

Invitro Regeneration of Arabidopsis Thaliana from Suspension and Invitro Cultures and Analysis of Regeneration and Antioxidant Enzyme Levels

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ABSTRACT

Arabidopsis tissue culture is valuable for any laboratory working on this model plant. Tissue culture methodology facilitates the production of a large number of plants that are genetically identical over a relatively short growth period. Currently this in vitro regeneration system is a good system to study the mechanism by which plants show regenerative plasticity. Plant regeneration is a key technology for successful stable plant transformation, while cell suspension cultures can be exploited for metabolite profiling, kinetic study and mining. In this paper we report methods for the successful and highly efficient in vitro regeneration of plants and production of stable cell suspension lines from cotyledons of Arabidopsis thaliana. It is an easy and reproducible method of regenerating Arabidopsis plants from callus culture. A combination of 6-benzylaminopurine (BAP) and α naphthalene acetic acid (NAA) in a Murashige and Skoog's (MS) based medium gives a high percentage of shoot formation. Further cell suspension culture were used to study the growth kinetics and also for checking level of antioxidant enzymes at different stages of culture. An expression analysis of antioxidant genes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD) and ascorbate peroxidase (APX) was also done at callus, shoot and root regeneration stage. It was

found that levels and activity of these antioxidant enzymes were higher at regeneration stage, indicating antioxidant enzyme role in plant morphogenesis. Here we describe a standard protocol for regenerating *Arabidopsis* plants in tissue culture, and for preparing and observing samples using steriosome and bright field microscopy to study different stages of regeneration.

Keywords: Arabidopsis thaliana, Suspension Culture, Callus Culture, Shoot Induction, Root Induction

1. INTRODUCTION

Plants possess a high capacity to regenerate, which has long been utilized for clonal propagation in the form of cutting and grafting (Hartmann et al., 2010; Melnyk and Meyerowitz, 2015). The attempts to regenerate whole individual plants from small tissues or single cells in vitro started in the early 20th century when Haberlandt (1902) proposed the concept of tissue culture. A landmark breakthrough in the history of tissue culture was the discovery that the balance of two exogenously applied plant hormones, namely auxin and cytokinin, could determine the fate of regenerating tissue: high ratios of auxin to cytokinin generally led to root regeneration and high ratios of cytokinin to auxin tended to promote shoot regeneration (Skoog and Miller, 1957). Steward et al. (1958) further demonstrated that even single cells from carrot vascular phloem retain totipotency – the capacity to regenerate whole plants – thus highlighting the astonishing regenerative potential of plant somatic cells.

A common mode of plant regeneration both in nature and in vitro is de novo organogenesis, in which plant cuttings or explants first form ectopic apical meristems and subsequently develop shoots and roots. Meristems are specialized plant tissues where new cells, tissues and organs are generated through cell division and differentiation. Plants can also regenerate through somatic embryogenesis in vitro, whereby isolated protoplasts or cells first develop cellular structures similar zygotic embryos to and subsequently generate whole plant bodies. Both of these regeneration processes occur either directly from parental tissues or indirectly via the formation of a callus. Over recent decades, various culture conditions have been established for plant regeneration and utilized for clonal propagation and genetic transformation in diverse plant species. The regenerative capacity of plant cells can be enhanced in vitro when explants are cultured on nutrient media supplemented with plant hormones (Skoog and Miller, 1957; Murashige, 1974; George et al., 2008)root regeneration can also be induced de novo from various mature somatic tissues, and whole plants can be regenerated even from single protoplasts organogenesis through de novo or somatic embryogenesis (Takebe et al., 1971; Zhu et al., 1997; Chupeau et al., 2013).

Regeneration process is controlled by various genes whose expression is governed by certain physical and chemical conditions (Imani et al. 2001; Papadakis et al. 2001). So far, in vitro regeneration has been achieved by a variety of means including treatment with plant growth regulators (PGR), temperature shocks, osmotic stress, and through application of various chemical substances (Szechynska-Hebda et al. 2007; Touraev et al. 1997; Zavattieri et al. 2010). The consequence of these processes has been generally considered as ROS overproduction, which is detrimental for plant as such (Scandalios 1997). However, recent pieces of evidence suggest that ROS participate in signal transduction cascade (Prasad et al. 1994) and have a positive role in plant growth and development (Tian et al. 2003).

A change in the activity of antioxidant enzymes has also been detected during in vitro shoot initiation and development (Batkova et al. 2008; Gupta 2010).Furthermore, it has been reported that the cytosolic Cu/Zn- SOD was induced in regenerating tobacco protoplasts (Papadakis et al. 2001), which supports the hypothesis that SOD is involved in plant morphogenesis. The present study was aimed to study callus growth and in vitro regenerative capacity of the different tissues of Arabidopsis. We also showed expression and activity of antioxidant genes has a role to play in plant morphogenesis. Our results suggest that proper maintenance of redox homeostasis is crucial for successful regeneration at the early stages of shoot organogenesis.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant growth, callus induction, and regeneration

Arabidopsis seeds were surface sterilized, sown in petri dishes containing Murashige and Skoog (MS)medium. The plates were kept at 4 °C for 2 days and then shifted to 21±1 °C. After 10 days germination, cotyledons were excised from seedlings and cut into two pieces and placed on MS callus induction medium containing 30 g 1-1 sucrose and 8.0 g 1-1 agar (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), supplemented with 1 mg 1 - 12.4 dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). The explants were cultured in the dark at 25±2 °C. Callus formation started after 1 week of inoculation on callus induction medium. After 1 month, compact proliferating callus was selected and transferred to fresh MS medium with 1.0 mg 1-1 2,4-D, 30 g 1-1 sucrose, and 8.0 g 1-1 agar. After 1-month subculture, proliferating callus was transferred to regeneration medium (half strength MS medium with 30 g l-1 sucrose, 8.0 g l-1 agar, supplemented with 0.5-1.0 mg l-1 2,4-D, and 0.5-1.0 mg l-1 benzylaminopurine (BAP) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) for regeneration in a culture room with a 16-h photoperiod (60-70 µmol m-2 s-1 cool white fluorescent irradiance) for 4 weeks at 25±2 °C. Callus with clearly differentiated shoots were counted as regenerated, with each piece of callus counted as one unit. After 4 weeks, the regenerated plantlets were transferred to 100-ml flasks containing the same medium for further growth. SOD activity and H2O2 content were determined at different stages of culture. Regeneration frequency was calculated as the number of regenerated explants per total number of cultured explants. Three replications were used in each experiment.

Measurement of callus growth

Following callus induction after 3 weeks of culture, callus was aseptically transferred onto liquid medium in culture flasks. The flasks were incubated in the dark at 27 ± 1 °C for 4 weeks. Growth kinetics was studied by determination of fresh and dry weights of fresh callus of 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, and 30 days old. Dry weight of fresh callus was determined after drying in a vacuum oven at 65 °C until constant weight. The cultures were incubated for 16-h photoperiods at 25 °C.

Microscopy

Explants were collected at 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 weeks from initiation and evaluated using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and light microscopy (LM). Samples were fixed informalin, glacial acetic acid, and 50 % ethyl alcohol (FAA)(1:1:18) at room temperature. Samples were subsequently dehydrated in a tertiary butyl alcohol series, embedded in paraffin (melting point 58–60 °C), and 8–10-mm thick sections were cut using a Finesee microtome. Sections were stained with 1 % safranin in water and with 4 % fast green in clove oil for 4 h and for 30 s, respectively. These were mounted in Canada balsam and examined using bright fieldmicroscope (Zeiss LSM510 meta GmbH, Germany) equipped with a Zeiss Axiovert 100 M inverted microscope.

SOD and APX enzyme activity assay

Leaf samples (100 mg) were homogenized in a pre cooledmortar in homogenizing buffer containing 2 mM EDTA,1 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, 0.5 % (v/v) Triton-X100 and 10 % (w/v) PVPP in 50 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.8.For APX activity, homogenizing buffer contained ascorbatein addition and the buffer pH was set to 7.0. Thehomogenate was transferred to 1.5 ml tubes and centrifugedat 13,000 rpm for 20 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was collected and total SOD and APX activities were estimated. The total SOD activity was measured by adding5 µl enzyme extract to reaction mixture (200 µl) containing1.5 µm riboflavin, 50 µm NBT, 10 mM Dlmethionine and 0.025 % (v/v) triton-X100 in 50 mM phosphate buffer. One unit of enzyme activity was defined as the amount of enzyme required for 50 % inhibition of NBT reduction per min at 25 °C. Specific activity of SOD was calculated accordingly. APX activity was determined by following the oxidation rate of ascorbate at 290 nm as described by Nakano and Asada (1981). Protein content was estimated according to the dye binding method of Bradford using BSA as standard (Bradford 1976).

RT-PCR Analysis

Total RNAwas isolated from transgenic and the wildtype Arabidopsis plants using Total RNA Extraction Kit (RealGenomics). One microgram of total RNA was used for oligo (dT) primed first-strand cDNA synthesis in 20-µl reactionusing Superscript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen). This cDNA was used in 27-cycle PCR using gene specific primers for PaSOD gene. Constitutively expressed 26S rRNA gene was amplified simultaneously in 27 cycles to ensure equal amounts of template cDNA used.

Statistical analysis

All experiments were conducted with at least three independent repetitions in triplicate. All values are shown as the mean±standard deviation. The statistical analysis was performed using Statistica software (v.7). The statistical significance between the mean values was assessed by Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) applying Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT). A probability level of P \leq 0.05 was considered significant.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Callus Induction, Initiation of Suspension culture and Growth Kinetic Study

In the present study, cotyledons of Arabidopsis plants were used as explants due to their high regeneration potential as suggested by various previous studies (Ozcan et al. 1992; Patton and Meinke 1988; Mante et al. 1989). In addition to this root and stem section of Arabidopsis was also used to induce callus. After 1 week of inoculation on 1 mg $l^{-1}2,4$ D, callus formation has initiated. Callus Induction was faster in cotyledons (CT) followed by root (RT) and stem sections (IF). Callus initiation is the primary stage in many tissue culture processes for the establishment of cell suspension cultures(Kumar and Kanwar 2007; Ngara et al. 2008). Once callus was initiated under invitro conditions, inoculum was used for suspension culture (Liquid MS, supplemented with 1 mg $1^{-1}2.4$ D). The growth of callus was determined based on the fresh and dry weights after 10, 20 and 20 days of suspension culture.Growth kinetics showed a typical curve with lag phase, exponentialphase followed by stationary phase after incubation. The pattern of the growth curve obtained in CT, RT and IF was different (Fig.1). Upon transferring the calli of CT and (RT and

IF) to the suspension medium, verylittle increase in biomass was observed during the first 4 daysof culture (the lag phase). After 6 days of culture, the calliwere found in their exponential phase as the cells rapidlydivided and proliferated. After 14 days, culture reached thestationary phase. While in WT, exponential phase began after 14 days of incubation and stationary phase was reached after22 days. Growth rates during the exponential phase in IF, RTand CTwere 0.22, 0.57, and 0.73 g (dry weight)/day, respectively, (Fig.1) while on the basis of fresh weight,growth rates during the exponential phase in IF, RT and CTwere 0.38, 0.98, and 1.22 g (fresh weight)/day, respectively(Fig. 1). These results clearly demonstrate that growthrate of CT calli was significantly higher than that of RT and IFcalli.



Fig.1 Growth curve analysis of callus from different tissues cotyledons (CT), root (RT) and Inflorescence (IF) based on d dry weight (DW mg/l) and e fresh weight (FW mg/l), which were determined every 2 days after inoculation. Bar indicates the standard deviation (n=3).

Invitro Regeneration Frequency on different concentration of BAP and NAA

Calli from IF, RT and CT regenerated shoots when cultured on the regeneration media with different concentrations of BAP and NAA (Table 1). Transfer of callus to regeneration media led to the formation of meristemoids. The meristemoids (nodules or growth centers) are localized clusters of cambium-like cells which may become vascularized due to the appearance of tracheid cells in the center. Formation of meristemoids in callus cultures may represent their association with an early stage development of shoot bud (Kulchetscki et al. 1995). However, an early shoot initiation response was observed from the CT as compared to IF and RT calli on the regeneration medium containing 0.5 mg l–1 NAA and 1.0 mg l–1 BAP. After 2 weeks on the regeneration medium, shoot meristem appeared in approximately 70 % CTcalli (Table 1).

Table 1: Callus induction and shoot regeneration from Arabidopsis Cotyledons (CS), Roots (RT) and
Inflorescence (IF) tissues

Tissue	Average diameter (mm) of calli in MS media				Percent shoot regeneration in primary calli			
S								
	MS1	MS2	MS3	MS4	MS1	MS2	MS3	MS4
RT	5.36±0.06 h	7.1±0.11d	4.36±0.09i	4.06±0.06i	25.1±0.48h	30.92±0.48f	19.92±0.48i	15.18±0.48j
CS	7.92±0.09c	13.8±0.13a	5.94±0.06 e	7.08±0.13 d	60.16±0.65 c	80.08±0.85a	35.08±0.48 e	36.92±0.48 d
IF	5.94±0.06f	11.1±0.13 b	5.4±0.06g	5.82±0.08f	34.9±0.70e	62.87±1.22 b	29.6±0.31f	28.16±0.32 g

Each value represents mean \pm SE of five replicates for each parameter. The induction media contained 1 mg l–1 2, 4-D and regeneration media supplemented with BAP and NAA in different concentrations, MS1 (0.5 mg l–1 NAA/0.5 mg l–1 BAP), MS2 (0.5 mg l–1 NAA/1 mg l–1 BAP), MS3 (1 mg l–1 NAA/0.5 mg l–1 BAP) and MS4 (1 mg l–1 NAA/1 mg l–1 BAP). In each section of the table, means were compared with ANOVA and data followed by the same letters within the columns are not significantly different at the level of P≤0.05, as determined by a least-significant difference (LSD)

Expression analysis of antioxidant genes during different Stages of Culture

RT-PCR expression analysis of SOD and APX enzymes at callus stage (CS), shooting stage (SS) and rooting Stage (RS) was done (Table 2). It was observed that expression of these gene were induced at SS and RS stages, indicating role of SOD and APX genes in shoot and root regeneration (Fig. 2).Numerous studies have been reported relating to the variation in the patterns of the antioxidant enzyme activity during different stages of organogenesis(Franck et al. 1998; Chen and Ziv 2001; Racchi et al. 2001;Meratan et al. 2009; Vatankhah et al. 2010).

Table 2: Primer sequence, PCR conditions, and amplicon size for the PaSOD and 26S rRNA (reference
gene) used for semi quantitative PCR

Genes	Sequence 5' to 3'	PCR Conditions	Amplicon Size (bp)
AtSOD	F: TGCCATGGCGAAAGGAGTTGCAG R:ATAGATCTGCGCCCTGGAGACCAATGATG	94 °C, 4 min; 94 °C, 1 min, 56 °C, 30 s, 72 °C, 1	456
		min, 27 cycles; 72 °C, 7 min	
AtAPX	F: ATAGATCTGATGGCTGCACCGATTGTT R: TAAGTAGTCTTCATCCTCTTCCGGATCTC	94 °C, 4 min; 94 °C, 1 min, 57 °C, 30 s, 72 °C, 1 min, 27 cycles; 72 °C, 7 min	861
26S rRNA	F:CACAATGATAGGAAGAGCCGAC R:CAAGGGAACGGGCTTGGCAGAATC	94 °C, 4 min; 94 °C, 1 min, 57 °C, 30 s, 72 °C, 1 min, 27 cycles; 72 °C, 7 min	534



Fig.2 Expression analysis of callus stage (CS), Shooting stage (SS) and Rooting Stage (RS). 26S rRNA was used as the loading control.

Enzyme Activity Assay of SOD and APXduring different Stages of Culture

In the present study, SOD and APX activity was found to vary among SS (shoot stage), RS (root stage) and CS (callus stage) tissues at each stage of culturing. SOD and APX levels were found to be decreased in CS comparing to that of SS and RS stage, then increased in regenerated shoots and roots (Fig. 3). In the case of RS and CS, SOD and APX activity was found to be higher than that of CS at all the stages. However, the increase in the SOD and APX activity of RS and CSlines as compared to WT was more during the regeneration stage. Similar

observations have also been reported earlier by few groups (Bagnoli et al. 1998; Cui et al. 1999).



Microscopic Study of different Stages of Invitro regeneration

Under sterosome, different stages of invitro regeneration of Arabidopsis cotyledons were observed. After 1 week of inoculation on 2,4D, callus formation was observed (Fig. 5). Callus turned into green meristemoid like structures after 3 weeks of inoculation of callus on MS media supplemented with BAP and NAA. Theses meristemoid like structures started regenerating leaf primordia like structures after 4 to 4.5 week period of inoculation. After completion of 5 week shoo regeration were observed from the cotyledonary explants (Fig. 5).



Fig.5 Micrographs observed under sterosome of Callus induction, Shoot meristemoids formation and shoot Induction in media supplemented by 2,4 D followed by BAP and NAA.

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