Resveratrol synthase transgene expression and accumulation of resveratrol glycoside in Rehmannia glutinosa

Jung Dae Lim¹, Song Joong Yun², Ill Min Chung³ and Chang Yeon Yu^{1,*}

¹ Division of Applied Plant Science, Kangwon National University Chunchon, Kangwondo 200-701, Korea; 2 Division of Biological Resources Sciences and Institute of Agricultural Science and Technology, Chonbuk National University, Chonju 561-756, Korea; ³ Department of Applied Life Science, College of Life ana Environmental Sciences, Konkuk University, Seoul 143-701, Korea; *Author for correspondence (e-mail: c *yyu*@kangwon.ac.kr; phone: $+82-33-250-6411$; fax: $+82-33-250-6410$)

Received 8 November 2004; accepted in revised form 31 May 2005

Key words: Agrobacterium-mediated transformation, Rehmannia glutinosa L., Resveratrol, Resveratrol- $3-O-\beta$ -D-glucoside, Resveratrol synthase

Abstract

Rehmannia glutinosa L. is an important medicinal crop in Asian countries and contains trace amount of resveratrol compounds. To increase production of the compounds, we attempted ectopic expression of peanut resveratrol synthase gene (AhRS3) in R. glutinosa. The AhRS3 sequence that encompassed the open reading frame, including a 312 bp-long intron present between the 59th and 60th codon, was driven by the CaMV35S promoter and introduced into R. glutinosa via Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of leaf explants. The transgenic plants with one to three copies of AhRS3 transgene showed normal growth and development. The transgene was expressed constitutively in the leaf, root and flower at similar levels. Transgene expression in the leaf resulted in the production of new compounds identified as resveratrol and $3'$ -H-resveratrol-3-O- β -D-glucoside (R-gluc) through nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy and mass spectrometry. R-gluc accumulated predominantly and its content in the leaf of the 11 transgenic lines ranged from 22 to $116 \mu g/gFW$. The contents of resveratrol compounds in the transgenic plants were further increased by cold, UV, ethylene, and paraquat treatments, and were positively associated with the levels of AhRS3 mRNA levels. The R-gluc isolated from the transgenic plants exhibited antioxidant activity equivalent to one-third of resveratrol. Transgenic plants were highly resistant to *Fusarium oxysporum* infection. The results indicate that the ectopic expression of $AhRS3$ in R. glutinosa results in the production of R-gluc and resveratrol at hundreds of times higher levels than in peanut seed. The increased production of resveratrol compounds from R. glutinosa, which show diverse benefits for human and plant health, could provide a new opportunity for the improvement of R. glutinosa products.

Introduction

Rehmannia glutinosa L. is an important medicinal crop in Asian countries. Rehmanniae radix is commonly used in oriental clinics as a haemostatic, cardiotonic, and diuretic agent (Oshio et al. 1981; Hasegawa et al. 1982). Findings of antibacterial, anti-inflammatory and immunity-promoting properties of Rehmanniae radix (Huang 1993; Kubo et al. 1994; Tomoda et al. 1994; Kim et al. 1999) provide a scientific background for its traditional clinical uses. Many components have been

isolated from both the Rehmanniae radix and from the fresh plant, including stigmasterol, campesterol, catalpol, rehmannin, and vitamin A (Chang and But 1986; Ni et al. 1992). Though no reports are available regarding the occurrence of resveratrol in Rehmanniae radix and fresh leaves, we obtained analytical evidence on the presence of a trace amount of resveratrol in the root of R. glutinosa (Lim et al. 2004).

Resveratrol (3,5,4¢-trihydroxylstilbene) is a naturally occurring stilbene found in a limited number of unrelated plant species such as grapevine, peanut, and pine (Ingham 1976; Hart 1981; Jeandet et al. 2002). Due to its antifungal activity and induction in response to pathogen infection, resveratrol has been considered a phytoalexin (Ingham 1976; Keen and Ingham 1976; Hart 1981; Hain et al. 1993; Jeandet et al. 2002), and has drawn considerable attention as a phytochemical which supports disease resistance in plants.

Moreover, resveratrol is well known for its potent antioxidant activity and health-promoting effects. Various studies have demonstrated the effects have of resveratrol in cardioprotection (Ignatowicz and Baer-Dubowska 2001). A demonstrated association of resveratrol with reduced cancer risk has also been observed (Jang et al. 1997; Cal et al. 2003). New evidence also indicates that resveratrol can exert neuroprotective effects by increasing heme oxygenase activity in the brain (Zhuang et al. 2003). Therefore, resveratrol has received considerable attention as a beneficial phytochemical in food and heathrelated industries.

Resveratrol is synthesized by resveratrol synthase (RS; EC 2.3.1.95), also known as stilbene synthase, using one molecule of coumaroyl-CoA and three molecules of malonyl-CoA. RS genes have been differentiated in peanut (Chung et al. 2001, 2003; Schroder et al. 1988; Lanz et al. 1990), grape (Wiese et al. 1994) and pine (Preisig-Muller et al. 1999; Kodan et al. 2002).

The rare occurrence of resveratrol and its beneficial effects on plant and human health have driven attempts to produce resveratrol through transgenic RS expression. Contrary to the rare occurrence of resveratrol, the substrates for resveratrol synthesis, coumaroyl-CoA and malonyl-CoA, are abundant in most plant species, providing a practical background for the

transgenic approach. The expression of RS transcripts has been associated with an increased resistance to various fungal pathogens in transgenic tobacco (Hain et al. 1993), tomato (Thomzik et al. 1997), rice (Stark-Lorenzen et al. 1997), and wheat (Fettig and Hess 1999). In transgenic alfalfa, ectopic expression of RS resulted in the accumulation of a resveratrol-3- $O-\beta-d$ -glucoside (R-gluc) (Hipskind and Paiva 2000). However, no attempt has been reported regarding the production of resveratrol in medicinal herbs that produce little or no amount of the compound. In this report, we demonstrate accumulation of R-gluc by the expression of AhRS3 transgene in R. glutinosa, a strong antioxidant activity of the R-gluc isolated from transgenic R. glutinosa plants, and also increased resistance of the transgenic plants to Fusarium oxysporum infection.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

The plants of R. glutinosa were raised from tubers harvested in the previous growing season, and grown in a glasshouse at Kangwon National University, Korea. Young healthy leaves of R. glutinosa were used as explants for transformation experiments. The transgenic plants were maintained in growth chambers kept at 22° C under 16 h light/8 h dark. Uniform plants of the non-transformed and RgAhRS3-1 transgenic T_0 line at the 5–6th leaf stage were subjected to various abiotic stresses. Cold treatment was imposed through the placement of the plants in a cold chamber at 4 ± 0.5 °C with dim light for 0, 2, 5, 10, and 24 h, respectively (Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki 1994). For UV light treatment, plants were irradiated under high pressure mercury vapor lamps (30 W, 60 mm YOE Incorporated, USA) with a fixed spectrum of 306 nm. For paraquat and ethephon treatments, plants were sprayed with 0.1 mM paraquat or 5 mM ethephon solutions. Leaf and root samples were collected after 0, 2, 5, 10, and 24 h after treatments, respectively. All tissue samples were then frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80° C until utilization.

RS expression vector construction and Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of R. glutinosa

The peanut RS genomic DNA sequence, AhRS3 (GenBank Accession number, AF227963) encompassing the complete coding sequence for a polypeptide of 389 amino acid residues, was cloned into the Xba I/Cla I sites of binary expression vector pGA643 (provided by Dr G. Ahn Pohang University of Science and Technology, Korea) under the CaMV35S promoter. This produced a recombinant AhRS3 expression plasmid, pMG-AhRS3 (Figure 1). The AhRS3 sequence contains a single 312 bp-long intron between 198 and 511, which resides between the 59th and 60th codons of the complete open reading frame of AhRS3. In the intron, two silencer binding factor (SBF-1) elements are located at 272 to 285 and 328 to 338, respectively. SBF-1 is involved in organ-specific expression, in development and functions as a transcriptional silencer (Lawton et al. 1991). SBF-1 elements are found in phenylpropanoid/flavonoid biosynthetic genes such as chalcone synthase, stilbene synthase, cytochrome P450 (An et al. 1993; Bilodeau et al. 1999. The plasmid pMG-AhRS3 was introduced into Agrobacterium tumerfacians strain LBA4404 by the freeze-thaw method, An 1987).

Young healthy leaves were surface-sterilized by subsequent immersion in 70% (v/v) ethanol for 10 s and in 1% (v/v) NaClO₃ solution containing a few drops of Tween 20 for 10 min. After thorough rinsing in sterilized water, leaves were cut aseptically into 7×7 mm² sections. These sections were used as explants. Inoculation of explants with

Agrobacterium harboring the plasmid pMG-AhRS was performed following the protocol of Park et al. (2002). The leaf explants were cultured for 2–3 days on MS medium containing 1 mg 1^{-1} 6-benzylamino-purine (BAP), 2 mg \cdot l⁻¹ thidiazuron (TDZ, Nphenyl-N'-1,2,3-thiadiazol-5-yl urea), 0.2 mg 1^{-1} naphthalene acetic acid (NAA), Murashige and Skoog (MS) vitamin, 3% sucrose, and 0.8% agar (pH 5.2). Pretreated explants were dipped into the Agrobacterium suspension in liquid inoculation medium for 10–15 min, blotted dry on sterile filter paper and incubated in a shoot induction medium $(MS$ medium containing 2 mg l⁻¹ BAP, 1 mg·l⁻¹ TDZ, 0.2 mg 1^{-1} NAA, MS vitamin, 3% sucrose, and 0.8% agar at pH 5.2.) in the dark at 23 ± 1 °C. After cocultivation for 2 days, the explants were transferred to shoot induction medium containing 50 mg l^{-1} kanamycin and 200 mg l^{-1} timentin (mixture of ticarcillin disodium and clavulanate potassium) and were transferred to fresh selection medium every 2 weeks. Putative transgenic shoots were regenerated 6–8 weeks after the first sub-culture. Shoots larger than 3 cm in length were subcultured on MS or 1/2 MS media which had been supplemented with kanamycin and timentin, for root induction. Putative transgenic shoots were incubated in a growth chamber with a 16 h photoperiod under standard cool white fluorescent tubes $(35 \mu \text{mol s}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2})$ at $23 \pm 1 \text{°C}$ for 30 days. Putative transgenic plantlets were then transferred to pots containing autoclaved vermiculite, covered with polyethylene bags to maintain high humidity, and kept at 23 ± 1 °C in a growth chamber for

7 days. After 7 days, the bags were perforated and

the plants were grown in the glasshouse.

Figure 1. Partial structure of the binary vector, pMG-AhRS3, containing peanut resveratrol synthase 3 (AhRS3) expression cassette. The 1500 bp $AhRS3$ genomic sequence contains the sequence encompassing the complete open reading frame sequence in the exon 1 (E1) and 2 (E2), including the 312 bp intron located between the two exons. The intron sequence contains duplicate elements similar to the SBF-1 binding site in the positions as indicated. Abbreviations: nptII, neomycin phosphotransferase II; pNOS and tNOS, promoter and polyadenylation signal of the nopaline synthase gene, respectively; p35S and t35S, 35S RNA promoter and polyadenylate signal of Cauliflower Mosaic Virus, respectively; BR, T-DNA right border; BL, T-DNA left border.

222

PCR analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted from the leaves of non-transformed and transgenic plants by the cetyltrimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB) method (Rogers and Bendich 1988). This genomic DNA was used to screen transformed plants using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) analysis. The selection marker npt II gene was detected using the primer pair, pN-1 (5'-GAAGCTATTCGGCTA TGACTG-3') and pN-2 (5'-ATCGGGAGCGGC GATACCCTA-3'). The AhRS3-specific primer pair, RS3-1 (5'-AGGCACCGTCGTTGGATGC AAGG-3[']) and RS3-2 (5'-GGCCACACTGCGG AGAACAACGG), was used for AhRS transgene detection. PCR reactions were performed with the pre-made reaction mixture (PCR-Express, Hybaid, Middlesex, UK). For npt II gene amplification, each cycle consisted of denaturation (1 min at 94 °C), annealing (1 min at 60 °C), and extension $(1 \text{ min } 30 \text{ s at } 72 \degree C)$ steps. For *AhRS3* sequence amplification, annealing was performed at 59 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$. After 35 cycles, a final extension step was performed at 72° C for 5 min. The amplification products were then separated on 1% (w/v) agarose gels, stained with ethidium bromide and visualized with UV light.

Southern and northern blot analysis

Southern blot analysis was carried out with genomic DNA (Sambrook and Russell 2001). Genomic DNA $(10 \mu g)$ that had been digested to completion with a single restriction enzyme, BamH I, was separated by agarose gel electrophoresis. It was then transferred onto a nylon membrane (Hybond-N⁺; Amersham, UK). The membrane was probed with DIG-labeled antisense *AhRS3* RNA, which had been prepared by in vitro transcription using an RNA transcription Kit (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Mannheim, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The nylon membranes were washed twice with a mixture of $2 \times SSC$ (0.3 M sodium chloride, 0.03 M sodium citrate, pH 7.0) and 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) for 5 min at room temperature, then twice with a mixture of $0.1 \times SSC$ and 0.1% SDS for 15 min at 68 °C, and subjected to detection with DIG-labeled RNA probes using the DIG Chemiluminescent

Detection Kit (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Mannheim, Germany).

Total RNA was prepared from the non-transformed and transgenic R. glutinosa plants using the phenol method (Sambrook and Russell 2001). The total RNA $(10 \mu g)$ was denatured with a mixture of 2.15 M formaldehyde and 50% formamide, fractionated by electrophoresis on a 1.0% agarose gel containing 2.2 M formaldehyde, and subsequently transferred to a nylon membrane. The membrane was probed with DIG-labeled antisense AhRS3 RNA prepared as in Southern blot analysis.

Purification and identification of unknown compounds from transgenic R. glutinosa plants

Only the compounds which appeared as major peaks in the transgenic plants were isolated and their chemical structures were identified using nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) and mass spectrometry. Whole plants were harvested, dried (1 kg) and homogenized with 70% acetone (500 ml \times 2). The extract was concentrated at 40 $\rm{°C}$ in vacuo and the resulting aqueous extract (150 ml) was extracted successively with n haxane $(150 \text{ ml} \times 2)$, methylene chrolide $(150 \text{ ml} \times 2)$, and ethyl acetate (EtOAc, 150 ml \times 2). The EtOAc fraction (1 g) was dissolved in MeOH- $H₂O$ (1:1, 1 ml), chromatographed on a Sephadex LH-20 column $(1.5\times60 \text{ cm})$, and eluted using MeOH–H₂O $(7:13)$ at a flow rate of 1 ml min^{-1} . The compounds appearing as new peaks in the transgenic plants were included in the EtOAc fraction. Recrystallization was performed for the final fraction and the crystal compound was separated on TLC plates (25DC-Plastic-folien Cellulose F, Merck), developed in solvent A (BuOH-HOAc-H₂O; 3:1:1, v/v) and solvent B (6% HOAc), and observed under a UV lamp (254, 365 nm) after being sprayed with vanillin–HCl–ethanol (4.8 g:12 ml:480 ml) reagent (Sarkar and Howarth 1976). The purity of the isolated compounds was confirmed by twodimensional TLC using solvents A and B.

The chemical structures of the purified compounds were identified by 13 C-NMR, 1 H-NMR and mass spectrometry. NMR studies were performed with Brucker Avance DPX-400 NMR spectroscopy (400 MHz, Brucker, Germany).

TMS was used as the internal standard. The structures of the purified compounds were identified using NMR spectra of ¹H-NMR (400 MHz), ¹³C-NMR (100 MHz), COSY, and HECTOR. The molecular weights of the purified compounds were measured by electron ionization mass spectrometer and fast atom bombardment (FAB) mass spectrometer using Micromass Autospec M363 (Micromass, Euroscience, Manchester U.K).

Detection and quantification of resveratrol and $resveratrol-3-O-\beta-p-glucoside$

Resveratrol and resveratrol-3- O - β -D-glucoside (R-gluc) were quantified by HPLC (LC-10A, Shimadzu Co., Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a spectrophotometer (Shimadzu SPD-10A, Japan) and operated at the wavelength of 280 nm. The separation of resveratrol-forming stilbene was performed on a fractionation column (S-4 μ m 80A, 250·10 mm, J'sphere ODS-H80, YMC, Japan) with a flow rate of 1 ml min^{-1} . Gradient elution was performed using two solvents. Solvent A consisted of 2% 0.018 M aqueous ammonium acetate and solvent B comprising 70% solvent A and 30% of organic solvent. The organic solvent was composed of 82% MeOH, 16% n-butanol, and 2% 0.018 M ammonium acetate. After sample injection, gradient elution was performed as follows: 0–1 min, wash with 90% solvent A; 1–21 min, linear gradient from 90 to 75% solvent A; 21–36 min, linear gradient from 75 to 55% solvent A; 36–56 min, linear gradient 100% solvent B; 56–82 min, wash with 100% solvent B. Identification and quantification of compounds were carried out by comparing retention times and peak areas with standard values. Spike tests were also used.

Antioxidant activity assay

Antioxidant activity of resveratrol and resveratrol- $3-O-\beta-D-glucoside$, isolated from transgenic R. glutinosa L. and the standard compounds transresveratrol and astringin, (Sigma, USA) were determined through measurement of the inhibition of lipid peroxidation induced by Cu^{2+} in fresh mouse low density lipoproteins (LDL) and 1,1 diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) free radical

scavenging assay. The standard compounds were purchased from Sigma (USA) and Polyphenol laboratories (USA). Inhibition of lipid peroxidation was determined by measuring thiobarbituric acid-reactive substance production (Buege and Aust 1978). Radical scavenging activity of stilbene compounds was measured according to Yoshida et al. (1989). The radical scavenging activity of each compound was expressed by the percent ratio of the absorption of DPPH in the presence and in the absence of the compound.

Disease response to Fusarium oxysporum

Fusarium oxysporum was isolated from infected plants and confirmed through an identification service by CBS (Fungal Biodiversity Center-Utrecht, The Netherlands). The isolated pathogen was grown in a 250 ml flask containing 100 ml of potato dextrose broth (PDB medium, Duchefa, The Netherlands). It was shaken (150 rpm) at 26 °C under constant light. Fungal cultures were filtered through four layer of cheese cloth after 7 days. The final cell density was maintained at $10⁶$ CFU/ml. The root systems of non-transgenic and transgenic plant were dipped into the spore suspension of F. oxysporum for 30 min and were transplanted to the soil in pods. Disease incidence was evaluated 4 weeks after inoculation by a count of the number of diseased plants (Killebrew et al. 1988)

Results

Transformation of R. glutinosa with peanut RS gene

Thirty putative transgenic lines were established from the separately transformed shoot explants. Most of these transgenic plants exhibited normal growth and development under routine glasshouse conditions. Eleven transgene-positive T_0 lines were selected by PCR screening. The lines containing $AhRS3$ and *npt II* transgene sequences were chosen for further characterization (Figure 2). Results of Southern blot analysis confirmed the presence of the AhRS3 transgene sequence in PCR-selected transgenic plants (Figure 3). The copy number of the AhRS3 transgene was approximated based on

Figure 2. PCR detection of the selection marker npt II (a) and $AhRS3$ transgene (b) sequences in the non-transgenic and T₀ transgenic R. glutinosa plants. Lane 1, 1 kb DNA marker; lane 2, positive control (AhRS3 expression vector DNA); lane 3, non-transformed R. glutinosa plant; lanes 4–14, transgenic R. glutinosa plants. The size of the amplified DNA fragments for npt II and $AhRS3$ are 700 and 904 bp, respectively.

the intensity and pattern of the bands. Eight lines were estimated to contain one, two lines two, and one line three copies of the transgene, respectively.

Expression of AhRS3 transgene

The expression of the transgene was examined in the tissue culture-propagated RgAhRS3-1 plants. The *AhRS3* transgene was expressed constitutively in the leaf, root, and flower tissues of R . glutinosa (Figure 4a). Transgene expression remained similar in the root and flower but increased in the leaf by cold treatment. In the non-transgenic plants, a faint band was detected only in the root, indicating the presence of mRNA sequence showing a significant homology to AhRS3 in the tissue. No reports are available as to the occurrences of resveratol and resveratrol synthase gene in R. glutinosa. However, our recent results indicate the presence of limited amounts of resveratrol in the

Figure 3. Southern blot analysis of genomic DNAs of AhRS3 transgenic T_0 lines. Lane P, $AhRS3$ expression vector DNA digested with $BamH$ I. The insert size is about 1.5 kb. Lane C, non-transformed control plant, Lane 1–11, genomic DNA from the transgenic lines $1-11$ digested with $BamH$ I. The 1.5 kb DNA fragment is indicated by an arrow head.

root of R. glutinosa (Lim et al. 2004). Thus, the faint band detected in the root suggests its presence and its root-specific expression of RS gene in R. glutinosa. However, the putative endogenous RS sequence was not expressed in the leaf or flower after cold treatment (Figure 4a). Transgene expression in the leaf was also increased by UV light, ethephon, and paraquat (Figure 4b). In peanut, AhRS3 expression was also induced by UV, paraquat and ethephon treatments in a timedependent manner (Chung et al. 2003). Since no signals were detected in the leaves of stress-treated non-transgenic plants (Figure 4b), the results indicate that *AhRS3* transgene expression was further increased by stress treatments. Regarding the increased expression of AhRS3 transgene under the control of the CaMV35S promoter, it is noted that the *AhRS3* transgene sequence contains an intron where two transcriptional silencer SBF-1 elements are located (Lawton et al. 1991).

Verification of resveratrol and resveratrol glucoside production

Northern blot analysis strongly indicated that the AhRS3 transgene was expressed in the transgenic R. glutinosa. To estimate the functional consequence of the expressed transgenic, we analyzed the anticipated reaction products of the enzyme by HPLC in the control and transgenic plants. From HPLC analysis, one or two new peaks were detected in the leaf and root of transgenic plants. Also, the peaks coincided with those of R-gluc and resveratrol, respectively (Figure 5), indicating the successful production of functional RS proteins.

Figure 4. Northern blot analysis of AhRS3 transgene expression in the transgenic line RgAhRS3-1. (a) Expression of the AhRS3 transgene in the leaf (L), root (R), and flower (F) after cold treatment for 0, 5, and 24 h, respectively. (b) Increased expression of the AhRS3 transgene by treatments with various stresses. Non-transformed and RgAhRS3-1 transgenic plants were treated by cold (4 °C), UV light, ethephon, or paraquat for 0, 5, and 24 h, respectively.

For physicochemical identification of the new compounds, the compounds were purified and analyzed via thin layer chromatography (TLC), NMR and mass spectrometry. TLC results showed that the unknown compounds were predominantly present in the EtOAc extract of the initial aqueous residue. The white crystalline powder obtained for the unknown compound produced a violet coloration on cellulose 2D-TLC, and appeared as a dark brown spot under UV light (Rf, 0.29/solvent A, 0.28 /solvent B, data not shown). The 1 H-NMR spectrum (Figure 6a) showed the presence of two sets of signals. The former, between δ 3 and δ 5, was assigned to glycosyl protons. This is consistent with the 13 C-NMR spectrum (Figure 6b), which showed six characteristic signals of β glucose unit. The latter set, between δ 6.3 and 7.5, was represented by three systems of olefinic and aromatic protons. The two doublets $(J=8.62 \text{ Hz})$ at 7.33 and 6.26 were designated to an $AA'XX'$ system of a 1,4 disubstituted aromatic ring; and the three broad singlets at δ 6.44, 6.61, 6.78 to the three meta related protons of a 1,3,5 trisubstituted aromatic ring. The two doublets at δ 6.83, and 7.00 with a significant coupling constant $(J=16.2 \text{ Hz})$ showed a trans olefinic proton system. These signals are consistent with a trans stilbene system substituted by a glucoside. Moreover, the coupling constant $(J=7.3 \text{ Hz})$ and the chemical shift (δ 4.89 H-1'') were indicative of the β configuration of the glucosyl bond. Therefore, a trans resveratrol glucoside structure was proposed for this compound. Due to precise positioning of the glucosyl unit, bonding to 4¢ could not occur because the long range coupling cross peak at H-1"/C-3 in HMBC confirmed that the glucose unit was attached to the aglycone at the 3-OH between the anomeric proton and C-3. All meta aromatic protons were nonequivalent. As a result, only one position was in proper agreement with the above data. This compound was confirmed as trans-3'-H-resveratrol-3- $O-\beta$ -glucoside (Figure 6d). Also, the spectroscopic data for the compound of the new major peak detected in the transgenic plant were consistent with those for piceid (Mattivi et al. 1995). Likewise, the spectroscopic data for the compound of the new minor peak detected in the transgenic plant were identical to those of resveratrol (data not shown). It is recognized that resveratrol is often present in conjugated forms such as resveratrol glucosides (Hipskind and Paiva 2000). It is also well-known that piceid is more abundant in grape skin than is resveratrol (Roggero and Archier 1994).

In plants, the conjugation of glucose to small hydrophobic molecules and compounds can lead to the formation of glucose esters or glucosides. The former are high energy compounds and have long been regarded as biosynthetic intermediates (Mock and Strack 1993), whereas glucosides are generally considered representative of the storage forms of aglycons (Hostel 1981).

Figure 5. Detection of resveratrol and R-gluc by HPLC in the leaf and root of RgAhRS3-1 transgenic plants. (a) R-gluc and resveratrol standard compounds were separated as the peaks with retention time of 62.3 (closed vertical arrow) and 75.6 min (open vertical arrow), respectively. (b and c) HPLC chromatograms of leaf from control (b) and from transgenic plants (c). (d and e) HPLC chromatograms of root from control (d) and from transgenic plants (e). The plants were treated at 4° C for 24 h. ND: not detected.

Predominant accumulation of resveratrol glucoside in transgenic plants

Since the production of resveratrol and R-gluc in the transgenic plants was confirmed through rigorous physicochemical analyses, we were able to quantify the amount of the compounds in the transgenic plants. R-gluc accumulated in the leaves of 11 T₀ transgenic lines ranged from 22 to 116 μ g/ gFW with trace amounts of resveratrol. The R-gluc content was generally lower in the lines with more transgene copies (Table 1). The R-gluc contents found in the transgenic R. glutinosa were similar or up to 4-fold higher than those in transgenic alfalfa (Hipskind and Paiva 2000) and peanut (1.2–56 μ g/g FW, Chung et al. 2003) but lower than those in grape $(50-400 \mu g/g$ FW, Langcake and Pryce, 1976) and transgenic Kiwi (182 ug/g FW, Kobayashi et al. 2000).

As the levels of transgene AhRS3 mRNA expression were increased by the various oxidative stresses and hormones, the accumulation kinetics of the compounds was examined in the coldstressed RgAhRA3-1 transgenic plants. Resveratrol and R-gluc were not detected in the leaf of the non-transgenic plant, but resveratrol was, in fact, present at about $2 \mu g/gFW$ and R-gluc at about $115 \mu g/gFW$ in the transgenic plants. The content of resveratrol and R-gluc in the transgenic leaves cold-treated for 5 h was further increased over 2 fold, to 4 and 270 μ g/gFW, respectively (Figure 7). Cold treatment longer than 5 h resulted in no

further increase in R-gluc content in the leaf of transgenic plants. R-gluc in the transgenic leaf was also increased to 341.8, 345.6, and 172.8 μ g/gFW by UV, ethephon, and paraquat treatments for 24 h, respectively. In the root of the non-transgenic plant, very little resveratrol (about $5 \mu g$ / gFW) was present, and no R-gluc was detected. The amount of resveratrol and R-gluc increased to 35 and $650 \mu g/gFW$, respectively, in the coldstressed transgenic roots (Figure 7).

Antioxidant activity of resveratrol glucoside isolated from transgenic R. glutinosa

When the production of resveratrol and preferential accumulation of R-gluc was confirmed, we examined the biological activity of resveratrol and R-gluc isolated from the transgenic plants. The antioxidant potency of the compounds was investigated by measuring the inhibition of lipid peroxidation induced by Cu^{2+} . The resveratrol compounds from the transgenic plant and commercial source showed similar levels of LDL peroxidation inhibition activity. However, the R-gluc (3¢-H-R-gluc) from the transgenic plant required about 6-times more than that of resveratrol or 3¢- OH-trans-R-gluc to achieve the same level of inhibition activity against LDL peroxidation (Table 2). The resveratrols from the transgenic plant and commercial source showed similar levels of radical scavenging activity. Again, the R-gluc (3'-H-R-

Figure 6. Identification of compound isolated from transgenic plants via NMR and mass spectroscopy. (a) ¹³C-NMR spectrum of the compound. ¹³C-NMR (100.6 MHz, δ , MeOH-d4): 62.97(C-6"), 71.86(C-4"), 75.34(C-2"), 78.43(C-3"), 78.63(C-5"), 102.78(C-1"), 104.47(C-4), 107.39(C-2), 108.73(C-6), 116.88(C-3',5'), 127.05(C-7), 129.31(C-2',6'), 130.37(C-8), 130.71(C-1'), 141.82(C-1), 158.86(C-4¢), 159.96(C-5), 160.86(C-3). (b) 1 H-NMR spectrum of the compound. ¹ ${}^{1}H-$ NMR(400 MHz, δ , MeOH-d4): 3.33–3.49 (⁴H, m . H-2",3",4",5"), 3.70 (¹H, *dd*, *J* = 5.75 Hz, and *J* = 12.01 Hz, H-6"b), 3.92(1 H, *dd*, $J = 2.01$ Hz, and $J = 12.08$ Hz, H-6"a), 4.89(1 H, *d*, *J* = 7.3 Hz, H-1"), 6.44(1 H, *t*, *J* = 2.14 Hz, H-4), 6.61(1 H, br s, H-6), 6.26(2H, d, J = 8.62 Hz H-3',5'), 6.78(1 H, br s, H-2), $6.83(^1H, d, J = 16.29$ Hz, H-7), $7.0(^1H, d, J = 16.27$ Hz, H-8), $7.33(^{2}H, d, J=8.62 Hz, H-2', 6'.$ (c) FAB-MASS spectrum. FAB-MS: $[M+H]+m/z$ 391. (d) The structure of resveratrol-3- O - β -D-glucoside (piceid).

b

gluc) from the transgenic plant required about 3 times that of resveratrol or 3'-OH-trans-R-gluc to achieve the same level of scavenging activity (Table 2). Compared with the antioxidant activity of Trolox[®] (6–Hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid), a cell-permeable, water-soluble derivative of vitamin E with potent antioxidant properties, peroxidation inhibition activity and radical scavenging activity of R-gluc (3'-H-R-gluc) were about one fifth and one 19th of those of Trolox. According to the results, the conjugation of an OH group with a sugar decreased the antioxidant potential of resveratrol. Moreover, the significantly lower antioxidant activity of 3'-H-trans-R-gluc compared to 3¢-OH-trans-R-gluc suggests the importance of catechol structure in the antioxidant effect of resveratrol and its derivatives (Goldberg 1995; Norren et al. 1997).

Disease response of RgAh3 transgenic plants to Fusarium oxysporum

F. oxysporum is a common soilborn fungus, wellrepresented in every soil type throughout the world (Burgess 1981). It is a serious pathogen which causes root rot disease in R. glutinosa. Disease response of the transgenic and nontransgenic plants to F. oxysporum was examined after inoculation of the root with spore suspension. Disease symptoms had fully developed 4 weeks after infection. Mortality rate due to the disease was as low as 2% in transgenic plants, but as high as 57% in non-transgenic plants (Figure 8

	R-gluc (μ/gFW)	Estimated transgene copy number		
Non-transgenic ontrol	Not detected*	0		
RgAhRS3-1	115.2 ± 3.4	1		
RgAhRS3-2	42.1 ± 8.5	\overline{c}		
RgAhRS3-3	31.9 ± 5.2	2		
RgAhRS3-4	100.1 ± 5.4			
RgAhRS3-5	89.2 ± 3.5			
RgAhRS3-6	40.9 ± 4.7			
RgAhRS3-7	22.2 ± 6.4	3		
RgAhRS3-8	116.8 ± 11.3			
RgAhRS3-9	95.3 ± 4.3			
RgAhRS3-10	64.7 ± 2.8			
RgAhRS3-11	52.9 ± 9.7			

Table 1. Accumulation of resveratrol-3- O - β -D-glucoside (Rgluc) in the leaves of 11 T_0 transgenic lines with variable *AhRS3* transgene copy numbers.

*No or trace amount $(< 0.001 \mu/gFW)$ of resveratrol was detected.

and Table 3). Only 12% of the transgenic plants had disease rating over 3 compared to 67% of the non-transgenic plants (Table 3). In general, the transgenic lines with higher R-gluc had fewer disease symptoms than those with lower R-gluc, indicating a weak reverse association ($r = -0.67$) between R-gluc content and disease severity. Resveratrol and R-gluc have a similar antifungal activity regarding Phoma medicaginis and hyphal growth was inhibited over 50% at $50 \,\mu\text{g/ml}$ (Hipskind and Paiva 2000). AhRS transgenic alfalfa plants accumulating R-gluc at similar or lower levels than transgenic R. glutinosa are highly

Figure 7. Accumulation of resveratrol and resveratrol-3- O - β -Dglucoside (R-gluc) in the leaf and root of non-transgenic control (Non-TG) and transgenic RgAhRS3-1 (TG) plants treated at 4° C for 0, 2, 5, 10, and 24 h, respectively.

resistant to Phoma medicaginis. Tobacco and wheat transgenic plants producing resveratrol are also resistant to Botrytis cinerea (Hain et al. 1993; Leckband and Lorz 1998).

Discussion

The peanut *AhRS3* genomic DNA sequence was successfully introduced into the R. glutinosa genome via Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of leaf explants. The transgene copy number was estimated to be variable from 1 to 3 copies for the selected eleven transgenic lines based on Southern blot analysis. The occurrence of multiple bands on Southern blots with genomic DNAs digested with a cloning site enzyme with no recognition sites in the insert DNA, indicates that some sequence modifications have occurred on the inserted DNA in some transgenic lines. It is not rare that the transgenes are inserted into chromosomal DNA as repeated, multiple copies (Pawlowski and Somers 1996; Laufs et al. 1999). Several rearrangements of the transgene construct can also occur which result in inversion and translocation (Castle et al. 1993; Laufs et al. 1999).

The constitutive expression of the transgene was detected in the leaf, root, and flower tissues. Interestingly, the expression of the transgene was increased in the leaf by low temperature, UV light, ethylene, and paraquat. The variable expression of the AhRS transgene driven by the CaMV35S promoter was also observed in alfalfa (Hipskind and Paiva 2000). No data were presented regarding the variability of transgene expression. Variable expression levels of a transgene have often been related to the complex integration patterns (Fladung 1999) and effects of surrounding regions (Gelvin 1998). Epigenetic modifications of promoter sequences affect promoter activity and result in altered transcription rates of transgenes (Fojtova et al. 2003). However, the increased expression of the AhRS transgene by stresses is not likely related to the integration patterns and locations or promoter modifications, since the plants used for the expression analysis were vegetatively propagated from the transgenic line with one copy transgene. Alternatively, the SBF-1 silencer binding elements in the intron sequence of the transgene could be associated with the increased transgene expression under stress. In

*Concentration for 50% inhibition. Each value is the mean of at least three independent experiments±SD. The values with the same letter within the column are not significantly different each other. Statistical analysis was performed by using Student's t-test $(p < 0.05)$.

peanut, the expression of AhRS3 is not detected in the leaf free of biotic or abiotic stresses. AhRS3 expression, however, is strongly induced by abiotic and biotic stresses, including UV light, wounding, ethylene, paraquat, and a general elicitor, yeast extract. The difference in the gene expression kinetics could be affected by many factors, including affinity of *cis*- and *trans*-acting elements. The *P. vulgaris* chalcone synthase silencer sequence also functions in tobacco (Hotter et al. 1995). In Phaseolus vulgaris, SBF-1 is constitutively expressed and is not induced by wounding or ethylene (Harrison et al. 1991). Therefore, it is postulated that the collective effects of the silencer element binding sequences in the AhRS3 transgene and the binding proteins similar to SBF-1 of R. glutinosa could contribute, at least in part, to the

Figure 8. A typical response of non-transgenic and transgenic plants (RgAhRS3-1) to Fusarium oxysporum infection. The arrow indicates symptom in the root caused by pathogen.

increased expression of AhRS3 transgene by the stresses. The role of the SBF-1 silencer binding elements in the intron sequence of the transgene could be elucidated by a comparative expression analysis with cDNA AhRS3 lacking the silencer elements.

Confirming the production of resveratrol and accumulation of R-gluc in the transgenic plants were the chemical characterizations of the purified compounds representing the new peaks detected in the transgenic plants via NMR and MS (Figure 6). Ectopic expression of the $AhRS$ coding sequence driven by the CaMV35S promoter in alfalfa resulted in constitutive accumulation of R-gluc with no detectable levels of resveratrol (Hipskin and Paiva 2000). The expression of the grape RS transgene in apple also resulted in the accumulation of R-gluc (Szankowski et al. 2003). In contrast, the major accumulation product in transgenic wheat and tobacco overexpressing the grapevine RS gene was resveratrol, (Fischer et al. 1997; Sebastian and Dieter 1999). In peanut, different forms of resveratrol compounds accumulate in different tissues. The free resveratrol is predominantly detected in the leaf, whereas equal amounts of conjugated forms are also detected in the pod (Chung et al. 2003). Resveratrol derivatives are produced following resveratrol synthesis via conjugation of sugars and methylation, prenylation or condensation reactions (Sotheeswaran and Pasupathy 1993). The predominant accumulation of R-gluc indicated that the reaction product resveratrol is readily conjugated by a glucose moiety presumably through the involvement of glycosyltransferases.

In the leaf and roots of transgenic plants, the amount of resveratrol and R-gluc, and AhRS3

Table 3. Disease responses of the transgenic RgAhRS3 lines and non-transgenic plants to Fusarium oxysporum infection.

	Disease rating ^a					
		2	3			
Non-transgenic plants				12	17	
RgAhRS3-1	13 ^b	11	6			
-2	4	10	9			
-3	6	12	8	4		
-4	10	12				
-5	11	13	6			
-6	9	13	5	3		
-7	6	8	5	8	3	
-8	9	10	10		0	
-9		8	9	4	\mathfrak{D}	
-10		8	10	6		
-11		8	8			

^aDisease ratings (1–5 scale: 1, no symptoms; 2, topical root rot; 3, topical root rot without apparent leaf symptoms; 4, vascular discoloration with leaf wilt symptoms; 5, dead plant).

^bThe number of plants showing the disease ratings indicated out of 30 total plants tested.

mRNA levels were increased by cold treatments (Figures 4 and 7), indicating that AhRS3 transgene expression is regulated at the transcriptional level. Similarly, RS expression is controlled at the transcription step and a high correlation exists between AhRS3 mRNA levels and resveratrol contents in peanut (Chung et al. 2003). Transcriptional control of RS transgenes has also been observed in alfalfa (Hipskin and Paiva 2000) and wheat (Fettig and Hess 1999). After cold treatment longer than 5 h, however, R-gluc content was significantly higher in the root even with lower AhRS3 expression levels. Leaf-specific uncoupling of AhRS3 mRNA from AhRS3 protein could be a possible reason. By the constitutive expression of nitrate reductase (NR) coding region with a CaMV35S promoter in tobacco, NR protein levels drop 4- to 5-fold after 72 h of dark treatment, even though NR mRNA levels remain high (Vincentz and Caboche 1991). Another possible reason could be a relatively lower availability of the substrates for resveratrol synthesis, malonyl-CoA and coumaroyl-CoA, in the leaf. In transgenic tomato expressing grape stilbene synthase, R-gluc content was affected by the availability of substrates (Giovinazzo et al. 2005).

The contents of resveratrol and R-gluc in the unstressed leaf and root of transgenic R. glutinosa were one or two orders of magnitude higher than

in peanut (Chung et al. 2003), and similar to or higher than those of the *AhRS3* transgenic alfalfa (Hipskin and Paiva 2000). This difference might be the resultant of many factors, including the promoter and transgene structure used in the R. glutinosa transformation and the availability of substrates. The strong activity of the CaMV35S promoter might have contributed to the higher levels accumulation in R. glutinosa than in the peanut.

Since the primary use of R. glutinosa is medicinal, increased amounts of resveratrol and its derivatives could add values to R. glutinosa products. R-gluc, the major form accumulated in the transgenic plants, showed high levels of antioxidant activity, though the activity was lower than that of resveratrol (Table 2). The resveratrol glucosides can be hydrolyzed by β -glucosidase in the human gastro-intestinal tract. These also act to liberate the resveratrol aglycon, as in flavonoid absorption (Nemeth et al. 2003). So, the high levels of antioxidant activities of the resveratrol and Rgluc produced in the transgenic plants provides promising evidence for the use of resveratrol compounds as phytochemicals, a value-adding trait. Antioxidants prevent the formation and oppose action of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, which damage DNA, lipids, proteins and other biomolecules (Fang et al. 2002). Diet-derived antioxidants, including resveratrol, also have beneficial effects in human health (Halliwell 1996; Ignatowicz and Baer-Dubowska 2001). The benefits of resveratrol to human heath have been revealed by the quantity and diversity of data from epidemiological, in vitro and in vivo models, and human dietary applications. Resveratrol has been shown to exert cardioprotective (Ingnatowicz and Baer-Dubowska 2001), neuroprotective (Zhuang et al. 2003), and cancer-protective activities (Jang et al. 1997; Cal et al. 2003).

Furthermore, the transgenic R. glutinosa plants were highly resistant to *Fusarium oxysporum*. Resveratrol compounds are well known phytoalexinpossessing antimicrobial effects (Pezet and Pont 1995). The ectopic production of resveratrol and Rgluc provides improved broad spectrum resistance in a wide range of plant species, including monocots and dicots (Hain et al. 1993; Stark-Lorenzen et al. 1997; Thomzik et al. 1997; Fettig and Hess 1999). Therefore, resveratrol and R-gluc could also prove to be beneficial for plant health.

In conclusion, production of R-gluc and resveratrol at several hundred-fold higher levels than in peanut seed was successfully achieved via the ectopic expression of AhRS3 in R. glutinosa. Increased production of resveratrol compounds showing beneficial pleiotropic effects on human and plant health in R. glutinosa, while using a limited amount of the compounds, could provide a new opportunity for the improvement of R. glutinosa products.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by a grant from Bio-Green 21 Program, Rural Development Administration, Republic of Korea.

References

- An C., Ichinose Y., Yamada T., Tanaka Y., Shiraishi T. and Oku H. 1993. Organization of the genes encoding chalcone synthase in Pisum sativum. Plant Mol. Biol. 21: 789–803.
- An G. 1987. Binary Ti vectors for plant transformation and promoter analysis. Methods Enzymol. 153: 292–305.
- Bilodeau P., Udvardi M.K., Peacock W.J. and Dennis E.S. 1999. A prolonged cold treatment-induced cytochrome P450 gene from Arabidopsis thaliana. Plant Cell Environ. 22: 791– 800.
- Buege J.A. and Aust S.D. 1978. Microsomal lipid peroxidation. Methods Enzymol. 52: 302–310.
- Burgess L.W. 1981. General ecology of the Fusaria. In: Nelson P.E., Toussoun T.A. and Cook R.J. (eds), Fusarium: Diseases, Biology, and Taxonomy. The Pennsylvania State University Press, University State and London, pp. 227–235.
- Cal C., Garban H., Jazirehi A., Yeh C., Mizutani Y. and Bonavida B. 2003. Resveratrol and cancer: chemoprevention, apoptosis, and chemo-immunosensitizing activities. Curr. Med. Chem. Anti-Canc. Agents. 3: 77–93.
- Castle L.A., Errampalli D., Atherton T.L., Franzmann L.H., Yoon E.S. and Meinke D.W. 1993. Genetic and molecular characterization of embryonic mutants identified following seed transformation in Arabidopsis. Mol. Gen. Genet. 241: 504–514.
- Chang H.M. and But P.P.H. 1986. Pharmacology and applications of Chinese amteria medica. In: Yao S.C., Wang L.L. and Shem C.S. (eds), Vol. 1 pp. 461.
- Chung I.M., Park M.R., Chun J.C. and Yun S.J. 2003. Resveratrol accumulation and resveratrol synthase gene expression in response to abiotic stresses and hormones in peanut plants. Plant Sci. 164: 103–109.
- Chung I.M., Park M.R., Rehman S. and Yun S.J. 2001. Tissue specific and inducible expression of resveratrol synthase gene in peanut plants. Mol. Cells 12: 353–359.
- Chung I.M., Park M.R., Chun J.C. and Yun S.J. 2003. Resveratrol accumulation and resveratrol synthase gene expression in response to abiotic stresses and hormones in peanut plants. Plant Sci. 164: 103–109.
- Fang Y.Z., Yang S. and Wu G. 2002. Free radicals, antioxidants, and nutrition. Nutrition 18: 872–879.
- Fettig S. and Hess D. 1999. Expression of a chimeric stilbene synthase gene in transgenic wheat lines. Transgenic Res. 8: 179–189.
- Fischer R., Buddle I. and Hain R. 1997. Stilbene synthase gene expression causes changes in flower colour and male sterility in tobacco. Plant J. 11: 489–498.
- Fladung M. 1999. Gene stability in transgenic aspen-Populus. I. Flanking DNA sequences and T-DNA sructure. Mol. Gen. Genet. 260: 574–581.
- Fojtova M., Van Houdt H., Depicker A. and Kovarik A. 2003. Epigenetic switch from posttranscriptional into transcriptional silencing is correlated with promoter hypermethylation. Plant Physiol. 133: 1240–1250.
- Gelvin S.B. 1998. Multigene plant transformation: more is better!. Nat. Biotech. 16: 1009–1010.
- Giovinazzo G., D'Amico L., Paradiso A., Bollini R., Sparvoli R. and DeGara L. 2005. Antioxidant metabolite profiles in tomato fruit constitutively expressing the grapevine stilbene synthase gene. Plant Biotech. J. 3: 57–69.
- Goldberg D.M. 1995. Dose wone work? Clin. Chem. 41: 14–16.
- Hain R., Reif H.J., Krause E., Langebartels R., Kind H., Vornam B., Wiese W., Schmelzer E., Schreier P.H., Stocker R.H. and Stenzel K. 1993. Disease resistance results from phytoalexin expression in a novel plant. Nature 361: 153–156.
- Halliwell B. 1996. Oxidative stress, nutrition, and health. Experimental strategies for optimization of nutritional antioxidant intake in humans. Free Radic. Res. 25: 57–74.
- Harrison M.J., Lawton M.A., Lamb C.J. and Dixon R.A. 1991. Characterisation of a nuclear protein that binds to three elements within the silencer region of a bean chalcone synthase gene promoter. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 88: 2515–2519.
- Hart J.H. 1981. Role of phytostilbenes in decay and disease resistance. Annu. Rev. Phytopathol. 19: 437–458.
- Hasegawa T., Koike K., Takahashi S. and Ariyoshi U. 1982. Constituents of leaves and roots of Kailei Jio (Rehmammia glutinosa Libosch. Forma hueichingensis Hsiao). Shoyakugaku Zasshi. 36: 1–5.
- Hipskind J.D. and Paiva N.L. 2000. Constitutive accumulation of a resveratrol-glucoside in transgenic alfalfa increases resistance to Phoma medicaginis. Mol. Plant-Microbe Interact. 13: 551–562.
- Hostel W. 1981. The Biochemistry of Plants. Vol. 7. Academic Press Inc, New York, pp. 725–753
- Hotter G.S., Kooter J., Dubery I.A., Lamb C.J., Dixon R.A. and Harrison M.J. 1995. Cis elements and potential transacting factors for the developmental regulation of the Phaseolus vulgaris CHS15 promoter. Plant Mol. Biol. 28: 967–981.
- Huang K.C. 1993. The Pharmacology of Chinese Herbs. CRC Press, Boca Raton, p. 281
- Ignatowicz E. and Baer-Dubowska W. 2001. Resveratrol, a natural chemopreventive agent against degenerative diseases. Pol. J. Pharmacol. 53: 557–569.
- Ingham J.L. 1976. 3,5,4¢-Trihydroxystilbene as a phytoalexin from ground nuts (A. hypogaea). Phytochemistry 15: 1791– 1793.
- Jang M., Cai L., Udean G.O., Slowing K.V., Thomas C.F., Beecher C.W.W., Fong H.H.S., Farnsworth N.R., Kinghorn A.D., Mehta R.G., Moon R.C. and Pezzuto J.M. 1997. Cancer chemopreventive activity of resveratrol, a natural product derived from grapes. Science 275: 218–220.
- Jeandet P., Douillet-Breuil A.C., Bessis R., Debord S., Sbaghi M. and Adrian M. 2002. Phytoalexins from the Vitaceae: biosynthesis, phytoalexin gene expression in transgenic plants, antifungal activity, and metabolism. J. Agric. Food Chem. 50: 2731–2741.
- Keen N.T. and Ingham J.L. 1976. New stilbene phytoalexins from American cultivars of A. hypogaea. Phytochemistry 15: 1794–1795.
- Killebrew J.F., Roy K.W., Lawrence G.W., Mclean K.S. and Hodges H.H. 1988. Greenhouse and field evaluation of Fusarium solani pathogenicity to soybean seedlings. Plant Disease 72: 1067–1070.
- Kim H., An C., Jung K., Choo Y., Park J. and Nam S. 1999. Rehmannia glutinosa inhibits tumor necrosis factor- α and interleukin-1 secretion from mouse astrocytes. Pharmacol Res. 40: 171–176.
- Kobayashi S., Ding C.K., Nakamura Y., Nakajima I. and Matsumoto R. 2000. Kiwifruits (Actinidia deliciosa) transformed with a Vitis stilbene synthase gene produce piceid (resveratrol-glucoside). Plant Cell Rep. 19: 904–910.
- Kodan A., Kuroda H. and Sakai F. 2002. A stilbene synthase from Japanese red pine (Pinus densiflora): implications for phytoalexin accumulation and down-regulation of flavonoid biosynthesis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 99: 3335–3339.
- Kubo M., Asano T., Shiomoto H. and Matsuda H. 1994. Studies on rehmanniae radix: I effect of 50% ethanolic extract from steamed and dried rehmanniae radix on hemorheology in arthritic and thrombosic rats. Biol. Pharm. Bull. 17: 1282–1286.
- Langcake P. and Pryce R.J. 1976. The production of resveratrol by Vitis vinifera and other members of the Vitaceae as a response to infection or injury. Physiol. Plant Pathol. 9: 77–86.
- Lanz T., Schroder G. and Schroder J. 1990. Differential regulation of genes for resveratrol synthase in cell cultures of Arachis hypogaea L. Planta 181: 169–175.
- Laufs P., Autran D. and Traas J. 1999. A chromosomal paracentric inversion associated with T-DNA integration in Arabidopsis. Plant J. 18: 131–139.
- Lawton M.A., Dean S.M., Dron M., Kooter J.M., Kragh D.M., Harrison M.J., Yu L., Tanguay L., Dixon R.A. and Lamb C.J. 1991. Silencer region of a chalcone synthase promoter contains multiple sites for a factor, SBF-1, closely related to GT-1. Plant Mol. Biol. 16: 235–249.
- Leckband G. and Lorz H. 1998. Transformation and expression of a stilbene synthase gene of Vitis vinifera L. in barley and wheat for increased fungal resistance. Theor. Appl. Genet. 96: 1004–1013.
- Lim J.D., Yun S.J., Lee S.J., Chung I.M., Kim M.J., Heo K. and Yu C.Y. 2004. Comparison of resveratrol contents in medicinal plants. Korean J. Medicinal Crop Sci. 12: 163–170.
- Mattivi F., Reniero F. and Korhammer S. 1995. Isolation, characterization and evolution in red wine vinification of resveratrol monomers. J. Agric. Food Chem. 43: 1820–1823.
- Mock H.P. and Strack D. 1993. Energetics of uridine 5'-diphosphoglucose-hydroxy- cinnamic acid acyl-glucotransferase reaction. Phytochemistry 32: 575–579.
- Nemeth K., Plumb G.W., Berrin J.G., Juge N., Jacob R., Naim H.Y., Williamson G., Swallow D.M. and Kroon P.A. 2003. Deglycosylation by small intestinal epithelial cell betaglucosidases is a critical step in the absorption and metabolism of dietary flavonoid glycosides in humans. Eur. J. Nutr. $42 \cdot 29 - 42$
- Ni M., Bian B. and Wang H. 1992. Constituents of the dry roots of Rehmannia glutinosa Libosch. Zhongguo Zhongyao Zazhi 17: 297–298.
- Norren K.V., Borggreven J.M.P.M., Hovingh A., Willems H.L., Boo T.D., Elving L.D., Berden J.H.M. and Pont J.J.H.H.M.D. 1997. Antioxidant activity the stilbene astringin, newly extracted from Vitis vinifera cell cultures. Clin. Chem. 43: 1092–1093.
- Oshio H., Naruse Y. and Inouye H. 1981. Quantitative analysis of iridoid glycosides of Rehmanniae radix. Shoyakugaku Zasshi. 35: 291–294.
- Park S.U., Kim H.H., Yu C.Y., Park C.H. and Chae Y.A. 2002. Agrobacterium-mediated genetic transformation of Chinese foxglove, Rehmannia glutinosa L. Biotechnol. Lett. 24: 547–550.
- Pawlowski W.P. and Somers D.A. 1996. Transgene inheritance in plants genetically engineered by microprojectile bombardment. Mol. Biotechnol. 6: 17–30.
- Pezet R. and Pont V. 1995. Mode of Toxic Action of Vitaceae Stilbenes on Fungal Cells. Handbook of Phytoalexin Metabolism and Action, pp. 317–331.
- Preisig-Müller R., Schwekendiek A., Brehm I., Reif H.J. and Kindl H. 1999. Characterization of pine multigene family containing elicitor-responsive stilbene synthase genes. Plant Mol. Biol. 39: 221–229.
- Rogers S.O. and Bendich A.J. 1988. Extraction of DNA from plant tissues. Plant Mol. Biol. Manual A6: 1–10.
- Roggero J.P. and Archier P. 1994. Quantitative determination of resveratrol and of one of its glycosides in wines. Sci. Aliments 14: 99–107.
- Sambrook J. and Russell D.W. 2001. Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual Cold Spring. Harbor Laboratory Press, NY, USA.
- Sarkar S.K. and Howarth R.E. 1976. Specificity of the vanillin test for flavonols. J. Agric. Food Chem. 24: 317–320.
- Schroder G., Brown J.W.S. and Schroeder J. 1988. Molecular analysis of resveratrol synthase cDNA, genomic clones and relationship with chalcone synthase. Eur. J. Biochem. 172: 161–169.
- Sebastian F. and Dieter H. 1999. Expression of a chimeric stilbene synthase gene in transgenic wheat lines. Transgenic Res. 8(3): 179–189.
- Sotheeswaran S. and Pasupathy V. 1993. Distribution of resveratrol oligomers in plants. Phytochemistry 32: 1083–1092.
- Stark-Lorenzen Nelke B., Hanbler G., Muhlbach H.P. and Thomzik J.E. 1997. Transfer of a grapevine stilbene synthase gene to rice (Oryza sativa L. Plant Cell Rep. 16: 668–673.
- Szankowski I., Briviba K., Fleschhut J., Schnherr J., Jacobsen H.-J. and Kiesecker H. 2003. Transformation of apple (Malus domestica Borkh.) with the stillbene synthase gene from grapevine (Vitis vinifera L) and PGIP gene from kiwi (Actinidia deliciosa A. Chev.). Plant Cell Rep. 22: 141–149.

232

- Thomzik J.E., Stenzel K., Stocker R., Schreier P.H., Hain R. and Stahl D.J. 1997. Synthesis of a grapevine phytoalexin in transgenic tomatoes (Lycopersicon esculentum Mill.) conditions resistance against Phytophthora infestations. Physiol. Mol. Plant Pathol. 51: 265–278.
- Tomoda M., Miyamoto H. and Shimizu N. 1994. Structural features and anti-complementary activity of rehmannan SA, a polysaccharide from the root of Rehmannia glutinosa. Chem. Pharm. Bull. (Tokyo) 42: 1666–1668.
- Vincentz M. and Caboche M. 1991. Constitutive expression of nitrate reductase allows normal growth and development of Nicotiana plumbaginofolia plants. EMBO J. 10: 1027–1035.
- Wiese W., Vornam B., Krause E. and Kindl H. 1994. Structural organization and differential expression of three stilbene synthase genes located on a 13 kb grapevine DNA fragment. Plant Mol. Biol. 26: 667–677.
- Yamaguchi-Shinozaki K. and Shinozaki K. 1994. A novel cisacting element in an Arabidopsis gene is involved in

responsiveness to drought, low-temperature, or high-salt stress. Plant Cell 6: 251–264.

- Yoshida T., Mori K., Hatano T., Okumura T., Uehara I., Komagoe K., Fujita Y. and Okuda T. 1989. Studies on inhibition mechanism of autoxidation by tannins and flavonoids. Radical-scavenging effects of tannins and related polyphenols on 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl radical. Chem. Pharm. Bull. 379: 1919–1921.
- Zhuang H., Kim Y.S., Koehler R.C. and Dore S. 2003. Potential mechanism by which resveratrol, a red wine constituent, protects neurons. Ann. New York Acad. Sci. 993: 276–286.
- Zhuang H., Kim Y.S., Namiranian K. and Syvain D. 2003. Prostaglandins of J series control heme oxygenase expression; Potential significance in modulating neuroinflammation Ann. New York Acad. Sci. 993: 208–216.