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TCP transcription factors are critical for the coordinated regulation of *ISOCHORISMATE SYNTHASE 1* expression in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

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SUMMARY

Salicylic acid (SA) plays an important role in various aspects of plant development and responses to stresses. To elucidate the sophisticated regulatory mechanism of SA synthesis and signaling, we used a yeast one-hybrid system to screen for regulators of *ISOCHORISMATE SYNTHASE 1* (*ICS1*), a gene encoding the key enzyme in SA biosynthesis in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. A TCP family transcription factor AtTCP8 was initially identified as a candidate regulator of *ICS1*. The regulation of *ICS1* by TCP proteins is supported by the presence of a typical TCP binding site in the *ICS1* promoter. The binding of TCP8 to this site was confirmed by *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays. Expression patterns of *TCP8* and its corresponding gene *TCP9* largely overlapped with *ICS1* under pathogen attack. A significant reduction in the expression of *ICS1* during immune responses was observed in the *tcp8 tcp9* double mutant. We also detected strong interactions between TCP8 and SAR deficient 1 (SARD1), WRKY family transcription factor 28 (WRKY28), NAC (NAM/ATAF1, ATAF2/CUC2) family transcription factor 019 (NAC019), as well as among TCP8, TCP9 and TCP20, suggesting a complex coordinated regulatory mechanism underlying *ICS1* expression. Our results collectively demonstrate that TCP proteins are involved in the orchestrated regulation of *ICS1* expression, with TCP8 and TCP9 being verified as major representatives.

Keywords: Arabidopsis, TCP transcription factor, *ICS1* regulation, plant immune response, protein-protein interaction.

INTRODUCTION

Salicylic acid (SA) is involved in diverse biological processes in plants, including immune responses (Malamy et al., 1990; Metraux et al., 1990; Gaffney et al., 1993; Delaney et al., 1994; Wildermuth et al., 2001; Tsuda et al., 2009), tolerance to abiotic stresses (Horvath et al., 2007; Alonso-Ramirez et al., 2009), seed germination (Rajjou et al., 2006), trichome development (Traw and Bergelson, 2003), flowering (Martinez et al., 2004) and leaf senescence (Morris et al., 2000; Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2013). Considerable efforts have been devoted to the elucidation of SA biosynthesis and signaling in response to pathogen infection (Wildermuth et al., 2001; Mou et al., 2003; Fu et al., 2012; Serrano et al., 2013). Two SA biosynthesis pathways with chorismate as the initial substrate have been revealed in plants. SA is synthesized either via a series of enzymatic reactions with a rate-limiting step catalyzed by phenylalanine ammonia lyase (Leon et al., 1995; Mauch-Mani and Slusarenko, 1996; Coquoz et al., 1998; Ribnicky et al., 1998) or through two sequential enzymatic reactions catalyzed by isochorismate synthase (ICS) and isochorimate pyruvate lyase, respectively (Verberne et al., 2000; Mauch et al., 2001). Although the gene(s) encoding isochorimate pyruvate lyase has yet to be identified, the ICS-dependent pathway is recognized as a major SA biosynthesis pathway in several species (Wildermuth et al., 2001; Uppalapati et al., 2007; Catinot et al., 2008). There are two ICS paralogs (ICS1 and ICS2) in the Arabidopsis thaliana genome, and ICS1 has been shown to play a predominant role in mediating systemic acquired resistance (Wildermuth et al., 2001), abiotic stress tolerance (Garcion et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010) and plant development (Martinez et al., 2004; Garcion et al., 2008; Li et al., 2012).

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When plants are subject to pathogen infection, ICS1 expression is activated, and SA accumulation is subsequently enhanced, leading to the growth-to-defense transition via coordinated regulation of NPR1 (non-expressor of PR genes 1) and TBF1 (TL1-binding transcription factor 1) (Pajerowska-Mukhtar et al., 2012). This process involves significant transcriptional reprogramming, particularly inhibition of the auxin signaling pathway, which results in growth retardation (Wang et al., 2007). In order to ensure an efficient utilization of limited resources, it is plausible for plants to have evolved an elaborate regulatory network to effectively switch between normal growth/developmental status and emergent responses to pathogen attacks (Heil et al., 2000; Vos et al., 2013) and abiotic stresses (Su et al., 2013). Regulation of ICS1 expression may be one of the early regulatory nodes of the network. By using an ICS1 promoter/luciferase reporter screening system, MUR3 was identified as a negative regulator of ICS1 expression, but the regulation appears to be indirect (Tedman-Jones et al., 2008). NPR1, a key regulator of SA signaling, has also been shown to be a negative feedback regulator of ICS1 expression. Although it is clear that nuclear localization of NPR1 is required for ICS1 regulation, the underlying mechanism remains unknown (Zhang et al., 2010a). By more extensive genetic screening and/or molecular analyses, SAR deficient 1 (SARD1)/calmodulin binding protein 60g (CBP60g) and WRKY family transcription factor 28 (WRKY28) have been identified as direct positive regulators, whereas ethylene insensitive 3 (EIN3)/EIN3-like1 (EIL1) and NAC (NAM/ ATAF1,ATAF2/CUC2) family transcription factor 019/055/ 072 (NAC019/NAC055/NAC072) act as direct negative requlators of ICS1 expression (Chen et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010b; van Verk et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2012). These findings suggest that a sophisticated network may be responsible for regulating ICS1 expression. Nevertheless, how different regulators are dynamically and/or hierarchically coordinated remains to be explored.

Previously, we have shown that probenazole, an effective inducer of systemic acquired resistance, efficiently induces ICS1 expression in Arabidopsis (Yu et al., 2010). In the present study, we used the yeast one-hybrid (Y1H) system to screen for upstream direct regulators of ICS1, and identified TCP8, a transcription factor of the TEOSINTE BRANCHED1/CYCLOIDEA/PCF (TCP) family. We further confirmed that TCP8 was a direct positive regulator of ICS1. TCP8, along with TCP9, TCP13 and TCP20, significantly respond to pathogen infection, with TCP8 and TCP9 redundantly regulating ICS1 expression during the immune response. Importantly, we demonstrate that TCP8 interacts with most of the transcription factors involved in the regulation of ICS1, suggesting that TCP proteins may act as orchestrators to regulate the expression of ICS1 during pathogen infection.

RESULTS

TCPs bind to a negative regulatory region of the ICS1 promoter in yeast cells

To screen for the putative trans-regulators of ICS1 using the Y1H system, we first analyzed the ICS1 promoter and identified a short fragment with a significant regulatory effect. A 1.2 kb promoter-GUS fusion construct was generated, and stable transformants were obtained. Histochemical staining analysis revealed that there was no detectable GUS activity in these transformants; however, GUS activity was significantly induced in leaves infiltrated with Pseudomonas syringae pv. maculicola ES4326 (Psm.ES4326) (Figure 1a and Figure S1a). The inducibility of the system was confirmed by simultaneous activation of endogenous ICS1 expression (Figure S1b), and the colocalization of GUS staining with the subsequent chlorosis resulting from Psm.ES4326 infiltration (Figure S1c). The 1.2 kb promoter fragment was then dissected, and a series of 5' truncated fragments was used to create GUS fusion constructs. Stable transformants were generated. Using histochemical staining, GUS activity assay and quantitative RT-PCR analysis, we observed a dramatic enhancement in GUS expression in the 128 bp-GUS transformants, but, unexpectedly, this occurred in the absence of pathogen challenge. This was in contrast to the results observed with the 316 bp-GUS transformants, as well as all other transformants harboring longer promoter-GUS fusions, for which GUS activity was barely detected throughout plant development (Figure 1b and Figure S2a,b). This indicates that there is a strong negative regulatory region between -128 and -316 bp, and the binding of repressor(s) to this region may be necessary for suppression of ICS1 expression during plant growth and development.

Based on the results of promoter dissection and sequence alignment analysis, we amplified a 281 bp PCR fragment from the promoter region between -138 and -418 bp upstream of the translational start site of ICS1 (Figure 1a and Figure S3). Using the fragment as a bait, we identified three independent positive clones of a TCP family transcription factor, TCP8 (At1q58100), in one Y1H screening, and verified its interaction with the promoter region by re-transformation (Figure 1c). To determine whether other TCPs are also capable of binding to this region, we performed an exhaustive Y1H verification. Except for the genes that we were unable to clone or caused a severe growth delay of yeast cells (TCP12, TCP16, TCP18 and TCP22), a total of 17 TCP proteins showed varied binding abilities. In addition to TCP8, TCP3, TCP7, TCP9 and TCP15 also showed strong binding ability. In contrast, TCP5, TCP11 and TCP19 appeared not to bind to the promoter region (Figure 1d). In addition, transformants of a few TCP genes grew rather slowly

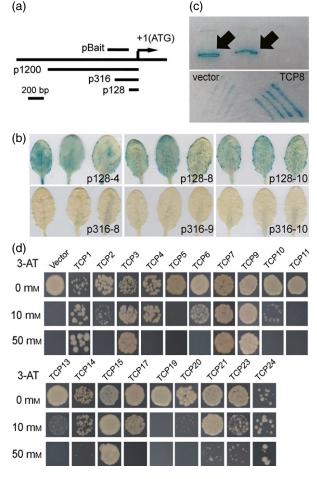


Figure 1. TCP transcription factors bind to a negative regulatory region of the ICS1 promoter in yeast cells.

(a) Schematic diagram showing representative DNA fragments of the ICS1 promoter used in this study. The position relative to the translation start site (+1) is indicated by the numbers after the letter p. pBait represents the DNA fragment between -138 and -418 bp used as the bait sequence for the Y1H

(b) Histochemical indication of GUS activity in transgenic lines harboring the GUS reporter gene driven by 128 bp (p128) or 316 bp (p316) DNA fragments of the ICS1 promoter. The numbers after p128 and p316 indicate independent transgenic lines.

(c) Staining of β-galactosidase activity (LacZ reporter) in yeast transformants. Upper panel: two representative positive colonies identified by Y1H screening (arrows). Lower panel: re-transformants of TCP8 showing strong β -galactosidase activity. Empty vector was used as a negative control.

(d) Binding capabilities of various TCP proteins to the bait sequence tested by growth of yeast on SD medium lacking Trp, Leu and His supplemented with the indicated concentrations of 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole (3-AT). Yeast cell suspensions used in this assay were adjusted to $OD_{600} = 0.1$. Experiments were repeated twice with similar results.

compared with transformants of the empty vector, probably due to the toxic effect of their proteins on yeast cells, especially when over-expressed under the control of the strong T7 promoter. This result is consistent with a recent report that TCP4 blocks yeast cell division (Aggarwal et al., 2011).

TCP8 specifically binds to the TCP binding site in the ICS1 promoter in vitro and in vivo

TCP family transcription factors (TFs) characteristically bind to consensus sequences, with class I members binding to GGNCCCAC and class II members binding to GGGNCCAC (Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002). A dual TCP binding sequence (GGGCCCAC), which meets the binding requirement for both class I and class II members, is present in the *ICS1* promoter region at approximately -150 bp (Figure S3). To test whether the TCPs showing strong binding ability to the ICS1 promoter region are capable of specifically binding to this site, we selectively constructed recombinant TCP8, TCP9 and TCP15 proteins (strong binding in the Y1H assay) and a TCP19 protein (no binding in the Y1H assay) with a maltose binding protein (MBP) fused to their N-termini and a 6xHis tag fused to their C-termini. Except for MBP-TCP9-6xHis, which could not be expressed in Escherichia coli BL21, MBP-TCP8-6xHis, MBP-TCP15-6xHis and MBP-TCP19-6xHis proteins were expressed and purified using both maltose and Ni-NTA columns. An electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) was then performed using the recombinant proteins and oligonucleotides harboring the TCP binding sequence. As shown in Figure 2(a) and Figure S4, a shift in mobility was clearly observed when labeled probe was pre-incubated with MBP-TCP8-6xHis, and addition of excess unlabeled wildtype probe competed with the binding. The binding specificity was further corroborated by the observation that addition of excess unlabeled probe containing a mutated TCP binding site failed to compete with the binding. A weak binding ability was also detected when the recombinant MBP-TCP15-6xHis was used (Figure S4a). In contrast, no binding ability was observed for MBP-TCP19-6xHis (Figure S4b), which is consistent with our Y1H assay results. These results indicate that TCP8 and TCP15, but not TCP19, are capable of specifically binding to the TCP binding sequence of ICS1 in vitro.

We further examined whether TCP8 targets the ICS1 promoter in vivo using a chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay. By creating TCP8-GFP transgenic plants and quantifying the immunoprecipitated DNA, ICS1 promoter fragments around the TCP binding site (P3-P7) were found to be significantly enriched, compared with fragments further upstream or downstream of the site (Figure 2b), indicating that TCP8 directly binds to the TCP binding site of the ICS1 promoter in vivo. In addition, we found that TCP8 clearly localized to the nucleus (Figure S5a). By fusing TCP8 to the GAL4 DNA-binding domain (GAL4-BD), we observed a trans-activation capability of TCP8 in the yeast strain AH109, which harbors a HIS reporter gene driven by an upstream activation sequence that is recognized by GAL4-BD (Figure S5b). These analyses collectively suggest that TCP8 and other related TCPs are putative regulators of ICS1.

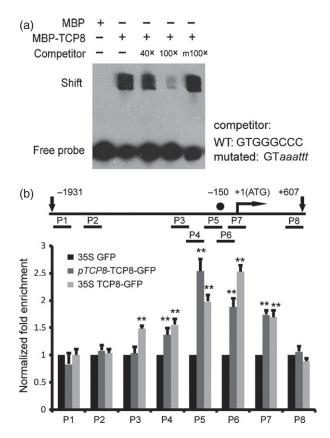


Figure 2. TCP8 binds to the ICS1 promoter both in vitro and in vivo. (a) TCP8 directly bound to a 25 bp ICS1 promoter fragment containing the TCP binding site in an electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA). The TCP binding sequence in the probe is shown in capitals, and the mutated nucleotides are shown in italic. Experiments were repeated twice with similar results.

(b) DNA fragments around the TCP binding site were co-precipitated with TCP8. The closed circle above the line (at approximately -150 bp) indicates the putative TCP binding site. P1-P8 indicate various DNA fragments amplified in the chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay. The 18S rRNA gene was used to normalize the quantitative PCR results for each of the ChIP samples. Values are means and SE of three quantitative PCR measurements. Another biological repeat produced a similar result. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences compared with the control (35S-GFP) (**P < 0.01, unpaired t test).

TCP8/TCP9 positively regulate ICS1 expression with redundancy upon pathogen infection, and TCPs are involved in maintaining ICS1 expression

Because ICS1 expression is dramatically induced by pathogen infection, we first examined how TCP8 and other TCP genes respond to Psm.ES4326 infection using quantitative RT-PCR. TCP8 was significantly up-regulated 24 h after inoculation, together with TCP9, TCP13 and TCP20, but most other TCP genes examined were down-regulated (Figure 3a). This result is in agreement with published microarray data (Figure S6). To confirm the role of TCP8 in the regulation of ICS1 expression, a TCP8 T-DNA insertion line named tcp8-1 (CS875709) was identified and analyzed (Figure S7). However, no significant alterations in either

ICS1 expression or pathogen resistance were observed in tcp8-1 under our experimental conditions (Figure 3e,f and Figure S8). Previous analyses have implied that there may be functional redundancy among TCP family members in the regulation of ICS1 expression. According to phylogenetic analysis, pathogen response and a binding ability test in yeast cells, TCP9 is one of the proteins that may be redundant with TCP8. A TCP9 T-DNA insertion line, designated tcp9-3 (SALK 035853), was isolated (Figure S7) and a tcp8-1 tcp9-3 double mutant was generated. No obvious alterations in ICS1 expression and pathogen resistance were detected in tcp9-3 (Figure 3e,f and Figure S8). However, a significant attenuation in resistance to Psm.ES4326 was observed in the tcp8-1 tcp9-3 double mutant, compared with those in single mutants or wild-type plants (WT, Col-0). When pressure-infiltrated with pathogen, tcp8-1 tcp9-3 plants partially mimicked the phenotype of the ICS1 mutant sid2-2 (Figure 3b) and a key SA signaling component mutant npr1, showing a significant increase in bacterial growth (Figure 3e). Introduction of a genomic fragment of TCP8 fused to GFP at its C-terminus (pTCP8-TCP8-GFP) into tcp8-1 tcp9-3 restored its resistance to Psm.ES4326 (Figure 3b,e,f). We then analyzed the dynamic changes of ICS1 expression and SA content over 48 h after Psm.ES4326 inoculation. Both the ICS1 transcript level and SA content reached their peaks at approximately 24 h, and intriguingly, although ICS1 expression and SA content were only slightly compromised during their responsive phases, more dramatic decreases of ICS1 expression and SA content were observed in tcp8-1 tcp9-3 36 and 48 h after inoculation during their declining phases (Figure 3c, d). Significant reductions in PR gene induction were also observed in tcp8-1 tcp9-3 36 h after inoculation (Figure 3f). These observations imply that TCP8 and TCP9 may play an important role in maintaining ICS1 expression and consequently SA content during the dynamic cycle of pathogen infection. The decreases in ICS1 expression and SA content are consistent with the observations of more severe disease symptoms and faster bacterial growth in tcp8-1 tcp9-3. Although ICS1 expression was compromised to a significant extent in tcp8-1 tcp9-3, it was far from being abolished. This may suggests the involvement of other TCPs or other types of transcription (co-)factors in positively mediating ICS1 regulation, which is in agreement with the finding that the defect in resistance to pathogen in sid2-2 is more severe than that in tcp8-1 tcp9-3.

To further determine the importance of the TCP binding site in ICS1 transcriptional regulation, we complemented sid2-2 with the coding sequence (CDS) of ICS1 driven by a 1529 bp promoter in which the TCP binding site was or was not mutated. Compared with plants complemented with ICS1 under the control of the native promoter (Comp.ICS1), mutation of the TCP binding site (Comp.ICS1m) resulted in a significant reduction in pathogen resistance

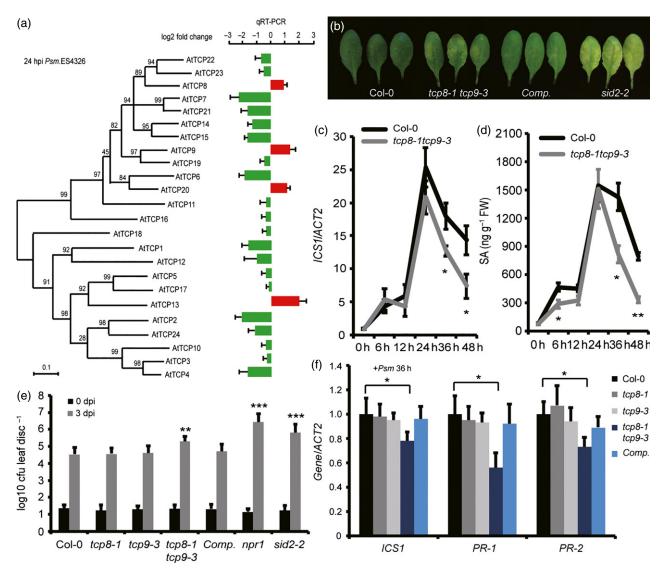
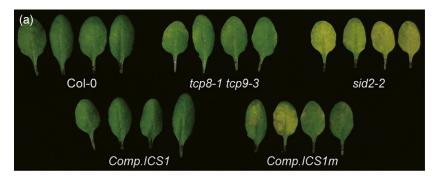
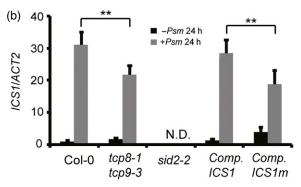


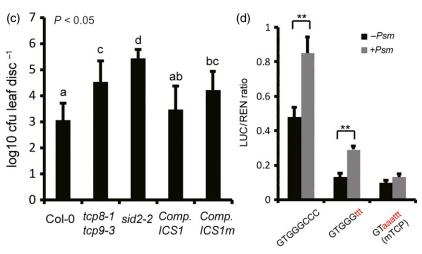
Figure 3. TCP8 and TCP9 act redundantly to regulate ICS1 expression, and contribute to plant resistance to Psm.ES4326.

- (a) Changes in the transcription of 24 TCP genes in response to Psm.ES4326 infection. Leaf samples of Col-0 were collected 24 h post-inoculation.
- (b) Disease symptoms of Col-0, tcp8-1 tcp9-3, Comp. (complementation) and sid2-2 at 3 days post-inoculation (dpi). Comp. refers to transgenic tcp8-1 tcp9-3 plants harboring TCP8 genomic DNA. Four-week-old plants were pressure-infiltrated with Psm.ES4326 at an OD₆₀₀ of 0.0001.
- (c) Changes in the transcript level of ICS1 in Col-0 and tcp8-1 tcp9-3 upon inoculation with Psm.ES4326. Leaf samples were collected at the indicated time points and subjected to gene expression analysis.
- (d) Changes in the level of endogenous SA in Col-0 and tcp8-1 tcp9-3 upon inoculation with Psm.ES4326.
- Values in (c) and (d) are means and SD of measurements from three biological replicates, each comprising a mixed sample of at least six individual plants.
- (e) Measurements of Psm.ES4326 growth in the leaves of various genotypes. Data were obtained from three independent experiments, each with 5-8 biological replicates.
- (f) Transcript levels of ICS1, PR-1 and PR-2 at 36 h after Psm.ES4326 inoculation. Values in (e) and (f) are means and SDs. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences compared with 0 dpi or as indicated (*P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.01). Unpaired t tests.
- In (a), (c) and (f), the transcription of related genes was quantified by quantitative RT-PCR, with ACTIN2 as an internal control for normalizing their transcript levels. The transcript level of each gene in Col-0 was arbitrarily set to 1.

as well as ICS1 induction (Figure 4a-c). This again suggests the involvement of TCPs in the positive regulation of ICS1. We subsequently performed a dual luciferase assay to analyze the activation of ICS1 promoter activity in Arabidopsis protoplasts (Hellens et al., 2005). A 1529 bp ICS1 promoter fragment, with or without a mutation in the TCP binding site, was fused to the LUC gene. Protoplasts from the mature leaves of 4-week-old Col-0 plants were transiently transfected via poly(ethylene glycol)-mediated transformation, and relative LUC activities were measured accordingly. Protoplasts were prepared 24 h after Psm.ES4326 inoculation. A dramatic reduction in the responsiveness of the mutated ICS1 promoter was observed, and mutations involving more nucleotides







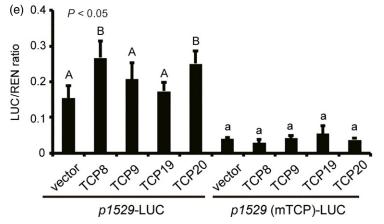


Figure 4. The TCP binding site is important for *ICS1* expression.

- (a) Disease symptoms of Col–0, tcp8–1 tcp9–3, sid2–2 and Comp.(complementation) at 3 days post-noculation. The leaves of 4-week-old plants were inoculated with Psm.ES4326 at an OD₆₀₀ of 0.0001.
- (b) Changes in the transcript level of ICS1 upon inoculation of Psm.ES4326 in the leaves of various genotypes. Transcription of ICS1 was quantified by quantitative RT–PCR, with ACTIN2 as an internal control for normalizing its expression level. The transcript level of ICS1 in untreated Col–0 was arbitrarily set to 1. Data from four independent T₁ lines were merged.
- (c) Measurements of Psm.ES4326 growth in various genotypes at 3 dpi. Data from six independent T_1 lines were merged; different letters indicate statistically significant differences between means (unpaired t tests).
- Comp.ICS1 refers to transgenic sid2-2 plants harboring the ICS1 promoter and the ICS1 CDS; Comp.ICS1m refers to transgenic sid2-2 plants harboring the ICS1 promoter with a mutated TCP binding site and the ICS1 CDS. The mTCP sequence is shown in (d).
- (d) The importance of the TCP binding site for *ICS1* promoter activity in protoplasts. The promoter activity was expressed as the ratio of firefly luciferase activity (LUC) to 35S-driven *Renilla* luciferase activity (REN, internal control). The TCP binding sequence is shown in capitals, and the mutated nucleotides are shown in lower case (x axis).
- (e) Over-expression of TCP genes further enhances the activity of the *ICS1* promoter (*p1529*-LUC) in protoplasts. The mTCP sequence is shown in (d).
- In (d) and (e), data from three biological replicates were merged. Values are means and SDs. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences at the P value indicated (paired t tests). Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences at P < 0.01 (paired t tests).

resulted in a more significant decrease in LUC activity (Figure 4d). These results suggest that the TCP binding site is critical for up-regulating ICS1 expression upon pathogen attack. There was a significant enhancement of LUC activity in Arabidopsis protoplasts when pICS1-LUC and TCP8/ TCP20 were co-expressed, but no change in LUC activity was detected when pICS1-LUC was co-expressed with TCP9 or TCP19 (Figure 4e). This suggests that TCP8 or TCP20 alone possesses a positive regulatory role in ICS1 expression. This is consistent with the trans-activation ability of TCP8 (Figure S5b). Mutations in the consensus TCP binding site abolished the enhancement of LUC activity (Figure 4e), suggesting the pivotal role of this site in ICS1 regulation mediated by TCP TFs. Our data collectively indicate that TCP proteins are probably involved in direct positive regulation of ICS1 expression. However, this is a little surprising, given that the TCP binding site resides in the negative regulatory region of ICS1 promoter.

TCP8 interacts with other TFs involved in ICS1 regulation

In parallel with the ongoing research in our laboratory, a number of TFs that directly regulate ICS1 expression have been reported. Of these, SARD1, CBP60g and WRKY28 are transcriptional activators (Zhang et al., 2010b; van Verk et al., 2011), whereas EIN3, EIL1, NAC019, NAC072 and NAC055 are transcriptional repressors (Chen et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2012). These findings indicate that ICS1 expression is regulated in a delicate and sophisticated manner in plant cells. To explore the potential relationship between TCPs and the identified TFs with respect to regulation of ICS1 expression, a bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assay was performed in tobacco mesophyll cells to test whether TCPs interacted with these TFs, using self-interaction of TCP8 as a positive control (Valsecchi et al., 2013) (Figure S9a). Our results showed that TCP8 interacted with most of the TFs involved in ICS1 requlation, including SARD1, NAC019 and WRKY28 (Figure 5a). Other TCPs also showed more or less interaction with these TFs, but not as strong as TCP8 (Figure 5a). However, there were no interactions between TCPs and EIN3 or EIL1 (Figure 5a and Figure S9b,c). Interestingly, strong interactions were detected among TCP8, TCP9 and TCP20 (Figure S9d, e). We then used an in vitro pull-down assay to further examine the interaction of TCP8 with these TFs. MBP-fused TFs and glutathione S-transferase (GST)-fused TCP8 were expressed in E. coli and incubated with amylase resin beads and glutathione Sepharose beads, respectively. The pulleddown proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted using appropriate antibodies. As shown in Figure 5(b,c), similar interaction profiles were observed. These results suggest that TCP proteins and other related TFs may co-regulate the expression of ICS1. As both activators and repressors interact with TCP8, it is not surprising that the TCP proteins involved in *ICS1* regulation function either as activators or repressors, depending on the specific TFs that they interact with. This is consistent with a previous report suggesting that TCP20 may function as both an activator or repressor (Herve et al., 2009).

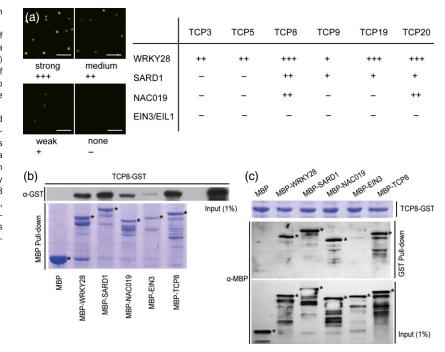
DISCUSSION

It is thought that ICS1 is under sophisticated regulation. but the underlying mechanism is far from being eluci-

Figure 5. Interactions between TCP transcription factors and other known ICS1 regulators.

(a) Demonstration of interactions between TCPs of interest and various transcription factors (TFs) by a bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assay. TCPs were fused to the N-terminal part of YFP (nYFP) and TFs to be examined were fused to the C-terminal part of YFP (cYFP). Scale bar = $40 \mu m$.

(b, c) Indication of interactions between TCP8 and various TFs by an in vitro pull-down assay. A mixture of GST-tagged TCP8 with MBP-tagged TFs was used for this assay. MBP protein was included as a negative control. Asterisks indicate target protein bands. In (b), MBP-tagged TFs were pulled down by amylose resin, and the association of GST-TCP8 was examined using an anti-GST antibody. In (c), GST-TCP8 was pulled down by glutathione Sepharose beads, and the association of MBP-tagged TFs was examined using an anti-MBP antibody. Experiments were repeated twice with similar results.



dated. In this study, we identified TCP8 and some other TCP TFs as putative trans-regulators of ICS1 by yeast onehybrid screening. The results were subsequently validated by detection of a typical TCP binding site within the promoter region. The involvement of TCP8 in the regulation of ICS1 expression was further supported by results showing in vitro binding and in vivo targeting to the TCP binding site (Figures 1c and 2), as well as by a similar expression pattern to ICS1 under pathogen attack (Figure 3a). By examining the regulatory effect of the TCP binding site and over-expressing TCP8 in Arabidopsis protoplasts (Figure 4), we demonstrated that TCPs, represented by TCP8, act as positive regulators of ICS1 expression upon pathogen inoculation. Although the regulatory role of TCP8 itself was ambiguous when examined by knocking out TCP8, the role of TCPs in the positive regulation of ICS1 expression was validated, because when both TCP8 and TCP9 were mutated, the ICS1 induction was significantly compromised (Figure 3c,f), and, as expected, a significant reduction in immune response was also observed upon pathogen infection. This indicates that there is a functional redundancy among TCP proteins with respect to positive regulation of *ICS1* expression, and TCP9 is one of the corresponding proteins of TCP8. The importance of TCPs in the positive regulation of ICS1 is further supported by detection of a severe defect in ICS1 expression in the sid2-2 complementation and dual-luciferase assays when the TCP binding site was mutated (Figure 4b,d). However, although other TCP protein(s) may also be involved in the activation of ICS1, as implied by the observation that numerous TCP proteins bind to the ICS1 promoter in yeast cells (Figure 1d), TCP8 and TCP9 may be the most important ones in terms of mediating ICS1 induction during pathogen attack, because the tcp8 tcp9 double mutant exhibited comparable ICS1 induction and susceptibility to Psm.ES4326 inoculation to transgenic Comp.ICS1m sid2-2 plants (Figure 4a-c).

We were initially puzzled by the identification of a TCP binding site with a positive regulatory role in a promoter region that appears to play a negative role in modulating the basal level of ICS1. Nevertheless, the finding may imply the existence of a sophisticated regulation mode associated with this region. We speculated that the region may possess a dual function, i.e. suppressing ICS1 expression under normal growth conditions, but enhancing its expression upon defense induction. Our speculation is indeed supported by a report that EIN3/EIL1, which bind to the ICS1 promoter region (between -120 and -324 bp) that covers the TCP binding site (at approximately -150 bp), negatively regulate ICS1 expression in a constitutive manner, and removal of the EIN3 binding region results in increased ICS1 transcription (Chen et al., 2009). Given the finding that the TCPs and EIN3/EIL1 may not interact with each other (Figure 5 and Figure S9b,c), it would not be surprising if the TCPs compete directly with EIN3/EIL1 for *ICS1* promoter binding in a circumstance-dependent manner. In addition, more studies are also required to identify other *cis*- and *trans*-acting elements, if any, and to determine their combined effect on *ICS1* expression.

TCP proteins, which are plant-specific TFs, include 24 putative members in the Arabidopsis genome (Martin-Trillo and Cubas, 2010). They share a basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) motif called the TCP domain. Based on slight differences in their TCP domains, TCP proteins may be divided into two sub-families, class I and class II. The class I proteins recognize the consensus binding sequence GGNCC-CAC, whereas the class II proteins prefer the rather similar sequence GGGNCCAC (Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002). Interestingly, the TCP binding sequence GGGCCCAC in the ICS1 promoter meets the binding requirements for both class I and class II members. This suggests a greater complexity of regulation and/or the possibility of involvement of multiple TCP proteins in the regulation of ICS1 expression, because class I and class II members may function divergently or even antagonistically, as revealed in the regulation of other aspects of plant growth and development (Danisman et al., 2012). Consistently, an enhanced level of ICS1 basal expression was detected when the TCP binding site was mutated (Figure 4b), and a reduction in the level of ICS1 basal expression was observed in the tcp8 tcp9 double mutant (Figure S8b). This may indicate that negative requlation of ICS1 basal expression may be partially accomplished by antagonistic class II TCP(s) by directly competing for the same binding site. TCP proteins are involved in the regulation of cell division, expansion and differentiation (Kosugi and Ohashi, 1997; Li et al., 2005; Yuan et al., 2009), as well as other aspects of growth and development (Takeda et al., 2006; Tatematsu et al., 2008; Pruneda-Paz et al., 2009). TCPs were also shown to be targeted by diverse virulence pathogen effectors, suggesting the involvement of TCP proteins in plant-pathogen interactions (Mukhtar et al., 2011; Wessling et al., 2014), Recently, TCP8, TCP14 and TCP15 were reported to be involved in effector-trigged immunity by interacting with SRFR1, a negative regulator that specifically regulates effector-trigged immunity (Kim et al., 2014). To our knowledge, no TCP proteins have ever been identified as involved in the direct regulation of SA synthesis and SA-related basal resistance.

TCP proteins usually form homo- or heterodimers to recognize target genes with various affinities (Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002). TCP8 is able to self-assemble in dimers, trimers and even oligomers in a concentration-dependent manner, and blocking TCP8 aggregation by interaction with TCP15 blocks TCP8 aggregation (self-assembling) and stabilizes TCP8 in monomers (Valsecchi et al., 2013). Interactions of TCP proteins with TFs in other regulatory modules have been extensively described (Masuda et al., 2008; Pruneda-Paz et al., 2009). In this study, we demonstrated strong

interactions between TCP8 and SARD1, WRKY28 and NAC019 (Figure 5). SARD1 and its closely related protein CBP60g belong to a plant-specific ACBP60 protein family. They are recruited to the ICS1 promoter, bind to the upstream sequence GAAATTTTGG at approximately -1217 bp upon pathogen attack, and positively regulate SA synthesis SARD1 and CBP60g redundantly regulate SA synthesis (Zhang et al., 2010b; Wang et al., 2011). WRKY28 activates ICS1 expression via two binding sites at -445 bp and -460 bp, and its over-expression results in a 4.5-fold increase in ICS1 mRNA in Arabidopsis protoplasts (van Verk et al., 2011). NAC019, NAC055 and NAC072 are homologous NAC transcription factors that exert their inhibitory effect by directly repressing ICS1 expression during pathogen infection, with NAC019 being shown to bind to several regions across the entire ICS1 promoter (Zheng et al., 2012). Although an interaction of the TCP protein TCP-interacting with CUP (TIC) with NAC family member CUPULI-FORMIS (CUP) has been observed in Antirrhinum majus (Weir et al., 2004), there are no reports on interactions between TCP proteins and CBP60 or the WRKY family members so far. Overall, our findings provide an insight into the regulatory modules of the TCP family.

SA and jasmonic acid (JA) are mutually antagonistic in regulating immune defense (Bari and Jones, 2009; Pieterse et al., 2012). Recent studies have demonstrated that the class II CINCINNATA (CIN)/TCP members positively requlate JA synthesis by directly binding to the JA biosynthesis gene LOX2, whereas the class I TCP members, TCP9 and TCP20, exhibit an inhibitory effect on LOX2 expression (Schommer et al., 2008; Danisman et al., 2012). In this study, we show that TCP8 and TCP9 positively regulate ICS1 expression. Interestingly, in our BiFC assay, interactions were detected among TCP8, TCP9 and TCP20 (Figure S9d,e). It would be intriguing if TCP8, TCP9 and TCP20 constitute a regulatory node responsible for mutual communication between JA signaling and SA signaling by regulating their synthesis during the immune response.

In conclusion, TCP8 and TCP9 have been convincingly identified as ICS1 regulators. Our demonstration of the involvement of TCP proteins in ICS1 regulation, together with the interactions between TCP8 and other ICS1 regulators, provides a new basis for exploring the sophisticated regulatory network of ICS1 expression.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Plant materials and growth conditions

All mutants and transgenic lines used in this study were in the Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Columbia-0 (Col-0) background. The T-DNA insertion mutant lines tcp8-1 (CS875709) and tcp9-3 (SALK_035853) were obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (https://abrc.osu.edu/). The mutants were genotyped (Figure S7), and their insertion sites were confirmed by sequencing using a T-DNA left border primer (Lba1). The double

mutant tcp8-1 tcp9-3 was generated by crossing tcp8-1 and tcp9-3 and genotyping their F2 progeny. All primers used for genotyping and sequencing are listed in Table S1.

Plants were grown at 22-24°C under a light intensity of approximately 100 μ mol m⁻² sec⁻¹ and a 16 h light/8 h dark photoperiod.

Plasmid constructs

A 1.2 kb promoter fragment upstream of the ICS1 translation start site (p1200) was amplified by PCR using primers NPICS1-1200-S and NPICS1-A (Table S1), and then cloned into the pCAMBIA1301 (GeneBank accession number AF234297) vector (GeneBank accession number AF234297) to generate the ICS1 promoter-driven GUS expression construct p1200-GUS. The p316-GUS and p128-GUS constructs were generated similarly using primers NPICS1-316-S/NPICS1-A and NPICS1-128-S/ NPICS1-A, respectively. For the Y1H assay, the CDS of TCP8 was amplified using primers AD-TCP8-S and AD-TCP8-A, and cloned into the pGADT7 vector (Clontech, http://www.clontech.com/). To test TCP8 trans-activation activity in yeast cells, the TCP8 CDS was amplified using primers BD-TCP8-S/BD-TCP8-A, and cloned into the pGBKT7 vector (Clontech). For the TCP8 genomic complementation experiment, a DNA fragment of approximately 2.8 kb containing the TCP8 coding region as well as the 1582 bp promoter region was amplified from Col-0 by PCR using primers TCP8g-Com-S/TCP8g-Com-A and sub-cloned into the pENTR-Dtopo (Invitrogen, http://www.lifetechnologies.com/cn/zh/home/ brands/invitrogen.html) entry vector to produce pENTR-TCP8g. The entry clone was transferred into the destination vector pMDC204 (Curtis and Grossniklaus, 2003) by LR recombination to produce pTCP8-TCP8-GFP. For the ICS1 genomic complementation experiment, a 1529 bp fragment of the ICS1 promoter with or without a mutation in the TCP binding site was fused with the ICS1 CDS. The fused sequence was sub-cloned into the pENTR-D-topo entry vector, and then transferred into destination vector pMDC204 to produce Comp.ICS1 and Comp.ICS1m. For the dual luciferase assay, a 1529 bp fragment of the ICS1 promoter with or without a mutation in the TCP binding site was amplified using primers TPICS1-1529-S/TPICS1-A, digested with Xhol/Spel and cloned into the pGreenII 0800-LUC vector (Hellens et al., 2005). For the BiFC assay, the CDSs of TCP3, TCP5, TCP8, TCP9, TCP19 and TCP20 with the stop codon removed were amplified and cloned into the pXY103 (nYFP) (Sun et al., 2013) vector. The CDSs of TCP8, TCP9, TCP20, SARD1, NAC019, WRKY28, EIN3 and EIL1 with the stop codon removed were cloned into the pXY104 (cYFP) vector (Sun et al., 2013). To produce proteins in E. coli BL21, the CDS of TCP8 was cloned into the pGEX-4T-1 vector (GE Healthcare, http://www.gelifesciences.com/), while the CDSs of TCP8, SARD1, NAC019 and WRKY28 were cloned into the pMAL-C5G vector (New England Biolabs, https://www.neb.com/). The DNA binding region of EIN3 (amino acids 1-314) (Zhong et al., 2009) was amplified using primers pMAL-EIN3-S/pMAL-EIN3-A, and cloned into pMAL-C5G. All the primers used for plasmid construction are listed in Table S1.

Yeast one-hybrid (Y1H) screening and trans-activation activity assay

Y1H screening was performed using the MATCHMAKER system (Clontech). The bait sequence was inserted into the pHISi-1 (Gene-Bank accession number U89928) and pLacZi (GeneBank accession number U89671) reporter vectors (GeneBank accession number U89671) with a minimal promoter. These vectors were then integrated into the genome of yeast strain YM4271 to create a targetreporter strain. An Arabidopsis cDNA library CD4-30 (purchased from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center) was introduced into the target–reporter strain. Approximately 5×10^5 transformants were initially screened on plates containing SD medium lacking Trp, Leu and His (SD-TLH) supplemented with 10 mm 3–amino-1,2,4–triazole (3–AT) (HIS reporter). Colonies grown on SD-TLH were transferred to filter paper for the β –galactosidase activity test (LacZ reporter). The prey fragments of the positive colonies were identified by sequencing. For the re-transformation assay and individual TCP tests, the full-length CDSs of candidate genes and TCPs were cloned into the pGADT7 vector, and transferred into strain YM4271 harboring the integrated bait sequences. The trans-activation assay was performed using yeast strain AH109 with the HIS gene as a reporter.

Protoplast transformation and dual-luciferase reporter assay

Arabidopsis protoplasts were isolated from Col–0 young leaves (approximately 4 weeks old), using an enzymatic hydrolysate containing 0.35% cellulose RS (Yakult, http://www.yakult.co.jp/ypi/en/product_k.html) and 0.15% pectolyase Y–23 (Yakult), 20 mm KCI, 0.4 m mannitol, 20 mm MES and 10 mm CaCl₂. Plasmids were introduced into protoplasts by the poly(ethylene glycol)-mediated method (Liu and Howell, 2010). Protoplasts were spun down (100 g, 4°C for 5 min), and incubated in lysis buffer. Firefly and *Renilla* luciferases were detected using a dual-luciferase assay kit (Promega, http://cn.promega.com/) and a Synergy 2 multi-mode microplate (Bio–Tek, http://www.biotek.com/) as described previously (Sun *et al.*, 2013). For pathogen induction experiments, leaves inoculated with *Psm*.ES4326 for 24 h were used for protoplast preparation.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay

ChIP was performed as described previously with minor modifications (Zhang et al., 2011). Briefly, approximately 10 g of 10-day-old seedlings of pTCP8-TCP8-GFP, 35S-TCP8-GFP and 35S-GFP transgenic plants were collected from square Petri dishes on which they were growing vertically on nylon mesh. Tissues were suspended in 1.0% formaldehyde and fixed for 15 min under vacuum. The fixation was quenched for 10 min on ice with addition of glycine at a final concentration of 125 mm. The samples were washed four times with water (4°C for 5 min), dried with paper towels, and frozen in liquid nitrogen. Nuclei were isolated and then sonicated as described by Zhang et al. (2011). Tubes containing sonicated chromatin with DNA fragments of approximately 0.5-1 kb were centrifuged to remove any insoluble debris (16 000 g, 4°C for 60 min), and incubated at 4°C overnight with an anti-GFP antibody (ab290, Abcam, http://www.abcam.com/). The protein-DNA complex was then immunoprecipitated by incubation with Protein A agarose beads (Upstate, Merck, http:// www.merckmillipore.com/CN/en) for 6 h at 4°C with rotation. Elution and reverse cross-linking were performed as previously described (Zhang et al., 2011). The purified DNA was resuspended in TE buffer, and the enrichment of DNA fragments was measured by quantitative PCR using the primers listed in Table S1. The 18S rRNA gene was used to normalize the quantitative PCR results in each ChIP sample. Fold enrichment of each region in the pTCP8-TCP8-GFP and 35S-TCP8-GFP transgenic lines was calculated by comparison with the control 35S-GFP transgenic line. Data were subjected to Student's t test for determination of the significance of differences.

Pseudomonas syringae inoculation

Psm.ES4326 was grown on plates containing King's B medium (King et al., 1954) supplemented with 100 μg ml⁻¹ streptomycin at

30°C for 2 days before inoculation. The growth of bacterial was measured as described previously with minor modifications (Durrant et al., 2007). The Psm.ES4326 suspension (OD $_{600} = 0.0001$ unless otherwise indicated) in 10 mm MgSO₄ was infiltrated into the abaxial side of the 5th and 6th leaves of 4-week-old plants using a needle-less syringe. Eight plants were assayed for each genotype. Leaf discs were harvested immediately or at the indicated time points after inoculation, homogenized into fine powder, and dissolved in 10 mm MgSO4 to generate serial tenfold dilutions. Rows of 10 µl aliquots from each dilution were plated on King's B medium containing 100 μg ml⁻¹ streptomycin using an eight-channel multi-pipettor, and dispensed by drawing along the surface. Plates were incubated for 2 days at 30°C, and individual colonies growing on the most readable dilution (20 < X < 100was desired, where X represents colony number) were counted. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t test.

Salicylic acid quantification

Leaf samples inoculated with Psm.ES4326 were harvested at the indicated time points. Free SA was then extracted and quantified from approximately 350 mg tissue per sample using HPLC analysis as previously described (Yu et al., 2010). Briefly, tissues were homogenized and sonicated twice in 3 ml of 100% methanol. After centrifugation (12 000 g, 4°C for 10 min), the combined supernatants were dried with nitrogen. The residue was resuspended in 1 ml of 5% trichloroacetic acid and sonicated for 5 min. The free SA was then extracted using 4 ml of an ethylacetate/cyclohexane mixture (1:1 v/v). The organic phase containing free SA was dried with nitrogen. The dried extract was dissolved in 0.5 ml water, filtered, and analyzed by HPLC. HPLC was performed on an Agilent (http://www.agilent.com/home?cc=cn) C18 column [3.5 μm (particle size), 4.6 mm (inside diameter) \times 150 mm (length)] and run at 30°C in 20 mm NaAc, pH 5.2, with a flow rate of 1 ml min⁻¹. SA was detected and quantified fluorometrically (305 nm excitation and 407 nm emission).

Protein subcellular localization and BiFC analyses

Seedlings of homozygous T_3 lines of TCP8–GFP transgenic plants were grown on half-strength MS medium. The subcellular localization of TCP8–GFP was examined under an LSM A710 laser confocal fluorescence microscope (Zeiss, http://www.zeiss.com/microscopy/en_de/home.html). For BiFC analysis, paired constructs were transiently expressed in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaf mesophyll cells via *Agrobacterium*-mediated infiltration, and fluorescence was examined 48 h after infiltration by confocal microscopy.

EMSA

Recombinant TCP8, TCP15 and TCP19 proteins fused with MBP and a His tag were expressed in *E. coli* strain BL21, and purified using both maltose and Ni–NTA columns. EMSA was performed using a LightShift[®] chemiluminescent EMSA kit (Thermo Scientific, http://www.thermofisher.com/en/home.html) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The 25 bp DNA probes used in EMSA are listed in Table S1.

Pull-down assay

All proteins were expressed in *E. coli* strain BL21, and soluble proteins in 1× column buffer (20 mm Tris/HCl pH 7.5, 200 mm NaCl, 1 mm EDTA, 1 mm dithiothreitol) with 0.5% v/v Triton X–100 and 10% v/v glycerol were used for the pull-down assay. Approximately 5–10 μ g of each MBP-tagged and GST-tagged protein were mixed and incubated with 30 μ l of the appropriate resin beads for

4 h at 4°C. The resin beads were then washed six times with 1 ml of 1x column buffer. Fifty microliters of 1x SDS loading buffer were added to each of the tubes containing the washed beads, and recombinant proteins were separated by 10% SDS-PAGE and detected by Western blotting using either anti-GST or anti-MBP antibodies (TransGen, http://www.transgen.com.cn/).

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

Figure S1. A 1.2 kb ICS1 promoter is responsive to Pseudomonas syringae inoculation.

Figure S2. Fragments p128 and p316 of the ICS1 fragments show contrasting transcriptional activities.

Figure S3. Sequence alignment of ICS promoters from Arabidopsis thaliana, Arabidopsis lyrata, Capsella rubella, Brassica rapa and Thellungiella halophile.

Figure S4. EMSA analysis for binding of TCPs to the ICS1 pro-

Figure S5. Nuclear localization and trans-activation activity of TCP8 in yeast cells.

Figure S6. Changes in the expression of TCP genes in response to Psm.ES4326 infection.

Figure S7. Characterization of tcp8-1 and tcp9-3.

Figure S8. tcp8-1 and tcp9-3 showed no obvious attenuation in terms of resistance to Psm.ES4326.

Figure S9. BiFC analysis of interactions between TCPs and TFs.

Table S1. Sequences of primers used in this study.

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