The Arabidopsis 14-3-3 Multigene Family'

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The 14-3-3 proteins are ubiquitous eukaryotic proteins and are encoded by a gene family in many species. We examined the 14-3-3 gene family in Arabidopsis thaliana and found that it contains 10 members. Four new cDNAs, GF14 ϵ , GF14 κ , GF14 μ , and GF14 ν , **and two new genomic clones of CF144 and CF14u were isolated** and characterized. Together with the six previously described 14-**3-3 isoforms in Arabidopsis, they constitute a complete family of 10 distinct 14-3-3 proteins of 248 to 268 amino acids. Phylogenetic analysis revealed the presence of two ancient, distinct 14-3-3 gene** classes in Arabidopsis and other plants. The ϵ forms diverged early **from the other plant isoforms, and plant 14-3-3 genes displayed a different evolutionary course from that of mammals.**

The 14-3-3 proteins exist as protein families that contain highly conserved, but individually distinct, isoforms in many species (Ferl et al., 1994; Ferl, 1996). They were originally isolated as soluble, cytosolic, and acidic proteins from bovine brain on the basis of their electrophoretic mobilities (Moore and Perez, 1967). Further studies showed that, in addition to their abundance in mammalian brain, 14-3-3 proteins are also present in a11 eukaryotic organisms examined to date (Aitken, 1995; Ferl, 1996).

An assortment of activities and functions has been attributed to 14-3-3 proteins, most of which are involved in cellular signaling pathways. In mammals there are seven distinct 14-3-3 isoforms that were initially described as **phosphorylation-dependent** activators of Tyr and Trp hydroxylase during the biosynthesis of serotonin and dopamine (Yamauchi et al., 1981; Ichimura et al., 1987). Later, 14-3-3 proteins were found to regulate protein kinase C activity (Toker et al., 1992; Tanji et al., 1994), to activate calcium-dependent exocytosis in permeabilized adrenal chromaffin cells (Morgan and Burgoyne, 1992), and to associate with and activate Raf-1 kinase, a key member in the mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade (Fantl et al., 1994; Freed et al., 1994; Fu et al., 1994; Irie et al., 1994).

More recently, mammalian 14-3-3 proteins were shown to bind to and be phosphorylated by Bcr kinase (Reuther et al., 1994), to associate with polyoma virus middle T antigen (which in turn associates with other proteins involved in the regulation of cell proliferation; Pallas et al., 1994), and to stimulate mitochondrial import in rats (Alam et al., 1994). The 14-3-3 proteins function as part of the cell cyclecontrolled DNA-damage checkpoint in the yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (Ford et al., 1994), and they form a complex with cdc25 phosphatase (Conklin et al., 1995).

The 14-3-3 proteins were found to associate with the G-box DNA/ protein complex in *Arabidopsis thaliana* and maize *(Zea mays)* (de Vetten et al., 1992; Lu et al., 1992), to function as a receptor for the phytotoxin fusicoccin in certain plants (Korthout and de Boer, 1994; Oecking et al., 1994), and to bind and regulate nitrate reductase (Bachmann et al., 1996a, 1996b; Moorhead et al., 1996). Arabidopsis 14-3-3 proteins were also shown to interchangeably carry out certain cellular functions ascribed to mammalian and yeast 14-3-3 proteins (Lu et al., 1994; van Heusden et al., 1995).

At present, the reason such homologous isoforms are responsible for so many diverse functions remains unknown. One leading model is that different isoforms, although they may have many conserved properties, specialize in individual functions on the basis of their isoform diversity, distinct cell-specific and/ or developmentally regulated expression, and differential responses to environmental stimuli. In support of this model, some Arabidopsis 14-3-3 proteins demonstrate differential ability to regulate nitrate reductase (Bachmann et al., 1996a).

Six 14-3-3 isoforms have been identified in Arabidopsis in previous studies. Five isoforms were isolated during a screening of an expression library using a monoclonal antibody that recognized a component(s) in a G-box DNA/ protein complex (Lu et al., 1992,1994). These isoforms were identified as 14-3-3 proteins based on their amino acid sequence homology with known 14-3-3 proteins, and were designated as GF14 ψ , GF14 χ , GF14 ϕ , GF14 ω , and GF14 υ (G-box Factor 14-3-3 homologs). Another isoform, RCI2 (for Rare Cold-lnducible cDNAs), was identified in a screening of cold-acclimated, etiolated seedlings of Arabidopsis with a subtracted probe (Jarillo et al., 1994). The genomic clones of three GF14 genes were also identified: GRF1-GF14 x , GRF2-GF14 ω , and GRF3-GF14 ψ (for General Regulatory

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Abbreviations: dbEST, database of expressed sequence tags; GF14, G-box factor 14-3-3 homolog; GRF, general regulatory factor.

Factor, with numbers designating the order in which the genomic clones were identified) (Rooney and Ferl, 1995; Daugherty et al., 1996).

To better understand the functions of 14-3-3 proteins, it is important to fully characterize certain benchmark organisms with respect to all 14-3-3 proteins present. We isolated and characterized four novel 14-3-3 cDNAs in Arabidopsis: GF14 ϵ , GF14 κ , GF14 μ , and GF14 ν . Together with the six known 14-3-3 isoforms, they represent the largest complete 14-3-3 protein family in a11 organisms characterized. The isolation and characterization of two new Arabidopsis GF14 genes is also reported here. Sequence analyses of all 10 Arabidopsis GF14 proteins and other 14-3-3 proteins revealed the presence of two divergent classes of Arabidopsis 14-3-3 genes that may encode specialized functions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

lsolation of New 14-3-3 lsoforms

Yeast Two-Hybrid Screening

The coding region of $GF14x$ was amplified by PCR and subcloned into a *BamHI* site of the two-hybrid shuttle/ expression vector pGBT9, as previously described (Wu et al., 1997). The coding region was in-frame as determined by sequencing. The construct was cotransformed into HF7C yeast cells with pGADlO constructs containing a yeast *(Sacckaromyces cerevisiae)* two-hybrid cDNA library of *Arabidopsis tkaliana* to identify potential proteins that could interact with $GF14\chi$ protein, according to the protocol provided by the manufacturer (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA). The transformants were plated on selection media lacking His, Leu, and Trp. A total of 2×10^6 colonies was screened. Positive colonies that could produce His were isolated and their DNA was subsequently purified and sequenced.

Searching *of dbEST*

Full-length cDNA sequences of Arabidopsis GF14 proteins were used as probes during a BLAST search of the dbEST of GenBank using the search engine HyperBLAST version 1.10 (National Center for Biotechnology Information, Bethesda, MD). BLAST search parameters included an expected number of matches of 25 and a default scoring matrix. Arabidopsis EST entries with homology to the probes were retrieved and their sequences were compared with the probes to determine their identities. EST entries that were not identical to any of the already characterized Arabidopsis GF14 proteins were analyzed to determine unique sequences. Those representing unique 14-3-3 sequences were ordered from the DNA Stock Center of the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (The Ohio State University, Columbus) and DNA was subsequently purified and sequenced.

lsolation of Genomic Clones of 14-3-3

Isolation of genomic clones of Arabidopsis 14-3-3 genes was carried out as previously described (Daugherty et al., 1996). An Arabidopsis genomic library (Clontech) was plated on *Esckerickia coli* K803 and screened by hybridization at high stringency with 32P-labeled GF14 cDNAs. The hybridization was performed at 65°C for 18 h in 0.5 M sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 1 mm EDTA, 7% SDS, and 1% BSA. The filters were washed for 1 h with three changes of 40 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 24 mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, and 1 mm EDTA at 65° C, and exposed to XAR-5 film (Kodak) with an intensifying screen. Hybridizing recombinant phages were rescreened until a pure population of plaque was obtained. Phage particles were isolated and DNA was subsequently purified.

Subcloning and Sequencing

Relevant DNA fragments were cloned into $pGEM-7Zf(+)$ vectors and subjected to double-stranded nested deletions (Pharmacia). The nucleotide sequences of both strands of the plasmid DNA were determined by automated dideoxy chain termination (model 373, Applied Biosystems).

Computational Analyses of 14-3-3 Sequences

Nucleotide and amino acid sequences were managed and alignments were performed using GeneWorks (IntelliGenetics, Mountain View, CA). Amino acid identity of the 14-3-3 proteins and coding nucleotide identity of the 14-3-3 coding sequences were also analyzed with GeneWorks. The neighbor-joining and protein parsimony tree-building programs were provided within version 3.5 of the PHYLIP program package (Felsenstein, 1989).

Low-Stringency Southern Analysis

Genomic DNA was isolated from Arabidopsis suspension cells, as described previously (Ferl and Nick, 1987), and then digested with the indicated restriction enzymes, subjected to 0.8% agarose gel electrophoresis, and transferred to Hybond-N+ nucleic acid transfer membrane **(Am**ersham). The hybridization and washing were performed in a similar manner as described above, except they were carried out at 45°C.

RESULTS

lsolation and Characterization of Four Nove1 CFI 4 lsoforms

During a yeast two-hybrid screening of an Arabidopsis cDNA library using $GF14\chi$ as bait, seven positive clones were identified. Sequencing of those clones revealed three unique 14-3-3 cDNA sequences. Two of the sequences represented novel 14-3-3 proteins. One of the two novel sequences was designated as GF14_K. Another was designated as GF14€, based on the results from phylogenetic analysis (see below). One of three sequences was identical to RC12 (Jarillo et al., 1994). To keep the consistency of nomenclature of Arabidopsis 14-3-3s in our study, RC12 was designated GF14h.

To further identify and characterize all members of the Arabidopsis GF14 protein family, a BLAST search of Arabidopsis dbEST was carried out using eight known Arabidopsis GF14 cDNA sequences as probes (Table I), on the theory that a11 characterized 14-3-3 isoforms were highly homologous; 103 EST entries with homology to the probes were retrieved out of a total of 21,056 Arabidopsis EST entries from GenBank (as of October 1995). Of the 103 EST entries, only 17 were not identical to any of the probes at the DNA sequence level. Through sequence comparison, the 17 EST entries could be divided into two groups with unique sequences (data not shown). Eight EST clones from these two groups were ordered and sequenced. Sequencing results showed that the two groups represented two new 14-3-3 isoforms, designated GF14 μ and GF14 ν .

Each of the four new GF14 cDNAs contains one large open reading frame comprising 248 to 265 amino acid residues. The four nove1 Arabidopsis GF14 proteins contain 5' untranslated leaders of 48 to 68 bp and **3'** untranslated regions of 169 to 281 bp, followed by short $poly(A)^+$ tails. There is at least one stop codon in the open reading frame just upstream of the first ATG on the **5'** untranslated leaders of GF14 μ and GF14 ν (data not shown), which may explain why these two isoforms could not be identified in an expression library.

The Arabidopsis GF14s encode proteins with a calculated *M,* of 27,973 to 30,179. The estimated **pI** of polypeptides range from 4.4 to 4.7, similar to those reported for other 14-3-3 proteins (Nielsen, 1991; Brandt et al., 1992; Zupan et al., 1992). The alignment of the deduced amino acid sequences of Arabidopsis GF14 proteins is shown in Figure 1. The amino acid sequences are highly conserved except in the C-terminal regions. The addition of amino acid sequences of new Arabidopsis GF14 proteins in the alignment does not change the pattern of conserved blocks of amino acids described previously (Ferl et al., 1994). These results are also supported by the observations reported in Table 11. As shown in Table 11, the percentage of amino acid and coding nucleotide identity of Arabidopsis GF14 proteins ranged from 60 to **92%** and 60 to 86%, respectively.

CF14 Gene Structure and Organization

To characterize the organization and structure of the GF14 genes, an Arabidopsis genomic library in AEMBLS was screened at high stringency with full-length cDNAs of GF144 and GF14u. Hybridizing phages were isolated and purified. DNA was subsequently isolated and sequenced. The genomic clones were designated as $GRF4-GF14\phi$ and GRF5-GF14u, as proposed previously (Rooney and Ferl, 1995; Ferl, 1996).

The genomic structures of the two new Arabidopsis GF14 genes and the three that were previously identified (Rooney and Ferl, 1995) are shown in Figure 2. The genomic sequences of GRF1-GF14 χ , GFR2-GF14 ω , and $GRF4-GF14\phi$ reveal three introns in conserved positions (Fig. 2), whereas the genomic sequences of GRF2-GF14 ψ and GRF5-GF14 ν each display an extra intron in the 5' untranslated leader of their cDNA sequences in addition to the three introns in the same conserved positions as those of GF14 ω , GF14 χ , and GF14 ϕ (Fig. 2). The positions of introns within the protein-coding sequences are indicated in Figure 1. It is noteworthy that the three conserved intron positions are also present in the two GF14 genomic sequences of maize *(Zea mays),* a monocot (de Vetten and Ferl, 1994). However, unlike those in maize GF14 genes, the introns of the Arabidopsis GF14 genes are not conserved either in length or nucleotide sequences (Fig. *2).* In mammals one available genomic sequence of human 14-3-3 η displays a genomic structure very divergent from those in plants. It contains only one intron of approximately 8 kb that is located at the 5' end of the cDNA sequence (Muratake et al., 1996).

Southern Analyses of the Arabidopsis 14-3-3 Multigene Family

To approach the size and divergence of the 14-3-3 multigene family in Arabidopsis, Southern analysis was performed under low-stringency conditions using probes made from two of the most distantly related genes, $GF14\phi$ and GF14e. The Arabidopsis genomic DNA restricted with

Figure 1. Alignment of the entire derived amino Figure 1. Alignment of the entire derived amino $G_{\text{crit}}^{\text{crit}}$ and $G_{\text{crit}}^{\text{crit}}$ or $G_{\text{crit}}^{\text{crit}}$ pro-
teins. Dashes indicate gaps introduced to facil-
itate alignment. The numbers on the right indi-
 $G_{\text{crit}}^{\text{crit}}$ teins. Dashes indicate gaps introduced to facilitate alignment. The numbers on the right indicate the serial numbers of the last residues at the end of CF14 amino acid sequences. The three downward arrows indicate the positions of in-

downward arrows indicate the positions of in-

crise of the contract of the crise o trons identified in GRF1x-GF14x, GRF2w-
GF14w, GRF3 ψ -GF14 ψ , GRF4 ϕ -GF14 ϕ , and **gr14**
GRF5v-GF14v gene sequences. The two upward $\frac{GFL}{GFL4}}$
arrows indicate the positions where the amino $\frac{GFL4}{GFL4}}$ acid sequences were truncated to facilitate sub-GRF5v-GF14v gene sequences. The two upward sequent phylogenetic analysis.

five different restriction enzymes produced **7** to 15 bands that hybridized with the GF14 ϕ probe (Fig. 3, lanes 1-5). Similar results were obtained using a probe made from a divergent GF14e cDNA clone under the same conditions (Fig. 3, lanes $6-10$). Many bands hybridizing to the ϵ probe are also recognized by the ϕ probe, indicating that these divergent probes cross-hybridize at this low stringency.

Evolution of 14-3-3 Sequences

An Ancient Split among Plant 14-3-3 Proteins

To study the evolution of 14-3-3 proteins, protein phylogenetic trees were initially generated based on the alignment of truncated Arabidopsis GF14 protein sequences in which highly variable parts of N and C termini were removed (Fig. 1). These regions are so divergent that proper alignment becomes problematic (Ferl et al., 1994). A similarly truncated 14-3-3-1 protein sequence from *Entamoeba histolytica* was also included in the alignment (data not shown) and later employed as an outgroup because *E. histolytica,* an amitochondrial protozoan, represents the most divergent species in terms of systematic classification.

As shown in Figure 4, **A** and *8,* unrooted networks were made using both neighbor-joining and protein parsimony methods from PHYLIP (Felsenstein, 1989), and only those branches that survived the bootstrap analysis at 80% are indicated. Both trees place GF14 ϵ and GF14 μ in one cluster, $GF14\kappa$ and $GF14\lambda$ in one cluster, and $GF14\psi$ by itself. $GF14\omega$, $GF14\chi$, and $GF14\phi$ are also grouped in one cluster. The placement of GF14 ν and GF14 ν is the only variation in the two networks. Neighbor-joining (Fig. 4A) supports the grouping of GF14 ν and GF14 ν with a subtending branch, whereas parsimony (Fig. 4B) leaves GF14 v and GF14 v as independent basal branches. The grouping of $GF14\omega$, GF14 χ , and GF14 ϕ is also supported by the fact that this group lacks the 5' intron characteristic of GF14 ψ and GF14 υ .

To further characterize the evolutionary relationship of 14-3-3 proteins among different species (especially in plants), a11 available 14-3-3 protein sequences from plants and certain representative sequences from other organisms were retrieved from the protein database of GenBank (Table 111), truncated to eliminate the highly divergent N and C termini, and aligned (Fig. 5). Trees were generated in a similar manner as described above. As shown in Figure 6,

Table II. Percentage *of* amino acid and coding nucleotide identity *of* Arabidopsis *Gf 14s* of the matrix table. Comparison was done by the GeneWorks program. Amino acid identity is shown in the lower part and nucleotide identity in the upper part

Figure 2. Physical structure of the GF14 genes. A restriction map of the insert of each genomic clone is shown at the top. Coding regions are shown by hatched blocks, and 5' and 3' untranslated regions are shown by open blocks. The 5' and 3' flanking sequences and introns are designated by lines. Numbers above the gene structures indicate the codon positions, and the numbers below show the sizes of the introns. The amino acid split by introns are labeled. Start and stop codons are also indicated.

both trees show similar but nonidentical topology, indicating that the major evolutionary groupings are correct, even though the relative branch positions of some ancient branches remain uncertain.

Most plant sequences (subgroup III) cluster separately from those of mammals (subgroup I) with a high degree of confidence in both trees, indicating that mammalian and plant 14-3-3 lineages have been on distinct and separate evolutionary tracts since their earliest divergence. This result is also confirmed by the significant divergence in genomic structure of plant and mammalian 14-3-3 genes.

Similar conclusions were also reached in previous studies that were based on fewer sequences (Ferl et al., 1994; Wang and Shakes, 1996). Notable exceptions are the 14-3-3 isoforms indicated as subgroup II in Figure 6. This distinct group includes 14-3-3 proteins from both plants and mammals and the grouping is supported in both trees. The plant isoforms in this group include Arabidopsis GF14e and GF14 μ , tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum) CZ1, and Vicia faba 14-3-3b, and form a distinct grouping within the phylogenetic tree of plant 14-3-3 proteins. Arabidopsis GF14e and GF14 μ are more similar to tobacco CZ1 and *V. faba* 14-3-3b, respectively, than to other Arabidopsis homologs. The separation of these isoforms away from subgroups I and II is clearly supported by very strong bootstrap values (Fig. 6). Early branches in subgroup II are weakly supported by bootstrap analysis, indicating ancient branches from an as yet unresolved basal polychotomy.

At the amino acid sequence level, GF14 ϵ and GF14 μ represent the most divergent among all Arabidopsis isoforms, and are more identical to each other than to other homologs (Fig. 1; Table II). In addition, E. coli-expressed GF14 ϵ and GF14 μ displayed the weakest immunoreactivity with the monoclonal antibody relative to all other isoforms (data not shown). These data suggest that $GF14\epsilon$, $GF14\mu$, tobacco CZ1, and *V. faba* 14-3-3b all belong to a novel class of genes within the plant 14-3-3s, which is distinct from the class that contains all of the other plant sequences. The duplication event that led to the formation of these two ancient classes of plant 14-3-3 isoforms apparently predated the divergence of Arabidopsis, tobacco, and *V. faba.*

Figure 3. Genomic Southern-blot analysis reveals a large GF14 gene family. Arabidopsis genomic DNA $(1.2 \mu g)$ was restricted with BamHI, HindIII, Xbal, Bg/II, and EcoRI, resolved on a 0.8% agarose gel, blotted to a nylon membrane, and hybridized with a probe made from GF14 ϕ (lanes 1–5) under the conditions described in "Materials and Methods." After exposure the same blot was stripped and hybridized with a probe made from GF14 ϵ (lanes 6-10). Molecular mass (Kb) is indicated by numbers on the left.

Figure 4. Unrooted neighbor-joining **(A)** and protein parsimony (B) network analysis of Arabidopsis GF14 proteins and €. *histolytica* 14-3- 3-1. The branch lengths shown in the network are proportional to the branch lengths calculated by neighbor-joining and protein parsimony programs contained in the PHYLIP program package (version 3.5; Felsenstein, 1989). Only those branches that survived bootstrap analysis at 80% are indicated.

Plant 14-3-3s versus Those *of Mammals*

The tight clustering of non- ϵ plant 14-3-3 isoforms (subgroup 111) in both trees indicates that most of the presentday isoform diversity arose after the separation of ϵ -like and non- ϵ isoforms through independent duplications within each subbranch. As shown in both trees, the non- ϵ isoforms from monocots appear to separate from those of dicots (Fig. 6). The branching patterns of some non- ϵ isoforms, such as those in Arabidopsis, indicate that recent duplication events were responsible for the generation of some isoforms. This is in contrast to the situation in mammals, in which various isoform groups were well established before the point of mammalian, and possibly vertebrate, divergence (Wang and Shakes, 1996).

DISCUSSION

Arabidopsis Contains a Complex 14-3-3 Gene Family

The 10 Arabidopsis 14-3-3 genes identified and characterized here represent, to our knowledge, the largest 14-3-3 gene family in any species examined to date. An exhaustive

search of the latest Arabidopsis dbEST (with more than 25,000 entries) using a11 10 14-3-3 sequences retrieved only EST sequences that were identical to the probes (data not shown). It is highly likely that these 10 distinct sequences represent a11 of the members of the 14-3-3 protein family in Arabidopsis. Initial results from northern-blot analyses of Arabidopsis suspension cells (data not shown) and the presence of a11 10 unique sequences in the dbEST indicate that they are a11 expressed in Arabidopsis at the mRNA level. In spite of their high conservation of amino acid sequences, different Arabidopsis 14-3-3 isoforms maintain their distinctiveness, especially at their N- and C-terminal ends (Fig. l), suggesting that they may encode for different functions.

Evolution of Plant 14-3-3s

Plant 14-3-3 proteins are divided into two main divergent classes, ϵ -like and non- ϵ isoforms. Arabidopsis GF14 ϵ , GF14 μ , tobacco CZ1, and V. *faba* 14-3-3b belong to ϵ -like isoforms, whereas the rest of the plant 14-3-3s belong to non-e isoforms. Because of the lack of sequence data from

Table III. 14-3-3 sequences in this study

monocot species, it is still unclear whether the split that generated ϵ -like and non- ϵ isoforms occurred before the separation of monocots and dicots. However, one intriguing observation is that in rice there is a family of 14-3-3 homologs similar to that of Arabidopsis. Thus, it is very likely that there are Arabidopsis ϵ -like isoforms in rice as well as in other monocots.

The deep branching pattern of plant ϵ -like isoforms from non- ϵ isoforms suggests that the split that produced these two lineages might have occurred during the very earliest divergence of ancient plant species (Fig. 6). The divergence between ϵ -like and non- ϵ isoforms was further demonstrated by the results from detailed analyses of DNA and protein sequences, dimerization domain mapping (Wu et al., 1997), and immunoreactivity of expressed Arabidopsis 14-3-3 proteins (data not shown).

The evolutionary relationship between plant ϵ -like and mammalian ϵ isoforms remains to be fully investigated. Mammalian ϵ is the most unique isoform of all mammalian 14-3-3 proteins (Ferl et al., 1994; Wang and Shakes, 1996); it is more similar to plant and yeast **14-3-3** isoforms than to those of other mammals, and was thought to serve as a functionally conserved copy of the original ancestral 14-3-3 genes (Wang and Shakes, 1996). Based on the ancient divergence observed in the current study, the Arabidopsis E-like 14-3-3 proteins may similarly serve ancient and essential functions different from those of the non- ϵ plant isoforms.

In Arabidopsis some non- ϵ isoforms seem to arise from recent duplication events. It is still unclear how many non- ϵ isoforms were generated after the divergence of different species. Isolation and analysis of 14-3-3 proteins from additional plant species will provide a better picture of exactly when the latter duplication events occurred.

Plant 14-3-3 Functions

A11 phylogenetic analyses support early and clear divergence of plant non- ϵ and mammal lineages. Therefore, there can be no specialized functions shared among the

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Figure 5. Alignment of truncated 14-3-3 homolog sequences. The sequences derived from those listed in Table III were truncated at conserved residues to facilitate an unambiguous alignrnent.

Figure *6.* Bootstrap majority-rule consensus trees derived from 1 *O0* neighbor-joining **(A)** and protein parsimony **(6)** replicates with alignment shown in Figure 5.

known mammalian and plant isoforms, except perhaps the **^E**isoforms. Fundamental properties can be shared, but specialized functions cannot be shared by animal and plant isoforms as a result of evolutionary heritage. Evidence supporting this theory has been emerging since the early stages of plant 14-3-3 research. Specialized functions and activities that are as yet unique to plants include association with a DNA/protein complex (de Vetten et al., 1992; Lu et al., 1992), receptors for fusicoccin (Korthout and de Boer, 1994; Oecking et al., 1994), and binding and regulation of nitrate reductase (Bachmann et al., 1996a, 1996b; Moorhead et al., 1996).

Fundamental properties and activities shared among animals and plants include phosphoprotein-binding activities

and participation in signaling pathways. The evidence for shared functions includes observations that an Arabidopsis 14-3-3 isoform can perform the functions of yeast and mammalian isoforms (Lu et al., 1994), that several plant isoforms are able to regulate the protein kinase C activities such as those from mammals (Chen et al., 1994; Lu et al., 1994), and that expressed Arabidopsis GF14 proteins bind to nitrate reductase (Bachmann et al., 1996a, 1996b; Moorhead et al., 1996), which contains a phosphoserine consensus sequence known to be bound-by 14-3-3 proteins in mammals (Muslin et al., 1996). Therefore, the next question about the diversity of 14-3-3 isoforms would be how different isoforms with similar fundamental properties carry out different or specific functions. One answer-may be that different isoforms exhibit subtle quantitative or qualitative alterations in these fundamental properties (Bachmann et al., 1996a) that result in the appearance of specificity.

Another answer may lie in the intrinsic characteristics of different 14-3-3 genes that determine their distinct expression patterns and their different abilities to respond to differential externa1 stimuli. The characterized 14-3-3 isoforms in Arabidopsis, GF14 χ , GF14 ψ , GF14 ω , GF14 υ , and GF14e, display a certain degree of cell- and organ-specific expression patterns (Lu et al., 1992; Daugherty et al., 1996; K. Wu and R.J. Ferl, unpublished observations). In addition, environmental stimuli influence 14-3-3 expression in plants.

Some 14-3-3 isoforms were demonstrated to be induced by low temperature (Jarillo et al., 1994) and hypoxia (de Vetten and Ferl, 1995), down-regulated during acclimation to high salt (Chen et al., 1994), regulated by both salt and low temperature (Kidou et al., 1993), and induced after pathogen attack (Brandt et al., 1992). These observations suggest the involvement of specific 14-3-3s in specific signa1 transduction pathways, and distinct response profiles of various isoforms may simply serve to ensure expression of the fundamental activities during times of need.

The identification and initial characterization of the 10 Arabidopsis 14-3-3 isoforms presents us with an unprecedented opportunity to fully understand the fundamental function(s) and diversity of 14-3-3 proteins within a single organism. Characterization of the biochemical properties of each isoform will lend further insight into their potential roles. Defining the phenotype of transgenic plants with antisense genes of different isoforms will contribute to the clarification of the pathways affected by 14-3-3 members. Together with an appreciation of the localization profiles of a11 the isoforms, we may gain a greater understanding of the entire 14-3-3 gene family in Arabidopsis and in other organisms.

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