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Roles of the Nuclear-Encoded Chloroplast SMR Domain-Containing PPR Protein SVR7 in Photosynthesis and Oxidative Stress Tolerance in *Arabidopsis*

He-Xin Lv^{1,2}, Chao Huang³, Guang-Qin Guo² and Zhong-Nan Yang^{3,*}

¹School of Biotechnology, Tianjin University of Science & Technology, Tianjin 300457, China ²Institute of Cell Biology, School of Life Sciences, Lanzhou University, 222 South Tianshui Road, Lanzhou 730000, China ³College of Life and Environmental Sciences, Shanghai Normal University, 100 Guilin Road, Shanghai 200234, China

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Abstract The mutations of the plastid SMR domaincontaining PPR protein SVR7 were previously reported to cause a specific reduction in the chloroplast ATP synthase levels. Here, we isolated a new mutant allele of SVR7, named svr7-4, in which T-DNA is inserted into the initiation codon of SVR7. The rosette leaves of svr7-4, especially in the juvenile stage, showed a pale green phenotype as a result of a reduction in the chlorophyll levels. The values of P700 and Fv/Fm indicated that the photosynthetic capacities of both PSI and PSII were damaged in svr7-4. Furthermore, we found that the svr7-4 accumulated more reactive oxygen species (ROS) and showed lower photo-oxidative stress tolerance by histochemical staining and hydrogen peroxide bleaching experiments, respectively. The leaves of svr7-4 also had increased anthocyanins accumulation compared to that of wild-type (WT) when floated on water under light. Finally, we found that the expression levels of four abiotic stress-responsive genes including ZAT10, AtAPX1, CAT1 and AtGPX2 were up-regulated in svr7-4. SVR7 was expressed ubiquitously during plant development. These results indicate that SVR7 is important for normal photosynthesis and photo-oxidative stress responses in chloroplasts.

Keywords: Chloroplast, Oxidative stress, Pentatricopeptide repeat domain, Photosynthesis, Reactive oxygen species, Small mutS-related domain

*Corresponding author; Zhong-Nan Yang Tel : +86-21-64324190 E-mail : znyang@shnu.edu.cn

Introduction

Chloroplasts are essential organelles that are found in plant cells and eukaryotic algae. In addition to conducting photosynthesis, chloroplasts perform other essential processes including the biosynthesis of amino acids, lipids, fatty acids, hormones, nucleotides, vitamins and secondary metabolites (Leister, 2003). The origin of chloroplasts can be traced to an endosymbiotic event in which a free-living cyanobacteriumlike prokaryote invaded a eukaryotic cell, followed by the large-scale genes being gradually transferred to the host nucleus (Timmis et al. 2004). Altogether, a functional chloroplast contains approximately 3,000 proteins, although only approximately 100 proteins are products of the chloroplast genome; the remaining proteins are transcribed in the nucleus and then imported into the chloroplast after being translated in the cytosol (Martin and Herrmann 1998; Leister 2003). Therefore, the biogenesis and functions of chloroplasts are highly dependent on nuclear genes.

Nuclear-encoded chloroplast-targeted protein factors are involved in overall chloroplast functions, such as photosynthesis, plastid metabolism, chloroplast and host cell biogenesis, or in nuclear-chloroplast trafficking and signaling (Næsted et al. 2004). Pentatricopeptide repeat (PPR) proteins are defined by a signature motif (PPR motif) of a degenerate 35-aminoacid repeat that is often arranged in tandem arrays of 2-27 repeats per peptide (Lurin et al. 2004). The PPR protein family contains many members (~450 members in Arabidopsis thaliana) (Schmitz-Linneweber and Small 2008). Many PPR proteins are localized in chloroplasts and are involved in RNA cleavage, RNA editing, RNA splicing, RNA stability, and the translation of their target transcripts (Kotera et al. 2005; Schmitz-Linneweber et al. 2006; Falcon de Longevialle et al. 2007, 2008; Okuda et al. 2007, 2009; ChateignerBoutin et al. 2008; Beick et al. 2008; Tavares-Carreón et al. 2008; Yu et al. 2009; Zhou et al. 2009). This family has been divided into two subfamilies, the P subfamily with members that are composed only of PPR motifs and the PLS subfamily (Aubourg et al. 2000; Lurin et al. 2004). The PLS subfamily has been further subdivided into four subgroups including PLS, E, E+ and DYW, according to the variable tandem repeat non-PPR motifs at the C-terminus (Lurin et al. 2004).

P subfamily PPR proteins can also be categorized by the presence of additional domains, such as the small MutS-related (SMR) domain (Delannoy et al. 2007). The SMR domain was originally identified in the C-terminal region of the bacterial MutS2 protein from the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* (Moreira and Philippe, 1999). Bacterial SMR domains can bind branched DNA structures such as Holliday junctions, D-loops, and pseudo-Y structures (Pinto et al. 2005; Kang et al. 2005; Fukui et al. 2008). SMR domains have endonuclease activity and act in DNA recombination and repair processes (see a review in Fukui and Kuramitsu, 2011). In Arabidopsis, there are eight SMR domain-containing

PPR proteins. Three of these proteins have experimental data. Genomes uncoupled 1 (GUN1) is the key component in the plastid-to-nucleus retrograde signaling pathways that couple photosynthesis-related nuclear gene expression and chloroplast functions (Koussevitzky et al. 2007; Cottage et al. 2010). pTAC2 is a member of the transcriptionally active chromosome and is essential for the transcription of the plastid-encoded RNA polymerase (PEP)-dependent plastid genes (Pfalz et al. 2006). Recently, the third PPR-SMR protein SUPPRESSOR OF VARIEGATION 7 (SVR7) was analyzed (Liu et al. 2010). The svr7 mutant was identified during a screen for suppressors of the var2 phenotype. The Arabidopsis var2 mutant displays a unique green and white/ vellow leaf variegation phenotype and lacks VAR2, a plastidlocalized homolog of the FtsH class of ATP-dependent metalloproteases (Chen et al. 2000; Takechi et al. 2000). The SVR7 mutation suppresses the variegated phenotype of var2 by an unknown mechanism (Liu et al. 2010). Zoschke et al. (2013) demonstrated that the SVR7 mutation impairs the accumulation and translation of chloroplast ATP synthase subunits. In addition, a reduced ribosome association of *atpB*/



4-week-old

Fig. 1. Phenotypic analysis of the *var7* mutant and WT. (A) One-, two- and four-week-old plants grown in the growth chamber. The arrows indicate the different pale green phenotypes between the *svr7-4* mutants and wild-type. WT, wild-type. COM, genetic complementation line. Bars = 0.2 cm in one and two-week-old plants. Bars = 1 cm in four-week-old plants. (B) Leaf comparisons of chlorophyll a, b and total content of four-week-old *svr7-4* mutant and WT. Values shown are averages ±SD of three replicated experiments. (C) Comparison of chlorophyll a/b ratio of four-week-old *svr7-4* mutant and WT. Values shown are averages ±SD of three replicated experiments. (D) Comparison of fresh weight between four-week-old *svr7-4* mutant and WT. Values shown are averages ±SD of a population of 40 plants.

E and *rbcL* mRNAs in the *svr7* mutants suggests the involvement of SVR7 in the translational activation of these mRNAs (Zoschke et al. 2013).

In this study, we have analyzed a mutant allele of *SVR7*. *svr7*-4 exhibits a pale green phenotype and decreased photosynthetic capacity. The *svr7*-4 also exhibits enhanced sensitivity to oxidative stress and increased accumulation levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Further investigation found that the expression of some antioxidative genes that are involved in responding to ROS was up-regulated in *svr7*-4, which may help scavenge the excess accumulation of ROS. These results indicate that *SVR7* is important for normal photosynthesis and the chloroplast response to photo-oxidative stress.

Results

Phenotypic and Genetic Analysis of the svr7-4 Mutant

When identifying new genes that are essential for chloroplast

development and photosynthesis, we identified a T-DNA insertion line in Arabidopsis ecotype Col-0 with pale green rosette leaves and a relatively dwarf phenotype (Fig. 1A). The total chlorophyll content was slightly reduced in the mutant (Fig. 1B). However, the chlorophyll a/b ratio of the mutant increased by 9.6% compared to that of the WT (Fig. 1C). In addition, we quantitatively evaluated the smaller stature of the mutant plants by measuring the fresh weight of fourweek-old whole plants. Results showed that the fresh weight of the mutant plants decreased by 40% compared to that of the WT plants that were grown under the same conditions (Fig. 1D). When the mutant was crossed with the WT, the F1 plants exhibited a normal phenotype. The segregation ratio between the green and pale green plants in the F2 population was close to 3:1 (green:pale green = 61:20, χ^2 = 0.012, P > 0.95). These results demonstrate that the mutant phenotype is the result of a single, recessive, nuclear mutation.

We used thermal asymmetric interlaced PCR (TAIL-PCR) to identify the T-DNA insertion site in this mutant. Sequencing of the TAIL-PCR products revealed that the T-DNA was



Fig. 2. Indentification and characterization of the *SVR7* gene. (A) Schematic diagram of the *SVR7* gene. Exon (black box) and gene flanking sequence (line) are indicated. The positions of the T-DNA insertions corresponding to *svr7-4* and SAIL3_42_G09 (*svr7-5*) mutants are shown. LS3/LB3, T-DNA specific primer set; LP/RP and LP'/RP' primer sets, used for T-DNA insertion validation in *svr7-4* and *svr7-5* mutants are shown (arrows). comF/comR primer set (dashed arrows) used for genetic complementation is shown. The upright numbers are used to indicate *SVR7* nucleotide position on chromosome IV. The horizontal numbers are used to indicate the nucleotide positions on the *SVR7* transcript. (B) Expression analysis of *SVR7* and the neighboring gene in the WT and mutant. *SVR7 5'* indicates the genomic region expression by the primer set that flank the T-DNA insertion in the *svr7-4* mutant; *SVR7 3'* indicates the genomic region was used as the control. (C) PCR analysis of the allele tests. *svr7-4/ svr7-5* was used to indicate the F1 progeny genotypes. *svr7-4, svr7-5* and WT were used as controls.

inserted at a position between the A and T of the initiation codon of the gene *AT4G16390* (*SVR7*) in the Arabidopsis genome (Fig. 2A). Reverse transcription (RT)-PCR demonstrated that the *SVR7* transcripts cannot be detected in the mutant (Fig. 2B). To confirm that the knockout of SVR7 was responsible for the defects in this mutant, a construct containing the genomic sequence of the AT4G16390, as well as a 1766-bp upstream sequence and 164-bp downstream sequence were introduced into the heterozygous plant (Fig. 2A). Two of three transgenic plants were completely rescued (Fig. 1A). This mutant was named *svr7-4* because three mutant alleles of *SVR7* had been previously described (Liu et al. 2010;



Fig. 3. Phylogenetic analysis of SVR7 homologues. (A) Unrooted phylogenetic tree of six *Arabidopsis* PPR and SMR domain containing proteins. (B) Unrooted phylogenetic tree of the SVR7 and its homologues from various species. Rs, *Raphanus sativus*, P67.1; Vv, *Vitis vinifera*, CAO43700; Os, *Oryza sativa*, Os03g0215900; Pp, *Physcomitrella patens* subsp. XP_001779433; Cr, Chlamydomonas *reinhardtii*, XM_001691012; Pt, *Populus trichocarpa*, AC216943; Sb, *Sorghum bicolor*, XP_002465641; Zm, *Zea mays*, NP_001130387; Rc, *Ricinus communis*, EEF42446. (C) Multiple alignments of SVR7 and homologues. Black bars, predicted transit peptide sequence of SVR7; Gray bars, PPR domain of SVR7; Box, SMR domain of SVR7. Sequences were aligned using CLUSTAL X (2.0) (Thompson *et al.*, 1997) and displayed using BOXSHADE (www.ch.embnet.org/software/BOX_form.html).

Zoschke et al. 2013). In addition, we obtained one individual *svr7* allele from the Syngenta Arabidopsis Insertion Library (SAIL) collection at the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (ABRC), *svr7-5* (SAIL_423_G09) (Fig. 2A, C), which exhibited the same phenotype as that of *svr7-4* (data not shown). The results of the allele test by crossing the two alleles (*svr7-4* and *svr7-5*) demonstrated that the *AT4G16390* knockout resulted in the pale-green and dwarf phenotype of the *svr7* mutant.

The Phylogenetic Analysis of the SVR7 Sequence

In the Arabidopsis genome, there are eight proteins with PPR and SMR domains. A phylogenetic analysis conducted by MEGA 4.1 (Tamura et al. 2007) grouped SVR7 and an unknown gene (*AT5G46580*) into the same clade with a 34.5% sequence identity (Fig. 3A). The *SVR7* and *AT5G46580* expression patterns were also similar based on microarray data in the Genevestigator V3 analysis tool (https:// www.genevestigator.ethz.ch/) (Zimmermann et al. 2004; Grennan, 2006) and the gene co-expression database (http:// /www.arabidopsis.leeds.ac.uk/act/) (Manfield et al. 2006). The second gene of close homology to SVR7 was GUN1 (Fig. 3A), which shares approximately 19.6% protein sequence homology with SVR7. GUN1 is a component of retrograde signal transduction localized in chloroplasts (Koussevitzky et al. 2007). To investigate whether the chloroplast-to-nucleus retrograde signaling process of *svr7* is abrogated or impaired as in the *gun1* mutant, the expression of *Lhcb1.2* was investigated under photo-oxidative conditions in the presence of 5 μ M norflurazon. Real-time RT-PCR demonstrated that *Lhcb1.2* expression was down-regulated in both *svr7* and WT plants at the seedling stage, indicating that the chloroplast-to-nucleus retrograde signaling process was not affected in the *svr7* mutant (data not shown). Another member of this phylogenetic tree, pTAC2 (Pfalz et al. 2006), is a component of the plastid genome transcription active site (Koussevitzky et al. 2007). These results suggest that SVR7 might also play an important role in the chloroplast.

A PSI-BLAST search identified homologs of the SVR7 protein in various plant species including rice, radish, grape, moss, cottonwood, castor, maize, sorghum and chlorophytes (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/). The PPR and SMR domain homologs were aligned by CLUSTAL X (2.0) (Thompson et al. 1997), and a phylogenetic tree was constructed using MEGA 4.1 (Tamura et al. 2007) (Fig. 3B, C). The radish protein P67, which has been reported as a chloroplast RNA-binding protein (Lahmy et al. 2000), had an 86.3% amino



Fig. 4. *SVR7* expression pattern. *SVR7*-driven GUS expression assay. (A) Histochemical staining of globular embryo in seeds imbibed in water for 2 d at 4°C. (B-D) one-, two- and three-d-old seedlings. (E, F) three-d-old seedlings. (G) roots; (H) stems; (I, J) inflorescence and flowers; (K, L) rosettes and cauline leaves; (M) siliques. Bar = 100 μ m in (A), bar = 200 μ m in (B), bar = 250 μ m in (C), bar = 350 μ m in (D), bar = 300 μ m in (E) and (F), bar = 400 μ m in (G, H, I, J and M), bar = 500 μ m in (K, L). (N) *SVR7* mRNA abundance in different tissues and growth stages. Rt, root; Sm, stem; Lf, leaf; Inf, inflorescence; Sl, seedling. Values shown are averages ± SD of three replicates of Real-time RT-PCR experiments.

acid sequence identity with SVR7.

SVR7 Expression Pattern

To determine the temporal and spatial expression patterns of SVR7, a vector with a 1778-bp upstream genomic fragment of SVR7 and the coding sequence of the β -glucuronidase (GUS) reporter gene was constructed and introduced into WT. Histochemical staining of the transgenic lines revealed that the SVR7 gene was expressed in seeds that were imbibed in water for 2-d at 4°C (Fig. 4A), but not in dry seeds (data not shown). In one- and two-d-old germinated seedlings, GUS activity was detected in the cotyledons but not in the hypocotyls (Fig. 4B, C). GUS activity was also detected in every tissue of three-d-old seedlings (Fig. 4D). In the roots, the GUS activity was mainly confined to the primary roots and was weak in the lateral roots (Fig. 4G). GUS staining was also observed in the sepals, petals, stigmas and filaments of the inflorescence but not in the ovaries and stamens (Fig. 4I, J). The GUS expression patterns suggest that SVR7 is expressed during every stage of the life cycle in different organs (Fig. 4A-M). We also used real-time RT-PCR to further analyze the expression of SVR7 in different plant organs (roots, stems, leaves, inflorescence and seedlings) from 40-d-old reproductive growth-stage plants and 7-d-old seedlings. Results showed that SVR7 was highly expressed in the seedlings, leaves and roots; expressed at moderate levels in the inflorescence; and expressed at lower levels in the stems (Fig. 4N), which was consistent with the above GUS staining results. These results indicate that SVR7 is expressed ubiquitously during plant development.

In addition, we also investigated the effect of light on *SVR7* gene expression. The 3-d-old dark grown seedlings exhibited GUS activity similar to their light-grown counterparts (Fig. 4E, F), indicating that *SVR7* expression is independent of light regulation. Light is one of the most important signals influencing chloroplast development. Light triggers the differentiation of nonphotosynthetic proplastids into fully functional photosynthetic chloroplasts (Lopez-Juez and Pyke, 2005). The light-independent expression of *SVR7* suggests that *SVR7* might play basic roles not only in chloroplast development but also in other types of plastids, which is consistent with the observation that *SVR7* is also expressed in non-green organs, such as roots and petals.

The Reduced Photosynthetic Capacity of svr7-4

Leaf coloration mutants are usually tightly linked with abnormal chloroplast development. To understand the physiological role of SVR7 in chloroplast development, we used light micrographs and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to examine the chloroplast ultrastructure of the *svr7-4* and WT



Fig. 5. Spectroscopic analysis of *svr7-4* and WT. (A) Comparison of leaf Fv/Fm ratio between 15 min dark-adapted four-week-old *svr7-4* mutant and WT. The minimal level of fluorescence (F_0) from dark-adapted whole plants with all PSII reaction centers open was determined using a pulsed measuring beam of red light. The Fm level with all PSII reaction centers closed was determined using a saturating pulse and dark-adapted leaves. SL, saturating light; ML, measuring light. Values shown are averages ±SD of three replicated experiments. (B) Redox kinetics of P700. The oxidation of P700 was investigated by measuring absorbance changes of P700 at 820 nm induced by far-red light (FR; 720 nm). *A*max, maximum oxidation induced by far-red light. AL, actinic light.

plants. We found no visible differences in the chloroplast ultrastructure between svr7-4 and WT (data not shown). In addition, we characterized the photosynthetic capacity of the svr7-4 mutant. Chlorophyll fluorescence induction experiments demonstrated that the ratio of variable fluorescence to maximum fluorescence (Fv/Fm), which reflects the maximum photochemical efficiency of photosystem II (PSII) was slightly lower in svr7-4 (0.754±0.029) than that in WT (0.800 ± 0.003) (Fig. 5A). To determine whether the electron transport rate (ETR) of PSI was also blocked in syr7-4, we determined the P700 redox kinetics in four-week-old leaves of svr7-4 and WT under far-red light. As shown in Fig. 5B, a transient increase in the ETR was observed in both the WT and svr7-4 following the far-red treatment. However, the maximum ETR in svr7-4 was significantly lower than that in WT (Fig. 5B), indicating that the PSI activity in this mutant was impaired. Taken together, these results indicate that loss of SVR7 affects the PSI more than PSII.

Loss of SVR7 Leads to Increased Sensitivity to Oxidative Stress

Oxidative injury is believed to cause a number of defects in

plants. We analyzed the H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ accumulation in svr7-4 through DAB- and NBT-staining, respectively. Histochemical analyses indicated that the svr7-4 leaves accumulated higher levels of H_2O_2 and O_2^- than that of the WT leaves (Fig. 6A), suggesting that SVR7 plays an important role in controlling ROS production. To verify this result, svr7-4 and WT leaves were floated on different concentrations of H2O2 and exposed to 120 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ light for 12 h. The *svr7-4* leaves were bleached in 1.5 M H₂O₂, while the WT leaves showed slower bleaching phenomenon compared to the svr7-4 mutant under the same condition (Fig. 6B). However, the leaves that were grown under dark conditions showed no obvious differences between svr7-4 and WT (Fig. 6B). These results indicate that the capacity to detoxify H₂O₂ was obviously decreased in the svr7-4 mutant. Anthocyanins in vegetative tissues have been proposed to absorb excess light energy to prevent photoinhibition (Smillie and Hetherington 1999; Merzlyak and Chivkunova 2000; Feild et al. 2001). The svr7-4 leaves accumulated more anthocyanins than that in the WT when floated on water under 120 imol m⁻² s⁻¹ light for 60 h (Fig. 6C). The ZAT10/12 transcriptional factors play key roles in modulating plant defense responses (Mittler 2002; Davletova et al. 2005). Some antioxidant genes, such as AtAPX1, CAT1 and AtGPX2, are induced by ROS (Mylona and Polidoros 2010). Therefore, we detected the expression levels of these genes in svr7. The real-time PCR results indicate that the transcriptional levels of ZAT10, AtAPX1, CAT1 and AtGPX2 were significantly up-regulated in svr7-4 compared to those of WT. The expression of ZAT12 was not obviously difference between svr7-4 and WT (Fig. 6D). These results suggest that SVR7 may play a role in protecting the chloroplast against oxidative stress.

Discussion

The functions of SVR7 and its orthologous protein P67 in radish and ATP4 in maize have been studied. P67 has RNAbinding activity in vitro (Lahmy et al. 2000). The atp4 mutant exhibited a pale green phenotype and seedling lethality. Loss of ATP4 function reduced the translation of atpB/E and atpA, which further affect the chloroplast ATP synthase (Zoschke et al. 2012). Similar to its homologous protein in Arabidopsis, the SVR7 mutation also resulted in the impaired accumulation and translation of chloroplast ATP synthase subunits and reduced ribosome association of atpB/E and rbcL mRNAs (Zoschke et al. 2013). The reduced accumulation of ATP synthase was considered to affect chloroplast rRNA processing and chloroplast protein accumulation (Liu et al. 2010). In this study, we isolated an allele of SVR7 that exhibited a reduced growth rate with pale green rosette leaves. The loss of SVR7 resulted in slightly

decreased chlorophyll a and b contents. However, the chlorophyll a/b ratio increased in this mutant, suggesting that the maintenance of chlorophyll-a-rich reaction centers at the expense of chlorophyll-b-rich antenna complexes. Aronsson et al. (2008) suggested that this mechanism enables a more efficient use of light energy with limited pigment resources. Thus, an increase in the chlorophyll a/b radio suggests that *svr7-4* adjusted the two pigment quantities to minimize the damage due to the decreased photosynthetic efficiency.

Plant cells suffer from oxidative stress, of which ROS are the major factors (Zhao et al. 2005). Chloroplasts are the primary source of ROS. The photosynthetic electron transport system generates ROS even under optimal conditions (Asada 1999; Asada 2000). The production of ROS is low in normal plant cells because of well-developed defense systems against ROS (Myouga et al. 2008). Superoxide dismutases (SODs) constitute the first line of cellular defense against ROS, which scavenge the primary product of oxygen reduction, superoxide anion (O_2^-) (Bowler et al. 1994). These superoxide dismutases rapidly convert O₂⁻ and water to hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and molecular oxygen (O_2) (Asada, 2006), thereby protecting the plant against oxidative damage. A high concentration of ROS causes progressive oxidative damages to lipids, proteins, and DNA, ultimately leading to cell death (Sedelnikova et al. 2010; Adibhatla et al. 2010; Bochkov et al. 2010; Sharma et al. 2012). In this study, we found that the intracellular levels of ROS were increased in the svr7-4 mutant and that the svr7-4 mutant exhibited enhanced sensitivity to H_2O_2 (Fig. 6). PSI is mainly located on the surface of the stroma thylakoids and grana thylakoids, and PSII mostly exists within the grana thylakoids. Our results indicated that the mutation in SVR7 affected PSI more than PSII (Fig. 5), which may be due to the PSI being outside the thylakoids and therefore more easily affected by ROS accumulation in svr7. Thus, SVR7 plays a role in protecting chloroplasts from ROS. The increased accumulation of ROS in the svr7-4 mutant may lead to the decreased photosynthetic efficiency in svr7-4, which further affects the growth of this mutant.

Recently, some PPR proteins were reported to be involved in the defense against abiotic stress tolerance (Laluk et al. 2011; Yuan and Liu 2012). PGN is a mitochondrial PPR protein in Arabidopsis that is important for seed germination on NaCl. The loss of PGN function dramatically increased ROS accumulation in seedlings in response to salt stress (Laluk et al. 2011). Yuan et al. (2012) analyzed another mitochondria-targeted PPR protein SLG1 in Arabidopsis. The *slg1* mutant also accumulated more H_2O_2 and grew slowly. In addition, *slg1* exhibited an enhanced response to ABA and increased tolerance to drought stress. The phenotype of *svr7-4* is similar to that of *slg1*. Both of them exhibited relatively dwarf phenotype compared with WT. Thus, PPR



Fig. 6. *svr7-4* accumulates additional ROS. (A) Representative images illustrating H_2O_2 and O_2^- accumulation in the leaves of four-weekold WT and *svr7-4*, visualized by prestaining with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB, Bars = 25 µm) and nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT, Bars = 30 mm), respectively. (B) Effect of exogenous H_2O_2 on WT and *svr7-4* leaves floated on a H_2O_2 solution at the indicated concentration under 120 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ light for 12 h. The experiment was repeated more than three times. Bars = 1 cm. (C) Anthocyanin accumulation in leaves floated on water and exposed to 120 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ light for 60 h. The experiment was repeated more than three times. Bars = 1 cm. (D) Expression analyses of five antioxidant genes in WT and *svr7-4* plants by real-time RT-PCR. mRNA values were normalized against the WT. Values shown are averages ±SD of three replicated experiments.

proteins may play a role in protecting chloroplasts during photosynthesis although their detailed mechanism requires further investigation.

Materials and Methods

Plant Materials and Growth Conditions

The *svr7-4* mutant was isolated from the pSKI015 activation tagging T-DNA mutant pools (Qin et al. 2003). Mutant and WT *Arabidopsis thaliana* plants of the *Columbia*-0 background were chosen for the study. Seeds were sown in pots containing a 6:1:0.5 mix of vermiculite, peat moss and perlite, supplemented with nutrient salts and allowed to imbibe for 3 d at 4°C. Plants were grown at $22\pm1^{\circ}$ C in continuous light of 120 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ or 16-h-light/8-h-dark cycles. Plants were photographed with a Nikon digital camera (COOLPIX 4500; Tokyo, Japan). Transmission electron micrographs were obtained as described by Yu et al. (2009).

Chlorophyll Measurement

Chlorophyll content was determined according to the method described by Lichtenthaler and Wellburn (1983). Total chlorophyll extracts were obtained from 200 mg of fresh leaves from four-week-old mutant and WT plants and subsequently incubated in 10 mL of 80% ethanol under dark until the leaves turned white. Each measurement was performed by three independent repeats and the standard deviations were calculated. Chlorophyll-fluorescence measurements were performed using a pulse amplitude-modulated fluorometer (PAM 101 for P700 measurement and JUNIOR-PAM for Fv/Fm measurement. Heinz Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany) equipped with a data acquisition system to record fast changes (Meurer et al. 1996).

TAIL-PCR and Molecular Cloning of the SVR7 Gene

The presence of the mutant T-DNA insertion was validated by using primers that specifically amplify the T-DNA BAR gene (Bar-F: 5' TCATAGGCGTCTCGCATATCTCA 3'; Bar-R: 5' CTGCACCAT-CGTCAACCACTACA 3'). The tail-PCR procedure with left border primers (LS1, LS2, and LS3) and AD primers followed Liu et al. (1995) and Qin et al. (2003). The T-DNA insertion site and mutant phenotype cosegregation were analyzed with the following LS3 and plant-specific primers (LP: 5'-GGCGCAGTTTCTGGGTTAGT-3'; RP: 5'-TTTGCACGATTCCTTTCATAAC-3'). In the mutant plants, only PCR with LS3 and LP primers amplified a DNA fragment of approximately 700 bp. In the WT, only PCR with LP and RP primers amplified a DNA fragment of 1004 bp. For heterozygous mutant plants, PCR with both primer pairs showed positive results. T-DNA insertion left border specific primer LB3 (5' ATCTGAATTTCAT-AACCAATCTCG 3') and plant-specific LP' (5'TGCCTCATCATCC-GACCA 3') and RP' (5' TGGGAAAGCCAAGCAGGTA 3') were used in the allele test to identify the svr7-2 mutant and F1 progeny genotypes. For genetic complementation, a DNA fragment of 4250 bp sequences, including 1792 bp upstream and 348 bp downstream were amplified using Pyrobest-Taq polymerase (Takara, Tokyo, Japan) by the primer set CMF (5' GAATTCCCAATAATAGTATTTCGC 3') and CMR (5' CTGCAGCAGTTGAAAAACATATC-3'). The SmaI and SacI restriction enzyme sites are designated in italics. After sequencing verification, the fragment was cloned into the pCAMBIA1301 binary vector (CAMBIA, ACT, Australia) and introduced into homozygous mutant plants using the infiltration method with Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain LBA4404. The transformants were selected on PNS culture medium with 20 mg/L hygromycin and screened for seedlings exhibiting the WT phenotype. As LP/RPamplified sequences were included in the complementation fragment, for homozygous background verification, the following strategy was adopted: the presence of the T-DNA insertion in the WT hygromycin resistant lines were validated by primer pair LS3 and LP and more than 60 offspring were verified as the presence of the T-DNA insertion in AT4G16390.

RNA Extraction and RT-PCR

RNA was prepared as described in Yu et al. (2009). Semi-quantitative RT-PCR was conducted for 35 cycles to assess the svr7 and WT expression levels using the following primer sets: SVR715'-F (5' AACTGCGAACAAAGTACCCAC 3') and SVR715'-R (5' ATCTT-GCTCAAACAATTTACCAC 3') were used to examine the 5' region expression analysis of SVR7; SVR713'-F (5' GTGTACGCTTGT-AGTGGGAGG 3') and SVR713'-R (5' TGTAAGGACCATTGGG-TAGCA 3') were used for the 3' region expression analysis of SVR7. 16400RTF (5' TGTCTGGTCGGATGATGAGG 3') and 16400RTR (5' GTGATTGCCATCGCTAAGAA 3') were used for expression analysis of the AT4G16400 gene. B-tubulin (Tub-F: GACACTACA-CTGAAGGTGCTGAG 3' and Tub-R: AAGCTGATGAACAGA-GAGAGTTG) were used as the control. Real-time RT-PCR amplifications were performed with the SYBR GREEN I Kit (TOYOBO, Tokyo, Japan) on an ABI 7300 Real-Time RT-PCR System (Applied Biosystems, MA, USA) and the relative quantification of gene expression data was analyzed as described in Hricová et al. (2006). The primers used to detect expression of the abiotic stressresponsive genes including ZAT10, ZAT12, AtAPX1, CAT1 and AtGPX2 were as follows: ZAT10F:5'-CCGCCGTGACTACTGGAA-3' and ZAT10R: 5'-GATCGGAGGGATGTTGAGG-3', ZAT12F: 5'-GTGCGAGTCACAAGAAGCC-3' and ZAT12R: 5'-TCGGAAA-CTCCACTCCACAT-3'; AtAPX1F: 5'-ACTACCCAACCGTGAG-CGAA-3' and AtAPXIR: 5'-TCAAACCTCATTGTTCCGAA-3'; CATIF: 5'-TTACCCAACTTACTTCTGCTG-3' and CATIR: 5'-GATC-AAAGTTCCCCTCTCTG-3'; AtGPX2F: 5'-TGGCGGATGAATCT-CCAAAGT-3' and AtGPX2R: 5'-GTTCCTTGTAGTTCGCATCCG-3', respectively. The data set was normalized using β -tubulin as the control.

Expression Pattern Analysis

The promoter *SVR7*::GUS was constructed by cloning a 1778-bp upstream genomic sequence before the *SVR7* initiation codon was inserted into the binary vector pCAMBIA1301 of the constitutive CaMV 35S (Cauliflower mosaic virus 35S) promoter prior to GUS removal. The primer set used was as follows: SVR7PF: 5'-*GAATT-CCCAATAATAGTATTTCGC-3*' and SVR7PR: 5'-*GGATCCTTT-GTTCGCAGTTG-3*'. The *Sma*I and *Sac*I restriction enzyme sites are designated in italics. GUS histochemical analysis was performed as described in the Arabidopsis manual (Weigel and Glazebrook 2002). Tissues were examined using a SZ-CTV dissecting microscope interfaced with a DP70 digital camera (Olympus; Tokyo, Japan).

Phylogenetic Analysis

Full-length protein sequence alignment was performed using CLUSTAL X (2.0) (Thompson et al. 1997), and BOXSHADE (http://www.ch.embnet.org/software/BOX_form.html). Phylogenetic trees were constructed by MEGA 4.1 (Tamura et al. 2007).

DAB and NBT Histochemical Staining and Hydrogen Peroxide Bleaching

The leaves of four-week-old mutant and WT plants were vacuuminfiltrated for histochemical detection of H2O2 as described by Díaz-Vivancos et al. (2008). Histochemical detection of O2⁻ was performed by infiltrating leaves directly with 0.1 mg/mL⁻¹ of nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT) (Dingguo, Beijing, China) in 25 mM K-HEPES buffer (pH 7.6) and incubating at 25°C in the dark for 24 h. In both cases, leaves were rinsed in 80% (v/v) ethanol for 10 min at 70°C, mounted in lactic acid:phenol:water (1:1:1, v/v/v), and photographed directly using a SZ-CTV dissecting microscope interfaced with a DP70 digital camera (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). For hydrogen peroxide bleaching, the leaves of four-week old mutant and WT plants were floated on an H₂O₂ series (0, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0 M) under 120 µmol $m^{-2} \ s^{-1}$ light for 12 h; and to assess anthocyanin accumulation, leaves were floated on water under light at 120 µmol m⁻² s⁻² for 60 h. Leaves were photographed using a Nikon digital camera (COOLPIX 4500; Tokyo, Japan).

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Author's Contributions

LHX performed chlorophyll measurement, histochemical staining and hydrogen peroxide pleaching experiments; Phylogenetic and expression pattern analysis of SVR7 were performed by HC; LHX and HC wrote the manuscript; GGQ and YZN designed the experimental plan and revised the manuscript. All the authors agreed on the contents of the paper and post no conflicting interest.

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