## HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT; LIGHT SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION IN PLANTS AND FUNGI.

#### Kohji Hasunuma and Naoto Yabe

Yokohama City University, Kihara Institute for Biological Research, Totsuka-ku, Yokohama, Japan

**Keywords:** Arabidopsis thaliana, circadian rhythm, cryptochrome, floral induction, light signal transduction, *Neurospora crassa*, new opsin-1 (nop-1), nucleoside diphosphate kinase-1 (ndk-1), photoactive yellow protein (pyp), phytochrome, photomorphogenesis, phototropin, phototropism, scotomorphogenesis (etiolated plant), *white collar-1 (wc-1), white collar- 2 (wc-2)*.

#### Contents

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Historical aspects of analysis to respond to light
- 3. Plants; Arabidopsis thaliana
- 3.1. Photoreceptors
- 3.1.1. Phytochromes
- 3.1.2. Cryptochromes
- 3.1.3. Phototropin
- 3.1.4. Putative photoreceptors for UV-A, UV-B and UV-C
- 3.2. Signal transduction
- 4. Fungi; Neurospora crassa
- 4.1. Photoreceptors
- 4.2. Signal transduction
- 4.3. Circadian rhythm
- Glossary
- Bibliography
- Biographical Sketches

## Summary

Plants are sessile organisms that respond to environmental stimuli such as light, temperature, gravity, ions, draught, wounding and infections by viruses and fungi. Plants respond to daily changes of sunlight, recognizing the length of duration of day and night. Plants determine the transition from vegetative growth to flowering under the control of day length, (although length of dark period (night) is critically important). Under nitrogen-limited conditions *Neurospora crassa* enters a sexual cycle from mycelia (vegetative growth) to protoperithecium formation. These processes are under the control of light.

In *Arabidopsis thaliana* light signals are perceived by several photoreceptors including phytochrome A, B, C, D and E, cryptochrome 1 (CRY1) and 2 (CRY2), phototropin 1 (Phot1) and 2 (Phot2), and zeaxanthin. The candidates of signal transducer of light immediately downstream of phytochrome are nucleoside diphosphate kinase, NDK, as well as PIF3 (phytochrome interacting factor 3). The downstream of Phot1 is followed

by NPH 2 (non phototropic hypocotyl 2), NPH3 and NPH4. Phot1 forms a complex with NPH3.

In *Neurospora crassa* putative photoreceptors are WC-1 and WC-2 proteins. The former includes LOV (light, oxygen and voltage) domain, and the latter has PAS domain with putative binding domain of chromophore (cumaric acid) of photoactive yellow protein (PYP), although there is no strict evidence that WC-1 and WC-2 are photoreceptors. Both proteins are also suggested to function as transcription factors.

From in vitro analysis the nucleoside diphosphate kinase (NDK-1) was rapidly phosphorylated in response to blue light irradiation of the reaction mixture. NDK- $1^{Pro72His}$  protein from a mutant *ndk*- $1^{Pro72His}$  showed neither autophosphorylation nor protein kinase (phosphate transferring) activity.  $ndk-l^{Pro72His}$  lacked to cause light induced polarity of perithecia. Purified NDK-1 showed: i) nucleoside diphosphate ADP+GTP, ii) autophosphorylation activity, and iii) kinase activity of ATP+GDP protein kinase (phosphate transferring) activity to phosphorylate myelin basic protein. The  $ndk-1^{Pro72His}$  mutant lacked the latter two activities. By the nucleoside diphosphate kinase activity of i) activity, NDK-1 is suggested to provide GTP in the vicinity of GTP-binding protein. A new signal transduction pathway designated as NDK cascade via the activities of ii) and iii) are suggested. New opsin-1 (NOP-1) bound retinal and generated proton by light illumination. The nop-1 mutant showed deficiencies in the light induced expression of *nop-1* transcript, and also deficiencies in the light induced production of aerial hyphae and conidium. In Neurospora crassa circadian rhythm of conidium formation are well known. By use of band (bd) strain several mutants in circadian rhythm including frq mutants were isolated and analyzed.

## 1. Introduction

Plants and fungi are sessile organisms which are exposed to severe changes in environmental circumstances such as daily changes of sunlight, temperature, gravity, nutritional ions, draught, wounding, waving by wind, and infections by viruses, bacteria and fungi. Those organisms have developed elaborate genetic systems to respond to these environmental stimuli.

In complete darkness seeds of the pea (*Pisum sativum*) geminate if they have enough moisture (water) and appropriate temperature, elongating long white stems. The leaves have not expanded, and are white or yellow because of the lack of chlorophyll. This type of morphogenesis is designated as scotomorphogenesis, and is shown in Figure 1. Seeds that are relatively large in size show this pattern of germination, enabling the shoot to 'search' for light in deep places in the soil. Seeds, such as those of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and of lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*), which are small in size usually have the ability to geminate under light, in addition to the appropriate conditions of moisture and temperature. This pattern of control of seed germination is derived from natural selection, since small seeds do not have enough nutritional resource to permit a search for light in deep soil. As shown in Figure 1, peas show completely different morphogenesis under light—a phenomenon called photomorphogenesis.

The process of photomorphogenesis includes following steps in the development: 1)

Regulation of a current of ions such as  $Ca^{2+}$ , and  $K^+$  via membrane systems such as plasma membrane. 2) Regulation of stomatal opening. 3) Regulation of chloroplast relocation. 4) Regulation of gene expression including the expression of chalachone synthetase (CHS), etc. 5) Phase shift of the expression of catalase gene, which shows clear circadian rhythm. 6) Developmental regulation of chloroplast formation from proplastid. 7) Regulation of seed germination. 8) Suppression of elongation of stem hypocotyls and epicotyls. 9) Positive phototropism of stem elongation. 10) Transition from vegetative growth to flowering. These processes are precisely under the control of gene regulation.



Figure 1. Pea seedlings grown (A) in the light and (B) in complete darkness (etiolated)

In the case of filamentous fungus, *Neurospora crassa* similar light (blue light) regulated morphogenesis can be observed. The life cycle of *Neurospora crassa* is shown in Figure 2. During several processes in the life cycle light has an indispensable role. The major processes controlled by blue light are as follows. 1) Input resistance caused by light in the mycelia indicating light-controlled changes in the current of ions via the plasma membrane. 2) Light-induced accumulation of carotenoids in the mycelia. 3) Light-induced formation of aerial hypha and conida. 4) Under nitrogen-limited conditions blue light induced the formation of protoperithecium. 5) Light-induced perithecial polarity forming a perithecial beak (including the ostiole, a hole through which ascospores shoot out) pointing upward. In darkness it forms at random places on

the perithecia. 6) Positive phototropism of perithecial beak. 7) Light can induce phase shift of circadian rhythm of conidium formation produced by *band* strain. 8) Suppression of circadian production of conidia to constant formation of conidia by strong light.

These processes are precisely controlled by the genetical systems. The description will be focused on the results of research using *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Neurospora crassa*.

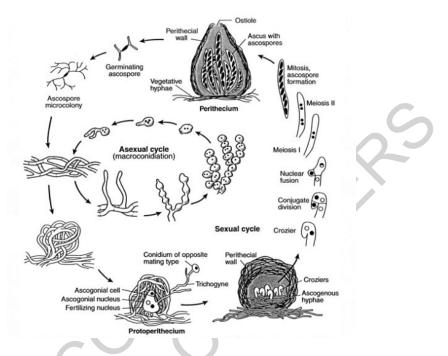


Figure 2. Life cycle of *Neurospora*. The asexual cycle, the inner sequence, depicts the formation of macroconidia from aerial hyphae and their germination to form a new mycelium. Microconidial formation is not shown here. The outer sequence depicts the sexual cycle, originating with a protoperithecium, its fertilization via its trichogyne by a conidium of the opposite mating type, and later events that culminate in the formation of asci, containing ascospores. On the light, nuclear fusion and meiosis are shown in an individual ascus as it develops.

## 2. Historical aspects of analysis of response to light

The effects of sunlight on the development of plants had been described in the nineteenth century (Henfrey 1852; Kjellman 1885), although Garner and Alland (1920) initiated a period of further rapid development of the research. Flowering response induced by long nights, in the case of short-day plants, could be prevented by the interruption of the dark period by a short pulse of light, called a 'night break'. Parker and Hendricks (1946) reported that red light was most efficient as a night break, and the effect of red light could be cancelled in some case by a subsequent illumination by far-red light.

The very small seeds of some plant species that can lie for a long period in the soil, can be activated by light, and most efficiently by red light (Flint and McAlister. 1937;

Borthwick *et al.* 1952). Whithrow *et al.* (1957) determined the action spectra for both the red light effect and the reversal effect by using the straightening of the plumular hook of etiolated bean plants by quantification of the efficiency of different wavelengths of light. Borthwick *et al* (1952) and Shropshire Jr. *et al* (1961) determined the action spectra for seed germination, and for photoperiodic induction of flowering (Borthwick *et al* 1948), leading to the discovery of photomorphogenic pigment to phytochrome. Borthwick *et al* (1952) suggested that the chromophore of phytochrome was an open chain tetrapyrrole. The action spectrum of a red/far red response in the induction and reversed reaction of hook opening in bean, and the absorption spectrum of purified oat phytochrome are presented in Figure 3.

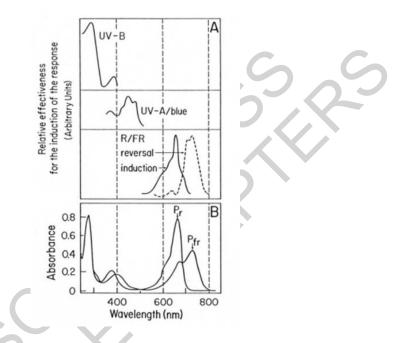


Figure 3. Action spectra for UV-A, UV-B and red/far red response and absorption spectra of purified oat phytochrome. A Action spectra for: a UV-B response (anthocyanin synthesis in *Sorghum*), a UV-A/blue response (phototropism in oat), and a red/far red response (induction of an reversal of hook opening in bean). B Absorption spectra of purified oat phytochrome in the red-absorbing P<sub>r</sub> form and the far red-absorbing P<sub>fr</sub> form. (Vierstra and Quail 1983)

# TO ACCESS ALL THE **16 PAGES** OF THIS CHAPTER, Visit: <u>http://www.eolss.net/Eolss-sampleAllChapter.aspx</u>

#### Bibliography

BALLARIO, P.; VITTORIOSO, P.; MAGRELLI, A.; TALORA, C.; CABIBBO, A.; MACINO, G. 1996. White Collar-1, A Central Regulator of Blue Light Responses in Neurospora, is a Zinc Finger Protein. *The* 

*EMBO Journal*, No. 15, pp. 1650–7. [The *wc-1* gene encodes a 125 kDa protein whose encoded motifs include a single class four, zinc finger DNA binding domain and a glutamine-rich putative transcription activation domain. The *wc-1* zinc finger domain, expressed in *Escherichia coli*, is able to bind specifically to the promotor of a blue light-regulated gene of *Neurospora* using an *in vitro* gel retardation assay.]

BALLARIO, P.; MACINO, G. 1997. White Collar Proteins: Passing the Light Signal in *Neurospora crassa*. *Trends in Microbiology*, No. 5, pp. 458–62. [The isolation and characterization of the genes for two central regulators of the blue light response, *white collar-1* and *white collar-2*, have begun to shed light on the mechanism of blue light signal transduction in fungi.]

BEADLE, G. W.; TATUM, E. L. 1941. Genetic Control of Chemical Reactions in *Neurospora*. *Proceedings* of the National Academy of Science of the USA, No. 27, pp. 499–506.

Bieszke, J.A.; Braun, E.L., Bean, L.E.; Kang, S.; Natvig, D.O.; Borkovich, K.A. 1999. The *nop-1* gene in *Neurospora crassa* encodes a seven-transmembrane helix retinal-binding protein homologous to archaeal rhodopsins. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science of the USA*. No. 96, pp. 8034-8039.

Bieszke, J.A.; Spudich, E.N.; Scott, K.L.; Borkovich, K.A. Spudich, J.L. 1999. A eukaryotic protein, NOP-1, binds retinal to form an archaeal rhodopsin-like photochemically reactive pigment. *Biochemistry* No. 38, pp. 14138-45.

Björn, L.O. 1994. Introduction. In: R.E. Kendrick,; G.H.M. Kronenberg (eds.), Photomorphogenesis in Plants- 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, pp.3-14. Dordvecht, Kluwer Academic Publishers. [The history and development of the discovery and research analysis of phytochrome are described.]

Borthwick, H.A.; Hendricks, S.B.; Parker, M.W. 1948. Action spectrum for the photoperiodic control of floral initiation of a long day plant, winter barley (*Hordeum vulgaris*). *Botanical Gazette* No. 110, pp. 103-18.

Borthwick, H.A.; Hendricks, S.B.; Parker, M.W.; Toole, E.M. and Tool, V.K. 1952. A reversible photoreaction controlling seed germination. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA*, No. 38, pp. 662-6.

BRODY, S. 1992. Circadian Rhythms of Neurospora. In: V. E. A. RUSSO; S. BRODY; D. COVE; S. OTTOLENGHI (eds.), *Development: The Molecular Genetic Approach*, pp. 165–176. Berlin, Springer. [The genetic and biochemical factors controlling period lengths of circadian rhythm of conidiation are described, and the manner in which it is prolonged by an inhibitor of cyclic phosphodiesterase, theophylline, and related compounds.]

DAVIS, R. H. (ed.) 2000. *Neurospora, Contributions of a Model Organism*. Oxford, New York, Oxford University Press. [The book reviews *Neurospora* research for biologists with some knowledge of genetics, biochemistry, and molecular biology, and has fourteen chapters.]

HAMADA, T.; TANAKA, N.; NOGUCHI, T.; KIMURA, N.; HASUNUMA, K. 1996. Phytochrome Regulates Phosphorylation of a Protein with Characteristics of a Nucleoside Diphosphate Kinase in the Crude Membrane Fraction from Stem Sections of Etiolated Pea Seedlings. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology, B. Biology*, No. 33, pp. 143–51. [This was the first report of light signals being transduced via phytochrome to nucleoside diphosphate kinase.]

HASUNUMA, K.; FUNADERA, K.; SHINOHARA, Y.; FURUKAWA, K.; WATANABE, M. 1987. Circadian Oscillation and Light-Induced Changes in the Concentration of Cyclic Nucleotides in *Neurospora*. *Current Genetics*, No. 12, pp. 127–33. [Circadian changes in the concentration of cyclicAMP were reported. Light irradiation of mycelia produced a sharp decrease in cyclicAMP concentration when the concentration was high.]

HASUNUMA, K.; OGURA, Y.; YABE, N. 1998. Early Events Occurring During Light Signal Transduction in Plants and Fungi. *Journal of Photoscience, (Korea)*, No. 5, pp. 73–81. [Photoreceptors including phytochrome, cryptochrome, and phototropin, and light signal transducers including nucleoside diphosphate kinase, are reviewed.]

LAKIN-THOMAS, P.; COTE, G.; BRODY, S. 1990. Circadian Rhythms in *Neurospora crassa*: Biochemistry and Genetics. *Critical Review of Microbiology*, No. 17, pp. 365–416. [The putative molecular mechanisms of circadian rhythm in *Neurospora crassa* are summarized and discussed.]

LAKIN-THOMAS, P.; BRODY, S. 2000. Circadian Rhythms in Neurospora crassa: Lipid Deficiencies

Restore Robust Rhythmicity to Null *Frequency* and *White-Collar* Mutants. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science of the USA*, No. 97, pp. 256–61. [Two mutants, *cel* (chain-elongation) and *chol-1* (choline-requirer), are defective in lipid synthesis and affect the period and temperature compensation of the rhythm. The double mutant strains *chol-1 frq9*, *chol-1 frq10*, *chol-1 wc-1*, *chol-1 wc-2*, *cel frq9*, *cel frq10*, and *cel wc-2* have been constructed. These strains are robustly rhythmic when assayed under lipid-deficient conditions, indicating that free-running rhythmicity does not require the *frq*, *wc-1*, or *wc-2* gene products.]

LINDEN, H.; MACINO, G. 1997. White Collar 2, a Partner in Blue-Light Signal Transduction, Controlling Expression of Light-Regulated Genes in *Neurospora crassa. The EMBO Journal*, No. 16, pp. 98–109. [WC-2, the second partner of this light signal transduction system, encodes a functional zinc finger DNA-binding protein with a putative PAS dimerization and transcription activation domain.]

LIU, Y.; LOROS, J.; DUNLAP, J. C. 2000. Phosphorylation of the *Neurospora* Clock Protein FREQUENCY Determines its Degradation Rate and Strongly Influences the Period Length of the Circadian Clock. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science of the USA*, No. 97, pp. 234–9. [The mutation of one phosphorylation site at Ser513 leads to a dramatic reduction of the rate of FREQUENCY (FRQ) degradation and a very long period (>30 hour) for the clock's cycle. The data suggest strongly that FRQ phosphorylation triggers its degradation, and that the degradation rate of FRQ is a major determining factor for the period length of the circadian clock under bd genetic background.]

NINNEMANN, H.; MAIER, J. 1996. Indications for the Occurrence of Nitric Oxide Synthetases in Fungi and Plants and the Involvement in Photoconidiation of *Neurospora crassa*. *Photochemistry and Photobiology*, No. 64, pp. 393–8. [Indications of the occurrence of nitric oxide synthetases in Dictyostelium, Neurospora, Phycomyces and leguminous plant *Mucuna hassjoo*, as well as a physiological role for nitric oxide in *Neurospora crassa*, are demonstrated.]

ODA, K.; HASUNUMA, K. 1994. Light Signals are Transduced to the Phosphorylation of 15kDa Protein in *Neurospora Crassa. FEBS Letters*, No. 345, pp. 162–6. [The first report of blue light irradiation of the crude membrane fraction from WT mycelia stimulating an increase in the phosphorylation of a 15 kDa protein, which is dependent on putative photoreceptors, WC-1 and WC-2 proteins.]

ODA, K.; HASUNUMA, K. 1997. Genetic Analysis of Signal Transduction through Light Induced Protein Phosphorylation in *Neurospora Crassa* Perithecia. *Molecular and General Genetics*, No. 256, pp. 593–601. [A mutant form in the phosphorylation of the 15 kDa protein (*psp*) lacked light induced polarity of perithecia. The *psp* (*ndk*- $1^{Pro72His}$ ) produced a perithecial beak at random, even under directional irradiation.]

OGURA, T.; TANAKA, N.; YABE, N.; KOMATSU, S.; HASUNUMA, K. 1999. Characterization of Protein Complexes Containing Nucleoside Diphosphate Kinase with Characteristics of Light Signal Transduction through Phytochrome in Etiolated Pea Seedlings. *Photochemistry and Photobiology*, No. 69, pp. 397–403. [Red light irradiation of intact etiolated pea seedlings, followed by the preparation of a crude membrane fraction, stimulated phosphorylation of pea NDK-1.]

OGURA, Y.; YOSHIDA, Y.; ICHIMURA, K.; AOYAGI, C.; YABE, N.; HASUNUMA, K. 1999. Isolation and Characterization of *Neurospora Crassa* Nucleoside Diphosphate Kinase NDK-1. *European Journal of Biochemistry*, No. 266, pp. 709–14. [Purification of NDK-1 and partial determination of its amino acid sequence identified the 15 kDa protein as NDK-1. This showed not only \_\_\_\_\_\_. -phosphate transfer activity but also autophosphorylation and protein kinase activities.]

OGURA, Y.; YOSHIDA, Y.; YABE, N.; HASUNUMA, K. 2001. A Point Mutation in Nucleoside Diphosphate Kinase Results in a Deficient Light Response for Perithecial Polarity in *Neurospora Crassa. Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 276, pp. 21,228–34. [A mutant for the phosphorylation of the 15 kDa protein psp was identified to be ndk-1Pro72His, which lacks light induced polarity of perithecia. NDK-1Pro72His protein showed normal protein kinase activity.]

PERKINS, D.D.; RADFORD, A.; SACHS, M.S. 2001. *The Neurospora Compendium, Chromosomal Loci*. San Diego, Calif., and London, Academic Press. [This book describeds the function and physical location of genes analysed over the last six decades; with five appendixes including genetic maps.]

SARGENT, M.L.; BRIGGS, W.R.; WOODWARD, D.O. 1966. Circadian Nature of a Rhythm Expressed by an Invertaseless Strain of *Neurospora crassa*. *Plant Physiology*, No. 41, pp. 1343–9.

Sharrock, R.A. 1992. Plant photoreception: the phytochrome system. In: Russo, V.E.A.; Brody, S.; Cove, D.; Ottolenghi, S. (eds.) Development: The Molecular Genetic Approach, pp. 165-176. Berlin, Springer-Verlag.

TANAKA, N.; OGURA, T.; NOGUCHI, T.; HIRANO, H.; YABE, N.; HASUNUMA, K. 1998. Phytochrome-Mediated Light Signals are Transduced to Nucleoside Diphosphate Kinase in *Pisum Sativum* L. cv. Alaska. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology, B. Biology*, No. 45, pp. 113–21. [Third internodes of etiolated seedlings of pea were irradiated with red light, and crude membrane and soluble fractions then prepared. The phosphorylation of pea NDK-1 is increased by red light, and the purified pea NDK-1 showed autophosphorylation and protein kinase activities.]

WEI, N.; DENG, X.-W. 1999. Making Sense of the COP9 Signalosome. A Regulatory Protein Complex Conserved From *Arabidopsis* to Human. *Trends in Genetics*, No. 15, pp. 98–103. [The COP9 signalosome probably shares a common evolutionary ancestor. A multifaceted role for the COP9 signalosome in cell-signaling processes is implied by its associated novel kinase activity, as well as the involvement of its subunits in regulating multiple cell-signaling pathways and cell-cycle progression.]

#### **Biographical Sketches**

**Kohji Hasunuma** graduated from Tokyo University, Faculty of Science, School of Biology (Plant Science) in 1966, and Graduate School of Biology (Plant Science) in 1971. He was a Research Associate of Tokyo University, Faculty of Arts and Culture, from 1971 to 1979, and Associate Professor of National Institute for Basic Biology, 1979 to 1990. Visiting researcher at Carnegie Institution of Washington at Stanford at 1990. Professor of Yokohama City University, Kihara Institute for Biological Research, The Hirase Prize was awarded to Prof. Hasunuma by Japan Society of Plant Morphology in 2000 for his success in proving the molecular mechanism of light signal transduction in *Neurospora crassa* and *Pisum sativum*.

**Naoto Yabe** graduated from the Faculty of Science, Department of Biology (Plant Science), Tokyo University, in 1989, and from the Graduate School of Biology (Plant Science) at 1995. Since 1995 he has been a Research Associate of the Kihara Institute for Biological Research, Yokohama City University.

©Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems (EOLSS)