence. BFN1 RNase and DNase nuclease activities were detected in activity gels at about 38 kDa using leaves from transgenic Arabidopsis plants overexpressing BFN1. Nuclease activity was almost undetectable when using roots and non-senescent leaves and stems. Furthermore, senescent flowers also exhibited enhanced nuclease activity. These results demonstrated that BFN1 encodes a bifunctional nuclease capable of degrading RNA and DNA (Pérez-Amador et al., 2000). To further confirm that $B F N 1$ expression is ORE1-dependent, we measured changes in BFN1 nuclease protein levels in plants overexpressing or lacking ORE1 protein. All protein was extracted from (i) estradiol (EST) treated and (ii) non-treated (15-day-old) ORE1-IOE seedlings after 24 hours of induction. In order to avoid artifacts due to the EST treatment, we analyzed BFN1 activity in ORE1 overexpressor lines (35S:ORE1, lines 23 and 24) using protein extracts from leaves in which senescence was artificially induced. All leaves were at full senescence, as judged by complete yellowing of the tissue, and empty vector lines (E.V.) were used as controls. Additionally, BFN1 nuclease protein level was measured in the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant and wild type plants (30-DAS). Same position leaves (6 and 7) were detached and incubated in the dark until full senescence was obtained (after seven days in the wild type and nine days in the mutant). Proteins were extracted from the plant material described above and used for Western blot analysis using BFN1 antiserum.

The position of the senescence-induced BFN1 protein was clearly visible in the analysis, indicated by black arrows on the gels. The expression level of BFN1 nuclease protein was detected in ORE1-IOE seedlings upon treatment with EST (Fig. 15.D), whereas it was undetectable in untreated ORE1-IOE seedlings (Fig. 15.C). This result strongly supports that at earlier developmental stages, BFN1 expression is absent. Nevertheless, an increase in the ORE1 protein level after EST treatment is able to trigger the expression of BFN1, even in young plants like seedlings (Fig. 15.D). Interestingly, proteins extracted from inducible ORE1 lines and constitutive ORE1 overexpressors (Fig. 15.D, G-H) exhibited a substantial reduction in the amount of proteins compared to non-treated ORE1-IOE seedlings and wild type protein extracts; in particular, degradation of Rubisco LSU (ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit) was evident, which is in accordance with the fact that overexpression of ORE1 triggers senescence and accelerates protein degradation. Rubisco protein is indicated by red arrows on the gel images. As expected, BFN1 nuclease protein was almost absent in senescent leaves of the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant compared to senescing leaf protein extract from wild type plants. As expected, the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant plants showed bands of Rubisco signal which is in accordance with the delay of senescence in these lines and the retardation of protein degradation (Fig. 15.A-B). Overall, our results confirm that BFN1 expression is ORE1-dependent.


Figure 15. Altered level of BFN1 protein in ORE1 transgenic plants detected by Western blot. In all blots, red arrows corresponds to Rubisco LSU (ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit) and black arrows correspond to BFN1 protein. (A) Enhanced BFN1 protein level in wild type protein extract. (B) BFN1 protein is almost absent in anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant. anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant shows a considerable concentration of Rubisco LSU, indicating that protein degradation is almost absent. BFN1 protein level was absent in untreated inducible ORE1 overexpression seedlings (C) compared to treated seedlings after 24 hours EST treatment (D). Lower levels of BFN1 protein were detected in pGreen empty vector lines (E.V.) control plants (E-F) compared to a markedly BFN1 protein level in 35S:ORE1 overexpressor lines (L24 and L25) (G-H).

### 5.2.3. Senescence-specific expression of BFN1 is ORE1-dependent

In order to test whether the senescence-induced expression of $B F N 1$ is dependent on the presence of functional ORE1, we tested BFN1 expression in the ore1-1 EMS mutant using plants from different developmental stages; plants were grown in soil and leaves were harvested from plants 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32, and 36 days after sowing. As shown in Figure 16, $B F N 1$ expression strongly increased with age in wild type plants; expression was sixtyfold higher in leaves of 28-day-old plants compared to leaves of 24-day-old plants. Expression of $B F N 1$ remained high and increased further at later time points (in 32- and 36-day-old plants), consistent with previous observations that BFN1 is a senescence-associated gene (FarageBarhom et al., 2011; Pérez-Amador et al., 2000; Wagstaff et al., 2009). In contrast, the agedependent increase of BFN1 transcript abundance was completely abolished in leaves of the ore1-1 EMS mutant. These data indicate that senescence-associated expression of BFN1 is mainly, if not exclusively, regulated by ORE1. Considering the negative regulation of ORE1 by mir164abc during leaf aging, we next tested BFN1 transcript level in the mir164abc triple mutant at different leaf developmental stages (as described above). The difference in BFN1 transcript between younger and older leaves was greater in mirl $64 a b c$ mutants than wild type plants (Fig. 16.A).

To further confirm that expression of BFN1 is ORE1-dependent, we tested the expression of an exclusively senescence marker. SAG12 mRNA expression was measured in the same plant material. As expected, SAG12 expression increased with age in wild type plants with a maximum value at the later time point ( 36 -day-old plant). In contrast to BFN1 mRNA expression in ore1-1 EMS mutant, SAG12 increased with age following the same pattern as in wild type and mirl64abc mutants. SAG12 expression increased at a lower rate in the ore1-1 EMS mutant than in wild type and mil64abc mutants, confirming that the absence of ORE1 delays senescence. In the end, expression of SAG12 was the same in all tested plants. These results confirm that all tested plants reach senescence in the latest time point (after 36 days after germination), and the absence of functional ORE1 not only delays senescence but directly controls the expression of BFN1 (Fig. 16.B).


Figure 16. BFN1 and SAG12 expression in ore1-1 EMS mutant, mir164abc, and wild type plants. (A) BFN1 and (B) SAG12 transcript levels in leaves of ore1-1 EMS mutant, mil64abc mutant, and wild type Arabidopsis plants at different ages (12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32, and 36 days after germination). Expression level was determined by qRT-PCR, and data are means of two biological replicates.

To further confirm ORE1-dependent expression of $B F N 1$ during senescence, we transformed the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant with the Prom-BFN1:GUS construct (Farage-Barhom et al., 2008) and compared it to the expression patterns and GUS activity in wild type plants that were transformed using the same construct. To minimize the potential effect of the integration point, we analyzed more than 50 independent lines transformed with Prom-BFN1:GUS. The presence of the GUS gene in all lines was confirmed by PCR on genomic DNA (Fig. 17.E). Histochemical staining revealed strong reduction, and in most cases, absence of detectable BFN1 promoter activity in the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant background compared to wild type (Fig. 17.A-B). Additionally, we quantitatively determined GUS activity using 4-methylumbelliferyl- $\beta$-D-glucoronide (4-MUG) as substrate in an assay and taking fully expanded juvenile leaves (from 20-day-old plants) and senescent leaves showing less than $50 \%$ yellowing (from 40-day-old plants) of Prom-BFN1:GUS transgenic lines. As shown in Figure 17.F, reporter gene activity was significantly reduced in Prom-BFN1:GUS/anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant lines compared to Prom-BFN11:GUS/wild type plants. Reduced GUS activity was particularly pronounced in senescent leaves compared to young leaves.

These data confirm that ORE1 plays a central role as an up-stream transcriptional regulator of BFN1.

Prom-BFN1:GUS in wild type
A


Prom-BFN1:GUS in anac092-1
B


E



Figure 17. Expression patterns of Prom-BFN1:GUS in wild type (Col-0) (upper left panel) and anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant (upper right panel) backgrounds. (A) Percentage of transgenic lines (Prom-BFN1:GUS in wild type background) with strong GUS activity (strong signal) compared to percentage of plants without GUS activity (no signal). (B) Percentage of transgenic lines (Prom-BFN1:GUS in anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant background) that exhibited reduction (low signal) or absence of GUS activity (no signal). (C.a) Strong GUS activity in the tip region of an old leaf (line 24). (D.c) Faith GUS activity in the tip region of an old leaf (line 54). (D.d) Absence of GUS activity in tip region of an old leaf (line 2). (C.b-D.e) GUS activity within floral abscission zone (AZs) in the remaining cells for protective scar tissue and the region surrounded. The images displayed are representative of at least 30 plants examined for each line per experiment. Bottom right panel: (F) Quantitative GUS activity of Prom-BFN1:GUS measured by a MUG assay in fully expanded transgenic lines from young leaves (from 20-day-old plants) and senescent leaves (from 40-day-old plants); Prom-BFN1:GUS in wild type background (lines 21 and 24) and Prom-BFN1:GUS in anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant background (lines 2 and 24). Data are the means of two biological and three technical replicates. Bottom left panel: (E) PCR analysis of 40-day-old Prom-BFN1:GUS transgenic plants. DNA was isolated and used as templates for GUS specific amplification. Lane 1 is DNA size marker. Lane 2 is PCR product of Prom-BFN1:GUS in wild type background (line 21). Lane 3 is PCR product of Prom-BFN1:GUS in anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant line background (line 2; plants showed no GUS staining). Lane 4 is the negative control. White arrows indicate GUS-specific amplification, fragment size 1139 bp . The sequence of GUS-specific primers is given in Annex 1.

### 5.2.4. ORE1 binding activity to BFN1 promoter is highly regulated by ORE1binding site (BS)

Transient transactivation assays have been widely used as a powerful and rapid method to predict transcription factor direct target genes and elucidate functional cis-regulatory motifs within promoters of target genes (Licausi et al., 2011; Park et al., 2010; Yang et al.,2011; Zhong et al., 2010, Zhou et al., 2009). In section 4.2.3, we established that ORE1 transactivates BFN1-promoter in mesophyll protoplast. Additionally, we determined that the BFN1 promoter contains 11 different versions of the ORE1 binding site (BS), but only one corresponds to the longest version (ACGTATGAGACTCGC) that is 15 nucleotides long and contains one transition ("T" instead of "A"). This ORE1-BS is located 196 bp up-stream of the ATG and was named BS-1 for further analysis. We aimed to test if BS-1 is crucial for ORE1-mediated transactivation of the BFN1 promoter. We compared the effect in the transcriptional activation of BFN1 using three different BFN1 promoters fused to luciferase (reporter gene): (i) 1084 bp up-stream of the start codon ATG and contained the original BS-1 (BFN1-LUC); (ii) a second version BFN1-M-LUC covered the same region but carried a substitution in the first core motif of BS-1 ("CGT"` was substituted with "AAA"); and (iii) BFNI-S-LUC comprised truncated promoter (192 bp) that lacked all ORE1-BSs (binding sites) (Fig. 18.A). Our luciferase-based assay data demonstrate that the introduction of these substitutions in BS-1 significantly reduced the ORE1 mediated transactivation (Fig. 18.B). This data made us conclude that BS-1 regulated the direct interaction of ORE1 to BFN1 promoter. However, the change in BS-1 did not lead to a complete abolishment of BFN1 transactivation, indicating that other active binding sites in BFN1 promoter mediated its transactivation. Analyses in silico indicated that BFN1 promoter contains 11 ORE1-BS in the promoter which covers at least the complete first core motif (Annex 2). Thus, it is plausible to think that those ORE1-BS are active and able to transactivate $B F N 1$. Indeed, the deletion of $B F N 1$ promoter to a 192 bp fragment resulted in further reduction of BFN1 transactivation. Interestingly, BFN1-S-LUC transcriptional activity was still detectable at a higher level than basal activity. Therefore, we conclude that ORE1 is a major regulator of BFN1 but might possess other active BSs that are able to lead transactivation of its promoter.


Figure 18. Transactivation of BFN1 expression by ORE1 in Arabidopsis mesophyll protoplasts. Schematic representation of the constructs co-transfected in Arabidopsis mesophyll protoplast. (A) 1.0 kb promoter fused to luciferase (BFN1-LUC), (B) 1.0 kb promoter carrying substitutions (BFN1-M-LUC), and (C) 192 bp (BFN1-S-LUC) lack all ORE1BSs. (D) Luciferase activity of each version of BFN1 promoter in presence (plus ORE1) or absence (BFN1-basal) of 35S:ORE1. Luciferase activity was determined using the Dual Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega) 24 hours after transfection. In all cases, normalization of data was performed using the CaMV 35S:Rluc plasmid. Bars indicate the standard errors of three biological replicates.

### 5.3. Conclusions

We determined that ORE1 binds to the BFN1 promoter in vitro and is able to transactivate the BFN1 promoter in vivo. In this study, we show that BFN1 and ORE1 tissue-specific expression show largely over-lapping patterns, and BFN1 expression is highly dependent on the presence of ORE1. We confirmed that ORE1 and BFN1 are highly expressive during senescence. Our results demonstrate that senescence-induced BFN1 expression is
regulated by ORE1. Previous studies have demonstrated the central importance of ORE1 for the control of leaf senescence and developmental PCD. Considering the possible role of BFN1 in degradation of nucleic acids during senescence, it is assumed that ORE1 exerts its senescence promoting function partly through BFN1.

### 5.4. Experimental procedures

### 5.4.1. General

Standard molecular techniques were performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.1.

### 5.4.2. Plant material

The plant material and growth conditions were as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2.

### 5.4.3. Plant transformation

Wild type Arabidopsis transformation and supertransformation of the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant with the Prom-BFN1:GUS was performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.4. T0 seedlings were selected on kanamycin ( $50 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{L}$ ). Kanamycin-resistant lines were analyzed by PCR for GUS reporter gene-specific amplification.

### 5.4.4. Constructs

Description of $\boldsymbol{B F N} \mathbf{1 - L U C}$ construct was given in section 4.4.4. Descriptions of overexpressor construct (35S:ORE1) and Prom-BFN1:GUS were given in Balazadeh et al. (2010a) and Farage-Barhom et al. (2008), respectively.

Promoter-LUC construct: The 1.0 kb BFN1 promoter and a 0.2 kb long truncated versions (counted from the translation initiation codon) were amplified from genomic Arabidopsis (Col-0) DNA by PCR using an Advantage HF 2 PCR Kit (Clontech) and specific primer pairs listed for each construct (Annex 1). A mutated version of BFN1 promoter (BFN1-M-LUC) was generated by site-directed-mutagenesis. Briefly, two short complementary promoter fragments were amplified by PCR and introduced into the final vector. Primers were used in two independent PCR reactions combining (i) forward primer (139) with reverse mutated primer (148), and (ii) forward mutated primers (147) with reverse primer (140) (Annex 1). The final products were isolated and purified using a QUIAGEN-PCR cleanup kit (QUIAGEN)) and used as a template for a final PCR to amplify the long version (1084 bp) of the promoter using forward (139) and reverse (140) primers (Annex 1). The amplified DNA fragments were cloned into the pENTR/D-topo vector (Invitrogen) to generate entry vectors. The entry vectors were then recombined into the Gateway destination vector p2GWL7.0 (Karimi et
al., 2002) which is a recombination of the gateway $p B G W L 7.0$ (transcription reporter and p2GW7.0 (overexpression vector) vectors (Licausi et al.,2011) using the LR reaction mix II (Invitrogen) to obtain the final reporter BFN1-M-LUC (full-length mutated promoter) and BFN1-S-LUC (short promoter).

### 5.4.5. Histochemical and quantitative GUS assay

Histochemical GUS assay was performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.3.4. Quantitative measurements of GUS activity were made by fluorometric GUS assays using 4-methylumbelliferyl glucuronide (MUG) as substrate for the GUS enzymatic reaction, in which the fluorescent product 4-methyl umbelliferone (4-MU) can be detected (Jefferson et al. 1987). Tissue samples were ground in GUS extraction buffer $50 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaH} \mathrm{PO}_{4}, 1 \mathrm{mM}$ EDTA, $0.1 \%$ Triton X-100, $0.1 \%(\mathrm{w} / \mathrm{v})$ sarcosine, and 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), and following removal of tissue debris by centrifugation at 10000 g for 10 minutes at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, the crude total protein extract was used to measure GUS activity with a Fluorescence microplate reader (FLUOstar Omega). A standard curve was prepared with 4-MU, and GUS activity was expressed as pmol 4-MU mg/ul (Jefferson et al., 1987). Protein content was determined in the same sample used for the GUS assay by Bradford (Bio-Rad Protein assay) (Bradford, 1976). Tissue-specific expression was analyzed using plants of the T3 generation.

### 5.4.6. Dark-induced senescence

Experiments for artificial induction of senescence were performed with leaves in position 6th or 7th of the Arabidopsis plant rossete. The leaves were detached and incubated in the dark in containers fitted with inlet and outlet ports, and they were stored for 6-9 days in the dark at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The containers were sealed and connected to a flow-through air supply that was bubbled through sterile water to maintain humidity.

### 5.4.7. BFN1 protein extraction and Western Blots

Proteins for immunoblot analysis were extracted from leaftissues. The tissue was homogenized in the presence of $150 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ extraction buffer ( 50 mM Tris-HCl, $\mathrm{pH} 7.5,0.1 \% \mathrm{w} / \mathrm{v}$ SDS, $10 \%$ $\mathrm{w} / \mathrm{v}$ polyvinylpyrrolidone, and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride) in a microtube by means of a fitted pestle and a motorized drill. Following 15 minutes of centrifugation at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, the soluble protein extract was assayed for protein content by Bradford assay (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) and stored at $-80^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Protein extracts of $10-20 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ were mixed with sample buffer and boiled for five minutes before separation on a $15 \%$ SDS-polyacrylamide gel (Laemmli, 1970). Separated proteins were blotted onto nitrocellulose membranes with a gel blotter (Bio-Rad). Membranes were blocked with a solution containing $5 \%(\mathrm{v} / \mathrm{v})$ nonfat milk and $0.1 \%$ Tween 20 in Tris-buffered saline for 60 minutes. The anti-BFN1 serum (FarageBarhom et al., 2008) was diluted 1:2.000 in the blocking solution and incubated with the
membrane for 12 to 16 hours at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The membrane was washed for 30 minutes in several changes of Tris-buffered saline containing $0.1 \%$ Tween 20 . The secondary antibody was goat anti-rabbit IgG:horseradish peroxidase conjugate (Bio-Rad), which was diluted 1:50.000 in blocking solution and incubated with the membrane for 1 hour at room temperature. For signal detection, EZ-ECL Chemiluminescent (Biological Industries Ltd., Beit Haemek, Israel) or WesternBright ECL (Advansta Ltd, CA, USA) kits were used.

### 5.4.8. Dual-luciferase assay

The truncated BFN1 promoters (BFN1-LUC, BFN1-M-LUC, and BFN1-S-LUC) were used as reporter plasmids. Renilla luciferase was used as an internal control and 35S:ORE1 construct was used as effector plasmid. Detailed description of the procedure is described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.7.

## Contributions

The ore 1-1 EMS mutant plant material was provided by Dr. Hong Gil Nam (Department of Agronomy, Korea University). Mamoona Rauf tested expression of ORE1 and SAG12 in orel-1 EMS mutant and mirl64abc triple mutant. Dr. Amnon Lers provided seeds of the Prom- $_{\text {bFN: }}$ : GUS lines; Dr. Amnon Lers and Liliane Sorego carried out immunublotting experiments.

## Chapter 6

## VND-Interacting2 (VNI2) is a potential down-stream target of ORE1

### 6.1. Introduction

The Arabidopsis thaliana NAC transcription factor VND-Interacting2 (VNI2) has been recently identified as a key regulator of xylem vessel differentiation acting as a repressor of gene expression (Yamaguchi et al., 2010). Furthermore, VNI2 also works as a mediator of signaling crosstalk between salt stress-response and leaf aging in an ABA-dependent manner (Yang et al., 2011). VNI2 has a complex structure. As a NAC transcription factor (TF), it has a characteristic DNA-binding domain (DBD) at the N-terminal region. Within the DBD a potential repression-related sequence has been identified. The C-terminal region includes a putative PEST proteolysis target motif and a transcriptional activation domain (TAD) (Yang et al., 2011). We have provided evidence that VNI2 might be a direct target of ORE1 (Chapter 4, section 4.2.1). In fact, overexpression of ORE1 transactivates the VNI2 promoter in Arabidopsis mesophyll cell protoplasts (Chapter 4, section 4.2.3) and ORE1 binds directly to the VNI2 promoter in vitro (Chapter 4, section 4.2.4). Here we aimed to elucidate the signal transduction cascade that links ORE1 and VNI2 during leaf senescence in Arabidopsis.

### 6.2. Results

### 6.2.1. VNI2 Encodes a NAC TF regulated by ORE1

In Chapter $\mathbf{4}$ we described experiments carried out to identify genes up- or down regulated by ORE1. According to our data VNI2 is one direct target down-stream of ORE1 (tested in vivo and in vitro) (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1). VNI2 was highly up-regulated after five hours of estradiol induction in estradiol-inducible ORE1 overexpressing lines and after six hours of constitutive overexpression in protoplasts (Fig. 19.A). Considering that VNI2 is another NAC transcription factor down-stream of ORE1, it motivated our interest to analyse VNI2 expression in plants with altered levels of ORE1. We measured the expression of VNI2 in constitute overexpressing
plants (35S:ORE1) and in plants loss-of-function mutants (anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant); as controls we used plants transformed with the pGreen0229 empty vector (E.V.) (Skirycz et al., 2006). As expected, VNI2 was significantly up-regulated in plants overexpressing ORE1 and showed a decreased expression in the anac092-1 mutant (Fig. 19.B).


Figure 19. VNI2 expression in ORE1 gain- and loss-of-function mutant plants. (A) VNI2 expression determined by microarrays (Affymetrix ATH1 array, Probe Id 245987_at) using plants and protoplasts overexpressing ORE1. (B) VNI2 expression determined by qRT-PCR. Levels measured in estradiol-inducible overexpressing lines (ORE-IOE), anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant and empty vector (E.V.) control plants. Statistical significance was assessed using Student's $t$-test implemented in the SigmaPlot Software. ${ }^{*} P<0.05$.

### 6.2.2. VNI2 expression in planta associates with senescence

To investigate the tissue-specific expression of VNI2 and whether it correlates with the expression of ORE1 (Chapter 2, section 2.2.1) we created VNI2 promoter fusion lines using the Staphylococcus 3 -glucuronidase (GUS) as a reporter gene. We generated two promoter versions, a long version ( $V N I 2_{\text {LVProm }}$ : $G U S$ ) spanning $\sim 1.5 \mathrm{~kb}$ up-stream (LV) of the translation start site (SST), and a short version ( $V N 2_{\text {SVProm }}: G U S$ ) comprising $\sim 0.5 \mathrm{~kb}$ (SV) up-stream of the SST. The most representative expression patterns are shown in Figure 20. GUS expression driven by the $V N I 2$ promoters ( $V N I 2_{L V P \text { rom }}$ : $G U S$ and $V N I 2_{\text {SVProm }}$ : $G U S$ ) was tested in eight independent transgenic lines per construct (T2 and T3 generations). GUS activity was mainly but not exclusively associated whit senescent tissues throughout the plant (Fig. 20). Our observations confirmed published data (Yang et al., 2011) and expression patterns reported in GENEVESTIGATOR (Hruz et al., 2008). In the early stages of development ( 15 -day-old seedlings), strong GUS activity was detected in cotyledons, margins and tips of leaves as well as roots (Fig. 20.f). Bolts (stems with inflorescences) exhibited faint GUS activity in flower buds particularly in flowers of stage 12 of development before the bud opens (Fig. 20.c) and in 1.0 cm primary bolts in the axis of the secondary inflorescence stem as indicated by arrows (Fig. 20.d). A strong and characteristic pattern was found among the axillary inflorescence axes and pedicels (Fig. 20.c). A closer look into opened mature flowers of stage 15 where the stigma
extends above the anthers (Smyth et al., 1990) revealed strong GUS activity in the upper part of the stigma, in anthers and filaments as well as in the abscission zone (AZ), in older petals and sepals (Fig. 20.a). Mature opened flowers of stage 14 when long anthers extend above the stigma (Smyth et al., 1990) exhibited strong VNI2 promoter-driven GUS activity specifically in the upper part of the stigma, anthers, filaments and among the vascular tissues of sepals. Abscission zones lack GUS expression at this developmental stage (indicated by arrow) (Fig. 20.b). VNI2 expression in senescent siliques was detected in the upper and bottom part of the valves near the abscission zone (AZ) (Fig. 20.e). These observations are in good agreement with the reported VNI2 expression patterns derived from transcriptome analyses of senescing siliques, leaves and petals (Wagstaff et al., 2009). Like other senescence-associated genes (SAGs) (e.g., ORE1 (Balazadeh et al., 2010), ORS1 (Balazadeh et al., 2011) and BFN1 (Farage-Barhom et al., 2008)), VNI2 shares a common expression pattern in the tips and margins of senescence leaves which corresponds to the older regions of the leaves (Fig. 20.g). We could not identify substantial differences between the expression patterns determined by the long or short versions of the VNI2 promoter at any of the developmental stages tested (comparison of both constructs not shown). This suggests that the region $\sim 500 \mathrm{bp}$ up-stream of the initiation codon is sufficient to drive VNI2 promoter tissue-specific expression and that cis-regulatory elements (CREs) that confer the specific pattern observed during senescence may be within this region.


Figure 20. Tissue-specific expression of VNI2 in Arabidopsis. (a-d) VNI2 promoter-driven GUS expression in bolts of mature plants ( 25 days after sowing, DAS). Close-ups of (a) opened mature flower in stage 15 of development in which the stigma extends above long anthers (Smyth et al., 1990). (b) Mature opened flower in stage 14 of development in which long anthers extend above the stigma (Smyth et al., 1990). (c) Strong and characteristic pattern among the axillary inflorescence and pedicels (indicated by arrows). (d) One-cm bolt of primary inflorescence. (e) Mature silique (three weeks after sowing). (f) VNI2 promoter activity in 15-day-old seedlings. (g) Enhanced VNI2 promoter activity in the tip and margin regions of leaves from a rosette three weeks after sowing on soil (percentage of yellowing in leaves $\sim 20 \%$ ). All pictures correspond to $V N I 2_{\text {LVProm }}: G U S$ lines.

### 6.2.3. VNI2 expression is strongly regulated by salt

A considerable number of SAGs are regulated by abiotic-stresses. In our published data we determined that VNI2 is regulated by salt, like ORE1. Wild type plants were grew in a hydroponic culture system and subjected them to salt stress at two developmental stages. Stage 1: 28 -day-old plants and (ii) Stage 2: 34-day-old plants. Plants were subjected to short(six hours) or long-term ( 4,9 and 12 days) salt stress ( 150 mM NaCl ). Similarly to ORE1, VNI2 expression was highly up-regulated by long-term stress. In young plants that still have expanding leaves (Stage 1), VNI2 transcript level increased around 4-fold after four days of salt stress compared to non-treated plants (Fig. 21). In mature plants which were still in the vegetative stage (Stage 2, 34 days old), VNI2 levels were up-regulated $\sim 4$-fold and $\sim 2$-fold, respectively, after nine and 12 days of salt stress (Fig. 21).


Figure 21. VNI2 levels in response to salt stress. Expression of VNI2 determined by quantitative real-time PCR (qRTPCR ) in plants subjected to salt stress at two plant developmental stages. Values expressed as expression ratios (salt-treated compared to control). Data are means of two independent experiments $\pm$ Standard deviation (SD) according to published data (Balazadeh et al., 2010).

### 6.2.4. Identification of vni2-2 a T-DNA insertion mutant

To investigate the role of VNI2 in leaf aging and longevity we obtained a VNI2 T-DNA insertion line (GABI-KAT 799-H09) in the Col-0 background from the GABI-Kat consortium (Li et al. 2003). Homozygous VNI2 knockout mutants (vni2-2) were isolated (section 6.4.5). The T-DNA insertion was confirmed via PCR using primers annealing between the start and stop codon of the VNI2 open reading frame. A second combination of primers consisting of the previous forward primer and the T-DNA left border primer (LB) was used to confirm the T-DNA insertion (Fig. 22.B). Two homozygous plants (P1, P2) were selected based
on selection in sulfadiazine (section 6.4.6) and on-gel results using wild type as a positive control (Fig. 22.C). The band amplified from the line P1 using forward and LB primer was used to determine the exact position of the T-DNA insertion by sequencing (http://www. eurofinsdna.com/). In Figure 22.A a schematic representation of the protein is shown. The sequence allowed us to locate the T-DNA insertion to the third exon. It is placed within the PEST proteolysis target motif (TTDLNLLPSSPSSD; PEST score of +4.94 ; threshold +5.0 ) (Gasteiger et al., 2003). This motif covers the region between nucleotides 640-681 that corresponds to amino acids 214-227 in the protein (Fig. 23). The T-DNA insertion lies in the middle of the PEST motif. The second half of the motif is enriched in proline and serine residues and is required to maximize the proteolytic activity of the PEST motif (Fig. 23). We could not detect a full version of the VNI2 transcript in the homozygous vni2-2 mutant (Fig. 22.D).


Figure 22. vni2-2 T-DNA insertion line. (A) Schematic representation of the VNI2 protein. The N-terminal domain covers the conserved NAM domain, which contains five subdomains (A-E). The C-terminal region contains a predicted PEST domain and the transactivation domain (TAD) (protein length 252 amino acids, aa) (B) Schematic representation of the primers used to identify homozygous mutant lines. The yellow triangle indicates the T-DNA insertion point (vni2-2). (C) Identification of homozygous lines by PCR. Genomic DNA was used for amplification. Two homozygous plants were selected (P1 and P2). The VNI2 transcript was amplified only in the wild type, while the vni2-2 mutant was positive for amplification using of T-DNA left border primer.

Considering the location of the T-DNA insertion in the third exon (Fig. 23), we designed specific primers that cover the three exons (I-III) of the VNI2 gene in gene to test transcript abundance of each exon in vni2-2. RNA isolated from leaves of 30 DAS plants was used to determined transcript abundance by qRT-PCR. The combination of primers used to analyze the transcript level of the third exon covered the whole PEST motif. No product was amplified using this combination of primers, while products corresponding to the first and second exon were amplified. These data suggest that vni2-2 might be able to produce a
truncated VNI2 transcript that may potentially lead to the generating of a truncated protein (Fig. 23). Further analyses are required to clarify whether this mRNA indeed produces a (partially functional) protein.


Figure 23. Amplification of VNI2 exons by qRT-PCR in vni2-2. Upper part: The combination of primers used to analyze the transcript level of the third exon (indicated by arrows), covered the whole PEST motif region (PEST motif is indicated by colored letters). The T-DNA insertion is marked with a triangle. Red letters indicate the half of the PEST motif that confers a higher proteolytic activity of the PEST region. Bottom part: VNI2 transcript abundance was analyzed using primers annealing to each exon (I-III) of the gene.

### 6.2.5. Bolting and leaf aging are delayed in $\boldsymbol{v n i 2 - 2}$

Phenotypic analysis of vni2-2 showed a delay in bolting in comparison to wild type (Fig. 24.A). We counted the number of bolted plants ( 80 different plants) 32 DAS as well as the number of cauline and rosette leaves at the time of flowering. Mutant plants flowered later than wild type plants under long photoperiod (16 hours light $/ 8$ hours dark) (Fig. 24.B). At 26 DAS only around $20 \%$ vni2-2 plants have bolted compared to $80 \%$ in the wild type plants.

The number of leaves at bolting was significantly less in vni2-2 (around 10 leaves) than in wild type plants (around 18) (Fig. 24.B-C). Nevertheless, at the end of our observations (at 32 DAS) the difference in the numbers of leaves between wild type and vni2-2 mutants was not statistically significant. Besides a delayed bolting in vni2-2, we observed two remarkable other features (i) a prolonged life-span with green rosette leaves even at advanced flowering stages and (ii) an increased biomass represented by bigger leaves (25. A-B).


Figure 24. Delayed bolting in vni2-2. (A) Onset of bolting in wild type and vni2-2 plants of the same age (26 DAS). vni2-2 showed delayed bolting compared to wild type (bolting indicated by an arrow). (B) Percentage of bolted plants 22 to 32 DAS (C) Total number of leaves (cauline and rosette leaves) were counted at 26 DAS (beginning of counting) and 32-DAS (last day of counting). ${ }^{*} P<0.05$.

To confirm our observations regarding a prolonged life span in vni2-2 we examined the expression of four senescence associated genes (SAGs) (Buchanan-Wollaston et al. 2005; Balazadeh et al., 2008b; Breeze et al., 2011). We extracted total RNA from three independent biological replicates 29 DAS, synthesized cDNA and tested the expression of SAG12 (At5g45890), ORE1 (At5g39610), BFN1 (At1g11190) and RNS3 (At1g26820) by qRT-PCR (Fig. 25.C). The expression of three out of four SAGs (SAG12, ORE1 and BFN1) was significantly reduced in vni2-2 compared to wild type. This result is in accordance with the delay senescence observed in vni2-2.


C


Figure 25. Prolonged life span in the vni2-2 mutant. Upper panel: (A) Developmental delay in vni2-2 (two different plants) compared to wild type plants at the same time after sowing. Bottom panel: Close up shows extended longevity of vni2-2 and increased biomass represented as bigger leaves (plant age: 32 DAS). (B) Transcriptional level of SAGs in vni2-2 (29 DAS) compared to wild type. SAG12, ORE1, BFN1 transcript abundance was significantly reduced in vni2-2. $\mathrm{SD} \pm 3$. ( ${ }^{*} P<0.05$ ).

### 6.2.6. Salt stress tolerance is enhanced in vni2-2

It is known that seed germination can be delayed under unfavorable environmental conditions such as high salinity (Kim and Park, 2008). Salt stress also retards plant growth and accelerates senescence (Lee and Zhu, 2010). Considering that ORE1 and VNI2 expression is enhanced under long-term salt stress and that VNI2 is regulated by ORE1, we tested whether the response of vni2-2 to salt stress is impaired. We assayed seed germination rate under high salinity conditions. vni2-2 and wild type plants were grown on sterile plates with or without sodium chloride (100 $\mathrm{mM}, 150 \mathrm{mM}$ and 200 mM NaCl ). Germination rate was scored 15 days after sowing. Seeds were considered germinated if the radicles had penetrated the seed coats (Lee and Zhu, 2010). The assay was performed in three independent biological replicates for each salt concentration including controls. As can be seen in Figure 26.B, around $80 \%$ of the seeds germinated in the
absence of salt stress (Mock). As expected, the germination rate decreased concomitantly with increasing salt concentration in the medium. Nevertheless, vni2-2 germinated better in saline conditions than the wild type (Fig. 26.A). There was no difference in germination rate among wild type and mutants in control conditions. At 100 mM NaCl this difference was around 2-fold. At 150 mM NaCl the difference increased to 5 -fold, and at 200 mM NaCl vni2-2 was around 7 -fold more tolerant to salt stress than the wild type (Fig. 26.B). The negative effect of salt was already evident at the lowest concentration ( 100 mM ). Roughly all germinated seeds in both lines developed with a notable decrease in size and exhibited yellowish color. At 150 and 200 mM NaCl only the radicles of vni2-2 could penetrate the seed coat and generated very small leaves (Fig. 26.A). In contrast, nearly all wild type seeds died at 200 mM NaCl and the small percentage of seeds that germinated did not survive.


Figure 26. Salt stress tolerance is enhanced in vni2-2. (A) 15-DAS seedling growth under two different concentration of salt ( 100 and 150 mM NaCl ). The vni2-2 mutant showed enhanced salt-stress tolerance compared to wild type. (B) Germination rate of vni2-2 mutants and wild type plants at three different salt concentrations. $\mathrm{SD} \pm 2$ biological replicas and two technical replicas. $* P<0.05$.

### 6.2.7. The activation domain of VNI2 exerts a marked influence on development and senescence regulation

Recently, Yamaguchi et al. (2010) established that the protein stability of VNI2 is regulated by the PEST motif located at the C-terminal. A truncated version which lacks the PEST motif was more stable, and the full version was more stable if proteasome inhibitors were applied. Transgenic seedlings expressing the truncated version under the control of the endogenous VNI2 promoter showed impaired xylem vessel differentiation. Moreover, constitutive overexpression of VNI2 resulted in the formation of discontinuous vessels and slow plant growth. To examine if the role of VNI2 in senescence requires the PEST motif and the activation domain, we generated two inducible overexpression lines using a chimeric transcription activator system (XVE) (Zuo et al., 2000). We designed two versions of VNI2 (Fig. 27.A). One version, designated VNI2$I O E$, refers to the full protein (252 aa). The other version, VNI2-IOE- $\triangle C$ refers to a truncated protein lacking the C-terminal region corresponding to half of the PEST motif (221 aa) and the whole transcriptional activator. For both constructs we generated transgenic lines in the Arabidopsis wild type (Col-0) background. Transformed plants were selected on hygromycin and subsequently transferred to soil. Induction of $V N I 2$ was tested in the T1 generation; detached leaves were subjected to estradiol induction for five hours. Based on the induction level, two independent lines for each construct were selected for further experiments.

Transcript levels were determined by qRT-PCR using cDNA from seedlings of both constructs lines grown in media supplemented with estradiol (EST). Wild type seedlings in media with/ without EST were used as controls. Two combinations of primers annealing to the first two exons (I, II) were used for expression analyses. VNI2 expression was significantly higher in transgenic seedlings overexpressing the truncated version of the protein (VNI2-IOE- $\Delta C$ ) than in plants overexpressing the full-length version (VNI2-IOE) compared to wild type (Fig. 27. B).


Figure 27. Differences in VNI2 transcript level with/without the activation domain. (A) Upper: Schematic representation of the VNI2 coding sequence used to produce estradiol-inducible VNI2 expression lines (Zuo et al., 2000a). Bottom: Schematic representation of the constructs used. The VNI2-IOE- $\Delta C$ construct lacks the whole transcriptional activation domain and almost half the PEST motif. (B) Transcript abundance of VNI2 in seedlings (15 DAS) carrying the complete and the truncated version of VNI2. I and II correspond to primers annealing to the first and second exon of VNI2. $\mathrm{SD} \pm 2$ biological replicas and three technical replicates.

We detected phenotypic differences between seedlings expressing either the full or the truncated version of the protein even without estradiol induction. These differences were determined also at transcript level. Seedlings expressing the truncated version of the protein were smaller than wild type and VNI2-IOE, and exhibited signs of yellowing (Fig. 28.B). The effect was more pronounced in media supplemented with estradiol. The VNI2-IOE- $\triangle C$ seedlings were markedly smaller and showed increased premature yellowing, indicating an accelerated senescence. To test if these plants showed indeed accelerated senescence the expression of the senescence associated gene (SAG) SAG12 was tested. We extracted total RNA from 15-day-old seedlings and synthetized cDNA from two independent biological replicates. It was previously shown that SAG12 expression is exclusively detected during senescence (V., 2003). Therefore, we used its expression as a molecular marker of senescence. SAG12 expression was significantly increased in plants over-expressing both versions of VNI2 (VNI2-IOE and VNI2-IOE- $\triangle C$ ) compared to wild type. SAG12 was markedly up-regulated in VNI2-IOE seedlings expressing the full version of the protein ( $\sim 6$-fold) and only $\sim 3$-fold upregulated in VNI2-IOE- $\triangle C$ seedlings that showed more extensive yellowing. These results suggest (i) the presence of the VNI2 full-length protein positively regulates senescence and (ii) overexpression of a truncated version lacking the transcriptional activation domain and the PEST motif results in plants with considerable developmental disruptions unrelated to senescence albeit the seedlings show precocious yellowing (Fig. 28.B).


Figure 28. VNI2-IOE and VNI2-IOE- $\triangle C$ plants under estradiol induction. (A) Enhanced expression of SAG12 in VNI2$I O E$ and VNI2-IOE- $\triangle C$ plants grown under estradiol induction. (B) Phenotypic analysis of VNI2-IOE and VNI2-IOE- $\triangle C$ seedlings ( 15 days old). Close-ups of VNI2-IOE and VNI2-IOE- $\triangle C$ plants show that plants overexpressing a truncated version of VNI2 were considerably smaller than plants overexpressing the full version of the protein.

### 6.2.8. ATAF1 positively regulates VNI2 expression

We determined that ORE1 is positively and significantly up-regulated by ATAF1. We probed that ORE1 promoter is transactivated by ATAF1 in protoplast, suggesting that ATAF1 is a direct regulator of ORE1 (Chapter 2). We determined that overexpression of a CDPK named CKOR (for calcium-dependent kinase regulating ORE1) in vivo leads to an increase in transcriptional activity of VNI2 (Chapter 3). Additionally, based on our observations that ORE1 binds in vitro to a VNI2 promoter fragment containing an ORE1BS and transactivated in vivo VNI2 promoter (Chapter 4) we propose that VNI2 is a putative direct target gene of ORE1. In order to unravel the transcriptional network and possible regulatory loops among these NAC TFs involved in senescence and salt-stress responses we performed a series of assays. Using whole genome transcriptomics assays we uncover that along ORE1 VNI2 expression is significantly up-regulated by ATAF1. Expression profiles are based in lines overexpressing ATAF1 under the control of an estradiol-inducible promoter (Fig. 29).


Figure 29. VNI2 and ATAF1 expression in ATAF1 inducible overexpressing lines (ATAF1-IOE) upon estradiol (EST) induction. VNI2 expression determined by microarrays (Affymetrix ATH array, probe Id 245987_at). Significant up-regulation (two cut-off) after 10 hours upon ATAF1 induction. Maximal level of VNI2 was reached after 10 hours EST induction.

The rapid induction of VNI2 upon inducible over-expression of ATAF1 after two hours EST induction suggests a positive control of ATAF1 over VNI2. Interestingly, the expression pattern of VNI2 highly resembles the expression pattern of ORE1 under the same conditions (Chapter 2, section 2.2.5). Two hours after EST induction VNI2 expression is less than 2-fold up related. Nevertheless, ten hours after EST induction VNI2 expression if more than 4-fold up-regulated (Fig. 29). These observations suggest two hypotheses: either VNI2 is
activated through a signal cascade in which ATAF1 activates ORE1 and then ORE1 directly activates VNI2; or ATAF1 can directly activate VNI2 as well as ORE1 meaning that VNI2 activation occurs independently of ORE1. In order to test if VNI2 up-regulations occurs independently or depends on ORE1 activation by ATAF1 we used transactivation assays in mesophyll protoplasts. A VNI2 region spanning $\sim 1.5 \mathrm{~kb}$ up-stream of the translation start site was amplified by PCR from Arabidopsis genomic DNA (Col-0), and then cloned into pENTR/D-topo vector (Invitrogen) and recombined into the Gateway destination vector p2GWL7.0 (Karimi et al., 2002) to obtain the final reporter vector VNI2-LUC. The effector plasmid was the $35 S$ :ATAF1 construct. For detail description see Experimental procedures in Chapters 2 and 4. A dual-reporter system determines the transcriptional activation of the VNI2-LUC promoter when ATAF1 is overexpressed. The internal control reporter, Renilla luciferase (35S:RLuc) (Licausi et al., 2011) provides the parameter to normalize the measured luciferase activity. Arabidopsis mesophyll cell protoplasts from wild-type and anac092-1 lines were co-transfected with the VNI2-LUC and 35S:ATAF1 constructs. No statistical differences in luciferase activity were detected when using either wild type or anac092-1 mesophyll protoplasts; evidencing that VNI2 transactivation does not requires ORE1 and can be achieved directly by ATAF1 overexpression (Fig. 30).


Figure 30. Protoplast transactivation assay of ATAF1 and VNI2 promoter. Arabidopsis wild type or anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant mesophyll protoplasts were co-transfected with $V N I 2-L U C$ and $35 S$ :ATAF1. Results are the mean of two biological replicates with three technical replicates per probe. Data were normalized to the corresponding Renilla luciferase activity.

### 6.3. Conclusions

Transcriptome analyses revealed VNI2 as a highly up-regulated gene downstream of the key senescence regulator ORE1 (a NAC TF). VNI2 was preferentially expressed in senescence
tissues at different developmental stages. The CREs required for senescence-dependent expression are located within $\sim 500 \mathrm{bp}$ up-stream of the transcription start site. We confirmed that ORE1 is a transcriptional activator of VNI2. Moreover, ORE1 binding to the VNI2promoter was confirmed in vitro and in vivo (Chapter 4, section 4.2.3 and 4.2.4). Our data support the conclusion that VNI2 is a direct target of ORE1.

We show that salt stress tolerance is enhanced in vni2-2 mutants. vni2-2 mutants also exhibited a prolonged life-span, delayed onset of bolting, higher salt stress tolerance and apparently increased in biomass demonstrating a role of VNI2 not only in the regulation of natural- and stress-induced senescence in Arabidopsis. The delayed senescence phenotype observed in vni2-2 may be due to the absence of the transcriptional activation domain and the PEST motif although a truncated VNI2 protein may still be produced.

### 6.4. Experimental procedures

### 6.4.1. General

Standard molecular techniques were performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.1.

### 6.4.2. Plant material

The plant material and growth conditions used were similar as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2.

### 6.4.3. Plant transformation

Arabidopsis transformation was performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.4.

### 6.4.4. Constructs

Description of the 35S:ORE1 overexpressor line was given in Balazadeh et al., (2010a). Description of the ATAF1-IOE and 35S:ATAF1 constructs were given in section 2.4.3.

VNI2-GUS constructs: approximately $\sim 1.5 \mathrm{~kb}$ (long version) and $\sim 0.5 \mathrm{~kb}$ (short version) fragments up-stream of the VNI2 ATG were amplified from genomic Arabidopsis Col-0 DNA by PCR using primers forward (133) and reverse (134) for the long version, and forward (135) and reverse (134) primers for amplification of the short version (Annex 1). Isolated fragments were inserted first into plasmid pCR2.1-TOPO (Invitrogen), and after sequencing fused via BamHI and NcoI sites to the GUS reporter gene into pCAMBIA1305. 1-hygromycin (CAMBIA). The final constructs were designated as $V N I 2_{L V P r o m}: G U S$ and $V N I 2_{\text {SVProm }}: G U S$.

Estradiol-inducible overexpression (IOE) constructs. The complete VNI2 coding sequence (CDS) was amplified by PCR using leaf cDNA from Arabidopsis plants. We used primers forward (142) and reverse (201) (Annex 1). To generate a version without the transcriptional activation domain, we used forward (142) and reverse (141) primers (Annex 1). Both fragments were inserted into pBluescript SK and then cloned via XhoI and SpeI sites into the pER8 vector (Zuo et al., 2000b). The resultant plasmids were electroporated into Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101/pMP90, which was used to transform Arabidopsis ecotype Col-0. The final vectors were named VNI2-IOE (complete CDS) and VNI2-IOE- -1 C (CDS without transcriptional activation domain). The T1 generation of transgenic seedlings was selected on MS medium supplemented with ( $10 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{L}$ ) spectinomycin for 15 days.

### 6.4.5. Histochemical GUS assay

Histochemical GUS assay was performed as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.5.

### 6.4.6. Identification of homozygous T-DNA insertion line

The vni2-2 homozygous mutant was isolated from a T-DNA line (GABI-KAT 799-H09) (Li et al., 2003). Firstly, lines were selected based on resistance to sulfadiazine ( 7.5 mg / mL ). Seeds were sown on MS medium (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) supplemented with sulfadiazine ( $7.5 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{mL}$ ) for 15 days. Surviving green seedlings were transferred to soil and two weeks later genomic DNA was extracted. Homozygous line was identified via PCR screening on genomic DNA using gene-specific primers forward (131) and reverse (132) together with T-DNA-specific primer LB (158) (Annex 1). Additionally, we determined the transcript abundance of VNI2 by qRT-PCR using specific sets of primers covering the first exon (149-150), second exon (70-71) or the third exon (160-161) (Annex 1).

### 6.4.7. cDNA synthesis and quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)

Total RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis and qRT-PCR were done similarly as described (Balazadeh et al., 2008; Caldana et al., 2007). Primer sequences used for qRT-PCR analysis to quantify transcript levels of SAG12 (At5g45890), ORE1 (At5g39610), BFN1 (At1g11190) and RNS3 (At1g26820) are given in Annex 1. The PCR reactions were run on an ABI PRISM 7900HT sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems Applera, http://www. appliedbiosystems.com/). At least triplicate measurements were carried out to determine the mRNA abundance of each gene in each sample. The absence of genomic DNA was verified by PCR using primers forward (202) and reverse (203) designed to amplify an intergenic region of a control gene (At5g65080). cDNA was produced from $2 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ total RNA using SuperScriptT III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen). cDNA synthesis efficiency was controlled by qRT-PCR amplification of transcripts from a housekeeping gene ACTIN2 (At3g18780) using specific forward (204) and reverse (205) primers (Annex 1). Data analysis was performed using SDS
2.2.1 software (Applied Biosystems Applera). Amplification curves were analyzed with a normalized reporter $\left(\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{n}}\right.$ : the ratio of the fluorescence emission intensity of SYBR Green to the fluorescence signal of the passive reference dye) threshold of 0.2 to obtain the $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ values (threshold cycle). Date were normalized to the ACTIN2 transcript as follows $\Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}=\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ (gene) $-\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}(A C T I N)$. The expression was measured with three replicates in each PCR run, and the average $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ was used for relative expression analyses. Relative transcript abundance was determined using the comparative $\Delta \Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ method $\left(\Delta \Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}=\Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}\right.$ (condition of interest) - $\Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ (control condition) and the Fold Change (Fch) was calculated using the expression $2^{-\Delta \triangle C T}$, where the obtained results were transformed to Log2 scale. In some cases the expression was expressed as $40-\Delta \Delta \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{T}}$ to improve the visualization of results.

## Contributions

The ORE1-IOE, 35S:ORE1 lines and anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant screening were performed by Dr. Hamad Sidiqui (Molecular Biology, Potsdam University). ATAF1-IOE constructs was provided by Dr. Dagmar Kupper (Molecular Biology, Potsdam University). 35S:ATAF1 construct and ATAF1 transcriptome data were provided by Prashant Garapati, Ph.D student of Prof. Dr. Mueller-Roeber's Group.

## Discussion

The recent years have seen considerable progress with respect to the dissection of the molecular pathways controlling the induction and progression of senescence in plants, mainly in the model plant Arabidopsis thaliana. Leaf senescence determines the end of leaf development and constitutes an efficient recycling process that involves the breakdown of cellular organelles, the hydrolysis of different macromolecules, and the mobilization of nutrients from senescent tissues to young and reproductive organs. An example of the important role that recycling processes play in plants is the increase in nitrogen-use efficiency by resorption of foliar nitrogen ( N ) (Himelblau and Amasino, 2001). N is stored in younger and reproductive tissues and can be used for early growth in the subsequent progeny to supply the demands of developing foliage (Kang et al., 1982). Therefore, senescence favors the fitness of plants and is thought to be an evolutionary acquired process (Nam, 1997; Noodén and Leopold, 1988). Leaf senescence must be synchronized and tightly controlled to ensure not only the disassembling of cellular components like photosynthetic apparatus in early senescence, but also the conservation of cellular compartmentalization (Hörtensteiner and Feller, 2002), as well as nucleus and mitochondria integrity, until advanced senescence stages (Noodén and Guiamet, 1996; Noodén and Leopold, 1988). Transcriptome analysis of senescence leaves in Arabidopsis thaliana revealed a complex network of genes involved in the process, including many transcription factors (TFs) (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Gepstein et al., 2003; Balazadeh et al., 2008; Breeze et al., 2011) . TFs recognize specific regions on the promoter region of targets regulating their activation or repression. NAC (NAM, $A T A F$, and $C U C$ ) TFs represent a large fraction of the genes regulated during developmental and induced senescence in many plant species, including monocots and dicots, some of which are of particular agronomic importance (Balazadeh et al., 2008; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Christiansen et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2004). The importance of the NAC TF ORE1 (also called ANAC092, AtNAC2, or At5g39610) is well documented as a senescence regulatory protein (Balazadeh et al., 2010a; He et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2009; Ooka et al., 2003). Its role in senescence was first described by Kim et al., (2009) who observed that the oresaral (orel) EMS mutant displayed a delayed senescence phenotype. Despite the importance of ORE1 as a positive regulator of senescence, mechanisms and elements of its regulatory pathway are still poorly understood. In this study, we describe two previously unknown regulatory pathways up-stream of ORE1, and we addressed the challenging task of identifying potential direct targets of ORE1.

## Up-stream regulation of ORE1

As we described in Chapter 2, miR164 is the only regulator up-stream of ORE1 described so far. miR164 together with EIN2 and ORE1 form a trifurcate feed-forward loop. EIN2 is a membrane-spanning protein whose biochemical function is still unknown, but genetic studies indicate that it is absolutely required for ethylene signaling (Alonso et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2009). It has been shown that ORE1 expression increases in a leaf age-dependent manner, apparently through induction by EIN2. miR1 64 targets ORE1 mRNA and down-regulates its expression. Nevertheless, the mechanism that governs an age-dependent decrease in miR164 expression remains unknown. All that can be speculated is that miR164 functions in younger leaves as a "guard" against premature overexpression of ORE1. Kim et al. (2009) proposed that this feed-forward loop exists to guarantee that senescence and the accompanying programmed cell death occurs when leaves are aged (Kim et al., 2009). Notably, a screening for down-stream targets of the MADS-box transcription factor SEPALLATA3 (SEP3) revealed that SEP3 binds to the ORE1 promoter. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP), followed by next-generation sequencing (ChIP-Seq) or hybridization to whole-genome tiling arrays, revealed four aspects of particular interest: (i) SEP3 binds to the ORE1 promoter in vivo; (ii) ORE1 is SEP3 target-specific during stamen and carpel development; (iii) DNA-binding sites of SEP3 are predominantly located a few hundred base pairs directly up-stream of the ATG of its targets; and finally, (iv) ChIP-Seq data revealed a dependency between the presence of perfectly matching CArG boxes and the binding of SEP3 in vivo.

In this study, we report for the first time two mechanisms that positively influence ORE1 expression. First, using transcriptional profiling, we identified that ORE1 expression is upregulated by the NAC transcription factor ATAF1. Moreover, co-transfection of the ORE1 promoter (ORE1-LUC) together with 35S:ATAF1 leads to transactivation of the promoter in mesophyll protoplasts, suggesting a direct interaction between ORE1 promoter and ATAF1 (section 2.2.5). Interestingly, ATAF1 also transactivates VND interacting factor 2 (VNI2), another NAC TF that we characterized in this study as a putative direct target of ORE1. The possible interaction between ATAF1 and VNI2 mediated by ORE1 will be further described in this discussion.

The second mechanism we described in this work was discovered in collaboration with the group of Prof. Dr. Tina Romeis from the Freie Universität in Berlin. They performed a phosphoproteomic approach that revealed that CKOR, a calcium-dependent protein kinase (CDPK), is able to phosphorylate ORE1. We found that overexpression of CKOR in wild type mesophyll protoplasts led to a marked increase in the transcriptional activation of the ORE1 direct target BFN1 and the putative targets VNI2 and RNS3 (Section 3.2.1). On the contrary, the overexpression of CKORm, which is unable to phosphorylate its targets, led to a decreased BFN1 promoter activation but did not affect the activation of VNI2 and RNS3. It is widely acknowledged that phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of transcription factors
can directly regulate distinct aspects of their function (Whitmarsh and Davis, 2000). ORE1, BFN1, and VNI2 are senescence associated genes (SAGs) (Balazadeh et al., 2008; Breeze et al., 2011; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005) and the S-like RNase RNS3 gene is induced during phosphate $(\mathrm{Pi})$ starvation and has been associated with the nutrient remobilization process (Bariola et al., 1994; Taylor et al., 1993). If we assume that phosphorylation of ORE1 by CKOR enhances its transcriptional activity, we would expect that an increase in phosphorylated ORE1 level would, in turn, result in a higher transcriptional activity. We observed that $B F N 1$, whose expression is strongly up-regulated by ORE1, shows a significant increase in transcriptional activation when the amount of phosphorylated ORE1 increases (achieved by the overexpression of CKOR in mesophyll protoplasts). This tight transcriptional dependency is further supported by the significant reduction in BFN1 activation if a mutated version of CKOR is overexpressed in mesophyll protoplasts. In the case of VNI2 and RNS3, the overexpression of a mutated version of CKOR did not lead to a reduction in transcriptional activity, unlike BFN1. It can be assumed that both genes are strongly up-regulated by ORE1 phosphorylation. Nevertheless, it is plausible that VNI2 and RNS3 require a higher accumulation of ORE1 to be activated, and the ORE1 concentration in wild type protoplast, concurrently with the overexpression of a mutated version of CKOR that binds but is unable to phosphorylate ORE1, contributes to make any changes in transcriptional activity indistinguishable from the basal expression. In the Outlook section at the end of the discussion, a set of experiments is proposed to shed light on the role of ORE1 phosphorylation in regulating its activity.

ORE1, as well as most of its putative targets, have been characterized in ABA-dependent responses to stresses such as salt stress (section 2.2.3 and 6.2.3) (Balazadeh et al., 2010b; Jiang et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2011). The role of phosphorylation in ABA-dependent regulation of transcriptional expression has been well documented (Furihata et al., 2006; Lopez-Molina et al., 2001; Zhu 2002). Thus, it may be suggested that phosphorylation of ORE1 by CKOR integrates a regulatory pathway involved in both developmental and stressinduced leaf senescence. Further analyses are required to elucidate the exact role of this novel ORE1 regulatory pathway.

## Tissue-specific expression of ORE1 gives direct insights linking ORE1 with germination, floral development, and senescence

We have shown that tissue-specific promoter activity of ORE1 is not restricted to senescent tissues in Arabidopsis or tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum) transformed with the same chimeric gene. In both plant species, ORE1 promoter expression shared the same tissue-specific patterns in almost all the evaluated tissues and organs. During early developmental stages, ORE1 promoter activity was detected in roots and was particularly enhanced in embryos from mature seeds and cotyledons of 15 -day-old seedlings in both species (section 2.2.1). These observations are in agreement with previous studies that reported ORE1 promoter
expression during lateral root development (He et al., 2005), and in embryos under different stress conditions (Penfield et al., 2006). Cotyledons are embryonic leaves that undergo a fast tissue differentiation (Fridlender et al., 1996) and serve as storage to supply nutrient demand. We know that many ORE1 up-regulated genes that are related to senescence share common patterns during the last stages of seed development (Balazadeh et al., 2010a). Nevertheless, the biological relevance of this common pattern has not yet been studied. Seed germination shares some clear similarities with leaf senescence; both involve the degradation and transport of macromolecules, and the organs involved (leaves and cotyledons) keep structural similarities. Nevertheless, this does not account for the particular expression in mature embryos of Arabidopsis and tobacco. Interestingly, we have found a recent discovery that describes ORE1 expression during seed germination. It has been shown that in Arabidopsis seeds, glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) catalyze the unidirectional decarboxylation of glutamate to form $\gamma$-aminobutyric acid (GABA) (Fait et al., 2011). Fait et al. (2011) described that GABA is strongly associated with early seed germination. In plants, glutamate (Glu) metabolism is pivotal for efficient N incorporation, and its levels are maintained under tight regulation (Forde and Lea, 2007; Stitt and Fernie, 2003). Furthermore, accumulation of GABA is associated with enhanced amino acid contents and associates with an up-regulation of genes involved in the degradation of proteins and cellular components (Fait et al., 2011). Hyperaccumulation of GABA enhanced the expression of two senescence associated genes (SAGs), i.e. ORE1 and SAG21 (SENESCENCE-ASSOCIATED GENE 21), as well as DOG1 (DELAY-OF-GERMINATION1), which is one of the major regulators of seed dormancy (Bentsink et al., 2010). Their results highlight a link between seed maturation and the expression of ORE1. However, our promoter expression analyses are based on wild type seeds carrying an ORE1 promoter fusion (ORE1:GUS) that should not hyperaccumulate GABA. Moreover, according to our published germination assays, we suggested that ORE1 might contribute to seed dormancy, which may be partly lost or enhanced, at least under salt stress, in anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutants and 35S:ORE1 overexpressors, respectively (Balazadeh et al., 2010a). The enhanced ORE1 promoter activity observed in embryos (imbibed in water for 12 hours before testa removal) suggests that ORE1 is more deeply implicated in seed germination than has been considered so far. Additional studies are required to elucidate the signaling pathways governed by ORE1 during seed germination.

The promoter expression of ORE1, as identified by GUS staining, is in accordance with the role of ORE1 during senescence. The expression along the leaf blade is consistent with the reported progression of aging from the tip to the base of leaves due to remobilization of nutrients out of the leaf and in the direction of the rest of the plant organs (Hill, 1980). ORE1 promoter activity was also detected in floral organs of mature opened flowers in the carpel/pistil, especially in the upper region of the stigma. This observation is in agreement with the recent discovery that Arabidopsis unfertilized/fertilized carpels exhibit senescence first in the stigma, and then it progresses from basal to apical ovules (Carbonell-Bejerano et al., 2010). Furthermore, ORE1 has been reported as up-regulated during carpel senescence
(Carbonell-Bejerano et al., 2010). ORE1 expression was strongly evident in mature anthers, whereas it was absent in immature anthers (section 2.2.1). Notably, GUS staining, driven by the ORE1 promoter, was also detected in the tip region of the stigma in Arabidopsis unfertilized flowers (section 2.2.1), suggesting that ORE1 is not exclusively involved in floral senescence, but also during early developmental stages.

Recently, two works linked ORE1 with flower development. First, whole transcriptome analyses and chromatin immunoprecipitation assays, combined with massive parallel DNA sequencing (ChIP-Seq), were used to characterize the down-stream regulatory pathway of SEPALLATA3 (SEP3). SEP3 is a MADS-box TF that plays a crucial role in the transition from vegetative to reproductive growth and finally to floral meristems (Kaufmann et al., 2009). It was found that SEP3 binds to the ORE1 promoter in vivo and that ORE1 is a SEP3 target specifically during stamen and carpel development. The ORE1 promoter displays two perfect CArG boxes, one C[AAAAAAA]GG located at position -601 bp (from the ATG) and the other C[AATTATT]GG located at position -225 bp (from the ATG); a third box located within the 5'UTR differs only one nucleotide from the perfect CArG matching C[CTATTA] GG (position -5 bp ). Moreover, Al-Daoud et al., (2011) have found that ORE1 promotes floral transition under short-day photoperiods. Results from other research groups, taken together with our results (section 2.2.1), suggest it is feasible that ORE1 may play a role during early flower development that has not yet been explored, and it offers a new facet of ORE1 that is complementary to its role as a master regulator of leaf senescence.

## ORE1 5'UTR contains important regulatory elements required for senescencespecific expression

In an attempt to characterize the promoter region essential for the characteristic senescence associated pattern of ORE1 expression, we performed promoter deletion analyses. Our results give insights into the pivotal role of the $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR in maintaining the characteristic expression of ORE1 during senescence. Nevertheless, a visible reduction in the strength of the signal indicates that other elements outside the $5^{\prime}$ UTR are needed to reach the high expression levels observed during senescence (section 2.2.4). It has been demonstrated that in some particular cases, the region that is up-stream of the TATA box is not essential to reach high levels of expression, and that this particular feature associates with the presence of pyrimidine-rich sequences (5UTR-Py-rich stretch) in the 5 'UTR. The Py-rich stretches seem to have a positive effect on the overall expression level of a gene, as seen in tomatos (Daraselia et al., 1996) spinach (Bolle et al., 1994), Chinese wild Vitis pseudoreticulata (Xu et al., 2011), rice, and Arabidopsis (Xue et al., 2008). Recently, it has been demonstrated that actin genes, from bryophytes to angiosperms, include a 5UTR-Py-rich stretch that confers high levels of transcription (Vitale et al., 2003; Weise et al., 2006). Interestingly, we found that the ORE1 promoter contains two Py-rich stretch motifs in its $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR. On the one hand, we have shown that plants transformed with the Prom6-ORE1:GUS construct that contains two predicted TATA boxes but lacks both

5UTR-Py-rich stretch motifs, lose the senescence-specific pattern from the tip to the base of the leaves (Section 2.2.4). On the other hand, plants overexpressing a short fragment of the 5'UTR (Prom3-ORE1:GUS) that contains one 5UTR-Py-rich stretch maintain the leaf senescence specific expression pattern, albeit at a much lower level. Our results suggest a pivotal role of the 5UTR-Py-rich stretch motifs. The fact that plants transformed with the Prom3-ORE1:GUS construct display GUS activity suggests the presence of an alternative start codon ATG since the predicted TATA boxes lie up-stream of this fragment. Interestingly, despite the high homology between ORE1 and ORS1 (ORESARA1 SISTER1), an evolutionary closer NAC TF (Balazadeh et al., 2011; Ooka et al., 2003), ORS1 does not contain any 5UTR-Py-rich stretch within its promoter (data not shown), confirming that ORE1 5'UTR conserves typical features and plays an important role in ORE1 up-stream regulation. To conclusively probe the contribution of the $5^{\prime} \mathrm{UTR}$ to the ORE1 expression pattern in senescent tissues, two approaches may be taken. The first is to replace the ORE1 5'UTR with a standard $5^{\prime}$ UTR such as the GSTF8 minimal promoter (Thatcher et al., 2007). We would expect a minimal promoter to completely abolish the senescence-specific pattern of expression. The second approach is to mutate both 5UTR-Py-rich motifs present in the 5 'UTR, which should also lead to abolishment of the senescence-specific pattern of expression.

## Defining the ORE1 regulon based on a genome-wide analysis

The rate at which individual genes are transcribed is controlled by the binding of transcription factors (TFs) to their up-stream promoter regions. Over 2,000 TFs are encoded by Arabidopsis (Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2010). Nevertheless, so far only a minority (around one-third) of all TFs have been functionally characterized in Arabidopsis. The determination of the regulatory circuits controlled by each TF , and the identification of the cis-regulatory elements (CREs) for all genes, have been identified as two of the goals of the Multinational Coordinated Arabidopsis thaliana Functional Genomic Project by the Multinational Arabidopsis Steering Committee (June, 2002) (Davuluri et al., 2003).

Recently, high-resolution temporal profiling of transcripts during Arabidopsis leaf senescence revealed a distinct chronology of the process and its regulation (Breeze et al., 2011). Surprisingly, , this model of the senescence regulatory network identified ORE1 as a master regulatory element that controls several genes implicated in leaf senescence. Therefore, we combined three different approaches to unravel key elements in the architecture of the ORE1 regulatory network. First, a transcriptome analysis included short- and long-term induction of ORE1 in order to identify putative direct target genes (section 4.2.1). Next, we characterized the ORE1 consensus binding site (BS) to identify ORE1-BSs in the promoter region of putative ORE1 targets (section 4.2.2), and we selected a group of genes for further confirmation of the direct interaction with ORE1 (section 4.2.3 and 4.2.4). Finally, we characterized the genes at the molecular and physiological level to be able to categorize them as direct targets. (Chapters 5 and 6).

Based on our previous work (Balazadeh et al., 2010a), we have identified a set of differentially expressed genes after inducible over-expression of ORE1, and we confirmed some by qRT-PCR. Additional global transcriptome analyses were carried out. We incubated ORE1-IOE seedlings for two hours and five hours in estradiol (EST), and we constitutively overexpressed ORE1 for six hours in Arabidopsis mesophyll protoplasts. In total, we found 711 genes up- and 273 genes down-regulated in the three experiments. As expected, upon ORE1 overexpression, we observed a significant over-representation of genes involved in metabolism and degradation among the up-regulated genes. The significant overrepresentation of genes from these functional categories may be due to the prevalent role of degradation of different macromolecules as part of the mechanism of nutrient salvage that occurs in the plant during senescence (Bleecker, 1998). Considering we found more genes up- than down-regulated, and we were able to identify 17 genes commonly up-regulated but none commonly down-regulated in all three data sets, we propose that ORE1, like most NAC TFs, functions as a transcriptional activator. Among these 17 putative targets are genes encoding proteins for degradation and dismantling processes such as lipases, kinases, synthases, hydrolases, and nucleases (Balazadeh et al., 2003). We found six TFs that were up-regulated after five hours of ORE1 induction. All of them were commonly up-regulated after five hours inducible overexpression or six hours constitutive overexpression. The TFs include one zinc-ion binding factor (At2g28200), one signal transduction response regulator (At2g40670), one MYB TF (At3g10590), and three members of the NAC TF (ANAC010, ANAC041, VNI2). Thus, most of the up-regulated TFs belong to the NAC TF family, highlighting the predominant role of this family in leaf senescence (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Guo and Gan, 2004; Guo and Gan, 2012). The fact that overexpression of ORE1 leads to the up-regulation of 711 genes, most of which are SAGs, and to the up-regulation of six TFs, highlights the importance of ORE1 as a key regulator of leaf senescence. Considering that six TFs are significantly up-regulated also underlines the apparent fact that not many transcriptional networks are activated down-stream of ORE1, and it is tempting to speculate that ORE1 expression plays a pivotal role in the progression rather than the onset of senescence. Our results strongly support the importance of the molecular characterization of regulatory pathways governed by NAC TFs, especially ORE1, not only during senescence but also in Arabidopsis development.

## Validation of putative direct targets of ORE1 and their functional characterization

Several members of the NAC TF family, including ORE1/ANAC092/AtNAC2 (Guo and Gan, 2006) and ORS1/ANAC059, have been shown to positively regulate leaf senescence in Arabidopsis (Balazadeh et al., 2011). Knocking out the function of each of those genes generates a delay-of-senescence phenotype. In contrast, other members of the NAC TF family, like VNI2/ANAC083 (Yang et al., 2011) and JUB1/ANAC042 (Wu et al., 2012), have recently been shown to negatively regulate leaf senescence and enhance plant longevity in Arabidopsis. Despite the fact that ORE1 and ORS1 are paralogues that exhibit evolutionary
conservation (Balazadeh et al., 2011) and share a common function as positive regulators of leaf senescence, only eight genes are commonly up-regulated by both TFs upon inducible overexpression (At3g01830, At3g61190, At2g32680, At5g38710, At5g39520, At3g29250, At4g27280 andAt3g61930) (Balazadeh et al., 2011). All overlapping genes are SAGs, but only At5g39520 that encodes an unknown protein is among the 17 genes commonly upregulated by ORE1 overexpression. Thus, overexpression of a single senNACTF (senescenceassociated NAC transcription factor) affects specific down-stream genes, suggesting that functional redundancy between NAC genes controlling senescence is limited. This can be explained if each of those senNACs controls a specific or partially specific subset of downstream target genes, which is essential for the correct timing of the onset and progression of senescence. Therefore, unraveling the gene regulatory network administrated by senNAC TFs and discovering the specificity of those regulations is of particular importance. Nevertheless, direct or indirect regulation between senNACs and their putative targets can only be determined experimentally. It is well known that characterization of the sequences bound by a transcription factor is an essential step in the identification of its true targets. The ORE1 binding site was originally reported by Olsen et al. (2005). However, recent studies demonstrated that sequences bound by NAC TFs are rather long and include two consensus motifs separated by a spacer of few bp (base pairs) (Balazadeh et al., 2011; Xue, 2005; Wu et al., 2012). The binding affinity of ORE1 to certain oligonucleotides in vitro was evaluated by the DNA-binding-protein-CELD method (DBP-CELD). The binding sequence of ORE1 was characterized as containing the two core motifs (RMGTR) and (YACGY) spaced apart by 5-6 bp. Thus, the ORE1 binding site (ORE1-BS) was determined to be RMGTR(5-6n) YACGY (section 4.2.2).

We focused our efforts to elucidate ORE1 directly from indirect interactions within a subset of six highly up-regulated genes. We selected BFN1 (At1g11190), RNS3 (At1g26820), SINA1 (At3g13672), and SAG29 (At5g13170) from the 17 commonly up-regulated genes, and we selected ORE1 and VNI based on (i) the novel hypothetical model proposed by Breeze et al. (2011) that predicts an autoregulatory feedback loop for ORE1 and shows VNI2 as a possible ORE1 direct target and (ii) the strong up-regulation of VNI2 in our long-term transcriptome analyses (section 4.2.1). We tested whether ORE1 was able to transactivate the promoter regions of those six putative targets in vivo. Our results show that overexpression of ORE1 transactivates the expression of BFN1, VNI2, and RNS3 (section 4.2.3). In the case of ORE1, we were unable to identify the proposed autoregulatory feedback loop. Based on our results, we decided to test the ability of ORE1 to bind in vitro by EMSA to ORE1 binding sites (ORE1-BSs) identified in silico in the promoters of BFN1, VNI2, and RNS3. Additionally, we included SINA1 to test whether non-significant transactivation in vivo correlates with no binding in vitro (section 4.2.4). The selected genes contained more than ten different versions of ORE1-BSs taken as ORE1-BS sequences containing at least the first core motif. Nevertheless, in general, only the longest ORE1-BS found in each promoter was considered for the EMSAs. We found that ORE1 is able to bind to all tested promoters in vitro, but
the binding affinity was different among them. Based on the intensity of the band in the retardation gels, we were able to determine that ORE1 exhibits the highest affinity to the BS in VNI2. The oligonucleotides tested for RNS3 and SINA1 contained 5 bp and 11 bp long ORE1-BSs, respectively, and for the most part lacked the second core of the ORE1-BS. In this study, we characterized for the first time the longest consensus sequence that corresponds to the ORE1-BS and is probed by two different methods (DBP-CELD and EMSA). ORE1 binding affinity is highly dependent on the presence of both core motifs. We found that ORE1 overexpression results in a strong transactivation of RNS3 in vivo, and only a slight binding affinity in vitro. Additional EMSAs are required to pin-point the ORE1-BSs that causes the strong RNS3 transactivation in vivo. Currently, we have better candidates that may fit as ORE1-BS in RNS3.

Based on these observations, we aimed to prove that ORE1 binds directly to these putative target genes in vivo by Chromatin Inmunoprecipitation (CHiP) using two different tags linked to ORE1. In both cases, we used transgenic plants expressing ORE1 tagged with the green fluorescence protein (GFP) or a newly developed HaloTag (Urh et al., 2008). This was the first attempt focused on the implementation of HaloTags in plants, and it represented a challenge to implementing new methods for the characterization of down-stream regulatory pathways in TFs in plants. In the case of ORE1-GFP, the cassette contains the constitutive $35 S$ promoter, whereas ORE1-HaloTag is under the control of an estradiol-inducible promoter. Striking results were obtained in both cases. As expected, we were able to obtain high expression of ORE1, and we were able to determine the subcellular location of ORE1 in the nucleus of guard cells in Arabidopsis leaves (Annex 6). Nevertheless, none of the selected putative targets that are highly regulated by ORE1 were induced in those plants. In both cases, constructs were confirmed by sequencing for the presence of the HaloTag and GFP on transformed plants and by ORE1 expression. One possible explanation for these results is that the linked tag placed at the end of the C-terminal region of ORE1 blocked or restricted the interaction with target promoters and, therefore, expression of ORE1 putative targets was notdetectable. In order to probe this hypothesis, we suggest transforming Arabidopsis with a different cassette in which the Tag is fused to the N -terminal region. Although we were unable to check the binding of ORE1 to the target promoters by CHiP, different assays in planta strongly support the hypothesis that BFN1, VNI2, and RNS3 are direct targets of ORE1.

We selected BFN1, RNS3, SINA1, SAG29, and VNI2 to test if they are direct targets of ORE1. Remarkably, VNI2, RNS3, and BFN1 have been described as prominent players in another process quite unrelated to leaf senescence: xylem vessel differentiation (Pesquet et al., 2010; Yamaguchi et al., 2010). The most interesting thing about the unexplored connection between both processes comes from the programmed cell death. Nonetheless, Zhong et al. (2010) showed that NAC transcription factors involved in secondary wall biosynthesis (SWNs) do not include ORE1 as a key player. The conclusion that can be drawn from our study and Zhong's analyses is that different processes, such as senescence and xylem vessel differentiation that
results in the up-regulation of a core set of genes, are transduced by separated pathways involving different transcription factors from the same family (the NAC family).

For the targets BFN1 and VNI2, we addressed two tasks: (i) prove that BFN1 is a direct ORE1 target during senescence; and (ii) characterize the molecular pathway through which ORE1 regulates VNI2 by proposing a model of this control mechanism during senescence and of their direct interaction.

## ORE1 and BFN1 constitute a non-described senescence regulatory pathway in Arabidopsis

Leaf senescence undergoes three general phases: (i) the initiation phase in which chlorophyll is affected, leading to a decrease in photosynthetic activity and the transition in leaves from a nutrient sink to a nutrient source; (ii) a degenerative phase, mainly characterized by the dismantling of cellular components and their degradation; and (iii) a terminal phase, where cell integrity is lost prior to cell death and death of the whole organ (Lim et al., 2003; Yoshida, 2003). During the degenerative and terminal phase, a marked decrease in total RNA levels is evident, whereas nuclear DNA is maintained to allow gene expression to continue until late in the process. The up-regulation of genes that are encoding for several nucleases has been reported, and they presumably act to degrade nucleic acids during senescence (Blank and McKeon, 1989; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2003; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Lers et al., 2001; Wood et al., 1998). As we described before in the discussion, we were able to determine more than 700 up-regulated genes upon ORE1 induction (section 4.2.1). The BFN1 transcript level rapidly increased upon induction of ORE1, both in intact Arabidopsis plants and in isolated mesophyll protoplasts. In order to integrate our results, we described a hypothetical model that combines our findings with published data in which ORE1 directly regulates BFN1 and favors senescence and programmed cell death (PCD) in Arabidopsis.

Aging and a variety of environmental inputs can induce senescence. These external and internal stimuli must be integrated into the senescence signal transduction to initiate senescence syndrome. ORE1 function as a positive regulator of leaf senescence in Arabidopsis, limiting the longevity of the leaf. Breeze et al. (2011) determined that a wide number of SAGs are under the control of ORE1. Thus, ORE1 may function as an up-stream regulator in the regulatory cascade of the senescence pathway. BFN1 was the first senescence-associated gene encoding a nuclease I enzyme as described in Arabidopsis (Pérez-Amador et al., 2000). Despite the relevance of chlorophyll degradation as the first visible symptom during senescence, by the time yellowing of the leaf has become apparent, the majority of the senescence process has already occurred (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2003). We determined a marked overlap in the expression patterns of ORE1 and BFN1-GUS lines in advanced senescence stages (section 5.2.1), and we were able to identify enhanced DNase and RNase activity in protein extract from ORE1 overexpressor lines as well as from advanced dark-induced senescence leaves
(section 5.2.2). Thus, we suggest that ORE 1 and $B F N 1$ interact and exert their functions during the late degenerative and terminal phases of senescence.

Analysis of the BFN1 promoter revealed the presence of several partial ORE1 binding sites (ORE1-BS), all of which contained the first core motif, but lacked the second core motif. Interestingly, BFN1 promoter contains one complete ORE1-BS that differs by just one nucleotide in the second core motif to the consensus motif defined by us (section 4.2.2). Although punctual transversion severely affects ORE1 binding in vitro and in vivo, transcriptional activation was still observed, indicating that these partial binding sites are functional. Apparently all or at least many of the BSs present in the BFN1 promoter are functional since the deletion promoter ( 190 bp ) that removed all sites strongly reduced BFN1 transactivation(section 5.2.4). It is plausible to think that up-regulation ofBFN1 is fundamental in the senescence progression and, therefore, must be guaranteed by having several ORE1BSs that favor an activation, even if one of the binding sites is absent. Remarkably, the absence of ORE1-BS does not completely abolish BFN1 expression. Nonetheless, our data strongly support that ORE1 is the most prominent direct regulator of BFN1, and it is likely that other TFs may bind and be co-regulators of BFN1. Overall, our observations confirm that, on the one hand, BFN1 plays a pivotal role during senescence, and on the other hand, if ORE1 activation is not possible (as is the case in one promoter deletion), other TFs can activate $B F N 1$, but ORE1 is the $B F N 1$ master regulator.

In this study, we found extended overlapping expression of BFN1 and ORE1 in Arabidopsis (section 5.2.1). BFN1 is completely lost in the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant background, as shown by PCR and BFN1 promoter-GUS reporter studies (section 5.2.3). The strong decrease of BFN1 promoter expression in the anac092-1 insertion mutant is consistent with the model that ORE1 is the master regulator of BFN1. Prominent expression of BFN1 in senescence leaves, mature flowers, stigma, anthers, and the abscission zone in mature siliques agrees with the common knowledge that during senescence of floral parts, the degradation of DNA and RNA is the most common feature (Thomas et al., 2003). Senescence petals of Petunia were found to be associated with DNA laddering and increased nuclease activity (Xu and Hanson, 2000); in senescence petals of Ipomea, enhanced DNA degradation, chromatin condensation, and nuclear fragmentation during PCD have been reported (Taylor et al., 1993). Recently, senescence-associated RNases have also been characterized from petals of Arabidopsis (Taylor et al., 1993) and tomato (Farage-Barhom et al., 2008; Lers et al., 2001).

As we described above, the up-stream regulatory pathway of ORE1 has not been characterized extensively. ORE1 transcript is targeted by micro-RNA164 (miR164), triggering its degradation. Kim et al. (2009) suggested a trifurcate feed-forward regulatory pathway involving ORE1, miR164, and EIN2 (ethylene insensitive 2) that ensures a robust regulation of leaf senescence and age-induced cell death. EIN2 negatively affects miR164 expression in an age-dependent manner, and through this allows ORE1 mRNA to accumulate, thus acting
as a positive control element. ORE1 and BFN1 are highly induced during leaf senescence in the wild type mutant, but not in the ein2 (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005), and it is upregulated during pistil senescence (Carbonell-Bejerano et al., 2010). We determined that the difference in BFN1 transcript abundance between younger and older leaves was greater in mir164abc mutants than wild type plants (section 5.2.3). From published work, we know that miR164 functions as a guard against premature overexpression of ORE1, fine-tuning senescence timing (Kim et al., 2009). We identified that BFN1 expression in the mir164abc triple mutant resembles exactly the age-dependent expression of ORE1 in mir164abc (Kim et al., 2009). Thus, we propose that the regulatory pathway that involves ORE1, mir164, and EIN2, and favors senescence and programmed cell death, includes the up-regulation of BFN1 by the direct biding of ORE1 to the BFN1 promoter (Fig. 31).


Figure 31. Hypothetical model of ORE1 as a direct regulator of BFN1. Environmental and developmental signals trigger senescence syndrome, increasing ethylene and ABA levels. ORE1 transcript is targeted by micro-RNA164 (miR164), triggering its degradation and suggesting a trifurcate feed-forward regulatory pathway involving ORE1, miR164, and EIN2 (ethylene insensitive 2) that ensures a robust regulation of leaf senescence and aged-induced cell death partially by the direct regulation of BFN1.


#### Abstract

Abscission is an active process that occurs in different organs and regulates the detachment of organs from the main body of the plant. This process is triggered during developmental senescence and in response to environmental cues such as disease or pathogen attack (Patterson and Bleecker, 2004). The fact that $O R E 1$ and $B F N 1$ were co-expressed during flower senescence, especially in abscission zones (AZ), is a fascinating finding in our study. Taking leaf and silique senescence as an entire process, we suggest that both ORE1 and BFN1 may be involved not only during the progression of senescence, but as modulators in the detachment of non-functional organs in the plant. So far it is known that most genes expressed in the abscission zone do not directly affect abscission, but rather represent general housekeeping genes or genes involved in basic plant processes (Patterson and Bleecker, 2004). It is tempting to suggest that ORE1 and BFN1 expression are specific for the abscission process through EIN2. Therefore, unraveling the molecular mechanism involved represents a promising challenge.


In conclusion, our results demonstrate that senescence-induced BFN1 expression is regulated by ORE1. Previous studies have demonstrated the central importance of ORE1 for the control of leaf senescence and developmental PCD. Considering the role of BFN1 in degradation of nucleic acids during senescence, it is reasonable to assume that ORE1 exerts its senescence promoting function partly through BFN1.

## Dual function of VND Interacting2-VNI2 in developmental and induced leaf senescence in Arabidopsis

In section 4.2.1, the up-regulation of VNI2 as a result of ORE1 overexpression was described. Presumably, this up-regulation is at the transcriptional level and mediated by the direct interaction of ORE1 with the VNI2 promoter (section 4.2. 3 and 4.2.4). The role of VNI2 in relation to senescence has been published by Yang et al. (2011). In this study, controversial evidences came to light regarding the role of VNI2 in senescence and seed germination under salt stress. Previously, it has been published that vni2-1 shows accelerated senescence, while constitutive expression of VNI2 leads to delayed senescence. The overall morphology and size of the full-grown transgenic plants overexpressing VNI2 was similar to wild type plants. Moreover, bolting time was similar in wild type, VNI2 overexpressor, and vni2-1 mutant plants. The expression of the stress-responsive genes COR15A, COR15B, $R D 29 A$, and $R D 29 B$ was up-regulated in overexpressing lines and unchanged in the vni2-1 mutant under normal growth condition. Likewise, effects of ABA and high salinity on gene expression were significantly reduced in the vni2-1 mutant (Yang et al., 2011). The T-DNA insertion line used in this study, vni2-2, displays delayed senescence, delayed onset of bolting, longer and wider leaves (section 6.2.5), and increased salt tolerance (section 6.2.6). Yang et al. (2011) used the T-DNA insertion mutant SALK_143793, while I used GABI-KAT 799H09. In vni2-2, the T-DNA insertion mutant was identified in the third exon (section 6.2.4), and the production of a truncated protein lacking the activation domain and the PEST motif
cannot be discarded. On the contrary, vni2-1 insertion lies either immediately up-stream of the coding region (Yamaguchi et al., 2010) or in the first intron (Yang et al., 2011).

To explain the dual role of VNI2 during leaf senescence and salt stress, the following molecular model is proposed: expression of ORE1 that is triggered during the onset and progression of leaf senescence leads to an increase in VNI2 transcript and favors senescence. Inducible overexpression of VNI2 (full transcript) confirms an accelerated senescence in seedlings underlined by the dramatic up-regulation of the senescence marker SAG12 (section 6.2.7). Nonetheless, constitutive overexpression of VNI2 (35S:VNI2) leads to delayed senescence (Yang et al., 2011), more likely due to an unknown transcriptional regulatory loop that may lead to an increased mRNA turnover (Hypothesis 1) (Fig. 32). Seedling inducible overexpressing VNI2 (VNI2-IOE-lines) exhibited a slight reduction in size, whereas seedling inducible overexpressing truncated VNI2 (VNI2- $\triangle$ C-IOE-lines) was severely affected and exhibited a dwarfed, yellowish phenotype (section 6.2.7).

According to Yamaguchi et al. (2010), a C-terminal truncated VNI2 is more stable than the full-length protein, and the overexpression of a truncated VNI2 protein effectively causes a vessel defect. Thus, it is plausible to think that the marked reduction in size observed in the VNI2- $\triangle C$-IOE seedlings is caused by severe defects in root vessel formation. Microscopic analyses of these lines are required to confirm this assertion. The inducible overexpression of $V N I 2-\triangle C$-IOE results in higher levels of mRNA (tested by qRT-PCR) than the inducible over-expression of the full transcript (VNI2-IOE) (section 6.2.7). Moreover, seedlings that were overexpressing a truncated version of VNI2 exhibited higher levels of SAG12 compared to wild type, but a marked decrease compared to seedlings that were overexpressing a full VNI2 transcript, suggesting a delay in senescence. Strikingly, vni2-2 also displays a delayed senescence phenotype, along with a delayed onset of bolting and an apparent increase in biomass, represented by bigger leaves (section 6.2.7). Likely, vni2-2 is able to produce a truncated protein that comprises only the NAC domain which has been characterized to be a transcriptional repressor under normal growth condition and a transcriptional activator under salt stress (Yamaguchi et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2011). It is feasible to think that this protein is, in fact, produced in planta since a screening of databases revealed that an alternative splicing (AS) form of VNI2 has been reported (Iida et al., 2009) (Hyphothesis 2) (Fig. 32). Ostensibly, an uncharacterized switch is activated during salt stress and also if VNI2 is constitutively overexpressed which, in turn, promotes the expression of stress responsive genes, such as COR15A/B and RD29A/B, and represses the expression of genes involved in senescence progression (such as SAG12), thus enhancing salt and cold resistance (Yang et al., 2011). The delayed senescence phenotype observed in seedling inducible overexpressing truncated VNI2 and in the vni2-2 mutant, as well as the enhanced salt resistance displayed by the vni2-2 mutants, might be associated with the same mechanism. It is feasible to assume that the switch is transcriptional and post-transcriptional, and it may likely influence both mRNA and protein stability (Hypothesis 3) (Fig. 32).


Figure 32. Molecular model of VNI2 dualole during developmental and salt-induced leaf senescence. Hypothesis 1. (A). Overexpression of ORE1 leads to an increase of VNI2, probably by direct binding of ORE1 to the VNI2 promoter. (B). VNI2 protein has a conserved NAC domain in the N-terminal region described as a repressor (R). The C-terminal region has a characterized activator domain $(\mathrm{A})$ and a PEST motif $(\mathrm{P})$ that regulates protein stability. Inducible overexpression of VNI2 (VNI2-IOE) leads to up-regulation of SAG12, suggesting that ORE1 and VNI2 integrate a regulatory pathway that positively controls developmental senescence. Hypothesis 2. (C). Overexpressing of a truncated VNI2 protein VNI2-DC$I O E$ (lacking half P and A ) leads to delayed senescence. Hypothesis 3. (D). vni2-2 likely produces a truncated protein (lacking half P and A ) and exhibits delayed senescence. (E). VNI2 acts as activator and repress senescence, and it induces resistance under salt stress by up-regulation of COR/RD genes. Presumably, this role is controlled by uncharacterized mechanisms involving post-transcriptional and/or post-translational changes.

The evidence obtained from this study, along with available public data, suggests a connection between ATAF1, ORE1, and VNI2 during senescence. Therefore, the following model (Fig. 33) is proposed, and it integrates these senescence NAC TFs (senNAC TF) into the senescence regulatory pathway. The model considers the dual role of VNI2 during developmental and induced leaf senescence, and it describes two regulatory pathways that positively/negatively regulate senescence. ORE1 and VNI2 mRNA expression are positively and significantly regulated by ATAF1. Both promoters are transactivated by ATAF1 (section 2.2.5 and section 6.2.8), but transactivation of the VNI2 promoter occurs even in the absent of ORE1, suggesting that ATAF1 might exert its regulatory function directly on VNI2 and/or ORE1 (section 6.2.8). We determined that overexpression of a CDPK named CKOR (calcium-dependent kinase regulating ORE1) in vivo leads to an increase in the transcriptional activity of $V N I 2$, and apparently VNI2 requires a considerable accumulation of phosphorylated ORE1 protein to be activated (Chapter 3). This is likely the phosphorylated ORE1 that binds to one (or more)

ORE1-BS (binding site) present in the VNI2 promoter and then proceeds with senescence. Based on experimental data using knockout and VNI2 overexpressor lines, it can be speculated that under the control of an uncharacterized post-transcriptional/post-translational mechanism, VNI2 can turn from a transcriptional repressor to an activator. This likely involves the production of two VNI2 splicing forms; one that generates a full protein (showing an increased proteasome-mediated proteolysis), and a more stable truncated VNI2 mRNA whose protein lacks the PEST motif and the activator domain. During developmental leaf senescence, VNI2 up-regulation may lead to the repression of a set of genes that prevent senescence, most likely $C O R / R D$ genes. As we described above, there is evidence that the constitutive overexpression of VNI2 delays senescence and increases salt resistance (Yang et al., 2011), whereas inducible overexpression of VNI2 has the opposite effect on seedlings growing in estradiol. Moreover, the vni2-2 T-DNA insertion mutant (T-DNA insertion in the third exon) and an inducible overexpressor line carrying a truncated version of VNI2 (producing a protein lacking part of the third exon) exhibited a prolonged life span and enhanced salt tolerance, presumably due to the expression of a VNI2 that harbors the NAC domain and lacks the PEST motif as well as the activation domain located in the N -terminal region.

It is well establish that $A T A F 1, O R E 1$, and VNI2 are highly induce by salt stress and ABA (Balazadeh et al., 2010a,b; He et al., 2005; Lu et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2011). According to published data, in the case of $A T A F 1$, the induction in response to drought salinity is achieved in an ABA-independent manner, even though ABA alone is able to induce ATAF1 expression (Wu et al., 2009). Under short-term salt stress (two hours of treatment), plants overexpressing ATAF1 showed down-regulation of three COLD-REGULATED (COR) and RESPONSIVE TO DEHYDRATION (RD) genes (RD22, RD29A, and COR47). Interestingly, these transcripts were slightly up-regulated in the same line of plants after long-term salt stress (10 hours). Authors suggested that there should be a feedback regulation of those genes affected by ATAF1 under salt stress (Wu et al., 2009). In addition, VNI2 has been reported to integrate ABA -mediated abiotic stress signals into leaf aging by regulating a subset of $C O R / R D$ genes. Constitutive overexpression of $V N I 2$ leads to an up-regulation of $C O R 15 A / B$ and $R D 29 A / B$. The expression of these genes was unchanged in vni2-1 mutants under normal growth conditions and significantly reduced under ABA and high salinity. Notably, VNI2 behaves like a transcriptional activator under high salinity. To explain these observations, the authors suggest that high salinity may induce structural and/or activity changes of VNI2 (Yang et al., 2011). All observations strongly support the existence of an uncharacterized mechanism that regulates the transcriptional activity of VNI2. The novelty is that such a mechanism has not yet been elucidated for any senNAC TFs. The challenge is to determine if it is a structural change or a post-transcriptional/post-translational regulatory loop that results in turning VNI2 from a transcriptional repressor to a transcriptional activator. Nevertheless, salt stress and ABA seem to be master input signals for the regulatory pathway that integrates ATAF1, ORE1, and VNI2 during developmental and induced leaf senescence (Fig. 33).


Figure 33. Model of $A T A F 1$, ORE1, and VNI2 in the regulation of developmental and induced leaf senescence. 1. ATAF1 is able to regulate expression of ORE1 and VNI2. Aging activates the expression of CKOR that regulates ORE1 and favors the transcriptional activation of VNI2. An uncharacterized switch controls post-transcriptional and/or post-translational changes in VNI2. Progression of senescence might be regulated by a full version of VNI2 that represses the expression of $C O R / R D$ genes. It is likely another version of VNI2 is produced or activated under certain conditions and involves the activator domain and the PEST motif present in the C-terminal region of VNI2. Delayed senescence and enhanced salt resistance may be achieved through the production of VNI2 which lacks the activator domain and the PEST motif.

## Future challenges and outlook

This PhD focused in unraveling the ORE1 regulon, elucidating up- and down-stream components. Substantial evidences were obtained that demonstrate the role of ORE1 as a TF that positively regulates the expression of more than 700 genes related to the senescence syndrome. A set of 17 genes were identified as putatively regulated by a direct interaction with ORE1. The interaction of ORE1 with the promoter region of some targets was tested in vitro and in vivo. Furthermore, the direct regulation of BFN1 by ORE1 during senescence was probed and important evidences that suggest $V N I 2$ and $R N S 3$ as putative direct targets of ORE1 were collected. Nevertheless, this knowledge is only the starting point to suggest conclusive models about the exact mode of interaction of ORE1 during developmental and induced leaf senescence with these targets. Therefore, here further experiments are proposed with the aim to elucidate the signal transduction cascades activated by ORE1. For a better view of the future challenges, the following work packages are suggested (WP):

## WP1: Extension of the ORE1 up-stream regulatory pathway

As described in Chapter 2 the up-stream regulatory pathway of ORE1 still poorly characterized. Therefore, the novel discover of ATAF1 and CKOR as possible regulators of ORE1 provide a good starting point for further studies. It is necessary to confirm if the senNAC TF ATAF1 and the calcium-dependent protein kinase CKOR control ORE1 and favors senescence in Arabidopsis. Using chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) coupled with deep-sequencing or tilling arrays (ChIP-CHIP) employing transgenic plants expressing ATAF1-GFP and/or ATAF1-Halotag fusion proteins, will help to confirm the direct binding of ATAF1 to ORE1 promoter and maybe to the promoter regions of some ORE1 putative targets like VNI2 in vivo. These results will help to clarify not only if ATAF1 binds directly to ORE1 promoter but also which ORE1 putative targets may also be regulated by ATAF1. This work will allow to define up to which point there is a redundancy between ATAF1 and ORE1 during senescence. It would be of great advantage implementing promoter arrays to identify sequences bound by all three senNAC TFs that are of primary interest after this study. Also, yeast one-hybrid experiments can be used to identify TFs that bind specifically to the ORE1 promoter. Due to the important role of ATAF1 and ORE1 in salt stress responses and the dual role of VNI2 upon salt stress, transactivation assays that includes a phase of salt
stress will give insights into a possible cross-talk between these three senNAC TFs during developmental and salt- induced leaf senescence.

Previous phosphoproteomic approach using a CKOR overexpressor lines revealed ORE1 as one of the few proteins differentially phosphorylated. We determine that BFN1, VNI2 and RNS3 promoter transactivation was enhanced in presence of overexpression of CKOR in wild type protoplast (Chapter 3). The extent and dynamic changes in ORE1 phosphorylation have not been studied. As a baseline for these future studies, firstly a series of transactivation assays using protoplasts that lack the expression of ORE1 compared to transactivation of promoter regions in protoplasts that overexpress ORE1 will be required. Secondly, affinity chromatography will be used to purify/enrich phosphorylated ORE1 to identify the sites phosphorylated using high-accuracy mass spectrometry. Thirdly, the physiological characterization of CKOR transgenic lines and the phenotypic characteristics of such lines will provide information if they exhibit a particular developmental senescence phenotype or particular resistance to abiotic stresses such as salt and cold stress.

ORE1 promoter deletion analysis gave the first insights to generate the hypothesis that the 5UTR-Py-rich motifs are related to ORE1 senescence-specific expression patterns. Additional experiments are required to confirm that the $5^{\prime}$ UTR in general and both motifs in particular are the important motifs and if their absence causes a lost of promoter-driven GUS activity or if our observations are purely an artifact due to the shortening of the promoter that renders an unspecific weaken signal. Thus, mutations of this specific motifs as well as substitution of the ORE1 5'UTR for a conventional 5'UTR will clarify the role of this region in ORE1 promoter activity related to the senescence syndrome.

## WP2: Analysis of the role of ORE1 during germination and abscission

Two interesting findings of this work were related to the marked and rapid promoter expression of ORE1 in mature embryos and abscission zones in mature siliques in Arabidopsis (Chapter 2 and Chapter 4). Some recent studies suggested the possible role of ORE1 as a regulator during embryo and seed development (Fait et al., 2011) and anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant was reported to have a delayed flowering phenotype (AL-Daoud and Cameron, 2011). Nevertheless, these are unexplored facets of ORE1 and therefore there is not available data yet. The characterization of expression patterns during embryo development and seed maturation are required to shed light on the role of ORE1 in both processes. One significant contribution to understand the role of ORE1 during abscission will be gain by the identification and characterization of anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant pattern during abscission. It is feasible that the anac092-1 T-DNA insertion mutant reveals as a delayed abscission mutant.

## WP3: Determination of the dual role of VNI2 during senescence

The novel finding of VNI2 as a possible NAC TF that has (i) a dual role as activator or repressor of senescence (Chapter 6) and (ii) a mutant that exhibits a prolonged life span, delayed onset of bolting, higher salt stress tolerance and a presumable increase on biomass open a complete new research on this NAC TF. Firstly, a confirmation of the production of a truncated VNI2 protein in vni2-2 T-DNA insertion mutant is required using for instance Western blots. The complete characterization if the presumable increase on biomass really takes place is also required.

The role of the PEST-motif in regulating the stability of the protein has already been studied (Yamaguchi et al., 2010) using proteasome inhibitors. Nevertheless, we found that the inducible overexpression of a full or truncated version of $V N I 2$ (with or lacking the PEST motif) resultalso in differences at the transcriptional level (section 6.2.7). Clearly the transcript corresponding to the truncated protein was strongly overexpressed as the transcript corresponding to the full version. This unexpected and exciting discovery may indicate that VNI2 stability is regulated both at the transcriptional as well as at the post-transcriptional level. To really differentiate if the overexpression of a shorter transcript (lacking the PEST motif and the activation domain) leads to a higher production of mRNA or simply to a longer half-life of the mRNA, experiments using the widely known inhibitor of transcription Actinomycin D are required.

The base of our work to identify target genes regulated by ORE1 relies on the use of Affymetrix chip arrays. The prominent role of microRNAs in the regulation of ORE1 is known (Kim et al., 2009) and evidently at least ATH1 Affymetrix chips do not consider this level of regulation, since no microRNA is represented in this chip. In order to extend our knowledge and measure transcript levels using an unbiased method that allows us the identification of all kinds of RNAs present in a particular line/cell/condition including mRNAs, non-coding RNAs and small RNAs new technologies must be implemented for the analysis of TFs in our group. RNA-Seq a transcriptome profiling approach based on deep-sequencing technologies offers itself as the most promising tool to acquire more precise measurements of transcript levels and their isoforms. The implementation of this technology is of particular interest for the analysis of VNI2 to establish with certainty if indeed this senNAC TF may be regulated at the transcriptional level by alternative splicing.

And last but not least, the knowledge gain in our transcriptome profiling assays, functional and molecular characterization of transgenic lines and in vivo, in vitro and in silico analysis of promoters need to be integrated to allow the reconstruction of the gene regulatory networks (GRN) during developmental and salt induced senescence. The reconstruction of the GRN that joins ATAF1, ORE1 and VNI2 will serve not only to complete our knowledge on onset and progression of developmental and induced senescence, but also will allow us to predict new components and regulatory mechanisms that may remain unforeseen if the current knowledge is not combined to make use of the advantages of computer modeling.
Annex 1
List of oligonucleotides used in this study

| VN12 Primers |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Internal code | Direction | Sequences of the oligonucleotides ( $5^{\prime}-3$ ) | Purpose |
| 133 | F | GGATCCAATTACTCAGAGTTCCATA | Amplification of VNI2 (1570 bp) promoter. BamH/ restriction site underlined |
| 135 | F | GGATCCACATGAAAGCAAGCAAAT | Amplification of VNI2 (571 bp) promoter. BamHI restriction site underlined |
| 134 | R | CCATGGGGTGGTTCCAAACAAAG | Amplification of VNI2 (571 bp) promoter. Ncol restriction site underlined |
| 142 | F | CTCGAGATGGATAATGTCAAACTTGTTAAG | Amplification of VNI2 CDS. Xhol restriction site underlined |
| 201 | R | ACTAGTTCATCTGAAACTATTGCAACTAC | Amplification of VNI2 CDS. Spel restriction site underlined |
| 141 | R | ACTAGTTCACGGCAAAAGGTTCAAATCTGTTG | Amplification of VNI2 CDS. Spel restriction site underlined |
| 149 | F | GGATTTACCTGGCAATTTGGAG | To determined transcript abundance (VN12 first exon) |
| 150 | R | AATAACCAGACCCAGTTGCCC | To determined transcript abundance (VN12 first exon) |
| 70 | F | CAAAGGCAAACCACCTCATGGC | To determined transcript abundance (VN12 second exon) |
| 71 | R | CTGAGTGGGACCCATAGAACTCG | To determined transcript abundance (VN12 second exon) |
| 160 | F | CAGATTT GAACCTTTTGCCGAG | To determined transcript abundance (VN12 third exon) |
| 161 | R | GTCGTGACTCCACTTGAAGCAT | To determined transcript abundance (VN12 third exon) |
| 131 | F | GAGATTGCCACCTGGATTCAG | Confirmation homozygocity T-DNA insertion line |
| 132 | R | GAAGAATTGAAATTCGCTAGAGAA | Confirmation homozygocity T-DNA insertion line |
| 158 | R | CCCATTTGGACGTGAATGTAGACAC | Confirmation homozygocity T-DNA insertion line |
| ORE1 Primers |  |  |  |
| 110 | F | GGATCCAACCTCAACTTTCTTCTC | Amplification of ORE1 ( 120 bp ) promoter. BamH/ restriction site underlined |
| 111 | R | CCATGGTTTATCCTAATAGGGTTTC | Amplification of ORE1 ( 120 bp ) promoter. Ncol restriction site underlined |
| 151 | F | CACCCATCATCAACATCCTCATCATTC | Amplification of ORE1 (1281bp) promoter for cloning into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 152 | R | TTTATCCTAATAGGGTTTCTAAAAATG | Amplification of ORE1 (1281bp) promoter for cloning into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 153 | F | CACCATTTAAACGCGAAACCTCATG | Amplification of ORE1 (250bp) promoter for clooning into pENTR-D-TOPO |


| 154 | R | AAAGTGTTTGAGCAACGAAGCTCC | Amplification of ORE1 (250bp) promoter for clonning into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 155 | R | TTTAAGAGAGAGGAAAGTGTTTGAGC | Amplification of ORE1 (263bp) promoter for clonning into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 116 | F | GCTAGCGATTACGAGGCATCAAG | Amplification of ORE1 (CDS) to clone into CELD vector. Nhel restriction site underlined |
| 117 | R | GGATCCGAAATTCCAAACGCAATCCAATTC | Amplification of ORE1 (CDS) to clone into CELD vector. BamHI restriction site underlined |
| 123 | F | CACC ATGGATTACGAGGCATCAAG | Amplification of ORE1 (CDS) to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO vector for GFP assay |
| 124 | R | GAAATTCCAAACGCAATCCAATTC | Amplification of ORE1 (CDS) to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO vector for GFP assay |
| ATAF1 Primers |  |  |  |
| 204 | F | CTCGAGATGTCAGAATTATTACAGTTGCCT | Amplification of ATAF1 CDNA. Xhol restriction site underlined |
| 205 | R | ACTAGTCTAGTAAGGCTTCTGCATGTAC | Amplification of ATAF1 cDNA. Spel restriction site underlined |
| 206 | F | GTTTAAACAAGTTTCAAAAACGCCAAGTTTC | Amplification of ATAF1 CDNA. Pmel restriction site underlined |
| 207 | R | ITAATTAAGAAAATATTAAATTGATTGCGGCAC | Amplification of ATAF1 CDNA. Pacl restriction site underlined |
| Primers for GUS amplification (pCAMBIA-1381Z) |  |  |  |
| 164 |  | GGCCTGTGGGCATTCAGTCT | Amplification of GUS gene (pCAMBIA-1381Z) |
| 165 |  | CTGTACAGTTCTTTCGGCTTGT | Amplification of GUS gene (pCAMBIA-1381Z) |
| Primers for Transactivation assays |  |  |  |
| 280 | F | CACCCCAATATAGATGAAACCAGT | Amplification of SAG29 promoter (831 bp) upstream of ATG to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 281 | F | TTTCTATAGCAATTGAGAAAACTTT | Amplification of SAG29 promoter (831 bp) upstream of ATG to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 282 | F | CACCACATAGGTGTATCAGCACACAAC | Amplification of SINA1 promoter (1118 bp) upstream of ATG to clone into PENTR-D-TOPO |
| 283 | F | TTCGCAGGAATTAATGAATTCGA | Amplification of SINA1 promoter ( 1118 bp ) upstream of ATG to clone into PENTR-D-TOPO |
| 284 | F | CACCCTTGAAGCCATTTTCTGGAAAGC | Amplification of RNS3 promoter (1062bp) upstream of ATG to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 285 | F | TTCCTCAAGATATCAAATAATtTGTGG | Amplification of RNS3 promoter (1062bp) upstream of ATG to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 151 | F | CACCCATCATCAACATCCTCATCATTC | Amplification of ORE1 promoter (1281bp) upstream of ATG to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 152 | R | TTTATCCTAATAGGGTtTCTAAAAATG | Amplification of ORE1 promoter (1281bp) upstream of ATG to clone into PENTR-D-TOPO |
| 142 | F | CACCCAAATTACTCAGAGTTCCATA | Amplification of VN12 promoter (1571 bp) upstream of ATG to clone into PENTR-D-TOPO |
| 143 | R | GGTGGTTCCAAACAAAGAGAGAG | Amplification of VNI2 promoter (1571 bp) upstream of ATG to clone into PENTR-D-TOPO |


| 139 | F | CACCAGACTGAATAGAACTAAAA | Amplification of BFN1 (1084 bp) upstream of ATG to clone into PENTR-D-TOPO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 140 | R | ATCTTCAAAGTTTGAAACTTATATAA | Amplification of BFN1 (1084 bp) upstream of ATG to clone into PENTR-D-TOPO |
| 147 | F | GAGGAAAAAATGAGACTCGCAATGTC | Amplification of BFN1 promoter fragment. point mutation underlined |
| 148 | R | GACATTGCGAGTCTCATTTTTTCCTC | Amplification of BFN1 promoter fragment. point mutation underlined |
| 145 | F | CACCGTCTTGCTTGCACACAAA | Amplification of BFN1 ( 192 bp ) upstream of ATG to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| 146 | R | ATCTTCAAAGTTTGAAACTTATATAA | Amplification of BFN1 (192 bp) upstream of ATG to clone into pENTR-D-TOPO |
| Primers for qRT-PCR |  |  |  |
| 202 | F | TTTTTTGCCCCCTTCGAATC | Intron specific primer (amplification intergenic region) |
| 203 | R | ATCTTCCGCCACCACATTGTAC | Intron specific primer (amplification intergenic region) |
| 204 | F | TCCCTCAGCACATTCCAGCAGAT | Control housekeeping gene ACTIN2 (At3g18780) |
| 205 | R | AACGATTCCTGGACCTGCCTCATC | Control housekeeping gene ACTIN2 (At3g18780) |
| 28 | F | TCGCTTGTCCACACAAGTATGC | BFN1(At5g11190) for qRT-PCR |
| 29 | R | ACCAGACTTGACGCCTTTGTATCC | BFN1(At5g11190) for qRT-PCR |
| 32 | F | AAGCTGGTCTCAAGCTCAAACACG | RNS3(At1926820) for qRT-PCR |
| 33 | R | TCCGGTTTGATCCCAGCATTGG | RNS3(At1926820) for qRT-PCR |
| 66 | F | TCT TCC CCA AACAGC TAA GAA CGA | ORE1(A+5g39610) for qRT-PCR |
| 67 | R | GGCTGGTTCCAT TCGGTTAAT GTG | ORE1(A+5g39610) for qRT-PCR |
| 278 | F | ACAAAGGCGAAGACGCTACTTG | SAG12 (At5g45890) for qRT-PCR anaylsis |
| 279 | R | ACCGGGACATCCTCATAACCTG | SAG12 (At5g45890) for qRT-PCR anaylsis |
| Oligos used for EMSAs |  |  |  |
| 258 | F | CGGGGTTACGTACGGCACACGCAACCGTGC | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-ORS1 |
| 259 | R | GCACGGTTGCGTGTGCCGTACGTAACCCCG | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-ORS1 |
| 260 | F | CGGGGTTACGTACGGCACACGCAACCGTGC | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competitor for EMSA-ORS1 |
| 261 | R | GCACGGTTGCGTGTGCCGTACGTAACCCCG | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competitor for EMSA-ORS1 |
| 262 | F | TTCCGGAGATTACGTACGTCAAAGAGCTTAATTGTAGGAG | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-SINA1 |


| 263 | R | CTCCTACAATTAAGCTCTTTGACGTACGTAATCTCCGGAA | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-SINA1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 264 | F | TTCCGGAGATTACGTACGTCAAAGAGCTTAATTGTAGGAG | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competior for EMSA-SINA1 |
| 265 | R | CTCCTACAATTAAGCTCTTTGACGTACGTAATCTCCGGAA | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competitor for EMSA-SINA1 |
| 266 | F | CTCCAATTAACGTAACGTAAGGCAAACTTTCCAGCTCCAA | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-RNS3 |
| 267 | R | TTGGAGCTGGAAAGTTTGCCTTACGTTACGTTAATTGGAG | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-RNS3 |
| 268 | F | CTCCAATTAACGTAACGTAAGGCAAACTTTCCAGCTCCAA | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competitor for EMSA-RNS3 |
| 269 | R | TTGGAGCTGGAAAGTTTGCCTTACGTTACGTTAATTGGAG | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competior for EMSA-RNS3 |
| 270 | F | CAACTTTTATGAGGAACGTATGAGACTCGCAATGTCTTGC | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-BFN1 |
| 271 | R | GCAAGACATTGCGAGTCTCATACGTTCCTCATAAAAGTTG | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-BFN1 |
| 272 | F | CAACTTTTATGAGGAACGTATGAGACTCGCAATGTCTTGC | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competitor for EMSA-BFN1 |
| 273 | R | GCAAGACATTGCGAGTCTCATACGTTCCTCATAAAAGTTG | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competior for EMSA-BFN1 |
| 274 | F | AGAGGAAGGAGATTGAGTATGGTTTACGCCAAACGAAATA | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-VNI2 |
| 275 | R | TATTTCGTTTGGCGTAAACCATACTCAATCTCCTTCCTCT | Label Fragment (LF) for EMSA-VNI2 |
| 276 | F | AGAGGAAGGAGATTGAGTATGGTTTACGCCAAACGAAATA | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competitor for EMSA-VNI2 |
| 277 | R | TATTTCGTTTGGCGTAAACCATACTCAATCTCCTTCCTCT | Unlabeled Fragment (ULF). Competior for EMSA-VN12 |

## Annex 2

ORE1-BS (Binding Sites) present in the up-stream region of ORE1-putative target genes. Positions are on relation to the ATG (first nucleotide up-stream is -1). Size of the upstream regions BFN1 1084 bp, VNI2 1571 bp, RNS3 1062 bp, ORE1 1281 bp, SINA1 1018 bp, SAG29 831 bp. Bold letters indicate ORE1-BSs tested by EMSA. The program fuzznuc from EMBOSS was used to detect ORE1-BSs (Rice et al. 2000). Underlined letter in the BFN1 promoter (position-196) indicates one nucleotide difference from the consensus ORE1-BS.

| Gene | ORE1 BS- <br> Binding Sequence | Strand | Start position | Final position | Sequence in promoter | Nucleotides |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| BFN1 | RMGTR | + | -771 | -775 | AAGTA | 5 |
| (At5g11190) | RMGTR | + | -295 | -299 | GAGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -987 | -991 | AAGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -1017 | -1021 | AAGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -864 | -875 | GAGTAACTATAC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -846 | -857 | AAGTAATGGGTT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -862 | -873 | GCGTATAGTTAC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -958 | -969 | GAGTATAAGATC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -997 | -1008 | AAGTAGTGAGGT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -239 | -251 | GAGTATAAACATA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YACGY | + | -196 | -210 | ACGTATGAGACTCGC | 15 |
| VNI2 | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -1430 | -1441 | AAGTAAAACTCT | 12 |
| (At5g13180) | RMGTR(5n)Y | + | -1130 | -1140 | GCGTGCCCATT | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -760 | -771 | GAGTGCAAGATC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -396 | -407 | AAGTAGTCCTTT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | - | -1178 | -1188 | AAGTGCTTTCC | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -337 | -348 | AAGTGTAAACTC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -672 | -683 | AAGTGAGAAGTT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | - | -1101 | -1111 | GAGTAACTAAT | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -1233 | -1244 | AAGTGACGCAAC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -1368 | -1379 | GAGTGGGTGAGC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | + | -1338 | -1349 | AAGTGATTCATA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | + | -1065 | -1077 | ACGTATGTGTATA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | + | -1032 | -1043 | ACGTGTTGAACA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | + | -459 | -471 | GAGTGTATGATTA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | - | -57 | -68 | GAGTGCGGTGTA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | - | -164 | -175 | GCGTAAACCATA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | - | -483 | -494 | ACGTGGAGGTTA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -1074 | -1086 | ACGTACAGTTTTA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YACGY | + | -164 | -178 | GAGTATGGTTTACGC | 15 |
| RNS3 | RMGTR | + | -761 | -765 | AAGTA | 5 |
| (At1g26820) | RMGTR | + | -587 | -591 | AAGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | + | -422 | -426 | AAGTG | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -143 | -147 | ACGTG | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -234 | -238 | ACGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -298 | -302 | ACGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -303 | -307 | ACGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -489 | -493 | AAGTG | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -541 | -545 | ACGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -537 | -548 | ACGTACGTTTCC | 12 |

Annexes

| Gene | ORE1 BS- <br> Binding Sequence | Strand | Start position | Final position | Sequence in promoter | Nucleotides |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RNS3 | RMGTR(5n)Y | - | -104 | -114 | ACGTGAAGTGT | 11 |
| (At1g26820) | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -109 | -120 | AAGTGTGATATT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | - | -138 | -148 | ACGTGACGTGT | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -378 | -389 | GAGTATTCGATT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | + | -570 | -581 | AAGTAGCCAACA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | + | -415 | -426 | AAGTGAATACTA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -226 | -238 | AAGTAATAACGTA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | - | -276 | -287 | GAGTATTTTGTA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -971 | -983 | AAGTAAGAAGATA | 13 |
| ORE1 | RMGTR | + | -573 | -577 | AAGTG | 5 |
| (At5g39610) | RMGTR | - | -962 | -972 | AAGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -788 | -799 | ACGTATTAGTAC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -796 | -807 | ACGTAAGGTTAC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | + | -324 | -336 | AAGTAAGATAACA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -135 | -147 | AAGTGTTTGAGCA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -465 | -477 | GCGTAGATTGTTA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -1069 | -1081 | AAGTATATTTTTA | 13 |
| SINA1 | RMGTR | + | -413 | -417 | GAGTG | 5 |
| (At3g13672) | RMGTR | - | -23 | -27 | AAGTG | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -127 | -131 | ACGTG | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -169 | -173 | ACGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | + | -491 | -501 | GAGTAATCAAT | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -165 | -176 | ACGTACGTAATC | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | + | -162 | -172 | ACGTAATCTCC | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -81 | -92 | ACGTAAACGTAT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -75 | -86 | ACGTATCTATGT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -38 | -48 | ACGTACACCTTT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | - | -132 | -142 | GAGTAAATGGT | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -307 | -318 | AAGTATCCAATT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -356 | -367 | AAGTGGACAAAT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | - | -751 | -760 | AAGTAATGTGT | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | + | -836 | -848 | AAGTATGTGATCA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | + | -274 | -285 | GAGTGTCGTGTA | 12 |
| SAG29 | RMGTR | + | -476 | -480 | GAGTA | 5 |
| (At5g13170) | RMGTR | + | -423 | -427 | GCGTG | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | + | -377 | -381 | GAGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | + | -361 | -365 | AAGTA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR | - | -252 | -256 | AATAA | 5 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | + | -640 | -651 | ACGTGGGATATT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | + | -384 | -394 | GCGTACGAGAT | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)Y | - | -232 | -242 | GCGTGTAACGT | 11 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)Y | - | -310 | -322 | AAGTGGAGATAT | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | + | -344 | -355 | GAGTGAATGATA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(5n)YA | - | -239 | -250 | ACGTGTTGAGTA | 12 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -648 | -660 | ACGTATCTATTCA | 13 |
|  | RMGTR(6n)YA | - | -729 | -741 | AAGTATGATTACA | 13 |

Annex 3
Expression of 54 up-regulated and 24 down-regulated genes (two-fold cut-off) in ORE1-IOE line two hours after estradiol induction (ATH1 Affymetrix Array). Data are means of two replicates.

| AGI Identifier | Affymetrix ID | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | 2nd (Est/Mock) | Average (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | ( $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh})$ |
| AT1G02470 | 260933_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G02475.1) | 0,97 | 1,16 | 1,06 |
| AT1G02660 | 260915_at | lipase class 3 family protein | 1,62 | 0,48 | 1,05 |
| AT1G06160 | 260783_at | ethylene-responsive factor, putative | 1,74 | 0,56 | 1,15 |
| AT1G11190 | 262454_at | BFN1 (BIFUNCTIONAL NUCLEASE I) | 2,04 | 2,02 | 2,03 |
| AT1G15520 | 261763_at | ATPDR12/PDR12 (PLEIOTROPIC DRUG RESISTANCE 12) | 1,32 | 1,33 | 1,33 |
| AT1G19200 | 256014_at | senescence-associated protein-related | 1,16 | 1,28 | 1,22 |
| AT1G26820 | 263689_at | RNS3 (RIBONUCLEASE 3); endoribonuclease | 0,79 | 1,33 | 1,06 |
| AT1G30700 | 263228_at | FAD-binding domain-containing protein | 1,51 | 1,08 | 1,29 |
| AT1G32960 | 261242_at | subtilase family protein | 1,67 | 1,41 | 1,54 |
| AT1G48260 | 262244_at | CIPK17 (CIPK17); kinase | 1,18 | 0,88 | 1,03 |
| AT1G51820 | 256181_at | leucine-rich repeat protein kinase, putative | 1,31 | 1,00 | 1,15 |
| AT1G63840 | 260327_at | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 1,04 | 1,09 | 1,07 |
| AT1G68620 | 262229_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT5G16080.1) | 0,92 | 1,44 | 1,18 |
| AT1G69880 | 260408_at | ATH8 (thioredoxin H-type 8); thiol-disulfide exchange intermediate | 0,87 | 1,18 | 1,02 |
| AT1G71530 | 259947_at | protein kinase family protein | 1,46 | 0,85 | 1,15 |
| AT1G73750 | 260048_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G15060.1) | 1,02 | 1,34 | 1,18 |
| AT1G74010 | 260386_at | strictosidine synthase family protein | 1,68 | 1,12 | 1,40 |
| AT1G75900 | 262682_at | family II extracellular lipase 3 (EXL3) | 1,24 | 0,79 | 1,02 |
| AT1G80440 | 260287_at | kelch repeat-containing F-box family protein | 2,19 | 1,55 | 1,87 |
| AT1G80450 | 260276_at | VQ motif-containing protein | 1,89 | 1,00 | 1,44 |
| AT2G16900 | 266536_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G35110.3) | 1,39 | 1,09 | 1,24 |
| AT2G28570 | 264082_at | unknown protein | 1,64 | 0,52 | 1,08 |
| AT2G28930 | 266803_at | APK1B (Arabidopsis protein kinase 1B); kinase | 1,49 | 0,72 | 1,11 |
| AT2G29470 | 266270_at | ATGSTU3 (GLUTATHIONE S-TRANSFERASE 21); glutathione transferase | 1,50 | 1,40 | 1,45 |
| AT2G31945 | 263475_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G05575.1) | 1,38 | 1,12 | 1,25 |
| AT2G37710 | 267165_at | RLK (RECEPTOR LECTIN KINASE); kinase | 1,24 | 0,85 | 1,05 |


| AGI Identifier | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | 2nd (Est/Mock) | Average (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | log2 FCh | log2 FCh | ( $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh})$ |
| AT2G44080 | 267230_at | ARL (ARGOS-LIKE) | 1,75 | 0,67 | 1,21 |
| AT2G44130 | 267238_at | [AT2G44130, kelch repeat-containing F-box family protein] | 4,61 | 2,97 | 3,79 |
| AT2G47520 | 245173_at | AP2 domain-containing transcription factor, putative | 1,49 | 0,75 | 1,12 |
| AT2G47950 | 266486_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT3G62990.1) | 3,12 | 2,40 | 2,76 |
| AT3G02550 | 258487_at | LOB domain protein 41 / lateral organ boundaries domain protein 41 (LBD41) | 2,31 | 0,26 | 1,29 |
| AT3G04000 | 258815_at | short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR) family protein | 1,30 | 1,39 | 1,35 |
| AT3G13310 | 257654_at | DNAJ heat shock N-terminal domain-containing protein | 2,36 | 2,49 | 2,42 |
| AT3G13672 | 256789_at | seven in absentia (SINA) family protein | 2,00 | 1,62 | 1,81 |
| AT3G21560 | 258167_at | UGT84A2; UDP-glycosyltransferase/ sinapate 1-glucosyltransferase | 1,98 | 1,73 | 1,85 |
| AT3G22060 | 257264_at | receptor protein kinase-related | 1,73 | 1,71 | 1,72 |
| AT3G45010 | 252606_at | SCPL48 (serine carboxypeptidase-like 48); serine carboxypeptidase | 1,34 | 0,88 | 1,11 |
| AT3G59940 | 251443_at | kelch repeat-containing F-box family protein | 1,93 | 1,11 | 1,52 |
| AT3G62150 | 251248_at | PGP21 (P-GLYCOPROTEIN 21) | 1,51 | 0,94 | 1,22 |
| AT4G04490 | 255340_at | protein kinase family protein | 0,43 | 1,61 | 1,02 |
| AT4G18425 | 254629_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT5G46090.1) | 1,40 | 1,68 | 1,54 |
| AT4G19810 | 254543_at | glycosyl hydrolase family 18 protein | 1,74 | 1,50 | 1,62 |
| AT4G25350 | 254060_at | SHB1 (SHORT HYPOCOTYL UNDER BLUE1) | 1,58 | 0,68 | 1,13 |
| AT4G34770 | 253207_at | auxin-responsive family protein | 2,57 | 0,41 | 1,49 |
| AT4G36040 | 253125_at | DNAJ heat shock N-terminal domain-containing protein (J11) | 1,15 | 1,34 | 1,25 |
| AT4G38620 | 252958_at | MYB4 (myb domain protein 4); transcription factor | 1,57 | 1,45 | 1,51 |
| AT5G13170 | 245982_at | nodulin MtN3 family protein (SAG29) | 2,64 | 1,53 | 2,08 |
| AT5G18150 | 250018_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT5G58375.1) | 1,29 | 0,72 | 1,00 |
| AT5G27420 | 246777_at | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 1,17 | 1,13 | 1,15 |
| AT5G39520 | 249454_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT5G39530.1) | 1,37 | 1,37 | 1,37 |
| AT5G44420 | 249052_at | PDF1.2 (Low-molecular-weight cysteine-rich 77) | 0,62 | 1,67 | 1,15 |
| AT5G48540 | 248686_at | $33 \mathrm{kDa} \mathrm{secretory} \mathrm{protein-related}$ | 1,85 | 1,75 | 1,80 |
| AT5G62630 | 247444_at | HIPL2 (HIPL2 PROTEIN PRECURSOR) | 1,70 | 0,86 | 1,28 |
| AT5G63970 | 247312_at | copine-related | 1,14 | 0,95 | 1,04 |
| AT5G59510 | 247704_at | DVL18/RTFL5 (ROTUNDIFOLIA LIKE 5) | -2,51 | -0,82 | -1,66 |


| $\begin{gathered} \text { AGI } \\ \text { Identifier } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | Average (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | ( $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh})$ |
| AT5G54300 | 248205_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G61260.1); similar to Protein of unknown function DUF761, plant [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE84235.1); contains InterPro domain Protein of unknown function DUF761, plant; (InterPro:IPR008480) | -1,85 | -0,97 | -1,41 |
| AT3G51590 | 252063_at | function DUF761, plant [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE84235.1); contains InterPro domain Protein | -2,13 | -0,63 | -1,38 |
| AT4G21680 | 254396_at | of unknown function DUF761, plant; (InterPro:IPR008480) | -1,65 | -1,05 | -1,35 |
| AT3G11170 | 256417_s_at | [AT3G11170, FAD7 (FATTY ACID DESATURASE 7); omega-3 fatty acid desaturase);:AT5G05580, FAD8 (FATTY ACID DESATURASE 8); omega-3 fatty acid desaturase] | -1,47 | -1,21 | -1,34 |
| AT5G05410 | 250781_at | FAD8 (FATTY ACID DESATURASE 8); omega-3 fatty acid desaturase] | -1,80 | -0,81 | -1,31 |
| AT1G05575 | 263182_at | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT2G31945.1)(GB:NP_001057099.1); similar t | -2,03 | -0,53 | -1,28 |
| AT5G61890 | 247492_at | AP2 domain-containing transcription factor family protein | -1,26 | -1,25 | -1,26 |
| AT1G52000 | 265053_at | jacalin lectin family protein | -1,63 | -0,81 | -1,22 |
| AT3G47340 | 252415_at | ASN1 (DARK INDUCIBLE 6) | -1,28 | -1,13 | -1,20 |
| AT1G71000 | 262307_at | DNAJ heat shock N-terminal domain-containing protein | -1,87 | -0,54 | -1,20 |
| AT1G28480 | 261443_at | glutaredoxin family protein | -1,98 | -0,29 | -1,14 |
| AT2G46240 | 266590_at | ATBAG6/BAG6 (ARABIDOPSIS THALIANA BCL-2-ASSOCIATED ATHANOGENE 6); calmodulin binding / protein binding | -1,09 | -1,19 | -1,14 |
| AT1G72920 | 262382_at | binding / protein binding | -1,66 | -0,60 | -1,13 |
| AT5G22500 | 249895_at | acyl CoA reductase, putative / male-sterility protein, putative | -1,25 | -1,00 | -1,13 |
| AT4G24960 | 254085_at | ATHVA22D (Arabidopsis thaliana HVA22 homologue D) | -1,32 | -0,92 | -1,12 |
| AT2G26150 | 266841_at | ATHSFA2 (Arabidopsis thaliana heat shock transcription factor A2); DNA binding / transcription factor | -1,18 | -1,00 | -1,09 |
| AT1G53885 | 262226_at | senescence-associated protein-related | -1,40 | -0,77 | -1,09 |
| AT1G43160 | 264415_at | RAP2.6 (related to AP2 6); DNA binding / transcription factor | -1,25 | -0,91 | -1,08 |
| AT3G21230 | 258037_at | 4CL5 (4-COUMARATE:COA LIGASE 5); 4-coumarate-CoA ligase | -0,80 | -1,34 | -1,07 |
| AT4G24380 | 254158_at | hydrolase, acting on ester bonds | -1,30 | -0,77 | -1,03 |
| AT1G80840 | 261892_at | WRKY40 (WRKY DNA-binding protein 40); transcription factor | -1,37 | -0,69 | -1,03 |
| AT2G40205 | 256438_s_at | [AT2G40205, 60S ribosomal protein L41 (RPL41C));(AT3G08520, 60S ribosomal protein L41 (RPL41D));[AT3G11120, 60S ribosomal protein L41 (RPL41E)); ;AT3G56020, 60S ribosomal protein L41 (RPL41G)] | -1,08 | -0,97 | -1,02 |
| AT3G23250 | 257919_at | AtMYB15/AtY 19/MYB15 (myb domain protein 15); DNA binding / transcription factor | -1,43 | -0,58 | -1,01 |

Annex 4
Expression of 269 genes differentially expressed after five hours estradiol induction. 195 genes were found up- and 74 downregulated up regulated (Affymetrix data). Data are means of three replicates. Bold letters indicate the selected putative ORE1 targets. (*) Transcription factors.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | AGI Identifier | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { 3rd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | Average (log2 FCh) |



 2,622
0,938
2,443
1,111
2,317
1,253
2,391
1,828
2,699
1,323
1,532
5,098
1,676
1,200
1,048
1,193
1,539
1,285
4,122
0,759
1,646
4,465


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | AGI Identifier | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { 3rd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | Average (log2 FCh) |
| 263688_at | AT1G26920 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,128 | 1,352 | 1,796 | 1,425 |
| 261441_at | AT1G28470* | ANAC010 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 10); transcription factor | 2,223 | 1,497 | 1,471 | 1,730 |
| 260887_at | AT1G29160 | Dof-type zinc finger domain-containing protein | 1,436 | 0,994 | 1,415 | 1,282 |
| 260943_at | AT1G45145 | ATTRX5 (thioredoxin H-type 5); thiol-disulfide exchange intermediate | 2,125 | 2,013 | 2,910 | 2,349 |
| 245803_at | AT1G47128 | cysteine proteinase (RD21A) / thiol protease | 1,092 | 1,580 | 1,335 | 1,336 |
| 262244_at | AT1G48260 | CIPK17 (CIPK17); kinase | 2,713 | 2,499 | 2,152 | 2,454 |
| 260753_at | AT1G49230 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 1,122 | 1,041 | 1,128 | 1,097 |
| 261366_at | AT1G53100 | acetylglucosaminyltransferase | 1,531 | 1,673 | 1,663 | 1,622 |
| 259653_at | AT1G55240 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 2,094 | 1,721 | 1,687 | 1,834 |
| 259661_at | AT1G55265 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,844 | 1,840 | 2,453 | 2,046 |
| 264532_at | AT1G55740 | ATSIP1 (ARABIDOPSIS THALIANA SEED IMBIBITION 1); hydrolase, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl compounds | 1,878 | 2,070 | 1,210 | 1,719 |
| 264562_at | AT1G55760 | BTB/POZ domain-containing protein | 2,020 | 1,396 | 1,317 | 1,578 |
| 246395_at | AT1G58170 | disease resistance-responsive protein-related / dirigent protein-related | 1,621 | 1,569 | 1,723 | 1,638 |
| 262640_at | AT1G62760 | invertase/pectin methylesterase inhibitor family protein | 4,090 | 4,734 | 4,349 | 4,391 |
| 260109_at | AT1G63260 | TET10 (TETRASPANIN10) | 1,767 | 1,805 | 1,395 | 1,656 |
| 264680_at | AT1G65510 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 0,932 | 0,731 | 2,019 | 1,227 |
| 260135_at | AT1G66400 | calmodulin-related protein, putative | 1,658 | 1,021 | 2,117 | 1,599 |
| 260012_at | AT1G67865 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 0,554 | 0,413 | 2,061 | 1,010 |
| 260261_at | AT1G68450 | VQ motif-containing protein | 1,768 | 1,598 | 1,325 | 1,563 |
| 260208_s_at | AT1G70670 | [AT1G70670, caleosin-related family protein];[AT1G70680, caleosin-related family protein] | 1,450 | 1,643 | 1,677 | 1,590 |
| 259915_at | AT1G72790 | hydroxyproline-rich glycoprotein family protein | 1,737 | 1,459 | 1,058 | 1,418 |
| 262356_at | AT1G73000 | similar to Bet v I allergen family protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 3,349 | 2,980 | 2,248 | 2,859 |
| 245736_at | AT1G73330 | ATDR4 (Arabidopsis thaliana drought-repressed 4) | 0,969 | 1,261 | 0,994 | 1,075 |
| 260048_at | AT1G73750 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 2,420 | 2,764 | 2,664 | 2,616 |
| 260335_at | AT1G74000 | SS3 (STRICTOSIDINE SYNTHASE 3) | 2,521 | 2,658 | 1,610 | 2,263 |
| 260386_at | AT1G74010 | strictosidine synthase family protein | 3,160 | 2,963 | 2,224 | 2,782 |
| 260391_at | AT1G74020 | SS2 (STRICTOSIDINE SYNTHASE 2); strictosidine synthase | 2,098 | 2,111 | 2,017 | 2,075 |


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | AGI Identifier | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { 3rd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | log2 FCh | log2 FCh | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Average } \\ & \text { (log2 FCh) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 264144_at | AT1G79320 | latex abundant protein, putative (AMC5) / caspase family protein | 1,747 | 2,175 | 1,414 | 1,779 |
| 262940_at | AT1G79520 | cation efflux family protein | 1,715 | 1,709 | 1,919 | 1,781 |
| 260276_at | AT1G80450 | VQ motif-containing protein | 1,366 | 1,131 | 1,078 | 1,191 |
| 263595_at | AT2G01890 | PAP8 (PURPLE ACID PHOSPHATASE PRECURSOR); acid phosphatase/ protein serine/threonine phosphatase | 1,546 | 1,430 | 1,994 | 1,657 |
| 266118_at | AT2G02130 | LCR68/PDF2.3 (Low-molecular-weight cysteine-rich 68); protease inhibitor | 0,534 | 0,423 | 2,127 | 1,028 |
| 266743_at | AT2G02990 | RNS1 (RIBONUCLEASE 1); endoribonuclease | 1,845 | 1,730 | 1,221 | 1,599 |
| 265511_at | AT2G05540 | glycine-rich protein | 0,903 | 1,255 | 2,403 | 1,520 |
| 266021_at | AT2G05910 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 2,821 | 3,173 | 2,816 | 2,936 |
| 263282_at | AT2G14095 | similar to Peptidase $\mathrm{A} 11 \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{Ty} 1 \mathrm{~A}$ and B [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE93074.1) | 4,111 | 4,471 | 3,704 | 4,095 |
| 265539_at | AT2G15830 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,783 | 1,916 | 2,964 | 2,221 |
| 266532_at | AT2G16890 | UDP-glucoronosy/UDP-glucosyl transferase family protein | 1,048 | 1,315 | 0,722 | 1,029 |
| 264590_at | AT2G17710 | similar to Os04g0560700 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001053549.1) | 1,776 | 1,646 | 1,640 | 1,687 |
| 267263_at | AT2G23110 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,760 | 1,673 | 1,450 | 1,628 |
| 266566_at | AT2G24040 | hydrophobic protein, putative / low temperature and salt responsive protein, putative | 1,232 | 0,875 | 2,412 | 1,506 |
| 265913_at | AT2G25625 | similar to Os05g0575000 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001056395.1) | 1,287 | 1,430 | 1,869 | 1,529 |
| 266849_at | AT2G25940 | ALPHA-VPE (ALPHA-VACUOLAR PROCESSING ENZYME); cysteine-type endopeptidase | 2,461 | 2,782 | 1,882 | 2,375 |
| 267617_at | AT2G26670 | HY1 (HEME OXYGENASE 1) | 1,424 | 1,610 | 1,391 | 1,475 |
| 265573_at | AT2G28200* | nucleic acid binding / transcription factor/ zinc ion binding | 0,812 | 1,061 | 1,169 | 1,014 |
| 266808_at | AT2G29995 | unknown protein | 1,245 | 0,823 | 1,789 | 1,285 |
| 263475_at | AT2G31945 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,653 | 2,175 | 2,862 | 2,230 |
| 265680_at | AT2G32150 | haloacid dehalogenase-like hydrolase family protein | 1,932 | 2,076 | 1,902 | 1,970 |
| 267115_s_at | AT2G32540 | [AT2G32540, ATCSLB04 (Cellulose synthase-like B4); transferase/ | 1,727 | 2,238 | 1,898 | 1,954 |
| 267548_at | AT2G32660 | disease resistance family protein / LRR family protein | 1,930 | 1,776 | 2,243 | 1,983 |
| 267546_at | AT2G32680 | disease resistance family protein | 2,168 | 1,358 | 1,780 | 1,769 |
| 255794_at | AT2G33480* | ANAC041 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 41); transcription factor | 1,005 | 0,935 | 1,224 | 1,055 |
| 267411_at | AT2G34930 | disease resistance family protein | 1,383 | 1,538 | 0,518 | 1,146 |


| 2ffymetrix | AGI <br> ID | Identifier |  | 1st replicate <br> (Est/Mock) | 2nd <br> (Est/Mock) | 3rd <br> (Est/Mock) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { AGI } \\ \text { Identifier } \end{gathered}$ | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | 3rd (Est/Mock) | (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Average } \\ \text { (log2 FCh) } \end{gathered}$ |
| 257944_at | AT3G21850 | ASK9 (ARABIDOPSIS SKP1-LIKE 9); ubiquitin-protein ligase | 6,285 | 6,499 | 5,645 | 6,143 |
| 257945_at | AT3G21860 | ASK10 (ARABIDOPSIS SKP1-LIKE 10); ubiquitin-protein ligase | 2,557 | 2,605 | 2,510 | 2,557 |
| 258105_at | AT3G23605 | UBX domain-containing protein | 0,855 | 0,812 | 1,373 | 1,013 |
| 256861_at | AT3G23920 | BMY7/TR-BAMY (beta-amylase 7); beta-amylase | 1,561 | 1,944 | 1,622 | 1,709 |
| 257824_at | AT3G25290 | auxin-responsive family protein | 1,490 | 1,757 | 1,449 | 1,565 |
| 258078_at | AT3G25870 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,383 | 1,270 | 1,125 | 1,259 |
| 258085_at | AT3G26100 | regulator of chromosome condensation (RCC1) family protein | 1,416 | 1,401 | 1,255 | 1,357 |
| 257774_at | AT3G29250 | oxidoreductase | 1,046 | 0,604 | 1,441 | 1,030 |
| 252606_at | AT3G45010 | SCPL48 (serine carboxypeptidase-like 48); serine carboxypeptidase | 3,822 | 3,849 | 3,397 | 3,689 |
| 252320_at | AT3G48580 | xyloglucan:xyloglucosyl transferase, putative / xyloglucan endotransglycosylase, putative / endo-xyloglucan transferase, putative | 3,145 | 2,678 | 2,806 | 2,876 |
| 252303_at | AT3G49210 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,357 | 1,084 | 0,772 | 1,071 |
| 252097_at | AT3G51090 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,491 | 0,718 | 0,912 | 1,040 |
| 252076_at | AT3G51660 | macrophage migration inhibitory factor family protein / MIF family protein | 0,816 | 1,029 | 2,034 | 1,293 |
| 252004_at | AT3G52780 | ATPAP20/PAP20; acid phosphatase/protein serine/threonine phosphatase | 3,370 | 3,778 | 4,084 | 3,744 |
| 251739_at | AT3G56170 | CAN (CA-2+ DEPENDENT NUCLEASE); nuclease | 1,308 | 1,346 | 0,874 | 1,176 |
| 251436_at | AT3G59900 | (ARGOS); unknown protein | 0,941 | 1,328 | 1,111 | 1,127 |
| 251336_at | AT3G61190 | BAP1 (BON ASSOCIATION PROTEIN 1) | 1,525 | 1,438 | 1,675 | 1,546 |
| 251293_at | AT3G61930 | unknown protein | 2,974 | 2,875 | 2,489 | 2,779 |
| 251273_at | AT3G61960 | protein kinase family protein | 1,583 | 1,302 | 1,064 | 1,316 |
| 251191_at | AT3G62590 | lipase class 3 family protein | 1,407 | 1,003 | 1,647 | 1,352 |
| 255609_s_at | AT4G01180 | [AT4G01180, XH/XS domain-containing protein];[AT5G59390, XH/XS domain-containing protein] | 1,918 | 1,200 | 1,671 | 1,596 |
| 255345_at | AT4G04460 | asparty protease family protein | 4,777 | 5,473 | 4,681 | 4,977 |
| 255340_at | AT4G04490 | protein kinase family protein | 1,814 | 1,591 | 1,410 | 1,605 |
| 254956_at | AT4G10850 | nodulin MtN3 family protein | 2,086 | 2,460 | 1,313 | 1,953 |
| 254823_at | AT4G12580 | unknown protein | 2,559 | 2,749 | 3,284 | 2,864 |
| 254764_at | AT4G13250 | short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR) family protein | 1,642 | 1,896 | 1,439 | 1,659 |
| 245436_at | AT4G16620 | integral membrane family protein / nodulin MtN21-related | 1,800 | 1,654 | 1,532 | 1,662 |


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { AGI } \\ \text { Identifier } \end{gathered}$ | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 3 \mathrm{rd} \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Average } \\ & \text { (log2 FCh) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 254629_at | AT4G18425 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 4,918 | 5,124 | 4,910 | 4,984 |
| 254648_at | AT4G18550 | lipase class 3 family protein | 1,881 | 1,709 | 1,534 | 1,708 |
| 254608_at | AT4G18910 | NIP1;2/NLM2 (NOD26-like intrinsic protein 1;2); water channel | 1,320 | 1,460 | 0,809 | 1,196 |
| 254597_at | AT4G18980 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 2,343 | 2,038 | 1,695 | 2,025 |
| 254543_at | AT4G19810 | glycosyl hydrolase family 18 protein | 4,103 | 4,115 | 3,702 | 3,973 |
| 254346_at | AT4G21980 | APG8A (autophagy 8A) | 1,070 | 1,045 | 1,565 | 1,227 |
| 254299_at | AT4G22920 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 2,401 | 2,767 | 2,319 | 2,496 |
| 254101_at | AT4G25000 | AMY1 (ALPHA-AMYLASE-LIKE); alpha-amylase | 1,322 | 1,396 | 1,753 | 1,490 |
| 254020_at | AT4G25700 | BETA-OHASE 1 (BETA-HYDROXYLASE 1); beta-carotene hydroxylase | 1,478 | 1,556 | 1,314 | 1,449 |
| 253963_at | AT4G26470 | calcium ion binding | 1,380 | 1,223 | 0,518 | 1,040 |
| 253915_at | AT4G27280 | calcium-binding EF hand family protein | 1,270 | 1,080 | 1,802 | 1,384 |
| 253676_at | AT4G29570 | cytidine deaminase, putative / cytidine aminohydrolase, putative | 1,209 | 1,455 | 1,459 | 1,374 |
| 253582_at | AT4G30670 | unknown protein | 2,349 | 2,727 | 3,342 | 2,806 |
| 253289_at | AT4G34320 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 3,131 | 3,177 | 2,649 | 2,986 |
| 253228_at | AT4G34630 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,039 | 1,009 | 1,039 | 1,029 |
| 252908_at | AT4G39670 | similar to ACD11 (ACCELERATED CELL DEATH 11) [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,086 | 0,974 | 0,978 | 1,013 |
| 251084_at | AT5G01520 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 0,653 | 1,198 | 1,361 | 1,070 |
| 251060_at | AT5G01820 | ATSR1 (SERINE/THREONINE PROTEIN KINASE 1); kinase | 1,451 | 1,659 | 1,329 | 1,480 |
| 251019_at | AT5G02420 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,378 | 1,022 | 1,602 | 1,334 |
| 245697_at | AT5G04200 | latex-abundant protein, putative (AMC9) / caspase family protein | 3,403 | 3,523 | 2,576 | 3,168 |
| 245705_at | AT5G04390 | zinc finger ( C 2 H 2 type ) family protein | 2,663 | 2,303 | 1,986 | 2,317 |
| 250639_at | AT5G07560 | GRP20 (Glycine rich protein 20); nutrient reservoir | 2,106 | 2,573 | 1,620 | 2,100 |
| 250535_at | AT5G08480 | VQ motif-containing protein | 2,455 | 2,153 | 1,936 | 2,181 |
| 245982_at | AT5G13170 | nodulin MtN3 family protein (SAG29) | 4,031 | 4,708 | 4,908 | 4,549 |
| 245987_at | AT5G13180* | VNI2/ANAC083 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 83); transcription factor | 2,294 | 2,071 | 1,991 | 2,119 |
| 250213_at | AT5G13820 | TBP1 (TELOMERIC DNA BINDING PROTEIN 1); DNA binding | 1,180 | 0,821 | 1,150 | 1,050 |
| 250208_at | AT5G14000 | ANAC084 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 84); transcription factor | 1,493 | 1,646 | 2,075 | 1,738 |


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { AGI } \\ \text { Identifier } \end{gathered}$ | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | 3rd (Est/Mock) | (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Average } \\ \text { (log2 FCh) } \end{gathered}$ |
| 250177_at | AT5G14420 | copine-related | 1,751 | 1,421 | 1,354 | 1,509 |
| 246481_s_at | AT5G15960 | [AT5G15960, KIN1];[AT5G15970, KIN2 (COLD-RESPONSIVE 6.6)] | 1,417 | 0,971 | 2,543 | 1,644 |
| 250100_at | AT5G16570 | GLN1;4 (Glutamine synthetase 1;4); glutamate-ammonia ligase | 1,344 | 1,009 | 1,305 | 1,219 |
| 246429_at | AT5G17450 | heavy-metal-associated domain-containing protein / copper chaperone (CCH)-related | 1,054 | 0,741 | 1,513 | 1,103 |
| 249999_at | AT5G18640 | lipase class 3 family protein | 1,623 | 1,652 | 1,256 | 1,510 |
| 249794_at | AT5G23530 | similar to ATGID1C/GID1C (GA INSENSITIVE DWARF1C) [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,946 | 1,406 | 1,442 | 1,598 |
| 249797_at | AT5G23750 | remorin family protein | 1,260 | 1,507 | 1,185 | 1,318 |
| 249750_at | AT5G24570 | unknown protein | 0,570 | 0,497 | 1,995 | 1,021 |
| 246912_at | AT5G25820 | exostosin family protein | 1,588 | 1,268 | 0,884 | 1,247 |
| 246799_at | AT5G26940 | exonuclease family protein | 2,452 | 2,193 | 1,926 | 2,190 |
| 249518_at | AT5G38610 | invertase/pectin methylesterase inhibitor family protein | 1,295 | 1,288 | 0,992 | 1,192 |
| 249527_at | AT5G38710 | proline oxidase, putative / osmotic stress-responsive proline dehydrogenase, putative | 1,560 | 1,498 | 1,224 | 1,427 |
| 249454_at | AT5G39520 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 3,909 | 4,386 | 4,319 | 4,205 |
| 249377_at | AT5G40690 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 3,338 | 3,727 | 3,297 | 3,454 |
| 249195_s_at | AT5G42500 | [AT5G42500, disease resistance-responsive family protein] | 1,288 | 1,524 | 1,853 | 1,555 |
| 249178_at | AT5G42890 | sterol carrier protein 2 (SCP-2) family protein | 1,470 | 1,571 | 0,991 | 1,344 |
| 249187_at | AT5G43060 | cysteine proteinase, putative / thiol protease, putative | 0,631 | 0,707 | 1,751 | 1,030 |
| 248959_at | AT5G45630 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,458 | 1,541 | 1,259 | 1,419 |
| 248565_at | AT5G49710 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 1,459 | 1,558 | 0,998 | 1,338 |
| 248545_at | AT5G50260 | cysteine proteinase, putative | 1,224 | 0,918 | 1,088 | 1,077 |
| 248440_at | AT5G51260 | acid phosphatase, putative | 2,007 | 2,558 | 3,121 | 2,562 |
| 248168_at | AT5G54570 | glycosyl hydrolase family 1 protein | 1,038 | 1,137 | 1,051 | 1,075 |
| 248115_at | AT5G54870 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 2,358 | 1,542 | 1,646 | 1,849 |
| 248118_at | AT5G55050 | GDSL-motif lipase/hydrolase family protein | 1,239 | 1,258 | 0,818 | 1,105 |
| 247965_at | AT5G56540 | AGP14 (ARABINOGALACTAN PROTEIN 14) | 1,572 | 1,398 | 0,465 | 1,145 |
| 247933_at | AT5G56980 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 3,972 | 4,086 | 4,306 | 4,121 |
| 247699_at | AT5G59840 | Ras-related GTP-binding family protein | 2,574 | 2,194 | 1,598 | 2,122 |


| Affymetrix <br> ID | AGI <br> Identifier |  | 1st replicate <br> (Est/Mock) | 2nd <br> (Est/Mock) | 3rd <br> (Est/Mock) | (Est/Mock) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | AGI Identifier | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { 3rd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | log2 FCh | log2 FCh | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Average } \\ & \text { (log2 FCh) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 245193_at | AT1G67810 | Fe-S metabolism associated domain-containing protein | -1,269 | -1,691 | -0,942 | -1,300 |
| 264339_at | AT1G70290 | ATTPS8 (Arabidopsis thaliana trehalose phosphatase/synthase 8); transferase, transferring glycosyl groups | -1,638 | -1,689 | -0,976 | -1,434 |
| 260205_at | AT1G70700 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | -1,124 | -1,483 | -0,707 | -1,105 |
| 256337_at | AT1G72070 | [AT1G72070, DNAJ heat shock N-terminal domain-containing protein];[AT1G72060, serine-type endopeptidase inhibitor] | -1,469 | -2,031 | -0,059 | -1,186 |
| 259879_at | AT1G76650 | calcium-binding EF hand family protein | -1,492 | -1,374 | -0,611 | -1,159 |
| 264953_at | AT1G77120 | ADH1 (ALCOHOL DEHYDROGENASE 1); alcohol dehydrogenase | -1,118 | -1,130 | -1,267 | -1,172 |
| 260287_at | AT1G80440 | kelch repeat-containing F-box family protein | -1,191 | -1,093 | -0,892 | -1,059 |
| 264042_at | AT2G03760 | ST (steroid sulfotransferase); sulfotransferase | -1,211 | -1,256 | -1,225 | -1,231 |
| 263403_at | AT2G04040 | ATDTX1; antiporter/ multidrug efflux pump/ multidrug transporter/ transporter | -1,448 | -1,340 | -1,808 | -1,532 |
| 263402_at | AT2G04050 | MATE efflux family protein | -1,003 | -0,946 | -1,423 | -1,124 |
| 265536_at | AT2G15880 | leucine-rich repeat family protein / extensin family protein | -1,351 | -1,725 | -0,238 | -1,105 |
| 265478_at | AT2G15890 | MEE14 (maternal effect embryo arrest 14) | -1,917 | -1,998 | -0,828 | -1,581 |
| 263096_at | AT2G16060 | AHB1 (ARABIDOPSIS HEMOGLOBIN 1) | -1,301 | -1,346 | -0,413 | -1,020 |
| 263061_at | AT2G18190 | AAA-type ATPase family protein | -0,849 | -1,045 | -1,151 | -1,015 |
| 266072_at | AT2G18700 | ATTPS11 (Arabidopsis thaliana trehalose phosphatase/synthase 11); transferase, transferring glycosyl groups | -1,274 | -1,174 | -0,654 | -1,034 |
| 265428_at | AT2G20720 | pentatricopeptide (PPR) repeat-containing protein | -0,913 | -1,297 | -1,180 | -1,130 |
| 257365_x_at | AT2G26020 | PDF1.2b (plant defensin 1.2b) | -1,587 | -2,190 | 0,776 | -1,000 |
| 263443_at | AT2G28630 | beta-ketoacyl-CoA synthase family protein | -0,966 | -0,892 | -1,360 | -1,072 |
| 266265_at | AT2G29340 | short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR) family protein | -1,213 | -1,889 | -0,331 | -1,144 |
| 265200_s_at | AT2G36800 | [AT2G36800, DOGT1 (DON-GLUCOSYLTRANSFERASE); UDP-glycosyltransferase/ transferase, transferring glycosyl groups] | -1,782 | -1,751 | -1,628 | -1,720 |
| 258856_at | AT3G02040 | SRG3 (SENESCENCE-RELATED GENE 3); glycerophosphodiester phosphodiesterase | -2,139 | -1,166 | -0,413 | -1,240 |
| 258487_at | AT3G02550 | LOB domain protein 41 / lateral organ boundaries domain protein 41 (LBD41) | -1,291 | -1,454 | -1,162 | -1,303 |
| 259017_at | AT3G07310 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | -1,272 | -1,661 | -1,135 | -1,356 |
| 258930_at | AT3G10040 | transcription factor | -1,595 | -1,601 | -1,781 | -1,659 |
| 256252_at | AT3G11340 | UDP-glucoronosy/UDP-glucosyl transferase family protein | -0,987 | -1,001 | -1,822 | -1,270 |
| 258402_at | AT3G15450 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | -2,184 | -1,887 | -0,057 | -1,376 |


| Affymetrix <br> ID | AGI <br> Identifier |  | 2st replicate <br> (Est/Mock) | 2nd <br> (Est/Mock) | (Est/Mock) | (Est/Mock) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Affymetrix } \\ & \text { ID } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { AGI } \\ \text { Identifier } \end{gathered}$ | Description | 1st replicate (Est/Mock) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2nd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { 3rd } \\ \text { (Est/Mock) } \end{gathered}$ | (Est/Mock) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\log 2 \mathrm{FCh}$ | log2 FCh | log2 FCh | Average (log2 FCh) |
| 248040_at | AT5G55970 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | -1,077 | -1,332 | -0,693 | -1,034 |
| 247949_at | AT5G57220 | CYP81F2 (cytochrome P450, family 81, subfamily F, polypeptide 2); oxygen binding | -1,531 | -1,476 | -1,616 | -1,541 |
| 247924_at | AT5G57655 | xylose isomerase family protein | -0,972 | -1,663 | -0,515 | -1,050 |
| 247524_at | AT5G61440 | thioredoxin family protein | -1,496 | -2,079 | -0,131 | -1,235 |
| 247431_at | AT5G62520 | SRO5 (SIMLAR TO RCD ONE 5); NAD + ADP-ribosyltransferase | -1,870 | -2,073 | -1,297 | -1,747 |
| 247297_at | AT5G64100 | peroxidase, putative | -1,340 | -0,417 | -1,550 | -1,102 |
| 247024_at | AT5G66985 | unknown protein | -2,208 | -2,107 | 0,054 | -1,420 |
| 247026_at | AT5G67080 | MAPKKK19 (Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 19); kinase | -1,542 | -0,628 | -1,237 | -1,136 |

## Annex 5

Expression of 643 up-regulated and 188 down-regulated genes (two-fold cut-off) upon transient overexpression of ORE1 in mesophyll cell protoplast (ATH1 Affymetrix Array). Data are means of two replicates. Bold letters indicate the selected putative ORE1 targets. (*) Transcription factors.

| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT5G39610* | ORE1/ANAC092/ATNAC2/ATNAC6 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 92) | 249467_at | 3,646 |
| AT2G26480 | UDP-glucoronosy/UDP-glucosyl transferase family protein | 245056_at | 3,808 |
| AT1G01240 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 261026_at | 2,299 |
| AT1G02000 | GAE2 (UDP-D-GLUCURONATE 4-EPIMERASE 2); catalytic | 261624_at | 1,438 |
| AT1G02470* | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 260933_at | 1,736 |
| AT1G02640 | BXL2 (BETA-XYLOSIDASE 2); hydrolase, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl compounds | 260914_at | 1,272 |
| AT1G02660 | lipase class 3 family protein | 260915_at | 3,677 |
| AT1G02670 | DNA repair protein, putative | 260909_at | 1,108 |
| AT1G02860 | SPX (SYG1/Pho81/XPR1) domain-containing protein / zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) protein-related | 262114_at | 1,954 |
| AT1G03610 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 264836_at | 1,796 |
| AT1G03660 | similar to ankyrin repeat family protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 264832_at | 1,467 |
| AT1G03990 | alcohol oxidase-related | 265099_at | 2,593 |
| AT1G04090 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 264320_at | 2,487 |
| AT1G04160 | XIB (Myosin-like protein XIB) | 264324_at | 1,826 |
| AT1G05100 | MAPKKK18 (Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 18); kinase | 265216_at | 1,681 |
| AT1G05120 | SNF2 domain-containing protein / helicase domain-containing protein / RING finger domain-containing protein | 265191_at | 1,465 |
| AT1G05450 | protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transfer protein (LTP)-related | 261385_at | 3,894 |
| AT1G05790 | lipase class 3 family protein | 261312_at | 1,022 |
| AT1G06520 | ATGPAT1/GPAT1 (GLYCEROL-3-PHOSPHATE ACYLTRANSFERASE 1); 1-acylglycerol-3-phosphate O-acyltransferase/ acyltransferase | 262630_at | 1,730 |
| AT1G07590 | pentatricopeptide (PPR) repeat-containing protein | 261088_at | 2,051 |
| AT1G07610 | MT1C (metallothionein 1C) | 261410_at | 1,853 |
| AT1G08320 | bZIP family transcription factor | 261815_at | 1,126 |
| AT1G08340 | rac GTPase activating protein, putative | 261809_at | 1,388 |
| AT1G08920 | sugar transporter, putative | 264652_at | 3,170 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT1G09240 | nicotianamine synthase, putative | 264261_at | 3,989 |
| AT1G09380 | integral membrane family protein / nodulin MtN21-related | 264505_at | 7,756 |
| AT1G09390 | GDSL-motif lipase/hydrolase family protein | 264501_at | 1,438 |
| AT1G09560 | GLP5 (GERMIN-LIKE PROTEIN 5); manganese ion binding / metal ion binding / nutrient reservoir | 264506_at | 1,024 |
| AT1G11090 | hydrolase, alpha/beta fold family protein | 260474_at | 1,426 |
| AT1G11170 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana], similar to putative lysine ketoglutarate reductase trans-splicing related 1 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] | 262478_at | 4,418 |
| AT1G11190 | BFN1 (BIFUNCTIONAL NUCLEASE I); nucleic acid binding | 262454_at | 10,026 |
| AT1G12320 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 259520_at | 1,220 |
| AT1G12430 | PAK (PHOSPHATIDIC ACID KINASE); microtubule motor | 259513_at | 1,285 |
| AT1G12450 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G22850.1); | 259530_at | 3,257 |
| AT1G12640 | membrane bound O -acyl transferase (MBOAT) family protein | 255928_at | 1,544 |
| AT1G13080 | CYP71B2 (CYTOCHROME P450 71B2); oxygen binding | 262826_at | 4,332 |
| AT1G13110 | CYP71B7 (cytochrome P450, family 71, subfamily B, polypeptide 7); oxygen binding | 262793_at | 1,423 |
| AT1G13130 | glycosyl hydrolase family 5 protein / cellulase family protein | 262795_at | 3,840 |
| ATIG13470 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 259385_at | 1,346 |
| AT1G14260 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 261481_at | 2,982 |
| AT1G14530 | (TOM THREE HOMOLOG); virion binding | 261482_at | 1,776 |
| AT1G14780 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G24290.2); simila to Membrane attack complex component/perforin/complement C9 | 262887_at | 2,337 |
| AT1G15380 | lactoylglutathione lyase family protein / glyoxalase I family protein | 262603_at | 2,579 |
| AT1G15740 | leucine-rich repeat family protein | 259500_at | 1,414 |
| AT1G16130 | WAKL2 (WALL ASSOCIATED KINASE-LIKE 2); kinase | 257478_at | 1,283 |
| AT1G16310 | cation efflux family protein | 262751_at | 1,114 |
| AT1G16680 | DNAJ heat shock N -terminal domain-containing protein / S-locus protein, putative | 246322_at | 1,379 |
| AT1G17020 | SRG1 (SENESCENCE-RELATED GENE 1); oxidoreductase | 262482_at | 1,134 |
| AT1G17310 | MADS-box protein (AGL100) | 260845_at | 6,996 |
| AT1G17580 | MYA1 (ARABIDOPSIS MYOSIN); motor/ protein binding | 260711_at | 1,361 |
| AT1G18470 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 261677_at | 1,372 |
| AT1G18730 | similar to Os02g0744000 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001048099.1) | 261422_at | 3,262 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT1G18980 | germin-like protein, putative | 259478_at | 1,640 |
| AT1G19700 | BEL10 (BEL1-LIKE HOMEODOMAIN 10); DNA binding / transcription factor | 261139_at | 1,163 |
| AT1G19970 | ER lumen protein retaining receptor family protein | 261220_at | 2,579 |
| AT1G20180 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] ; similar to Protein of unknown function DUF677 [Medicago truncatula] | 261243_at | 7,349 |
| AT1G21140 | nodulin, putative | 261448_at | 2,906 |
| AT1G21370 | similar to H0315A08.13 [Oryza sativa (indica cultivar-group)] (GB:CAH67583.1) | 260899_at | 1,236 |
| AT1G21440 | mutase family protein | 260902_at | 3,050 |
| AT1G21780 | BTB/POZ domain-containing protein | 262495_at | 1,477 |
| AT1G21790 | similar to Os01g0869600 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] | 262496_at | 2,535 |
| AT1G22570 | proton-dependent oligopeptide transport (POT) family protein | 261937_at | 1,173 |
| AT1G22990 | heavy-metal-associated domain-containing protein / copper chaperone (CCH)-related | 264729_at | 1,381 |
| AT1G23060 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G70950.1); similar to Targeting for Xklp2 [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE84619.1) | 264902_at | 2,554 |
| AT1G23330 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 263010_at | 2,321 |
| AT1G23560 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 265186_at | 3,064 |
| AT1G23610 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 265165_at | 1,443 |
| AT1G23630 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G23660.1) | 265177_at | 4,438 |
| AT1G24430 | transferase family protein | 265014_at | 8,147 |
| AT1G24440 | protein binding / zinc ion binding | 265023_at | 1,051 |
| AT1G26230 | chaperonin, putative | 245876_at | 1,956 |
| AT1G26390 | FAD-binding domain-containing protein | 261020_at | 1,146 |
| AT1G26560 | glycosyl hydrolase family 1 protein | 261016_at | 5,356 |
| AT1G26730 | EXS family protein / ERD1/XPR1/SYG1 family protein | 261261_at | 2,505 |
| AT1G26820 | RNS3 (RIBONUCLEASE 3); endoribonuclease | 263689_at | 10,553 |
| AT1G26920 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G69760.1); similar to hypothetical protein [Ricinus communis] (GB:CAH56540.1) | 263688_at | 2,519 |
| AT1G27980 | pyridoxal-dependent decarboxylase family protein | 259598_at | 1,075 |
| AT1G28260 | binding | 245659_at | 2,380 |
| AT1G28470* | ANAC010 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 10); transcription factor | 261441_at | 4,021 |
| AT1G28660 | [AT1G28660, lipase, putative];[AT1G28670, ARAB-1 (Arabidopsis lipase); carboxylic ester hydrolase] | 262733_s_at | 4,391 |
| AT1G29160 | Dof-type zinc finger domain-containing protein | 260887_at | 5,902 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT1G30900 | vacuolar sorting receptor, putative | 265161_at | 2,041 |
| AT1G31290 | PAZ domain-containing protein / piwi domain-containing protein | 262549_at | 5,018 |
| AT1G32080 | membrane protein, putative | 255719_at | 1,239 |
| AT1G32090 | early-responsive to dehydration protein-related / ERD protein-related | 245789_at | 1,304 |
| AT1G32200 | ATS1 (ACYLTRANSFERASE 1) | 245790_at | 3,334 |
| AT1G34340 | esterase/lipase/thioesterase family protein | 262561_at | 2,588 |
| AT1G34750 | protein phosphatase 2C, putative / PP2C, putative | 262408_at | 1,712 |
| AT1G35666 |  | 262670_s_at | 3,757 |
| AT1G36640 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 256499_at | 1,654 |
| AT1G45145 | ATTRX5 (thioredoxin H -type 5); thiol-disulfide exchange intermediate | 260943_at | 1,415 |
| AT1G45180 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 260939_at | 1,133 |
| AT1G46768 | RAP2.1 (related to AP2 1); DNA binding / transcription factor | 245807_at | 2,355 |
| AT1G48260 | CIPK17 (CIPK17); kinase | 262244_at | 4,437 |
| AT1G48560 | similar to PWWP domain-containing protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 261300_at | 1,035 |
| AT1G48750 | [AT1G48750, protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transter protein (LTP) family protein] | 256145_at | 1,132 |
| AT1G49740 | phospholipase C | 261609_at | 1,234 |
| AT1G50420 | SCL3 (SCARECROW-LIKE 3); transcription factor | 261866_at | 1,113 |
| AT1G50630 | extracellular ligand-gated ion channel | 261863_at | 1,396 |
| AT1G51830 | ATP binding / kinase/ protein serine/threonine kinase | 246375_at | 1,313 |
| AT1G52540 | protein kinase, putative | 262158_at | 1,000 |
| AT1G52720 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 262159_at | 1,582 |
| AT1G52910 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 260151_at | 1,147 |
| AT1G53100 | acetylglucosaminyltransferase | 261366_at | 5,614 |
| AT1G53500 | MUM4 (MUCILAGE-MODIFIED 4); catalytic | 260985_at | 1,053 |
| AT1G53580 | ETHE1/GLX2-3 (GLYOXALASE 2-3); hydroxyacylglutathione hydrolase | 260986_at | 1,041 |
| AT1G53730 | leucine-rich repeat transmembrane protein kinase, putative | 259958_at | 2,061 |
| AT1G54130 | RSH3 (RELA/SPOT HOMOLOG 3); catalytic | 263159_at | 1,083 |
| AT1G54290 | eukaryotic translation initiation factor SUI1, putative | 262959_at | 1,211 |
| AT1G54410 | dehydrin family protein | 262958_at | 2,170 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT1G54740 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 264238_at | 1,212 |
| AT1G55120 | ATFRUCT5 (BETA-FRUCTOFURANOSIDASE 5); hydrolase, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl compounds / levanase | 256150_at | 1,148 |
| AT1G55240 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 259653_at | 3,302 |
| AT1G55265 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 259661_at | 2,137 |
| AT1G55690 | SEC14 cytosolic factor family protein / phosphoglyceride transfer family protein | 264535_at | 1,239 |
| AT1G55740 | ATSIP1 (ARABIDOPSIS THALIANA SEED IMBIBITION 1); hydrolase, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl compounds | 264532_at | 6,484 |
| AT1G55760 | BTB/POZ domain-containing protein | 264562_at | 2,810 |
| AT1G55960 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 260603_at | 1,366 |
| AT1G60960 | IRT3 (Iron regulated transporter 3); cation transporter/ metal ion transporter | 259723_at | 2,021 |
| AT1G62040 | ATG8C (AUTOPHAGY 8C); microtubule binding | 264285_at | 1,145 |
| AT1G62620 | [AT1G62620, flavin-containing monooxygenase family protein / FMO family protein] | 265108_s_at | 2,347 |
| AT1G62660 | beta-fructosidase (BFRUCT3) / beta-fructofuranosidase / invertase, vacuolar | 265118_at | 2,456 |
| AT1G62750 | ATSCO1/ATSCO1/CPEF-G (SNOWY COTYLEDON1); translation elongation factor/translation factor, nucleic acid binding | 262645_at | 1,347 |
| AT1G62760 | invertase/pectin methylesterase inhibitor family protein | 262640_at | 5,534 |
| AT1G63260 | TET10 (TETRASPANIN10) | 260109_at | 5,108 |
| AT1G63640 | kinesin motor protein-related | 261557_at | 1,106 |
| AT1G63690 | protease-associated (PA) domain-containing protein | 260271_at | 1,404 |
| AT1G64380 | AP2 domain-containing transcription factor, putative | 259793_at | 3,425 |
| AT1G64930 | CYP89A7 (cytochrome P450, family 87, subfamily A, polypeptide 7); oxygen binding | 262865_at | 2,807 |
| AT1G65500 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 264635_at | 2,038 |
| AT1G65510 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 264680_at | 1,424 |
| AT1G65670 | CYP702A1 (CYTOCHROME P450, FAMILY 702, SUBFAMLLY A, POLYPEPTIDE 1); oxygen binding | 264634_at | 1,250 |
| AT1G66400 | calmodulin-related protein, putative | 260135_at | 1,804 |
| AT1G67000 | kinase | 255879_at | 1,701 |
| AT1G67410 | exostosin family protein | 265000_at | 1,331 |
| AT1G67420 | peptidase | 264225_at | 1,716 |
| AT1G67960 | similar to hypothetical protein [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] | 259993_at | 1,254 |
| AT1G68110 | epsin N -terminal homology (ENTH) domain-containing protein / clathrin assembly protein-related | 260011_at | 1,015 |
| AT1G68450 | VQ motif-containing protein | 260261_at | 1,202 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT1G68760 | ATNUDT1 (Arabidopsis thaliana Nudix hydrolase homolog 1); dihydroneopterin triphosphate pyrophosphohydrolase/ hydrolase | 260033_at | 2,651 |
| AT1G68765 | IDA (INFLORESCENCE DEFICIENT IN ABSCISSION) | 260040_at | 1,781 |
| AT1G69030 | similar to BSD domain-containing protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 259642_at | 2,267 |
| AT1G69050 | unknown protein | 259370_at | 1,311 |
| AT1G69490 | NAP (NAC-LIKE, ACTIVATED BY AP3/PI); transcription factor | 256300_at | 1,198 |
| AT1G69680 | similar to mog1 protein [Xenopus laevis] (GB:CAC35704.1) | 260397_at | 1,198 |
| AT1G70330 | ENT1,AT (EQUILIBRATIVE NUCLEOTIDE TRANSPORTER 1); nucleoside transporter | 264316_at | 1,395 |
| AT1G70370 | BURP domain-containing protein / polygalacturonase, putative | 264315_at | 2,910 |
| AT1G70670 | [AT1G70670, caleosin-related family protein] | 260208_s_at | 8,411 |
| AT1G70690 | kinase-related | 260179_at | 1,747 |
| AT1G71530 | protein kinase family protein | 259947_at | 1,235 |
| AT1G71940 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 260174_at | 1,023 |
| AT1G72700 | haloacid dehalogenase-like hydrolase family protein | 259910_at | 1,129 |
| AT1G72790 | hydroxyproline-rich glycoprotein family protein | 259915_at | 5,559 |
| AT1G72990 | glycosyl hydrolase family 35 protein | 262351_at | 2,493 |
| AT1G73000 | similar to Betv I allergen family protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT2G26040.1) | 262356_at | 7,860 |
| AT1G73220 | sugar transporter family protein | 260097_at | 2,376 |
| AT1G73655 | immunophilin / FKBP-type peptidyl-proly cis-trans isomerase family protein | 260044_at | 1,771 |
| AT1G73680 | pathogen-responsive alpha-dioxygenase, putative | 260060_at | 1,150 |
| AT1G73750 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 260048_at | 2,928 |
| AT1G74000 | SS3 (STRICTOSIDINE SYNTHASE 3) | 260335_at | 2,714 |
| AT1G74010 | strictosidine synthase family protein | 260386_at | 1,303 |
| AT1G74210 | glycerophosphory diester phosphodiesterase family protein | 260254_at | 2,442 |
| AT1G74440 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 260211_at | 1,103 |
| AT1G75210 | 5' nucleotidase family protein | 256504_at | 1,128 |
| AT1G75450 | CKX5 (CYTOKININ OXIDASE 5); cytokinin dehydrogenase | 261109_at | 2,013 |
| AT1G76040 | CPK29 (calcium-dependent protein kinase 29); calcium- and calmodulin-dependent protein kinase/ kinase | 262671_at | 4,313 |
| AT1G76240 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 261772_at | 1,437 |
| AT1G77000 | ATSKP2;2 (ARABIDOPSIS HOMOLOG OF HOMOLOG OF HUMAN SKP2 2); ubiquitin-protein ligase | 264957_at | 2,093 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT1G77150 | [AT1G77150, similar to pentatricopeptide (PPR) repeat-containing protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G77170.1 | 264475_s_at | 2,196 |
| AT1G77890 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 262183_at | 1,859 |
| AT1G78050 | phosphoglycerate/bisphosphoglycerate mutase family protein | 262180_at | 3,518 |
| AT1G78290 | serine/threonine protein kinase, putative | 260774_at | 1,169 |
| AT1G78320 | ATGSTU23 (Arabidopsis thaliana Glutathione S-transferase (class tau) 23); glutathione transferase | 260805_at | 1,116 |
| AT1G78340 | ATGSTU22 (Arabidopsis thaliana Glutathione S-transferase (class tau) 22); glutathione transferase | 260803_at | 2,643 |
| AT1G78850 | [AT1G78850, curculin-like (mannose-binding) lectin family protein];[AT1G78860, curculin-like (mannose-binding) lectin family protein] | 264299_s_at | 2,165 |
| AT1G79320 | latex abundant protein, putative (AMC5) / caspase family protein | 264144_at | 5,672 |
| AT1G79330 | AMC6/ATMCP2B (TYPE-II METACASPASES); caspase/ cysteine-type endopeptidase | 264143_at | 2,474 |
| AT1G79380 | copine-related | 262919_at | 1,214 |
| AT1G79520 | cation efflux family protein | 262940_at | 2,787 |
| AT1G79900 | ATMBAC2/BAC2 (Arabidopsis mitochondrial basic amino acid carrier 2); L-ornithine transporter/ binding / carnitine:acyl carnitine antiporter | 260163_at | 1,204 |
| AT1G79910 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 260158_at | 1,348 |
| AT1G80450 | VQ motif-containing protein | 260276_at | 1,642 |
| AT1G80900 | magnesium transporter CorA-like family protein (MGT1) (MRS2) | 261894_at | 3,046 |
| AT1G80940 | similar to predicted protein [Populus alba x Populus tremula] (GB:AAR14272.1); contains domain MAPKK-RELATED SERINETHREONINE PROTEIN KINASES (PTHR22986) | 261900_at | 1,979 |
| AT2G01460 | MAPKK-RELATED SERINE/THREONINE PROTEIN KINASES (PTHR22986) | 266349_at | 2,524 |
| AT2G01880 | ATPAP7/PAP7 (purple acid phosphatase 7); acid phosphatase/ protein serine/threonine phosphatase | 263594_at | 1,351 |
| AT2G01890 | PAP8 (PURPLE ACID PHOSPHATASE PRECURSOR); acid phosphatase/ protein serine/threonine phosphatase | 263595_at | 1,527 |
| AT2G02300 | ATPP2-B5 (Phloem protein 2-B5) | 266179_at | 3,171 |
| AT2G02310 | ATPP2-B6 (Phloem protein 2-B6) | 266232_at | 2,793 |
| AT2G03360 | similar to serine carboxypeptidase [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 265711_at | 1,282 |
| AT2G03760 | ST (steroid sulfotransferase); sulfotransferase | 264042_at | 1,801 |
| AT2G03850 | late embryogenesis abundant domain-containing protein / LEA domain-containing protein | 263363_at | 1,673 |
| AT2G05910 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 266021_at | 2,801 |
| AT2G14095 | similar to Peptidase $\mathrm{A} 11 \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{Ty} 1 \mathrm{~A}$ and B [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE93074.1) | 263282_at | 8,565 |
| AT2G14110 | similar to HAD-superfamily phosphatase subfamily IIIC; TonB box, N-terminal [Medicago truncatula] | 263277_at | 1,117 |
| AT2G14560 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 265837_at | 3,216 |
| AT2G14620 | xyloglucan:xyloglucosyl transferase, putative / xyloglucan endotransglycosylase, putative / endo-xyloglucan transferase, putative | 266376_at | 3,067 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT2G15120 | [AT2G15220, secretory protein, putative] | 265920_s_at | 2,358 |
| AT2G15230 | ATLIP1 (ARABIDOPSIS THALIANA LIPASE 1); galactolipase/ hydrolase/ phospholipase/ triacylglycerol lipase | 263359_at | 3,162 |
| AT2G15320 | leucine-rich repeat family protein | 263330_at | 1,098 |
| AT2G15830 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G33960.1) | 265539_at | 4,469 |
| AT2G16530 | [AT2G16530, 3 -oxo-5-alpha-steroid 4-dehydrogenase family protein / steroid 5-alpha-reductase family protein] | 263240_s_at | 2,110 |
| AT2G16660 | nodulin family protein | 265414_at | 2,802 |
| AT2G16990 | tetracycline transporter | 263574_at | 4,143 |
| AT2G17265 | HSK (HOMOSERINE KINASE); homoserine kinase | 264855_at | 1,332 |
| AT2G17710 | similar to Os04g0560700 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001053549.1) | 264590_at | 3,024 |
| AT2G18490 | zinc finger ( C 2 H 2 type ) family protein | 265921_at | 2,059 |
| AT2G19560 | proteasome protein-related | 265934_at | 1,012 |
| AT2G19570 | CDA1 (CYTIDINE DEAMINASE 1) | 265943_at | 2,351 |
| AT2G20030 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 265582_at | 4,005 |
| AT2G20290 | XIG (Myosin-like protein XIG); motor/ protein binding | 265309_at | 3,526 |
| AT2G21380 | kinesin motor protein-related | 263762_at | 1,020 |
| AT2G22560 | kinase interacting protein-related | 264053_at | 1,626 |
| AT2G22830 | squalene monooxygenase, putative / squalene epoxidase, putative | 266831_at | 1,401 |
| AT2G23110 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 267263_at | 2,363 |
| AT2G23380 | CLF (CURLY LEAF); transcription factor | 267129_at | 1,390 |
| AT2G23800 | GGPS2 (GERANYLGERANYL PYROPHOSPHATE SYNTHASE 2); farnesyltranstransferase | 267295_at | 5,521 |
| AT2G23960 | defense-related protein, putative | 266561_at | 1,572 |
| AT2G24040 | hydrophobic protein, putative / low temperature and salt responsive protein, putative | 266566_at | 1,727 |
| AT2G24762 | similar to GDU1 (GLUTAMINE DUMPER 1) [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G31730.1) | 263318_at | 4,818 |
| AT2G25460 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 265618_at | 1,031 |
| AT2G25680 | sulfate transporter | 265897_at | 1,103 |
| AT2G25940 | ALPHA-VPE (ALPHA-VACUOLAR PROCESSING ENZYME); cysteine-type endopeptidase | 266849_at | 6,853 |
| AT2G26340 | similar to expressed protein [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:ABF94264.1) | 267379_at | 1,189 |
| AT2G26670 | HY1 (HEME OXYGENASE 1) | 267617_at | 2,289 |
| AT2G27080 | harpin-induced protein-related / HIN1-related / harpin-responsive protein-related | 266316_at | 1,045 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT2G27920 | SCPL51; serine carboxypeptidase | 264071_at | 1,797 |
| AT2G28200* | nucleic acid binding / transcription factor/ zinc ion binding | 265573_at | 1,716 |
| AT2G28470 | BGAL8 (beta-glactosidase 8); beta-galactosidase | 264078_at | 2,770 |
| AT2G29410 | MTPB1; efflux permease/ zinc ion transporter | 266273_at | 2,952 |
| AT2G29980 | FAD3 (FATTY ACID DESATURASE 3); omega-3 fatty acid desaturase | 266865_at | 6,357 |
| AT2G29995 | unknown protein | 266808_at | 1,332 |
| AT2G30460 | similar to transporter-related [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 267520_at | 1,013 |
| AT2G30580 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 267467_at | 2,644 |
| AT2G31130 | similar to hypothetical protein MtrDRAFT_AC13523197v1 [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE82891.1) | 266480_at | 1,417 |
| AT2G31300 | [AT2G31300, ARPC1b (actin-related protein C1b); nucleotide binding] | 267194_s_at | 1,060 |
| AT2G31730 | ethylene-responsive protein, putative | 263467_at | 1,018 |
| AT2G31945 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 263475_at | 1,469 |
| AT2G31980 | cysteine proteinase inhibitor-related | 265672_at | 1,607 |
| AT2G31990 | exostosin family protein | 265728_at | 2,349 |
| AT2G32510 | MAPKKK17 (Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 17); kinase | 267058_at | 4,996 |
| AT2G32540 | [AT2G32540, ATCSLB04 (Cellulose synthase-like B4); transferase/ transferase, transferring glycosyl groups | 267115_s_at | 3,691 |
| AT2G32610 | ATCSLB01 (Cellulose synthase-like B1); transferase/ transferase, transferring glycosyl groups | 267119_at | 5,399 |
| AT2G32660 | disease resistance family protein / LRR family protein | 267548_at | 2,026 |
| AT2G32670 | ATVAMP725 (Arabidopsis thaliana vesicle-associated membrane protein 725 ) | 267547_at | 1,480 |
| AT2G32930 | ZFN2 (ZINC FINGER PROTEIN 2); nucleic acid binding | 267604_at | 1,116 |
| AT2G33360 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 255832_at | 2,042 |
| AT2G33480* | ANAC041 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 41); transcription factor | 255794_at | 4,447 |
| AT2G33830 | dormancy/auxin associated family protein | 267461_at | 2,317 |
| AT2G34340 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 267003_at | 2,203 |
| AT2G34790 | EDA28/MEE23 (embryo sac development arrest 28, maternal effect embryo arrest 23); electron carrier | 267414_at | 5,194 |
| AT2G35020 | UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase family protein | 267432_at | 1,214 |
| AT2G35700 | AP2 domain-containing transcription factor, putative | 265842_at | 1,812 |
| AT2G36590 | ProT3 (PROLINE TRANSPORTER 3); amino acid permease | 263918_at | 1,345 |
| AT2G36650 | similar to CHUP1 (CHLOROPLAST UNUSUAL POSITIONING 1) [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 265204_at | 1,324 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT2G37585 | glycosyltransferase family 14 protein / core-2/-branching enzyme family protein | 267170_at | 1,477 |
| AT2G38400 | AGT3 (ALANINE:GLYOXYLATE AMINOTRANSFERASE 3); alanine-glyoxylate transaminase | 267035_at | 1,841 |
| AT2G38465 | unknown protein | 267036_at | 1,624 |
| AT2G38480 | integral membrane protein, putative | 267038_at | 2,826 |
| AT2G38490 | CIPK22 (CBL-INTERACTING PROTEIN KINASE 22); kinase | 267032_at | 1,018 |
| AT2G38580 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 266405_at | 1,528 |
| AT2G38700 | MVD1 (mevalonate diphosphate decarboxylase 1) | 266414_at | 1,300 |
| AT2G38710 | AMMECR1 family | 266416_at | 1,388 |
| AT2G38760 | ANNAT3 (ANNEXIN 3, ANNEXIN ARABIDOPSIS 3); calcium ion binding / calcium-dependent phospholipid binding | 266419_at | 3,764 |
| AT2G39080 | similar to unnamed protein product [Ostreococcus tauri] (GB:CAL54696.1); similar to Os01g0367100 | 266192_at | 1,311 |
| AT2G39080 | similar to unnamed protein product [Ostreococcus tauri] (GB:CAL54696.1); | 266193_at | 1,400 |
| AT2G39710 | asparty protease family protein | 267592_at | 1,173 |
| AT2G39890 | ProT1 (PROLINE TRANSPORTER 1); amino acid permease | 267358_at | 3,763 |
| AT2G40110 | yippee family protein | 265720_at | 3,006 |
| AT2G40230 | transferase family protein | 263382_at | 3,993 |
| AT2G40670* | ARR16 (response regulator 16); transcription regulator/ two-component response regulator | 266078_at | 4,867 |
| AT2G41140 | CRK1 (CDPK-RELATED KINASE 1); calcium ion binding / calcium-dependent protein serine/threonine phosphatase/ kinase | 267082_at | 2,199 |
| AT2G41540 | GPDHC1; NAD binding / glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (NAD+) | 245112_at | 1,719 |
| AT2G41850 | endo-polygalacturonase, putative | 260492_at | 5,298 |
| AT2G42890 | AML2; RNA binding | 265266_at | 1,980 |
| AT2G42900 | similar to Os05g0582000 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001056435.1) | 265265_at | 5,146 |
| AT2G43230 | serine/threonine protein kinase, putative | 266453_at | 2,770 |
| AT2G43580 | chitinase, putative | 260561_at | 1,038 |
| AT2G44010 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] similar to conserved hypothetical protein [Medicago truncatula] | 267226_at | 1,358 |
| AT2G44255 | [AT2G44260, similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 267343_at | 7,525 |
| AT2G44370 | DC1 domain-containing protein | 267384_at | 1,607 |
| AT2G45580 | CYP76C3 (cytochrome P450, family 76, subfamily C, polypeptide 3); oxygen binding | 267560_at | 1,827 |
| AT2G45630 | oxidoreductase family protein | 267514_at | 1,156 |
| AT2G45950 | [AT2G45950, ASK20 (ARABIDOPSIS SKP1-LIKE 20); ubiquitin-protein ligase);[AT3G61415, ASK21 (ARABIDOPSIS SKP1-LIKE 21); ubiquitin-protein ligase] | 266922_s_at | 1,784 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT2G46030 | UBC6 (UBIQUITIN-CONJUGATING ENZYME 6); ubiquitin-protein ligase | 266604_at | 1,712 |
| AT2G46225 | ABILL1 (ABI-1-LIKE 1) | 266591_at | 4,559 |
| AT2G46710 | rac GTPase activating protein, putative | 266324_at | 1,765 |
| AT2G46950 | CYP709B2 (cytochrome P450, family 709, subfamily B, polypeptide 2); oxygen binding | 266756_at | 5,065 |
| AT2G47200 | unknown protein | 260582_at | 4,188 |
| AT2G47910 | CRR6 (CHLORORESPIRATORY REDUCTION 6) | 266483_at | 1,042 |
| AT2G47950 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT3G62990.1) | 266486_at | 1,803 |
| AT2G48040 | similar to Os01 g0388500 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001043105.1) | 265763_at | 1,209 |
| AT3G01080 | WRKY58 (WRKY DNA-binding protein 58); transcription factor | 259320_at | 2,372 |
| AT3G01470 | ATHB-1 (Homeobox-leucine zipper protein HAT5); transcription factor | 259165_at | 1,036 |
| AT3G02140 | TMAC2 (TWO OR MORE ABRES-CONTAINING GENE 2) | 259076_at | 1,281 |
| AT3G02290 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 259073_at | 1,408 |
| AT3G02480 | ABA-responsive protein-related | 258498_at | 1,134 |
| AT3G03530 | [AT3G03530, NPC4 (NONSPECIFIC PHOSPHOLIPASE C4); hydrolase, acting on ester bonds] | 259221_s_at | 5,720 |
| AT3G03610 | phagocytosis and cell motility protein ELMO1-related | 259198_at | 1,089 |
| AT3G03720 | CAT4 (CATIONIC AMINO ACID TRANSPORTER 4); cationic amino acid transporter | 259337_at | 1,282 |
| AT3G03910 | glutamate dehydrogenase, putative | 259346_at | 2,798 |
| AT3G05180 | GDSL-motif lipase/hydrolase family protein | 259308_at | 4,258 |
| AT3G05510 | phospholipid/glycerol acyltransferase family protein | 259113_at | 1,215 |
| AT3G05640 | protein phosphatase 2C, putative / PP2C, putative | 258901_at | 2,472 |
| AT3G06210 | binding | 257580_at | 6,042 |
| AT3G06580 | GAL1 (GALACTOSE KINASE 1); ATP binding / galactokinase | 258517_at | 1,279 |
| AT3G06850 | DIN3/LTA1 (DARK INDUCIBLE 3); alpha-ketoacid dehydrogenase | 258527_at | 1,145 |
| AT3G07320 | glycosyl hydrolase family 17 protein | 259014_at | 4,453 |
| AT3G07510 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 259023_at | 2,246 |
| AT3G07690 | glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (NAD+) | 259255_at | 1,400 |
| AT3G08860 | alanine--glyoxylate aminotransferase, putative / beta-alanine-pyruvate aminotransferase, putative / AGT, putative | 258983_at | 2,225 |
| AT3G08910 | DNAJ heat shock protein, putative | 258986_at | 1,228 |
| AT3G10590* | myb family transcription factor | 258960_at | 6,094 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT3G10740 | ASD1 (ALPHA-L-ARABINOFURANOSIDASE); hydrolase, acting on glycosyl bonds | 258774_at | 4,399 |
| AT3G10780 | emp24/gp25L/p24 family protein | 258760_at | 1,189 |
| AT3G10940 | protein phosphatase-related | 256441_at | 1,955 |
| AT3G12120 | FAD2 (FATTY ACID DESATURASE 2); delta 12-fatty acid dehydrogenase | 256277_at | 1,128 |
| AT3G12700 | asparty protease family protein | 257697_at | 1,323 |
| AT3G12830 | auxin-responsive family protein | 257690_at | 1,710 |
| AT3G12920 | protein binding / zinc ion binding | 257858_at | 2,196 |
| AT3G13420 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 256957_at | 1,754 |
| AT3G13672 | seven in absentia (SINA) family protein | 256789_at | 4,002 |
| AT3G13700 | [AT3G13700, RNA-binding protein, putative);[AT3G13710, prenylated rab acceptor (PRA1) family protein] | 256771_at | 1,163 |
| AT3G14360 | lipase class 3 family protein | 258374_at | 4,362 |
| AT3G14770 | nodulin MtN3 family protein | 256548_at | 1,601 |
| AT3G14790 | RHM3 (RHAMNOSE BIOSYNTHESIS 3); catalytic | 256575_at | 1,035 |
| AT3G15350 | glycosyltransferase family 14 protein / core-2/-branching enzyme family protein | 257056_at | 1,954 |
| AT3G15830 | [AT3G15830, phosphatidic acid phosphatase-related / PAP2-related];[AT3G15820, phosphatidic acid phosphatase-related / PAP2-related] | 258249_s_at | 2,344 |
| AT3G15850 | FAD5 (FATTY ACID DESATURASE 5); oxidoreductase | 258250_at | 1,180 |
| AT3G15900 | similar to Os02g0804400 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001048433.1) | 257800_at | 1,574 |
| AT3G16440 | ATMLP-300B (MYROSINASE-BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE PROTEIN-300B) | 259328_at | 5,012 |
| AT3G16500 | PAP1 (PHYTOCHROME-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 1); transcription factor | 257232_at | 1,438 |
| AT3G16857 | ARR1 (ARABIDOPSIS RESPONSE REGULATOR 1); transcription factor/ two-component response regulator | 256790_at | 1,315 |
| AT3G16990 | TENA/TH1-4 family protein | 257888_at | 1,646 |
| AT3G17520 | late embryogenesis abundant domain-containing protein / LEA domain-containing protein | 258347_at | 1,523 |
| AT3G18295 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 257728_at | 1,061 |
| AT3G19390 | cysteine proteinase, putative / thiol protease, putative | 258005_at | 1,347 |
| AT3G19580 | AZF2 (ARABIDOPSIS ZINC-FINGER PROTEIN 2); nucleic acid binding / transcription factor/z zinc ion binding | 257022_at | 1,499 |
| AT3G19720 | ARC5 (ACCUMULATION AND REPLICATION OF CHLOROPLAST 5); GTP binding / GTPase | 257044_at | 2,075 |
| AT3G19900 | similar to hypothetical protein [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:BAD22944.1) | 257965_at | 1,356 |
| AT3G21550 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 258183_at | 8,137 |
| AT3G21830 | ASK8 (ARABIDOPSIS SKP1-LIKE 8); ubiquitin-protein ligase | 257942_at | 7,987 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT3G21840 | ASK7 (ARABIDOPSIS SKP1-LIKE 7); ubiquitin-protein ligase | 257943_at | 7,877 |
| AT3G21850 | ASK9 (ARABIDOPSIS SKP1-LIKE 9); ubiquitin-protein ligase | 257944_at | 9,888 |
| AT3G21860 | ASK10 (ARABIDOPSIS SKP1-LIKE 10); ubiquitin-protein ligase | 257945_at | 2,641 |
| AT3G21890 | zinc finger (B-box type) family protein | 257262_at | 1,906 |
| AT3G22120 | CWLP (CELL WALL-PLASMA MEMBRANE LINKER PROTEIN); lipid binding | 256825_at | 5,806 |
| AT3G23030 | IAA2 (indoleacetic acid-induced protein 2); transcription factor | 257766_at | 2,111 |
| AT3G23050 | IAA7 (AUXIN RESISTANT 2); transcription factor | 257769_at | 3,056 |
| AT3G23430 | PHO1 (PHOSPHATE 1) | 258293_at | 2,277 |
| AT3G23605 | UBX domain-containing protein | 258105_at | 1,631 |
| AT3G24460 | TMS membrane family protein / tumour differentially expressed (TDE) family protein | 256619_at | 2,086 |
| AT3G25290 | auxin-responsive family protein | 257824_at | 1,388 |
| AT3G25870 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 258078_at | 3,384 |
| AT3G25950 | similar to DNA-binding storekeeper protein-related [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 257541_at | 3,269 |
| AT3G26100 | regulator of chromosome condensation (RCC1) family protein | 258085_at | 1,742 |
| AT3G26580 | binding | 257611_at | 1,112 |
| AT3G27210 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 257154_at | 1,182 |
| AT3G27580 | ATPK7 (Arabidopsis thaliana serine/threonine-protein kinase 7); kinase | 258029_at | 1,413 |
| AT3G28690 | protein kinase, putative | 257016_at | 2,151 |
| AT3G29250 | oxidoreductase | 257774_at | 1,453 |
| AT3G42950 | glycoside hydrolase family 28 protein / polygalacturonase (pectinase) family protein | 252781_at | 1,735 |
| AT3G43210 | TES (TETRASPORE); microtubule motor | 252736_at | 1,266 |
| AT3G45010 | SCPL48 (serine carboxypeetidase-like 48); serine carboxypeptidase | 252606_at | 4,292 |
| AT3G45090 | 2-phosphoglycerate kinase-related | 252608_at | 1,567 |
| AT3G46900 | COPT2 (Copper transporter 2); copper ion transporter | 252502_at | 1,552 |
| AT3G48580 | xyloglucan:xyloglucosyl transferase, putative / xyloglucan endotransglycosylase, putative / endo-xyloglucan transferase, putative | 252320_at | 2,594 |
| AT3G49130 | RNA binding | 252289_at | 1,126 |
| AT3G49360 | glucosamine/galactosamine-6-phosphate isomerase family protein | 252282_at | 1,303 |
| AT3G49590 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 252264_at | 1,784 |
| AT3G49940 | LOB domain protein 38 / lateral organ boundaries domain protein 38 (LBD38) | 252220_at | 4,547 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT3G51090 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 252097_at | 1,839 |
| AT3G51250 | senescence/dehydration-associated protein-related | 252099_at | 1,378 |
| AT3G51330 | asparty protease family protein | 252098_at | 1,104 |
| AT3G51960 | bZIP family transcription factor | 252083_at | 1,354 |
| AT3G51970 | long-chain-alcohol O-fatty-acyltransferase family protein / wax synthase family protein | 252084_at | 2,529 |
| AT3G52770 | similar to Os02g0530500 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001047020.1) | 252003_at | 1,655 |
| AT3G52780 | ATPAP20/PAP20; acid phosphatase/ protein serine/threonine phosphatase | 252004_at | 6,503 |
| AT3G52820 | ATPAP22/PAP22 (purple acid phosphatase 22); acid phosphatase/ protein serine/threonine phosphatase | 252006_at | 6,481 |
| AT3G52920 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 252023_at | 2,509 |
| AT3G53030 | SRPK4 (SER/ARG-RICH PROTEIN KINASE 4); kinase/ protein kinase | 252026_at | 1,651 |
| AT3G53620 | inorganic pyrophosphatase, putative (soluble)/ pyrophosphate phospho-hydrolase, putative / PPase, putative | 251961_at | 1,354 |
| AT3G53990 | universal stress protein (USP) family protein | 251927_at | 1,215 |
| AT3G54690 | sugar isomerase (SIS) domain-containing protein / CBS domain-containing protein | 251855_at | 2,274 |
| AT3G54700 | [AT3G54700, phosphate transporter, putative];[AT2G38940, ATPT2 (PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER 2); carbohydrate transporter/ phosphate transporter/ sugar porter] | 266184_s_at | 2,035 |
| AT3G56170 | transporter/ phosphate transporter/ sugar porter] | 251739_at | 1,135 |
| AT3G66760 | calcium-dependent protein kinase, putative / CDPK, putative | 246345_at | 2,232 |
| AT3G57810 | OTU-like cysteine protease family protein | 251558_at | 1,475 |
| AT3G58450 | universal stress protein (USP) family protein | 251580_at | 2,745 |
| AT3G59290 | (EPSIN3); binding | 251468_at | 1,062 |
| AT3G59695 | [AT3G59690, IQD13 (IQ-domain 13); calmodulin binding] | 251478_at | 1,089 |
| AT3G59900 | (ARGOS); unknown protein | 251436_at | 2,680 |
| AT3G60510 | enoyl-COA hydratase/isomerase family protein | 251421_at | 1,017 |
| AT3G61160 | shaggy-related protein kinase beta / ASK-beta (ASK2) | 251358_at | 1,752 |
| AT3G61310 | DNA-binding family protein | 251365_at | 1,000 |
| AT3G61460 | BRH1 (BRASSINOSTEROID-RESPONSIVE RING-H2); protein binding / zinc ion binding | 251321_at | 1,218 |
| AT3G61590 | F-box family protein | 251326_at | 1,686 |
| AT3G61930 | unknown protein | 251293_at | 2,724 |
| AT3G61960 | protein kinase family protein | 251273_at | 1,996 |
| AT3G62650 | binding | 251189_at | 1,699 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT3G62660 | GATL7 (Galacturonosyltransferase-like 7); transferase, transferring glycosyl groups / transferase, transferring hexosyl groups | 251225_at | 1,219 |
| AT3G62730 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 251188_at | 2,540 |
| AT3G63000 | NPL4 family protein | 251153_at | 1,339 |
| AT4G00150 | scarecrow-like transcription factor 6 (SCL6) | 255698_at | 5,021 |
| AT4G00700 | C2 domain-containing protein | 255630_at | 1,196 |
| AT4G00760 | APRR8 (PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 8); transcription regulator | 255639_at | 1,542 |
| AT4G01120 | GBF2 (G-BOX BINDING FACTOR 2); DNA binding / transcription factor | 255625_at | 1,112 |
| AT4G01130 | acetylesterase, putative | 255607_at | 4,130 |
| AT4G01180 | [AT4G01 180, XH/XS domain-containing protein];[AT5G59390, XH/XS domain-containing protein] | 255609_s_at | 3,075 |
| AT4G01430 | nodulin MtN21 family protein | 255575_at | 2,918 |
| AT4G01770 | [AT4G01770, RGXT1 (RHAMNOGALACTURONAN XYLOSYLTRANSFERASE 1); UDP-xylosyltransferase] | 255564_s_at | 1,002 |
| AT4G01920 | DC1 domain-containing protein | 255547_at | 1,003 |
| AT4G03510 | RMA1 (Ring finger protein with Membrane Anchor 1); protein binding / ubiquitin-protein ligase/zinc ion binding | 255381_at | 1,542 |
| AT4G04460 | aspartyl protease family protein | 255345_at | 10,076 |
| AT4G04490 | protein kinase family protein | 255340_at | 1,509 |
| AT4G09100 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 255074_at | 1,071 |
| AT4G10850 | nodulin MtN3 family protein | 254956_at | 5,210 |
| AT4G10955 | [AT4G10955, lipase class 3 family protein];[AT4G10960, UGE5 (UDP-D-glucose/UDP-D-galactose 4-epimerase 5) | 254952_at | 1,970 |
| AT4G11100 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 254911_at | 1,607 |
| AT4G11980 | ATNUDT14 (Arabidopsis thaliana Nudix hydrolase homolog 14); hydrolase | 254863_at | 1,424 |
| AT4G12080 | DNA-binding family protein | 254853_at | 1,013 |
| AT4G12430 | trehalose-6-phosphate phosphatase, putative | 254806_at | 2,197 |
| AT4G12910 | SCPL20 (serine carboxypeptidase-like 20); serine carboxypeptidase | 254791_at | 3,469 |
| AT4G13250 | short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR) family protein | 254764_at | 1,576 |
| AT4G14340 | CKI1 (CASEIN KINASE I); casein kinase I/ kinase | 245294_at | 2,298 |
| AT4G14950 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 245273_at | 1,634 |
| AT4G15350 | CYP705A2 (cytochrome P450, family 705, subfamily A, polypeptide 2); oxygen binding | 245551_at | 3,055 |
| AT4G15920 | nodulin M+N3 family protein | 245524_at | 1,263 |
| AT4G16620 | integral membrane family protein / nodulin MtN21-related | 245436_at | 4,052 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT4G16750 | DRE-binding transcription factor, putative | 245445_at | 2,484 |
| AT4G17483 | palmitoy protein thioesterase family protein | 245423_at | 2,582 |
| AT4G17670 | senescence-associated protein-related | 245401_at | 1,460 |
| AT4G17790 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 245361_at | 1,201 |
| AT4G18080 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 254712_at | 1,993 |
| AT4G18220 | [AT4G18220, purine permease family protein] (Arabidopsis thaliana purine permease 10); purine transporter] | 254657_s_at | 1,417 |
| AT4G18340 | glycosyl hydrolase family 17 protein | 254665_at | 1,669 |
| AT4G18350 | NCED2 (NINE-CIS-EPOXYCAROTENOID DIOXYGENASE 2) | 254668_at | 2,776 |
| AT4G18425 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 254629_at | 10,013 |
| AT4G18430 | AtRABA1e (Arabidopsis Rab GTPase homolog A1e); GTP binding | 254673_at | 2,403 |
| AT4G18550 | lipase class 3 family protein | 254648_at | 2,585 |
| AT4G18910 | NIP1;2/NLM2 (NOD26-like intrinsic protein 1;2); water channel | 254608_at | 1,306 |
| AT4G18980 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 254597_at | 1,984 |
| AT4G19120 | ERD3 (EARLY-RESPONSIVE TO DEHYDRATION 3) | 254563_at | 1,603 |
| AT4G19420 | pectinacetylesterase family protein | 254573_at | 3,220 |
| AT4G19810 | glycosyl hydrolase family 18 protein | 254543_at | 2,712 |
| AT4G20140 | leucine-rich repeat transmembrane protein kinase, putative | 254506_at | 1,147 |
| AT4G20880 | ethylene-responsive nuclear protein / ethylene-regulated nuclear protein (ERT2) | 254434_at | 1,629 |
| AT4G22640 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G22666.1); contains domain Bifunctional inhibitor/lipid-transfer protein/seed storage 2S albumin (SSF47699) | 254324_at | 3,524 |
| AT4G22753 | SMO1-3 (STEROL 4-ALPHA METHYL OXIDASE); catalytic | 254333_at | 3,880 |
| AT4G22780 | ACR7 (ACT Domain Repeat 7) | 254300_at | 1,411 |
| AT4G22850 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 254272_at | 1,393 |
| AT4G22920 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G11910.1); similar to senescence-inducible chloroplast stay-green protein 1 [Lycopersicon esculentum] (GB:AAY98500.1) | 254299_at | 1,638 |
| AT4G23920 | UGE2 (UDP-D-glucose/UDP-D-galactose 4-epimerase 2); UDP-glucose 4-epimerase/ protein dimerization | 254188_at | 1,191 |
| AT4G25000 | AMY1 (ALPHA-AMYLASE-LIKE); alpha-amylase | 254101_at | 1,105 |
| AT4G25835 | AAA-type ATPase family protein | 254027_at | 1,199 |
| AT4G26470 | calcium ion binding | 253963_at | 1,548 |
| AT4G26490 | [AT4G26490, similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 253965_at | 3,412 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT4G26700 | ATFIM1 (Arabidopsis thaliana fimbrin 1); actin binding | 253956_at | 1,203 |
| AT4G27480 | glycosyltransferase family 14 protein / core-2/-branching enzyme family protein | 253866_at | 1,047 |
| AT4G27780 | ACBP2 (ACYL-COA BINDING PROTEIN ACBP 2) | 253840_at | 1,181 |
| AT4G28150 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 253813_at | 1,543 |
| AT4G28270 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 253806_at | 4,506 |
| AT4G28550 | RabGAP/TBC domain-containing protein | 253768_at | 1,205 |
| AT4G29100 | ethylene-responsive family protein | 253746_at | 1,740 |
| AT4G29230 | ANAC075 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 75); transcription factor | 253710_at | 1,338 |
| AT4G30270 | MERI5B (MERISTEM-5); hydrolase, acting on glycosyl bonds | 253666_at | 1,258 |
| AT4G30440 | GAE1 (UDP-D-GLUCURONATE 4-EPIMERASE 1); UDP-glucuronate 4-epimerase/ catalytic | 253631_at | 1,043 |
| AT4G30470 | cinnamoyl-CoA reductase-related | 253638_at | 2,312 |
| AT4G30550 | glutamine amidotransferase class-l domain-containing protein | 253639_at | 2,213 |
| AT4G30670 | unknown protein | 253582_at | 2,093 |
| AT4G30790 | similar to protein transport protein-related [Arabidopsis thaliana] similar to Ubiquitin [Medicago truncatula] | 253588_at | 1,153 |
| AT4G30810 | SCPL29 (serine carboxypeptidase-like 29); serine carboxypeptidase | 253600_at | 1,496 |
| AT4G30920 | [AT4G30920, cytosol aminopeptidase family protein];[AT4G30910, cytosol aminopeptidase family protein] | 253602_s_at | 1,210 |
| AT4G30993 | similar to unknown protein [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:BAD72545.1); contains domain no description (G3D.3.60.21.10) | 253548_at | 1,454 |
| AT4G32250 | protein kinase family protein | 253473_at | 1,260 |
| AT4G32440 | agenet domain-containing protein | 253431_at | 1,015 |
| AT4G32450 | pentatricopeptide (PPR) repeat-containing protein | 253432_at | 2,351 |
| AT4G32840 | phosphofructokinase family protein | 253404_at | 1,065 |
| AT4G32870 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 253401_at | 1,019 |
| AT4G33090 | APM1 (Aberrant peroxisome morphology 1) | 253360_at | 1,528 |
| AT4G34215 | hydrolase | 253275_at | 1,329 |
| AT4G34320 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 253289_at | 6,761 |
| AT4G34630 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 253228_at | 1,421 |
| AT4G34950 | nodulin family protein | 253215_at | 3,487 |
| AT4G36710 | scarecrow transcription factor family protein | 246230_at | 1,628 |
| AT4G36920 | AP2 (APETALA 2); transcription factor | 246217_at | 1,666 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT4G37050 | PLA V/PLP4 (Patatin-like protein 4); nutrient reservoir | 246241_at | 2,918 |
| AT4G37330 | CYP81D4 (cytochrome P450, family 81, subfamily D, polypeptide 4); oxygen binding | 253096_at | 1,927 |
| AT4G37430 | [AT4G37430, CYP91A2 (CYTOCHROME P450 MONOOXYGENASE 91A2); oxygen binding] | 253101_at | 2,681 |
| AT4G38060 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 253022_at | 1,588 |
| AT4G38930 | ubiquitin fusion degradation UFD1 family protein | 252931_at | 1,357 |
| AT4G39000 | glycosyl hydrolase family 9 protein | 252920_at | 4,166 |
| AT4G39090 | RD19 (RESPONSIVE TO DEHYDRATION 19); cysteine-type peptidase | 252927_at | 1,014 |
| AT4G39710 | immunophilin, putative / FKBP-type peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase, putative | 252853_at | 1,187 |
| AT5G01030 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana], contains domain Transcriptional factor tubby, C-terminal domain (SSF54518) | 251123_at | 1,727 |
| AT5G01220 | SQD2 (SULFOQUINOVOSYLDIACYLGLYCEROL 2); UDP-sulfoquinovose:DAG sulfoquinovosyltransferase/ transferase, transferring glycosyl groups | 251143_at | 1,704 |
| AT5G01520 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 251084_at | 2,608 |
| AT5G01820 | ATSR1 (SERINE/THREONINE PROTEIN KINASE 1); kinase | 251060_at | 1,496 |
| AT5G02420 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 251019_at | 2,608 |
| AT5G02570 | histone H 2 B , putative | 250997_at | 1,041 |
| AT5G02580 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 251012_at | 1,285 |
| AT5G03510 | zinc finger ( C 2 H 2 type ) family protein | 250949_at | 4,168 |
| AT5G03550 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT3G58300.1) | 250951_at | 1,274 |
| AT5G04200 | latex-abundant protein, putative (AMC9) / caspase family protein | 245697_at | 8,219 |
| AT5G04390 | zinc finger (C2H2 type) family protein | 245705_at | 3,590 |
| AT5G05230 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 250822_at | 1,468 |
| AT5G06760 | late embryogenesis abundant group 1 domain-containing protein / LEA group 1 domain-containing protein | 250648_at | 1,637 |
| AT5G07530 | GRP17 (Glycine rich protein 17) | 250637_at | 3,051 |
| AT5G07560 | GRP20 (Glycine rich protein 20); nutrient reservoir | 250639_at | 3,329 |
| AT5G08430 | SWIB complex BAF60b domain-containing protein / plus-3 domain-containing protein / GYF domain-containing protein | 246058_at | 1,122 |
| AT5G08480 | VQ motif-containing protein | 250535_at | 6,222 |
| AT5G08560 | transducin family protein / WD-40 repeat family protein | 250539_at | 1,207 |
| AT5G09870 | CESA5 (CELLULASE SYNTHASE 5); transferase, transferring glycosyl groups | 250505_at | 1,093 |
| AT5G10650 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 246012_at | 1,735 |
| AT5G10870 | ATCM2 (CHORISMATE MUTASE 2); chorismate mutase | 250407_at | 1,318 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT5G11070 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 245906_at | 2,170 |
| AT5G11450 | oxygen-evolving complex-related | 250371_at | 1,083 |
| AT5G11920 | ATCWINV6 (6-\&1-FRUCTAN EXOHYDROLASE); hydrolase, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl compounds / inulinase/ levanase | 250302_at | 1,146 |
| AT5G11950 | Identical to Lysine decarboxylase-like protein At5g1 1950 [Arabidopsis Thaliana] | 250346_at | 1,211 |
| AT5G13170 | nodulin MtN3 family protein (SAG29) | 245982_at | 9,151 |
| AT5G13180* | VNI2/ANAC083 (Arabidopsis NAC domain containing protein 83); transcription factor | 245987_at | 1,035 |
| AT5G14420 | copine-related | 250177_at | 1,800 |
| AT5G14960 | DEL2/E2FD/E2L1 (DP-E2F-LIKE 2); DNA binding / transcription factor | 246568_at | 1,780 |
| AT5G15700 | DNA-directed RNA polymerase (RPOT2) | 246514_at | 1,510 |
| AT5G15860 | ATPCME (PRENYLCYSTEINE METHYLESTERASE); prenylcysteine methylesterase | 246524_at | 1,673 |
| AT5G15960 | [AT5G15960, KIN1];[AT5G15970, KIN2 (COLD-RESPONSIVE 6.6)] | 246481_s_at | 2,650 |
| AT5G16235 | [AT5G16230, acyl-(acyl-carrier-protein) desaturase, putative / stearoyl-ACP desaturase, putative] | 246498_at | 6,967 |
| AT5G16570 | GLN1;4 (Glutamine synthetase 1;4); glutamate-ammonia ligase | 250100_at | 3,370 |
| AT5G16800 | GCN5-related N -acetytransferase (GNAT) family protein | 246448_at | 1,318 |
| AT5G16840 | RNA recognition motif (RRM)-containing protein | 246452_at | 1,380 |
| AT5G17170 | rubredoxin family protein | 250073_at | 1,026 |
| AT5G18120 | ATAPRL7 (APR-LIKE 7) | 250030_at | 1,635 |
| AT5G18130 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 250028_at | 1,197 |
| AT5G18350 | disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS-LRR class), putative | 250037_at | 1,289 |
| AT5G18470 | curculin-like (mannose-binding) lectin family protein | 249983_at | 3,964 |
| AT5G18640 | lipase class 3 family protein | 249999_at | 3,260 |
| AT5G18650 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 250000_at | 1,546 |
| AT5G19870 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G55230.1)pl | 246138_at | 3,561 |
| AT5G20280 | ATSPS1F (sucrose phosphate synthase 1F); sucrose-phosphate synthase/transerase, transferring glycosyl groups | 246076_at | 1,493 |
| AT5G20700 | senescence-associated protein-related | 245993_at | 5,090 |
| AT5G20940 | glycosyl hydrolase family 3 protein | 246183_at | 1,396 |
| AT5G22460 | esterase/lipase/thioesterase family protein | 249917_at | 1,686 |
| AT5G23390 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 249825_at | 1,257 |
| AT5G23530 | similar to ATGID1C/GID1C (GA INSENSITIVE DWARF1C) [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT5G27320.1); similar to Esterase/lipase/thioesterase [Medicago truncatula] | 249794_at | 3,692 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT5G23750 | Esterase/lipase/thioesterase [Medicago truncatula] | 249797_at | 5,288 |
| AT5G23920 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 249810_at | 1,964 |
| AT5G24030 | C4-dicarboxylate transporter/malic acid transport family protein | 249765_at | 1,421 |
| AT5G24570 | unknown protein | 249750_at | 1,358 |
| AT5G24655 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 249721_at | 1,208 |
| AT5G24860 | FPF1 (FLOWERING PROMOTING FACTOR 1) | 246967_at | 4,090 |
| AT5G24870 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 246968_at | 2,117 |
| AT5G25820 | exostosin family protein | 246912_at | 1,163 |
| AT5G25920 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT3G29750.1) | 246857_at | 1,646 |
| AT5G26940 | exonuclease family protein | 246799_at | 4,003 |
| AT5G27450 | MK/MVK; mevalonate kinase | 246778_at | 2,401 |
| AT5G27710 | similar to At5g27710 [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE92866.1) | 246737_at | 2,948 |
| AT5G28050 | cytidine/deoxycytidylate deaminase family protein | 246702_at | 1,181 |
| AT5G37180 | SUS5; UDP-glycosyltranserase/ sucrose synthase | 249633_at | 2,355 |
| AT5G37580 | binding / protein binding | 249628_at | 2,676 |
| AT5G37600 | ATGSR1 (Arabidopsis thaliana glutamine synthase clone R1); glutamate-ammonia ligase | 249581_at | 1,419 |
| AT5G37680 | ATARLA1A (ADP-ribosylation factor-like A1A); GTP binding | 249579_at | 2,552 |
| AT5G38070 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 249569_at | 5,594 |
| AT5G38400 | unknown protein | 249564_at | 3,896 |
| AT5G38610 | invertase/pectin methylesterase inhibitor family protein | 249518_at | 5,666 |
| AT5G39520 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 249454_at | 3,047 |
| AT5G39730 | avirulence-responsive protein-related / avirulence induced gene (AIG) protein-related | 249441_at | 1,132 |
| AT5G40210 | nodulin MtN21 family protein | 249406_at | 4,011 |
| AT5G40470 | similar to F-box family protein (FBL4) [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G15475.1); similar to Leucine Rich Repeat family protein | 249359_at | 1,282 |
| AT5G40510 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana];similar to Clostridium pasteurianum ferredoxin homolog [Solanum tuberosum] | 249358_at | 2,404 |
| AT5G40610 | glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (NAD+) / GPDH | 249366_at | 3,934 |
| AT5G40640 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana], similar to Steroid nuclear receptor, ligand-binding [Medicago truncatula] | 249368_at | 2,334 |
| AT5G40645 | nitrate-responsive NOI protein, putative | 249376_at | 1,115 |
| AT5G42200 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 249234_at | 1,401 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT5G42500 | [AT5G42500, disease resistance-responsive family protein];[AT5G42510, disease resistance-responsive family protein] | 249195_s_at | 4,559 |
| AT5G43060 | cysteine proteinase, putative / thiol protease, putative | 249187_at | 3,561 |
| AT5G43410 | ethylene-responsive factor, putative | 249154_at | 3,899 |
| AT5G43620 | [AT5G43620, S-locus protein-related];[AT1G66500, zinc finger (C2H2-type) family protein] | 256356_s_at | 1,030 |
| AT5G43900 | MYA2 (ARABIDOPSIS MYOSIN) | 249095_at | 1,936 |
| AT5G43920 | transducin family protein / WD-40 repeat family protein | 249066_at | 1,352 |
| AT5G44060 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 249072_at | 1,429 |
| AT5G45630 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 248959_at | 3,461 |
| AT5G45810 | CIPK19 (CIPK19); kinase | 248909_at | 3,200 |
| AT5G47060 | senescence-associated protein-related | 248820_at | 1,408 |
| AT5G47635 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 248761_at | 4,478 |
| AT5G47740 | similar to protein kinase family protein / U-box domain-containing protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 248770_at | 1,609 |
| AT5G48230 | ACAT2/EMB1276 (ACETOACETYL-COA THIOLASE 2, EMBRYO DEFECTIVE 1276); acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase | 248690_at | 1,077 |
| AT5G48430 | similar to extracellular dermal glycoprotein, putative / EDGP, putative [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G03220.1); similar to putative xylanase inhibitor [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] | 248703_at | 1,761 |
| AT5G48480 | Identical to Protein At5g48480 [Arabidopsis Thaliana] | 248710_at | 1,838 |
| AT5G49280 | hydroxyproline-rich glycoprotein family protein | 248592_at | 1,012 |
| AT5G49710 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 248565_at | 2,827 |
| AT5G49900 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 248581_at | 1,564 |
| AT5G50170 | C2 domain-containing protein / GRAM domain-containing protein | 248553_at | 1,909 |
| AT5G50260 | cysteine proteinase, putative | 248545_at | 5,133 |
| AT5G50450 | zinc finger (MYND type) family protein | 248502_at | 1,901 |
| AT5G50660 | [AT5G50660, similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT5G50560.1) | 248518_at | 4,910 |
| AT5G51180 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 248451_at | 1,552 |
| AT5G51260 | acid phosphatase, putative | 248440_at | 1,634 |
| AT5G51390 | unknown protein | 248432_at | 1,242 |
| AT5G52120 | ATPP2-A14 (Phloem protein 2-A14) | 248395_at | 1,341 |
| AT5G53550 | YSL3 (YELLOW STRIPE LIKE 3); oligopeptide transporter | 248276_at | 2,047 |
| AT5G53820 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana],similar to pollen coat protein [Brassica oleracea] | 248227_at | 5,474 |
| AT5G53830 | VQ motif-containing protein | 248230_at | 1,818 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT5G53920 | ribosomal protein L11 methyltransferase-related | 248239_at | 1,638 |
| AT5G54130 | calcium ion binding | 248190_at | 1,575 |
| AT5G54130 | calcium ion binding | 248191_at | 2,239 |
| AT5G54510 | DFL1 (DWARF IN LIGHT 1); indole-3-acetic acid amido synthetase | 248163_at | 1,033 |
| AT5G54570 | glycosyl hydrolase family 1 protein | 248168_at | 5,360 |
| AT5G54730 | AtATG18f (Arabidopsis thaliana homolog of yeast autophagy 18 (ATG18) f) | 248124_at | 1,028 |
| AT5G54870 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 248115_at | 1,389 |
| AT5G55050 | GDSL-motif lipase/hydrolase family protein | 248118_at | 1,451 |
| AT5G55400 | fimbrin-like protein, putative | 248082_at | 1,972 |
| AT5G56340 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 248014_at | 1,308 |
| AT5G56540 | AGP14 (ARABINOGALACTAN PROTEIN 14) | 247965_at | 8,420 |
| AT5G56790 | protein kinase family protein | 247985_at | 4,359 |
| AT5G56980 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G26130.1); similar to cDNA-5-encoded protein (GB:AAA50235.1) | 247933_at | 1,993 |
| AT5G57000 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 247934_at | 1,680 |
| AT5G57240 | oxysterol-binding family protein | 247951_at | 1,197 |
| AT5G57960 | GTP-binding family protein | 247891_at | 1,511 |
| AT5G58120 | disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS-LRR class), putative | 247848_at | 1,724 |
| AT5G59290 | UXS3 (UDP-GLUCURONIC ACID DECARBOXYLASE); catalytic | 247720_at | 1,758 |
| AT5G59340 | WOX2 (WUSCHEL-related homeobox 2); transcription factor | 247714_at | 2,652 |
| AT5G59350 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 247716_at | 2,450 |
| AT5G59400 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G11960.1); contains domain DNA ligase/mRNA capping enzyme, catalytic domain (SSF56091) | 247734_at | 1,121 |
| AT5G59490 | haloacid dehalogenase-like hydrolase family protein | 247727_at | 2,326 |
| AT5G59840 | Ras-related GTP-binding family protein | 247699_at | 1,005 |
| AT5G61340 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 247522_at | 4,033 |
| AT5G61640 | PMSR1 (PEPTIDEMETHIONINE SULFOXIDE REDUCTASE 1); protein-methionine-S-oxide reductase | 247514_at | 1,778 |
| AT5G62480 | ATGSTU9 (GLUTATHIONE S-TRANSFERASE TAU 9); glutathione transferase | 247435_at | 3,146 |
| AT5G63060 | transporter | 247415_at | 2,356 |
| AT5G63600 | flavonol synthase, putative | 247333_at | 2,544 |
| AT5G63990 | $3^{\prime}\left(2^{\prime}\right), 5^{\prime}$-bisphosphate nucleotidase, putative / inositol polyphosphate 1-phosphatase, putative | 247318_at | 1,297 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT5G64080 | protease inhibitor/seed storage/lipid transfer protein (LTP) family protein | 247268_at | 1,392 |
| AT5G64190 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 247324_at | 5,470 |
| AT5G64572 | [AT5G64570, XYL4 (beta-xylosidase 4); hydrolase, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl compounds] | 247266_at | 1,604 |
| AT5G64620 | CNIF2 (CELL WALL / VACUOLAR INHIBITOR OF FRUCTOSIDASE 2); pectinesterase inhibitor | 247246_at | 1,016 |
| AT5G65440 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 247183_at | 1,480 |
| AT5G65640 | BHLH093 (BETA HLH PROTEIN 93); DNA binding / transcription factor | 247151_at | 2,171 |
| AT5G65870 | ATPSK5 (PHYTOSULFOKINE 5 PRECURSOR); growth factor | 247109_at | 1,866 |
| AT5G66390 | peroxidase 72 (PER72) (P72) (PRXR8) | 247091_at | 6,847 |
| AT5G66550 | Maf family protein | 247102_at | 1,543 |
| AT5G66930 | similar to Os12g0446700 [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001066715.1) | 247045_at | 1,348 |
| AT5G67260 | CYCD3;2 (CYCLIN D3;2); cyclin-dependent protein kinase | 247034_at | 1,527 |
| AT5G67360 | ARA12; subtilase | 246990_at | 2,788 |
| AT5G67370 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 246998_at | 2,093 |
| Genes down-regulated |  |  |  |
| AT1G01480 | ACS2 (1-Amino-cyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase 2) | 259439_at | -1,577 |
| AT1G02390 | ATGPAT2/GPAT2 (GLYCEROL-3-PHOSPHATE ACYLTRANSFERASE 2); acyltransferase | 259418_at | -1,326 |
| AT1G03360 | ATRRP4; exonuclease | 264357_at | -1,388 |
| AT1G05680 | UDP-glucoronosy/UDP-glucosyl transferase family protein | 263231_at | -1,171 |
| AT1G08230 | similar to amino acid transporter family protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:NP_001056462.1); similar to Amino acid/polyamine transporter II [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE8 | 261785_at | -1,540 |
| AT1G09970 | leucine-rich repeat transmembrane protein kinase, putative | 264663_at | -1,159 |
| AT1G10990 | unknown protein | 260472_at | -1,548 |
| AT1G11330 | S-locus lectin protein kinase family protein | 262507_at | -1,516 |
| AT1G12200 | flavin-containing monooxygenase family protein / FMO family protein | 261023_at | -1,852 |
| AT1G13930 | similar to nodulin-related [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 262609_at | -1,251 |
| AT1G14040 | similar to EXS family protein / ERD1/XPR1/SYG1 family protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT2G03260.1); similar to EXS family protein / ERD1/XPR1/SYG1 family protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 262649_at | -1,019 |
| AT1G15040 | glutamine amidotransferase-related | 260741_at | -1,620 |
| AT1G18020 | [AT1G18020, 12-oxophytodienoate reductase, putative];[AT1G17990, 12-oxophytodienoate reductase, putative] | 255895_at | -1,134 |
| AT1G18570 | MYB51 (myb domain protein 51); DNA binding / transcription factor | 255753_at | -1,897 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT1G18590 | sulfotransferase family protein | 255773_at | -1,124 |
| AT1G19610 | LCR78/PDF1.4 (Low-molecular-weight cysteine-rich 78) | 261135_at | -1,414 |
| AT1G19670 | ATCLH1 (CORONATINE-INDUCED PROTEIN 1) | 255786_at | -1,532 |
| AT1G21130 | O-methyltransferase, putative | 261453_at | -1,826 |
| AT1G21590 | protein kinase family protein | 260924_at | -1,627 |
| AT1G21830 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 262488_at | -1,090 |
| AT1G21920 | MORN (Membrane Occupation and Recognition Nexus) repeat-containing protein/phosphatidylinositol-4-phosphate 5 -kinase-related | 260855_at | -1,469 |
| AT1G22890 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT5G44568.1); contains domain FAMILY NOT NAMED (PTHR12953); contains domain SUBFAMILY NOT NAMED (PTHR12953:SF10) | 264774_at | -1,783 |
| AT1G23830 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G23840.1) | 265132_at | -1,451 |
| AT1G24825 | [AT1G25170, similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 245638_s_at | -1,051 |
| AT1G26440 | ATUPS5 (ARABIDOPSIS THALIANA UREIDE PERMEASE 5) | 261013_at | -1,102 |
| AT1G26460 | pentatricopeptide (PPR) repeat-containing protein | 261014_at | -1,061 |
| AT1G28680 | transferase family protein | 262744_at | -1,388 |
| AT1G30380 | PSAK (PHOTOSYSTEM I SUBUNIT K) | 256309_at | -1,093 |
| AT1G32690 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 261700_at | -1,263 |
| AT1G33960 | AIG1 (AVRRPT2-INDUCED GENE 1); GTP binding | 260116_at | -1,309 |
| AT1G34200 | oxidoreductase family protein | 262515_at | -1,029 |
| AT1G35210 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G72240.1); similar to Avr9/Cf-9 rapidly elicited protein 75 [Nicotiana tabacum] (GB:AAG43558.1) | 245755_at | $-1,058$ |
| AT1G43160 | RAP2.6 (related to AP2 6); DNA binding / transcription factor | 264415_at | -1,092 |
| AT1G48430 | dihydroxyacetone kinase family protein | 261294_at | -1,109 |
| AT1G51270 | structural molecule | 265136_at | -1,173 |
| AT1G51700 | ADOF1 (Arabidopsis dof zinc finger protein 1); DNA binding / transcription factor | 256185_at | -1,218 |
| AT1G53560 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 260983_at | -1,009 |
| AT1G59990 | DEAD/DEAH box helicase, putative (RH22) | 263679_at | -1,004 |
| AT1G60000 | $29 \mathrm{kDa} \mathrm{ribonucleoprotein}, \mathrm{chloroplast} ,\mathrm{putative} \mathrm{/} \mathrm{RNA-binding} \mathrm{protein} \mathrm{cp29}$, | 263736_at | -1,004 |
| AT1G62570 | flavin-containing monooxygenase family protein / FMO family protein | 265119_at | -1,267 |
| AT1G65240 | asparty protease family protein | 263108_at | -1,084 |
| AT1G66480 | PMI2 (plastid movement impaired 2) | 257583_at | -1,346 |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT1G66690 | [AT1G66690, S-adenosyl-L-methionine:carboxyl methyltransferase family protein] | 256376_s_at | -1,392 |
| AT1G67740 | PSBY (photosystem II BY) | 245195_at | -1,088 |
| AT1G67810 | Fe-S metabolism associated domain-containing protein | 245193_at | -1,108 |
| AT1G67980 | CCOAMT (caffeoyl-CoA 3-O-methyltransferase); caffeoyl-CoA O-methyltransferase | 260015_at | -1,265 |
| AT1G69890 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G27100.1); similar to Cytosolic fatty-acid binding; Actin-crosslinking proteins [Medicago truncatula] (GB:ABE82702.1); contains InterPro domain Protein of unknown function DUF569; (InterPro:IPR007 | 260411_at | -1,272 |
| AT1G69920 | ATGSTU12 (Arabidopsis thaliana Glutathione S-transferase (class tau) 12); glutathione transferase | 260406_at | -2,000 |
| AT1G69930 | ATGSTU11 (Arabidopsis thaliana Glutathione S-transferase (class tau) 11); glutathione transferase | 260405_at | -1,198 |
| AT1G71830 | SERK1 (SOMATIC EMBRYOGENESIS RECEPTOR-LIKE KINASE 1); kinase | 261521_at | -1,045 |
| AT1G72910 | [AT1G72910, disease resistance protein;TIR (TOLL//NTERLEUKIN-1 RECEPTOR-LIKE); transmembrane receptor] | 262374_s_at | -1,142 |
| AT1G72920 | disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS class), putative | 262382_at | -2,171 |
| AT1G72940 | disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS class), putative | 262383_at | -1,397 |
| AT1G73080 | PEPR1 (PEP1 RECEPTOR 1); ATP binding/kinase/protein binding / protein serine/threonine kinase | 262360_at | -1,061 |
| AT1G73500 | ATMKK9 (Arabidopsis thaliana MAP kinase kinase 9); kinase | 245731_at | -1,039 |
| AT1G74080 | MYB122 (myb domain protein 122); DNA binding / transcription factor | 260394_at | -1,195 |
| AT1G74090 | sulfotransferase family protein | 260385_at | -1,046 |
| AT1G74470 | geranylgeranyl reductase | 260236_at | -1,094 |
| AT1G78820 | [AT1G78820, curculin-like (mannose-binding) lectin family protein / PAN domain-containing protein];[AT1G78830, curculin-like (mannose-binding) lectin family protein] | 264279_s_at | -1,094 |
| AT1G80560 | 3-sopropylmalate dehydrogenase, chloroplast, putative | 260285_at | -1,103 |
| AT1G80820 | CCR2 (CINNAMOYL COA REDUCTASE) | 261899_at | -1,053 |
| AT2G04040 | ATDTX1; antiporter/ multidrug efflux pump/ multidrug transporter/ transporter | 263403_at | -1,762 |
| AT2G15890 | MEE14 (maternal effect embryo arrest 14) | 265478_at | -1,410 |
| AT2G17480 | MLO8 (MLLDEW RESISTANCE LOCUS 0 8); calmodulin binding | 264852_at | -1,016 |
| AT2G18050 | HIS1-3 (HISTONE H1-3); DNA binding | 265817_at | -1,395 |
| AT2G22300 | ethylene-responsive calmodulin-binding protein, putative (SR1) | 263457_at | -1,251 |
| AT2G22330 | CYP79B3 (cytochrome P450, family 79, subfamily B, polypeptide 3); oxygen binding | 264052_at | -1,772 |
| AT2G23270 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 245082_at | -1,635 |
| AT2G23420 | nicotinate phosphoribosyltransferase family protein / NAPRTase family protein | 267132_at | -1,195 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT2G27390 | proline-rich family protein | 265643_at | -1,351 |
| AT2G29340 | short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR) family protein | 266265_at | -1,560 |
| AT2G30600 | BTB/POZ domain-containing protein | 267523_at | -1,261 |
| AT2G30770 | CYP71A13 (cytochrome P450, family 71, subfamily A, polypeptide 13); oxygen binding | 267567_at | -1,157 |
| AT2G31750 | UGT74D1 (UDP-glucosyl transferase 74D1); transferring glycosyl groups / transferase, transferring hexosyl groups | 263473_at | -1,047 |
| AT2G32030 | GCN5-related N -acetyltransferase (GNAT) family protein | 265725_at | -1,251 |
| AT2G35660 | [AT2G35660, CTF2A; monooxygenase);[AT2G29720, CTF2B; monooxygenase] | 266615_s_at | -1,064 |
| AT2G39210 | nodulin family protein | 266993_at | $-1,041$ |
| AT2G39980 | transferase family protein | 267337_at | -1,645 |
| AT2G41880 | GK-1 (GUANYLATE KINASE 1); guanylate kinase | 267537_at | -1,004 |
| AT2G46220 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 266583_at | -1,053 |
| AT2G46450 | ATCNGC12 (cyclic nucleotide gated channel 12); cyclic nucleotide binding / ion channel | 263777_at | -1,408 |
| AT2G48010 | RKF3 (RECEPTOR-LIKE KINASE IN IN FLOWERS 3); kinase | 265772_at | -1,660 |
| AT3G04210 | disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS class), putative | 258537_at | -1,013 |
| AT3G04220 | disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS-LRR class), putative | 258577_at | -1,100 |
| AT3G04550 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 258800_at | -1,196 |
| AT3G05200 | ATL6 (Arabidopsis T?xicos en Levadura 6); protein binding / zinc ion binding | 259312_at | -1,135 |
| AT3G06510 | SFR2 (SENSITIVE TO FREEZING 2); hydrolase, hydrolyzing 0-glycosyl compounds | 258512_at | -1,126 |
| AT3G08760 | ATSIK; kinase | 258683_at | -1,322 |
| AT3G10930 | unknown protein | 256442_at | -1,027 |
| AT3G12080 | EMB2738 (EMBRYO DEFECTIVE 2738); GTP binding | 256274_at | -1,156 |
| AT3G14840 | leucine-rich repeat family protein / protein kinase family protein | 256547_at | -1,265 |
| AT3G14850 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G29050.1) | 256600_at | -1,287 |
| AT3G16720 | ATL2 (Arabidopsis T?xicos en Levadura 2); protein binding / zinc ion binding | 258436_at | -1,121 |
| AT3G20660 | carbohydrate transporter/ sugar porter | 256697_at | -1,213 |
| AT3G20860 | protein kinase family protein | 257978_at | -1,233 |
| AT3G21140 | FMN binding | 256972_at | -1,049 |
| AT3G21230 | 4CL5 (4-COUMARATE:COA LIGASE 5); 4-coumarate-CoA ligase | 258037_at | -1,264 |
| AT3G21240 | 4CL2 (4-coumarate:COA ligase 2); 4-coumarate-COA ligase | 258047_at | -1,130 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT3G21780 | UGT71B6 (UDP-glucosyl transferase 71B6); UDP-glycosyltransferase/ Transferring glycosyl groups | 257950_at | -1,475 |
| AT3G23550 | MATE efflux family protein | 258100_at | -1,438 |
| AT3G26280 | CYP71B4 (cytochrome P450, family 71, subfamily B, polypeptide 4); oxygen binding | 257635_at | -1,342 |
| AT3G26570 | PHT2;1 (phosphate transporter 2;1) | 257311_at | -1,059 |
| AT3G26830 | PAD3 (PHYTOALEXIN DEFICIENT 3); oxygen binding | 258277_at | -1,289 |
| AT3G28180 | ATCSLCO4 (Cellulose synthase-like C4); transferase, transferring glycosyl groups | 257071_at | -1,492 |
| AT3G44260 | CCR4-NOT transcription complex protein, putative | 252679_at | -1,775 |
| AT3G46110 | signal transducer | 252533_at | -2,057 |
| AT3G46600 | scarecrow transcription factor family protein | 252483_at | -1,048 |
| AT3G47800 | aldose 1 -epimerase family protein | 252387_at | -1,389 |
| AT3G48640 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT5G66670.2) | 252345_at | -1,371 |
| AT3G49620 | DIN11 (DARK INDUCIBLE 11); oxidoreductase | 252265_at | -1,019 |
| AT3G51895 | SULTR3; 1 (SULFATE TRANSPORTER 1); sulfate transporter | 246310_at | -1,159 |
| AT3G52150 | RNA recognition motif (RRM)-containing protein | 252032_at | -1,319 |
| AT3G53160 | UGT73C7 (UDP-glucosyl transferase 73C7); UDP-glycosyltransferase/ transferase, transferring glycosyl groups | 251971_at | -1,059 |
| AT3G55010 | phosphoribosylformylglycinamidine cyclo-ligase, chloroplast / phosphoribosyl-aminoimidazole synthetase / AIR synthase (PUR5) | 251830_at | -1,048 |
| AT3G57760 | protein kinase family protein | 251603_at | -1,237 |
| AT3G59080 | aspartyl protease family protein | 251507_at | -1,027 |
| AT3G59940 | kelch repeat-containing F-box family protein | 251443_at | -1,326 |
| AT3G60120 | glycosyl hydrolase family 1 protein | 251456_at | -2,317 |
| AT3G61430 | PIP1A (plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;1); water channel | 251324_at | -1,026 |
| AT3G61890 | ATHB-12 (ARABIDOPSIS THALIANA HOMEOBOX PROTEIN 1); transcription factor | 251272_at | -1,064 |
| AT3G62150 | PGP21 (P-GLYCOPROTEIN 21); ATPase, coupled to transmembrane movement of substances | 251248_at | -1,240 |
| AT4G00430 | TMP-C (plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1;4); water channel | 255674_at | -1,072 |
| AT4G02410 | lectin protein kinase family protein | 255502_at | -1,147 |
| AT4G08770 | peroxidase, putative | 255110_at | -1,429 |
| AT4G08980 | F-box family protein (FBW2) | 255066_at | -1,168 |
| AT4G11280 | ACS6 (1-AMINOCYCLOPROPANE-1-CARBOXYLIC ACID (ACC) SYNTHASE 6) | 254926_at | -1,381 |
| AT4G13660 | pinoresinol-lariciresinol reductase, putative | 254726_at | -1,149 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT4G15120 | VQ motif-containing protein | 245363_at | -1,249 |
| AT4G16860 | RPP4 (RECOGNITION OF PERONOSPORA PARASITICA 4) | 245448_at | -1,130 |
| AT4G17490 | ATERF6 (ETHYLENE RESPONSIVE ELEMENT BINDING FACTOR 6); DNA binding / transcription factor | 245250_at | -1,249 |
| AT4G18010 | IP5PII (INOSITOL POLYPHOSPHATE 5-PHOSPHATASE II); inositol-polyphosphate 5-phosphatase | 254707_at | -1,087 |
| AT4G18360 | (S)-2-hydroxy-acid oxidase, peroxisomal, putative / glycolate oxidase, putative / short chain alpha-hydroxy acid oxidase, putative | 254630_at | -1,096 |
| AT4G19160 | binding | 254561_at | -1,424 |
| AT4G21390 | B120; protein kinase/sugar binding | 254408_at | -1,414 |
| AT4G22710 | [AT4G22710, CYP706A2 (cytochrome P450, family 706, subfamily A, polypeptide 2); oxygen binding | 254331_s_at | -1,752 |
| AT4G24110 | similar to Hypothetical protein [Oryza sativa (japonica cultivar-group)] (GB:AAO17020.1) | 254200_at | -1,194 |
| AT4G24120 | YSL1 (YELLOW STRIPE LIKE 1); oligopeptide transporter | 254174_at | -1,203 |
| AT4G24570 | mitochondrial substrate carrier family protein | 254120_at | -1,510 |
| AT4G24930 | thylakoid lumenal 17.9 kDa protein, chloroplast | 254137_at | -1,046 |
| AT4G26120 | ankyrin repeat family protein / BTB/POZ domain-containing protein | 254014_at | -1,098 |
| AT4G28040 | nodulin MtN21 family protein | 253829_at | -1,292 |
| AT4G28085 | unknown protein | 253827_at | -1,014 |
| AT4G31500 | CYP83B1 (CYTOCHROME P450 MONOOXYGENASE 83B1); oxygen binding | 253534_at | -1,163 |
| AT4G32340 | binding | 253421_at | -1,078 |
| AT4G35110 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT2G16900.1); similar to PEARLI 4 gene product (GB:AAC37472.1); contains InterPro domain Arabidopsis phospholipase-like; (InterPro:IPR007942) | 253173_at | -1,079 |
| AT4G35770 | SEN1 (DARK INDUCIBLE 1) | 253161_at | -2,309 |
| AT4G38810 | calcium-binding EF hand family protein | 252915_at | -1,311 |
| AT4G39230 | isoflavone reductase, putative | 252939_at | -1,209 |
| AT5G01215 | [AT5G01210, transferase family protein] | 251144_at | -1,305 |
| AT5G01670 | aldose reductase, putative | 251100_at | -1,288 |
| AT5G01880 | zinc finger (C3HC4-type RING finger) family protein | 251066_at | -1,263 |
| AT5G06530 | ABC transporter family protein | 250690_at | -1,433 |
| AT5G06870 | PGIP2 (POLYGALACTURONASE INHIBITING PROTEIN 2); protein binding | 250669_at | -1,098 |
| AT5G09470 | mitochondrial substrate carrier family protein | 245882_at | -1,225 |
| AT5G10390 | histone H3 | 250434_at | -1,017 |
| AT5G12170 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 250306_at | -1,043 |
| AT5G14180 | lipase family protein | 250199_at | -1,217 |
| AT5G15190 | unknown protein | 250158_at | -1,092 |
| AT5G17760 | AAA-type ATPase family protein | 250062_at | -1,029 |


| AGI Identifier | Description | Affymetrix ID | Log2 Fch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AT5G18170 | GDH1 (GLUTAMATE DEHYDROGENASE 1); oxidoreductase | 250032_at | -1,002 |
| AT5G18290 | SIP1;2 (SMALL AND BASIC INTRINSIC PROTEIN1B) | 250025_at | -1,203 |
| AT5G18500 | protein kinase family protein | 249985_at | -1,027 |
| AT5G19140 | auxin/aluminum-responsive protein, putative | 249922_at | -1,146 |
| AT5G22860 | serine carboxypeptidase S28 family protein | 249860_at | -1,708 |
| AT5G25170 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 246931_at | -1,297 |
| AT5G38870 |  | 249505_at | -1,459 |
| AT5G39090 | transferase family protein | 249489_at | -1,463 |
| AT5G41610 | [AT5G41610, ATCHX18 (cation/hydrogen exchanger 18); monovalent cation:proton antiporter] | 249255_at | -1,109 |
| AT5G42060 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT1G64490.1) | 249253_at | -1,118 |
| AT5G42250 | alcohol dehydrogenase, putative | 249242_at | -1,278 |
| AT5G44580 | similar to unknown protein [Arabidopsis thaliana] | 249010_at | -1,291 |
| AT5G47220 | ATERF-2/ATERF2/ERF2 (ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR 2); DNA binding / transcription factor/ transcriptional activator | 248794_at | -1,317 |
| AT5G47230 | ERF5 (ETHYLENE RESPONSIVE ELEMENT BINDING FACTOR 5); DNA binding / transcription factor/transcriptional activator | 248799_at | -1,185 |
| AT5G49230 | HRB1 (HYPERSENSITIVE TO RED AND BLUE) | 248595_at | -1,037 |
| AT5G52380 | zinc knuckle (CCHC-type) family protein | 248357_at | -1,229 |
| AT5G55120 | similar to VTC2 (VITAMIN C DEFECTIVE 2) [Arabidopsis thaliana] (TAIR:AT4G26850.1) | 248091_at | -1,071 |
| AT5G57220 | CYP81F2 (cytochrome P450, family 81, subfamily F, polypeptide 2); oxygen binding | 247949_at | -1,253 |
| AT5G57655 | xylose isomerase family protein | 247924_at | -1,172 |
| AT5G59530 | 2-oxoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase, putative | 247729_at | -1,333 |
| AT5G59700 | protein kinase, putative | 247686_at | -1,149 |
| AT5G61380 | TOC1 (TIMING OF CAB1 1); transcription regulator | 247525_at | -1,110 |
| AT5G62730 | proton-dependent oligopeptide transport (POT) family protein | 247447_at | -1,100 |
| AT5G64890 | PROPEP2 (Elicitor peptide 2 precursor) | 247205_at | -1,498 |
| AT5G64905 | PROPEP3 (Elicitor peptide 3 precursor) | 247215_at | -1,286 |
| AT5G65240 | leucine-rich repeat family protein / protein kinase family protein | 247197_at | -1,150 |
| AT5G65600 | legume lectin family protein / protein kinase family protein | 247145_at | -1,002 |
| AT5G66530 | aldose 1 -epimerase family protein | 247101_at | -1,169 |
| AT5G67080 | MAPKKK19 (Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 19); kinase | 247026_at | -1,049 |

## Annex 6

## Subcellular localization of ORE1-GFP fusion protein in Arabidopsis

Upper panel: ORE1 cDNA was amplified using a combination of primer forward and reverse (123-124 respectively) (Annex 1) and then cloned into the Gateway pENTR-DTOPO entry vector. The entry vector construct was recombined into Gateway destination vector $p K 7 F W G 2.0$ (Karimi et al. 2002) using the LR reaction mix II (Invitrogen) to obtain the final reporter vector ORE1-GFP. The recombination reactions were done according with the manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen).

Bottom panel: The p35S-driven ORE1-GFP fusion protein was expressed in wild type (Col-0) after Agrobacterium-mediated transformation as described in section 2.4.4 and viewed under fluorescence light using a confocal laser scanning microscopy (LSCM) SP5, Leica with software LAS AF (Leica). (I) is shown in bright field (II) shows the red autofluorescence of chlorophyll, (III) the GFP-signal, and (IV) the merged signals. (A) The image shows and overview of epidermal cells, guard cells and stomata from a leaf of 15-dayold Arabidopsis seedling. Seedlings were grown in MS media as described in section 2.4.2. (B) Close-up of a pair of guard cells forming the stoma. ORE1-GFP protein is expressed in nucleus. Chloroplasts are visible in guard cells fluorescing red.



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## Allgemeinverständliche Zusammenfassung

DerAlterungsprozesslebenderOrganismenwird seitvielenJahrenwissenschaftlichuntersucht. In Pflanzen wird der Alterungsprozess Seneszenz genannt. Er ist für das Überleben der Pflanze von großer Bedeutung. Dennoch ist unser Wissen über die molekularen Mechanismen der Blattseneszenz, dessen komplexe Steuerung und die Wechselwirkungen mit Umweltsignale noch sehr limitiert. Ein wichtiges Steuerungselement besteht in der Aktivierung bestimmter Transkriptionsfaktoren (TFs) die während der Seneszenz unterschiedlich exprimiert werden. Aus der Literatur ist bekannt, dass Mitglieder der NAC TF Familie (NAM/ATAF/CUC) an der Regulation der Seneszenz bei Pflanzen beteiligt sind. ORE1 (ANAC092/AtNAC2), ein NAC TF mit erhöhter Genexpression während der Seneszenz, wurde erstmals in Mutanten mit verzögerte Seneszenz beschrieben, die molekularen Mechanismen, wie ORE1 die Seneszenz kontrolliert und die Stoffwechselwege reguliert, sind aber noch weitgehend unbekannt.

Die Arbeiten im Rahmen dieser Dissertation wurden durchgeführt, um einen tieferen Einblick in die Regulationsmechanismen von ORE1 auf natürliche, dunkel induzierte sowie Salzstress-induzierte Seneszenz zu erhalten. Ergebnisse von Untersuchungen an zwei unterschiedlichen Pflanzenspezies (Arabidopsis thalinana und Nicotiana tabacum) deuten auf ein ähnliches Expressionsmuster von ORE1 während der natürlichen als auch der Salz-induzierten Seneszenz hin. In der Promotorregion von ORE1 wurde ein für natürliche Seneszenz charakteristisches Muster identifiziert. In vivo Analysen ergaben darüber hinaus. Hinweise auf zwei weitere ORE1 Regulatoren. Debei handelt es sich umeinen weiteren NAC TF (ATAF1) und (ii) CKOR, einer Calcium-abhängige Protein-Kinase (CDPK).In weiteren Studien wurden sechs Gene identifiziert, die durch ORE1 reguliert werden. In den Promotoren dieser Gene wurden entsprechende Bindestellen für ORE1 lokalisiert. Die ORE1-Bindung an die Promotoren wurde daraufhin sowohl in vitro als auch in vivo verifiziert. Zwei dieser Gene, die BIFUNCTIONAL Nuclease I (BFNI) und VND-Interacting2 (VNI2), wurden zudem auf molekularer und physiologischer Ebene untersucht.

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## Publications

Luisa Ballesteros, Ivan Perez, Tania Galindo, Julian Ortiz, Victor Vera, Lilian Matallana, Jenny Jimenez, Alicia Caro, Karina Avendaño, Sonia León, Miguel Rodríguez, Rubén Arroyo, Yisela Figueroa, Diana Corredor, Paola Espinosa, Gersain Medina, Maria Marcela Camacho Navarro (2003) Genre differences on visual perception of color range and depth of field. Acta Biológica Colombiana 8(2): 3-8.

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Margarita Perea Dallos, Lilian Paola Matallana R., Andrea Tirado Perea (2010) Biotechnology applied to tropical fruit crops improvement. Agricultural Book. Biology Department. Science Faculty. National University of Colombia. ISBN: 9789587195361. p. 581 .

Balazadeh S, Siddiqui H, Allu AD, Matallana-Ramirez LP, Caldana C, Mehrnia M, Zanor MI, Köhler B and Mueller-Roeber B. (2010) A gene regulatory network controlled by the NAC transcription factor ANAC092/AtNAC2/ORE1 during salt-promoted senescence. The Plant Journal. 62: 250-264.

Matallana-Ramirez LP, Rauf M, Dortay, H, Sorego L, Lers A, Xue GP, Dröge-Laser W, Balazadeh S and Mueller-Roeber B. (Manuscript on preparation). Expression of BIFUNCTIONAL NUCLEASE1 (BFN1) gene during senescence in Arabidopsis is regulated by the NAC transcription factor ANAC092/AtNAC2/ORE1.

## Erklärung

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit selbständig und unter Verwendung keiner anderen als den von mir angegeben Quellen und Hilfsmitteln verfasst habe.

Ferner erkläre ich, dass ich bisher weder an de Universität Potsdam noch anderweitig versucht habe, eine Dissertation einzureichen oder mich einer Doktorprüfung zu unterziehen.

Lilian Paola Matallana-Ramírez
Potsdam, 11.04. 2012

