# Chloroplast development in *Arabidopsis thaliana* requires the nuclear-encoded transcription factor Sigma B

Yumiko Shirano<sup>a,1</sup>, Hiroshi Shimada<sup>b</sup>, Kengo Kanamaru<sup>c</sup>, Makoto Fujiwara<sup>c</sup>, Kan Tanaka<sup>c</sup>, Hideo Takahashi<sup>c</sup>, Kazutoshi Unno<sup>d</sup>, Shuusei Sato<sup>e</sup>, Satoshi Tabata<sup>e</sup>, Hiroaki Hayashi<sup>f</sup>, Chikahiro Miyake<sup>g</sup>, Akiho Yokota<sup>g</sup>, Daisuke Shibata<sup>a,2,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Mitsui Plant Biotechnology Research Institute<sup>3</sup>, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-0047, Japan <sup>b</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Tokyo Institute of Technology, Nagatsuta, Midoriku, Yokohama 226-0026, Japan

<sup>c</sup>Institute of Molecular and Cellular Biosciences, University Hospital, 74 Mizonokuchi, Takatsu-ku Kawasaki, Kanagawa 213-0001, Japan <sup>d</sup>Department of Orthopedic Surgery, University Hospital, 74 Mizonokuchi, Takatsu-ku Kawasaki, Kanagawa 213-0001, Japan <sup>e</sup>Kazusa DNA Research Institute, Yana 1532-3, Kisarazu, Chiba 292-0812, Japan

<sup>f</sup>Department of Applied Biological Chemistry, Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Science, University of Tokyo, 1-1-1 Yayoi, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0032, Japan

EGraduate School of Biological Sciences, Nara Institute of Science and Technology, 8916-5 Takayama, Ikoma, Nara 630-0101, Japan

Received 1 September 2000; revised 30 October 2000; accepted 30 October 2000

First published online 8 November 2000

Edited by Gunnar von Heijne

Abstract Development of plastids into chloroplasts, the organelles of photosynthesis, is triggered by light. However, little is known of the factors involved in the complex coordination of light-induced plastid gene expression, which must be directed by both nuclear and plastid genomes. We have isolated an *Arabidopsis* mutant, *abc1*, with impaired chloroplast development, which results in a pale green leaf phenotype. The mutated nuclear gene encodes a sigma factor, SigB, presumably for the eubacterial-like plastid RNA polymerase. Our results provide direct evidence that a nuclear-derived prokaryotic-like SigB protein, plays a critical role in the coordination of the two genomes for chloroplast development. © 2000 Federation of European Biochemical Societies. Published by Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

Key words: SigB; Sigma factor; RNA polymerase; Chloroplast development; Arabidopsis thaliana

## 1. Introduction

The semiautonomous plastids of plant cells exhibit various differentiated forms including the chloroplast, the organelle of photosynthesis [1]. During evolution, most of the prokaryotic

\*Corresponding author. Kazusa DNA Research Institute, Yana 1532-3, Kisarazu, Chiba 292-0812, Japan. Fax: (81)-438-52 3948, E-mail: shibata@kazusa.or.jp

Abbreviations: NEP, nuclear gene-encoded RNA polymerase; PEP, plastid-encoded RNA polymerase; PSII, photosystem II; PFD, photon flux density

genome of the ancestral cyanobacterium that gave rise to chloroplasts has been lost or transferred to the eukaryotic nuclear genome of the host cell [2]. Such prokaryotic genes that have undergone nuclear transfer have adapted to the eukaryotic transcriptional machinery for targeting their gene products to plastids [3]. The remaining 120 or so genes of the plastid genome are transcribed by mechanisms that are probably more complex than those of the cyanobacterial ancestor. Coordination between the nuclear and plastid genomes likely contributes to the diverse mechanisms of transcriptional regulation of the plastid genes. Research into such nucleus–plastid coordination is in its early stages.

Gene expression in plastids relies on at least two RNA polymerases. The nuclear gene-encoded RNA polymerase (NEP) transcribes housekeeping and many other genes, but NEP promoters are absent from most photosynthesis-related genes [3]. The plastid-encoded RNA polymerase (PEP) is essential for the light-induced conversion of proplastids to chloroplasts. PEP acts in a manner similar to that of the classical eubacterial RNA polymerase, which recognizes specific DNA elements designated -35 and -10. Targeted deletion of plastid genes that encode the core subunits of PEPrpoA for  $\alpha$ , rpoB for  $\beta$ , rpoC1 for  $\beta'$ , or rpoC2 for  $\beta''$ , results in photosynthetically defective plants that lack PEP activity [4]. However, the plastid genome lacks a gene for a sigma factor, an essential component of the RNA polymerase holoenzyme in eubacteria [3]. Nuclear gene-encoded sigma subunits have been identified in unicellular red algae [5]. Several genes of higher plants that encode homologs of eubacterial sigma factors have also been recently identified [6-9]. However, the role of these proteins showing homology to bacterial sigma factors was not well understood.

We now show that the nuclear gene-encoded sigma factor SigB of *Arabidopsis thaliana* plays a critical role in chloroplast development at an early stage of seedling growth, and that other sigma factors also likely contribute to this process in a somewhat redundant manner. The SigB protein and other sigma factors appear to function as a link between the nuclear genome and plastid gene expression in higher plants.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Present address: Boyce Thompson Institute, Cornell University, Tower Road, Ithaca, NY 14853-1901, USA.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Present address: Kazusa DNA Research Institute, Yana 1532-3, Kisarazu, Chiba 292-0812, Japan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Disbanded in March 1999.

# 2. Materials and methods

# 2.1. Plant growth and mutant isolation

A. thaliana accession Wassilewskija was grown at 22°C with a 16-h light, 8-h dark cycle. Transgenic plants were produced on a large scale by a vacuum infiltration protocol, as described previously [10], with Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101 (pMP90RK) harboring the activation tagging vector pPCVICEn4HPT [11]. We isolated several mutants that exhibited the pale green leaf phenotype from ~3500 transgenic lines examined. The mutant line #3117 chosen for further study exhibited aberrant chloroplast development when examined by transmission electron microscopy, and was designated abc1.

#### 2.2. Microscopy

Plant tissues were fixed with glutaraldehyde and paraformaldehyde and embedded in Quetol 812 (Nisshin EM, Tokyo, Japan) according to standard procedures. Ultrathin sections were stained with uranyl acetate, then with lead citrate, and observed with a JEM 1200EX transmission electron microscope. Plastids were also viewed with a Zeiss fluorescence microscope equipped with a CSU 10 confocal laser-scanner unit (Yokogawa, Tokyo, Japan), a digital camera (Hamamatsu, Shizuoka, Japan) and IPLab spectrum software (Vienna, Austria).

#### 2.3. T-DNA identification and genetic characterization

Given that the T-DNA fragment used for Arabidopsis transformation contained the Col E1 origin and the ampicillin resistance gene [11], the sequences flanking the T-DNA in the abc1 mutant were rescued in Escherichia coli. Genomic DNA was isolated from the mutant plant, digested with either BamHI or ClaI, ligated and transformed into E. coli XL2-Blue. The rescued plasmids contained either a 15-kb BamHI fragment or a 12-kb ClaI fragment. One side of the T-DNA flanking sequence was amplified from the BamHI fragment by a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with primers En4LB1 (5'-GA-TTTCCCGGACATGAAGCC) and AtD2-N4 (5'-CACGACGTTG-TAAAACGACGTCAGCCAACCTTTGCGC), and the other side was amplified from abc1 genomic DNA with the primers En4LB1 and AtD2-C4 (5'-GGATAACAATTTCACACAGGGTTCTATGC-ACAAAACATTCCA); the amplification products were then sequenced with M13forward(-29) (underlined sequence in AtD2-N4) and M13reverse (underlined sequence in AtD2-C4) primers, respec-

The *EcoRV* genomic DNA fragment containing *sigB* was cloned into the *SmaI* site of the vector pBI101. The resulting construct was introduced into the *abc1* mutant by vacuum infiltration [10].

# 2.4. Fluorescence measurement by pulse amplitude-modulated fluorometry

Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence originating from photosystem II (PSII) in an intact attached leaf was measured at a controlled room temperature of 25°C with a pulse amplitude-modulated fluorometer (MINI-PAM; H. Walz, Effeltrich, Germany). The third leaf after bolting was illuminated with a low-intensity, modulated measuring beam with a photon flux density (PFD) of  $< 0.5 \, \mu \text{mol} \, \text{m}^{-2} \, \text{s}^{-1}$  as well as with actinic light through a fiber-optic probe positioned at a 45° angle



Fig. 1. Phenotype of the *abc1* mutant at the early stage of seedling growth. Wild-type (left) and *abc1* mutant (right) plants (about 60 plants/pot) were grown for 2 weeks.

against the leaf. The chlorophyll fluorescence emitted from the leaf in response to excitation with the measuring beam was detected through the same fiber-optic probe. The steady-state fluorescence yield ( $F_{\rm s}$ ) was monitored continuously, and 1.0-s pulses of saturating light (PFD, 5000 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) were administered at intervals of ~300 s to determine maximal variable fluorescence ( $F_{\rm m}'$ ). The protocol for fluorescence measurement was similar to that described by Genty and Harbinson [12], with the exception that the measurements were performed with an attached leaf. The terminology used for fluorescence parameters is that previously recommended [13], and the relative quantum yield of PSII [ $\Phi$ (PSII)] at the steady state is defined as  $(F_{\rm m}'-F_{\rm s})/F_{\rm m}'$ , or  $\Delta F/F_{\rm m}'$ .

#### 2.5. Northern hybridization analysis

Expression levels of the major chloroplast transcripts for psbA, psbD and rbcL were analyzed as described [14].

### 3. Results and discussion

In a T-DNA insertion screen for mutations in chloroplast development we have isolated an A. thaliana mutant, designated abc1, that exhibits aberrant chloroplast development and a consequent phenotype characterized by pale green leaves (Fig. 1). This phenotype was also biochemically quantitated, revealing that the 4-day-old abc1 cotyledons contain only 15% of the chlorophyll a/b content of 4-day-old wild-type cotyledons. Interestingly, although the growth of this mutant is impaired, the macroscopic morphology of this mutant appears normal in all other respects. Further characterization of this mutant by electron microscopy revealed that the developing chloroplasts in 5-day-old cotyledons of mutant plants are much smaller than the corresponding wild-type cotyledons (Fig. 2a). The thylakoid membranes and the stacked lamellar structure of grana were poorly developed, and few starch granules were apparent, suggestive of a low photosynthetic ability. In contrast, the chloroplasts from 5-day-old cotyledons of wild-type plants had substantial deposition of starch granules and the lamellar structure was far more developed. Interestingly, the size and shape of etioplasts in cotyledons grown in the dark were indistinguishable between mutant and wild-type plants (data not shown). These observations thus indicated that the phenotype of the abc1 plants results from a mutation that affects light-induced development of chloroplasts in the early stage of seedling growth.

In contrast, the chloroplasts in 2-week-old leaves of mutant plants were nearly mature in terms of grana structure. However, they exhibit a loosened envelope, in contrast to wild-type chloroplasts where the envelope was tightly associated with the ellipsoidal content (Fig. 2b). Confocal laser-scanning microscopy of mesophyll cells in 2-week-old rosette leaves also revealed that the chloroplasts in the *abc1* cells are smaller than those of wild-type cells (Fig. 2c), consistent with the results obtained by electron microscopy. Given that the number of chloroplasts per cell appeared similar in both the mutant and wild-type plants, the pale green leaf phenotype of the 2-week-old mutant plants is likely attributable to the small chloroplast size.

The mutant phenotype segregated as a single recessive mutation and also cosegregated with the hygromycin resistance conferred by the T-DNA sequence used for gene tagging, suggesting that the mutation was caused by T-DNA insertion into the nuclear genome. We therefore isolated the T-DNA flanking sequences by plasmid rescue. The two flanking sequences of the T-DNA were subcloned into a 15-kb BamHI

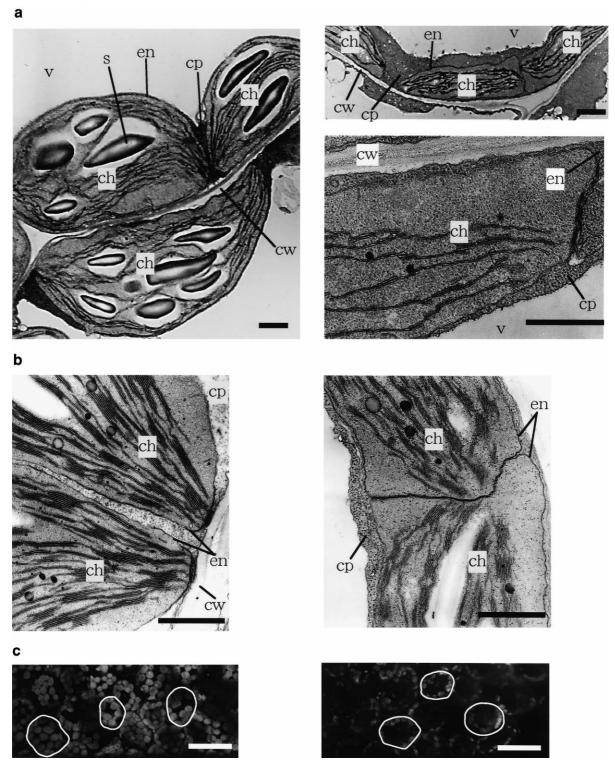


Fig. 2. (a) Cotyledon cells of 5-day-old wild-type (left) and *abc1* mutant (right) seedlings were analyzed by transmission electron microscopy. Note higher magnification in the lower panel for the *abc1* mutant. Scale bars, 1 μm. Abbreviations; ch, chloroplast; s, starch granule; cp, cytoplasm; cw, cell wall; and v, vacuole. (b) Chloroplasts of 2-week-old leaves of wild-type (left) and *abc1* mutant (right) plants. The mutant chloroplasts exhibit a loosened envelope structure. Scale bars, 200 nm. (c) Confocal laser-scanning microscopic analysis of chlorophyll fluorescence in mesophyll cells of 2-week-old leaves of wild-type (left) and *abc1* mutant (right) plants. Three cells chosen arbitrarily in each panel are outlined in white. Scale bars, 10 μm.

fragment and a 12-kb *Cla*I fragment, respectively. A physical map of the *Cla*I fragment revealed an insertion of two inverted T-DNA sequences at the targeted locus with partial deletion of one of the T-DNA fragments (Fig. 3). Sequencing

of the flanking region of the *BamHI* fragment identified the T-DNA-tagged gene as *sigB*, which encodes a putative plastid sigma factor. Amplification of the other flanking region by PCR and sequencing of the PCR product confirmed the in-

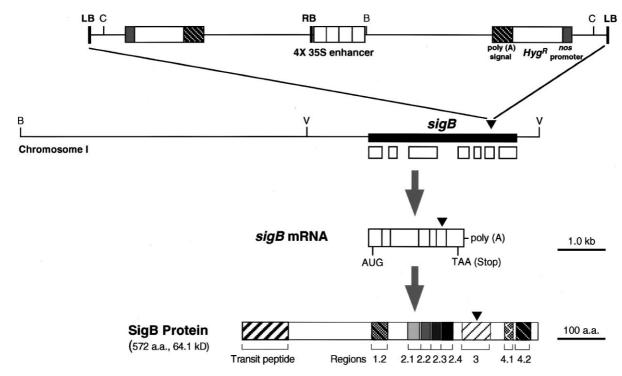


Fig. 3. Insertion of T-DNA into the sigB gene of A. thaliana. The structures of T-DNA and genomic DNA at the site of insertion, of sigB mRNA, and of the SigB protein are shown. The site of T-DNA insertion (exon 6 of sigB, encoding conserved region 3) is indicated by an arrowhead. The two inserted T-DNA elements were oriented in opposite directions, with a set of four enhancer sequences located near the center of the inserted sequence. LB, left border of T-DNA; RB, right border; C, ClaI; B, BamHI; V, EcoRV; and HygR, hygromycin resistance gene.

sertion site and orientation of the T-DNA. To verify that the T-DNA insertion was responsible for the mutant phenotype, we isolated a 4.49-kb fragment of genomic DNA containing sigB from A. thaliana accession Columbia and introduced it into the abc1 mutant. The transgene restored normal leaf color (data not shown). Given that the T-DNA contained a set of concatenate enhancer fragments derived from the 35S promoter of cauliflower mosaic virus for activation tagging, it was possible that the abc1 mutant phenotype resulted from enhanced transcriptional activation of the aberrant sigB gene itself or of neighboring genes. However, the observations that heterozygous abc1/ABC1 plants exhibited a normal morphology and that the wild-type sigB gene complemented the mutant phenotype argued against this possibility. We also introduced the full-length sigB cDNA under the control of the 35S promoter into the abc1 mutant and obtained four transgenic lines; the resulting mature transgenic plants exhibited near normal chloroplast development (data not shown). This suggests that some level of SigB is essential for chloroplast development and further demonstrates that the abc1 mutant phenotype was caused by loss of sigB function.

The SigB protein contains regions that show sequence similarity to the *E. coli*  $\sigma^{70}$  factor [15]. The T-DNA inserted in the *abc1* mutant into the portion (exon 6) of *sigB* that encodes region 3, resulting in a continuous reading frame that encodes an additional two amino acids, <sup>457</sup>Ser-His-Cys-Stop (Fig. 3). Thus, if expressed, the mutant gene would give rise to a truncated, chimeric protein that lacks a portion of region 3 and region 4, which are thought to be required for promoter recognition and protein–protein interaction [15]. The mutant protein, therefore, would be unable to activate transcription in a wild-type manner.

Based on the activity of sigma factors in eubacterial systems, the SigB protein likely binds to the core PEP RNA polymerase and this is consistent with recent results reported by others and ourselves. For example, we recently demonstrated import of SigB into chloroplasts with the use of transient expression assays and a chimeric fusion protein comprising the NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal region of SigB and green fluorescent protein [16]. Additionally, PEP promoter sequences have been identified in many photosynthesis-related genes in the plastid genome [3]. PEP has also been shown to be indispensable for chloroplast development from proplastids, although it is not required for plastid maintenance [4]. The impairment in chloroplast development during the early stage of seedling

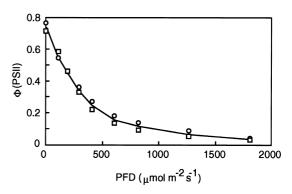


Fig. 4. Efficiency of photosynthesis in the *abc1* mutant. The relative quantum yield of PSII [ $\Phi$ (PSII)] at the steady state was measured at the indicated PFDs and atmospheric partial pressures of CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> of 36 Pa and 21.0 kPa, respectively. Two-week-old attached leaves of wild-type (squares) and *abc1* mutant (circles) plants were studied.

growth in the abc1 mutant is also consistent with the high level of sigB expression apparent during early seedling development, as demonstrated in transgenic plants expressing the uidA gene under the control of the sigB promoter [19]. Furthermore, among transgenic Arabidopsis plants expressing antisense genes for five Arabidopsis sigma factors, sigA through sigE [16,17], only those expressing the sigB antisense construct exhibited a pale green leaf phenotype similar to that of the abc1 mutant (unpublished data). Taken together, these observations indicate that the sigma factor encoded by sigB functions, probably through interaction with the core subunits of PEP, in the normal development of photosynthetic chloroplasts during the early stage of seedling growth.

To determine whether the sigB mutation affects photosynthesis, we measured the efficiency of photosynthesis with a pulse amplitude-modulated fluorometer. The quantum yield of PSII in 2-week-old leaves of mutant plants was virtually identical to that of wild-type plants under a wide range of light intensities (Fig. 4). In general, impairments of PSII or the Calvin cycle result in low quantum yields at low and high light intensities, respectively [18]. Thus, our results indicate that the efficiency of photosynthesis with regard to both electron transport by PSII and carbon fixation is normal in mutant plants at this stage of development. They also suggest that assembly of the photosynthetic apparatus is normal in the abc1 mutant, at least during the late stages of plant development. Moreover, given that expression of photosynthesisrelated genes in the plastid genome requires PEP activity [3,4], other factors appear to exist that complement the lack of SigB function in the mutant plants. The homologous genes sigA and sigC were previously identified in Arabidopsis [6,7], and we have recently identified sigD, sigE and SigF in this species [17]. Furthermore, a family of sigma gene homologs has also been found in maize [9]. The other sigma-like proteins are therefore likely candidates in the partial complementation of impairment in SigB function manifest during the early stage of abc1 seedling growth. However, the small size of chloroplasts apparent even during the later stages of development of the abc1 mutant suggests that the timing and level of gene expression is crucial for normal chloroplast development. The fact that Arabidopsis sigma factors share only ~35\% amino acid sequence identity suggests that each factor may target specific promoter sequences for PEP-mediated transcription, as is the case in eubacterial transcription systems [19].

To assay if the *abc1* mutation affects the transcriptional levels of the plastid-encoded major photosynthetic genes *psbA*, *psbD* and *rbcL*, Northern hybridization analysis was performed using probes specific for these genes. Total RNA was isolated from seedlings at time points between 1 and 4 days. Initial expression levels of these genes in 1-day-old wild-type seedlings is very low. However, expression increases drastically with time. No apparent differences in expression of these genes in either quantity or timing is found in the *abc1* mutant (data not shown). These results may suggest that the sigB protein is not critical for overall expression of these photosynthetic genes or other sigma factors may compensate for the sigB deficiency and induce expression of these genes. However, this data is consistent with our results showing no loss of

photosynthetic ability with this mutation and suggests that these genes are not the critical sigB target(s) causing the pale green phenotype.

The link between the nuclear genome and plastid gene expression provided by sigma factors represents a unique consequence of plastid evolution in eukaryotic cells. Given that primitive red algae also possess nuclear gene-encoded sigma factors [5], this link emerged at an early stage of evolution and has been conserved in higher plants. Thus, contributing to and allowing for nuclear control of the complex transcriptional mechanisms required for regulating the light-induced development of chloroplasts and additionally, for the adaptation of the endosymbiotic genome to eukaryotic cells.

Acknowledgements: This work was supported by Special Coordination Funds for Promoting Science and Technology from the Science and Technology Agency of Japan to D.S. and K.T.; by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Culture of Japan to K.T. (Priority Area No. 10170207), K.K. (No. 11740434), and H.T. (No. 094460046); and by the Biodesign Research Program of RIKEN to K.T. and H.T.

# References

- [1] Kirk, J.T.O. and Tilney-Bassett, R.A.E. (Eds.) (1978) The Plastids, Elsevier/North-Holland Biomedical Press, Amsterdam.
- [2] Douglas, S. (1994) in: The Molecular Biology of Cyanobacteria (Bryant, D.A., Ed.), pp. 91–118. Kluwer, Dordrecht.
- [3] Allison, L.A. (2000) Biochimie 82, 537-548.
- [4] Serino, G. and Maliga, P. (1998) Plant Physiol. 117, 1165– 1170
- [5] Tanaka, K., Oikawa, K., Ohta, N., Kuroiwa, H., Kuroiwa, T. and Takahashi, H. (1996) Science 272, 1932–1935.
- [6] Tanaka, K., Tozawa, Y., Mochizuki, N., Shinozaki, K., Nagatani, A., Wakasa, K. and Takahashi, H. (1997) FEBS Lett. 413, 309–313.
- [7] Isono, K., Shimizu, M., Yoshimoto, K., Niwa, Y., Yokota, A. and Kobayashi, H. (1997) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 94, 14948–14953.
- [8] Tozawa, Y., Tanaka, K., Takahashi, H. and Wakasa, K. (1998) Nucleic Acids Res. 26, 415–419.
- [9] Tan, S. and Troxler, R.F. (1999) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96, 5316–5321.
- [10] Bechtold, N. and Pelletier, G. (1998) Methods Mol. Biol. 82, 259–266.
- [11] Hayashi, H., Czaja, I., Lubenow, H., Schell, H. and Walden, R. (1992) Science 258, 1350–1353. (Correction: (1999) Plant J. 4, 200)
- [12] Genty, B. and Harbinson, J. (1996) in: Photosynthesis and the Environment (Baker, N.R., Ed.), pp. 67–99. Kluwer, Dordrecht.
- [13] van Kooten, O. and Snel, J.F.H. (1990) Photosynth. Res. 25, 147–150.
- [14] Kanamaru, K., Fujiwara, M., Kim, M., Nagashima, A., Nakazato, E., Tanaka, K. and Takahashi, H. (2000) Plant Cell Physiol. 41, 1119–1128.
- [15] Helmann, J.D. and Chamberlin, M.J. (1988) Annu. Rev. Biochem. 57, 839–872.
- [16] Kanamaru, K., Fujiwara, M., Seki, M., Katagiri, T., Nakamura, M., Mochizuki, N., Nagatani, A., Shinozaki, K., Tanaka, K. and Takahashi, H. (1999) Plant Cell Physiol. 40, 832–842.
- [17] Fujiwara, M., Nagashima, A., Kanamaru, K., Tanaka K. and Takahashi, H. (2000) FEBS Lett., in press.
- [18] Bilger, W., Fisahn, J., Brummet, W., Kossman, J. and Willmitzer, L. (1995) Plant Physiol. 108, 1479–1486.
- [19] Tanaka, K., Takayanagi, Y., Fujita, N., Ishihama, A. and Takahashi, H. (1993) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 90, 3511–3515.