An ABA and GA modulated gene expressed in the barley embryo encodes an aldose reductase related protein

Dorothea Bartels, Kerstin Engelhardt, Renza Roncarati, Katharina Schneider, Max Rotter¹ and Francesco Salamini

Max-Planck-Institut für Züchtungsforschung, Carl-von-Linné-Weg 10, D-5000 Köln 30, FRG

¹Present address: Institut für Genetik, Universität Köln, Köln, FRG

Communicated by F.Salamini

In most higher plants a period of desiccation is the terminal event in embryogenesis. Excised barley embryos acquire desiccation tolerance at a precise developmental stage and cDNA clones have been isolated which are temporally linked with desiccation tolerance. One such clone (pG22-69) with a putative gene product of 34 kd displays high structural homology to mammalian genes encoding an NADPH dependent aldose reductase involved in the synthesis of sorbitol. This first aldose reductase gene of plants is expressed constitutively during embryo maturation and is modulated by the plant hormones abscisic acid (ABA) and gibberellic acid (GA). Immunohistochemistry showed that the protein is preferentially expressed in tissues formed at early stages in embryogenesis. Measurements of enzymatic activity indicate that pG22-69 encodes an active aldose reductase. The finding of this reductase activity and the cloning of the corresponding gene supports the existence of a metabolic pathway in plants playing a role in the synthesis of osmolytes like sorbitol. The significance of this work is that genes of related structure and functions are being used in diverse organisms to fulfil stress related biological requirements.

Key words: ABA/aldose reductase/barley embryo/desiccation tolerance/osmoprotection

Introduction

In the developmental programme of plants the maturation of the seeds involves desiccation and the embryo has to adapt to a changing osmotic environment without losing viability. This adaptation takes place during seed development when the embryo acquires tolerance to dehydration. After this stage the developing embryo can tolerate exposure to air with water potentials as low as 50% relative humidity (Gaff, 1980). The plant hormone abscisic acid (ABA) is thought to play a role in the development of desiccation tolerance (for a review see Kermode, 1990) but the biochemical basis of desiccation tolerance is still largely unknown.

A number of plant genes have been isolated which are abundantly expressed during late embryogenesis. These genes are characteristically ABA responsive and associated with seed maturity. Some of them appear to be expressed as a general response to osmotic stress (see Skriver and Mundy, 1990 for review). The function of their protein products is unknown, but based on their predicted amphiphilic secondary structure a physical role as osmoprotectants has been put forward (Dure *et al.*, 1989).

It has been recently demonstrated that the young barley embryo is able to withstand severe drying. Embryos isolated from barley grains 12 days after anthesis (12 DAP) do not germinate after a desiccation treatment to <10% water content: these embryos are desiccation intolerant. At a later, precise developmental stage barley embryos acquire desiccation tolerance: 100% of embryos isolated 18 days after anthesis (18 DAP) germinate despite a severe dehydration treatment. In vitro translation products were identified which first appeared during the developmental period leading to desiccation tolerance (12 DAP-18 DAP). ABA treatment of 12 DAP embryos leads to the induction of desiccation tolerance, and it further stimulates the appearance of a subset of proteins known to be present in the desiccation tolerant stage of embryos (Bartels et al., 1988).

In order to understand the functions of those proteins which appear temporally correlated with the desiccation tolerant embryos, their corresponding genes were isolated. Embryo specific cDNA clones were selected whose mRNAs were present in 18 DAP and not in 12 DAP embryos and which were inducible by ABA. Here we report on the analysis of one such selected transcript, termed pG22-69. This cDNA clone encodes a protein which has significant homology to aldose reductases, a subgroup of the aldo-keto reductase superfamily (Bohren et al., 1989). The aldo-keto reductases are cytosolic, monomeric oxidoreductases which catalyse the NADPH dependent reduction of carbonyl metabolites (Bohren et al., 1989; Garcia-Perez et al., 1989; Kawasaki et al., 1989; Nishimura et al., 1990). The expression of this first aldose reductase gene of plants correlates with enzymatic activity in barley embryos. We interpret these data as indicative of a role for plant aldose reductase in osmoregulation.

Results

cDNA isolation

A cDNA bank was constructed from RNA of 18 DAP desiccation tolerant embryos and screened with cDNA probes from RNAs of desiccation tolerant (18 DAP) and intolerant (12 DAP) embryos. As tolerance to protoplastic dehydration is specific for the embryo, selected cDNA clones were further hybridized with an RNA probe derived from 5 day old barley shoots. For further analysis cDNA clones were selected which hybridized preferentially with the 18 DAP embryo probe. One such selected clone, pG22-69, contained a *PstI*-excisable insert of 1092 bp in pUC9.

RNA accumulation of pG22-69

The developmental and tissue specific distribution of pG22-69 related mRNAs was studied by Northern analysis: polyadenylated and total RNAs extracted from several tissues

and embryos of different developmental and physiological stages were probed with the 32 P-labelled insert of pG22-69. The hybridization data are presented in Figure 1. For all tissues tested pG22-69 hybridized to a transcript of 1400 bases. The hybridization data indicate that pG22-69 encodes a transcript which is developmentally regulated, embryo specific, ABA responsive and repressed by GA. No homologous mRNAs were detected in leaves or roots. The pG22-69 homologous transcripts started to accumulate during early embryogenesis, and reached a steady state level in embryos isolated between 16 and 18 DAP. A signal is obtained throughout embryogenesis even in dry mature embryos. The expression of pG22-69 homologous transcripts is modulated by ABA. When 12 DAP embryos were incubated on media containing ABA the transcript level was enhanced. Fluridone, which depresses the level of endogenous ABA (Moore and Smith, 1984) induced the germination of 12 DAP embryos and under these conditions the pG22-69 transcript was not detected. When fluridone and ABA were present at the same time (Figure 1B), a distinct hybridization was observed. As soon as the germination pathway was induced either precociously in isolated immature embryos or in mature embryos the pG22-69 homologous mRNAs disappeared.

Hybrid release translation

When barley embryo mRNA selected by hybridization to pG22-69 was translated *in vitro*, and the hybrid-selected product was separated in a two dimensional electrophoresis system it was resolved as one spot of 34 kd in the basic region of the gel (Figure 2A-C).

Genomic Southern analysis

Barley genomic DNA digested with *Eco*RI or *Bgl*II gave a simple hybridization pattern when probed with pG22-69



Fig. 1. Hybridization of the barley cDNA clone pG22-69 to Northern blots of RNAs isolated from different barley tissues. 2 μ g of poly(A)⁺ RNA (A and C) and 50 µg of total RNA (B) were separated from the following tissues: part A, lane 1, 12 DAP embryos; lane 2, 12 DAP embryos incubated with GA and ABA for 3 days; lane 3, 12 DAP embryos incubated with GA for 3 days; lane 4, 12 DAP embryos incubated with ABA for 3 days; lane 5, 18 DAP embryos. Part B, lane 1, 18 DAP embryos; lane 2, 12 DAP embryos treated with fluridone for 3 days; and lane 3, 12 DAP embryos incubated with fluridone and ABA for 3 days. Part C, lane 5, barley shoots; lane 6, barley leaves dehydrated (loss of >50% fresh weight); lane 7, roots; lane 8, endosperm; lane 9, embryos dissected from mature grains; lanes 10 and 11, embryos from mature grains incubated on GM medium for 48 h (10) and 24 h (11). To ensure equal loading of RNAs in all tracks the filters were hybridized with ³²P-labelled oligo(dT).

suggesting the existence of between one and three copies of this gene per genome (Figure 3). The two *Eco*RI fragments (indicated by arrows) correspond in size to two *Eco*RI fragments of the genomic clone.





DNA sequence analysis and amino acid homologies

The nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of pG22-69 are presented in Figure 4. Only one predicted open reading frame matches the size of the protein selected by hybrid release translation (34 kd) (Figure 2). Since the cDNA does not contain the 5' end of the transcript, the 5' sequence was obtained by determining the sequence of the corresponding fragment from the genomic clone (λ E3-22-69/1). (The coding region of the genomic clone is identical to that of the cDNA clone.) Based on sequence homology with related mammalian genes the translation start is in all probability the methionine at position 1. Without determining the N-terminal amino acid sequence of the protein the ATG codon at position 8 cannot be excluded as a possible translation start.

At the nucleotide level as well as at the amino acid level pG22-69 shows significant sequence homology with genes encoding aldose and aldehyde reductases (Figure 5): 41%and 39% of the amino acids are identical with rat lens and human placental aldose reductase and 35% with the human liver aldehyde reductase. These homologies include the tetrapeptide I-P-K-S which has been reported to be the active site for both aldehyde and aldose reductase (Carper et al., 1987). In addition pG22-69 shares sequence homologies with two other reducing enzymes and a structural protein: prostaglandin F synthase from bovine lung (which reduces prostaglandin D_2 to prostaglandin F_2) (32% identical amino acids) (Watanabe et al., 1988); 2,4 diketo-D-gluconate reductase from Corvnebacterium (27% identical amino acids) (Anderson et al., 1985) and rho-crystallin, a major structural eye lens protein from frog (25% identical amino acids) (Tomarev et al., 1984) (Figure 5). In these comparisons only identical amino acids and not other conservative substitutions were considered.

Immunodetection of the barley aldose reductase gene and determinations of enzymatic activity

The protein encoded by pG22-69 was overexpressed in Escherichia coli as an N-terminal fusion protein. E. coli cells transformed with the glutathione-S-transferase-pG22-69 fusion construct expressed a 55 kd protein, a molecular size expected for the composite protein. Polyclonal antibodies were raised against the fusion protein. These antibodies were used to analyse the expression of the corresponding protein in barley (Figure 6). The antibodies detected a soluble protein of 34 kd molecular mass in developing embryos which was resolved as one spot in a two dimensional fractionation identical to the hybrid-release translation product (Figure 2D and B). In total protein extracts a minor protein of 36 kd was additionally observed; this protein is associated with the insoluble pellet fraction. The 34 kd protein accumulates during embryogenesis and is most abundant in mature embryos. A treatment of 12 DAP embryos with ABA for 3 days led to a significant induction of the detectable protein (Figure 6, lane 7). No signal was obtained for endosperm, barley shoots or roots (Figure 6, lanes 8-10). Leaves of the resurrection plant Craterostigma plantagineum (Bartels et al., 1990) display desiccation tolerance like cereal embryos. The antibodies against the barley fusion protein pG22-69 detected a protein of 34 kd in desiccated Craterostigma leaves, but not in untreated leaves (Figure 6, lanes 11 and 12).

To link the presence of an aldose reductase homologous

protein in barley embryos with aldose reductase activity an enzyme test was performed with fractions obtained after ammonium sulphate precipitations of S30 supernatants from the embryo. The results are summarized in Table I. The highest enzyme activity was found in the fraction saturated to 70% (w/v) with ammonium sulphate. The enzymatic activity in this fraction correlated with the largest amount of protein immunoprecipitated with the antibodies raised against the protein encoded by pG22-69 (Figure 7). The enzymatic activity was dependent on the substrate glyceraldehyde. Xylose and glucose were less efficient substrates. If antiserum against the pG22-69 fusion protein was added to the 70% ammonium sulphate fraction and the antigen complex was precipitated with protein A-Sepharose, the reducing activity in the supernatant was reduced by 45%. Statil (ICI, UK), an inhibitor of human aldose reductase (Poulsom, 1986), causes a 25% reduction of the activity.

Immunolocalization of the pG22-69 encoded protein

Immunocytological methods were used to determine the distribution of the pG22-69 encoded protein in barley embryos. Thin sections of developing embryos were incubated with anti-pG22-69 protein specific antibodies and visualized via indirect immunoperoxidase staining. Peroxidase-labelled secondary antibody showed a high concentration of the pG22-69 protein preferentially in the tissues which were formed earlier in embryogenesis (Figure 8B). The protein is not confined to a particular cell type. No appreciable staining was observed with the preimmune serum (Figure 8A).

Discussion

By differential hybridization a barley embryo cDNA clone was isolated which encodes a protein with significant homology to aldose and aldehyde reductases of mammals



Fig. 3. Southern analysis of genomic DNA from barley (cv. Aura). DNA cut with EcoRi (lane 1) and Bg/II (lane 2), was probed with the ³²P-labelled insert of pG22-69. Arrows point to the EcoRI fragments in size with fragments of a genomic clone.

1 1	gaa	ttc	aga	aga	gga	gag	agg	ttt	gag	att	cag	aga	agg	tgt	gat	cat M	A B	gag S	cgc A	caa K	-
61 6	ggc A	gac. T	gat M	SES G	gca, Q	g G	gga E	gca Q	aga D	tca H	ctt F	tgt V	tct L	caa K	gag S	cgg G	gca H	tgc A	cat M	GCC P	-
	~~~	000		~		~ • ~	~~~~	~~~		<b>~</b> ~~	000		<b>TA</b> 0	<b>T</b> 00	~~ •	0110	000	<b>T</b> 00	~~~	~~~	
26	A	V	G	L	G	T	W	R	AGC	G	S	D	T	A	H	S	V	R	T	A	-
181 46	CAT	CAC T	CGA E	GGC A	TGG. G	ATA Y	CAG R	GCA H	TGT V	GGA D	CAC T	AGC A	TGC A	TGA E	ATA Y	CGG G	AGT V	AGA E	AAA K	GGA E	-
241	COT	200	CAA	100	CCT	ТАА	GGC	CGC		GGA	AGO		GAT	CGA	CAG	GAA	AGA	TT	GTT	TGT	
66	v	G	K	G	L	ĸ	A	A	M	E	A	G	I	D	R	K	D	L	F	v	-
301	CAC	GTC	AAA	AAT	ATG	GTG	CAC	AAA	CTT	GGC	ccc	TGA	GAG	GGT	GCG	GCC	AGC	ATT	AGA	GAA	
86	т	s	K	I	W	С	т	N	L	A	Ρ	Е	R	v	R	Ρ	A	L	Е	N	-
361	CAC	GCT	CAA	GGA	тст		GTT	GGA	СТА	САТ	CGA	тст	тта	CCA	САТ	CCA	TTG	GCC	GTT	CCG	
106	T	L	K	D	L	Q	L	D	Y	I	D	L	Ŷ	Н	I	Н	W	P	F	R	-
421	ACT	GAA	AGA	TGG	TGC.	ACA	CAT	GCC	TCC	AGA	AGC	AGG	GGA	GGT	GCT	GGA	ATT	CGA	CAT	GGA	
126	L	K	D	G	A	н	М	Р	P	Е	A	G	Е	v	L	Е	F	D	M	Е	-
481	GGG	AGT	GTG	GAA	GGA	GAT	GGA	GAA	сст	TGI	GAA	GGA	CGG	GCT	GGT	TAA	GGA	CAT	CGG	CGT	
146	G	v	W	K	E	M	E	N	L	V	K	D	G	L	V	K	D	I	G	v	-
541	CTG	TAA	CTA	CAC	GGT	GAC	CAA	GCT	CAA	CCC	GCT	GCT	ACG	GTC	TGC	AAA	GAT	TCC	ACC	GGC	
166	С	N	Y	т	v	т	ĸ	L	N	R	L	L	R	S	A	ĸ	I	Ρ	Ρ	A	-
601	CGI	ATG	CCA	GAT	GGA.	AAT	GCA	ccc	TGG	TTG	GAA	GAA	CGA	CAA	GAT	TTT	CGA	GGC	стб	CAA	
186	v	С	Q	M	Е	M	H	Ρ	G	W	K	N	D	K	I	F	Е	A	С	к	-
661	GAA	GCA	CGG	AAT	TCA	TGT	TAC	GGC	TTA	CTC	ccc	ATT	GGG	TTC	TTC	AGA	GAA	GAA	сст	TGC	
206	ĸ	н	G	T	н	v	Т	A	Y	S	Р	Г	G	S	S	Е	ĸ	N	L	A	
721	CCA	TGA	ccc	GGT	GGT	GGA	AAA	GGT	GGC	CAA	CAA	ACT	GAA	CAA	GAC	ccc	GGG	GCA	GGT	GCT	
226	н	D	P	v	v	Е	K	v	A	N	к	L	N	к	т	Р	G	Q	v	L	1
781	CAT	CAA	GTG	GGC	тст	GCA	GAG	GGG	GAC	GAC	TGI	GAT	ccc	CAA	ATC	AAG	CAA	AGA	TGA	GAG	
246	I	ĸ	W	A	L	Q	R	G	т	s	v	I	Р	ĸ	s	S	ĸ	D	Е	R	1
841 266	GAT	CAA K	GGA E	GAA N	CAT	TCA	GGI V	GTI F	CGG G	GTC W	IGGA E	GAT	CCC P	CGA E	AGA E	GGA D	CTT F	CAA K	GGT V	CCT L	_
901 286	GTC C	ICAG S	CAT I	K K	AGA D	TGA E	GAA K	GCC R	TG1 V	GC1 L	GAC T	G	IGGA E	GGA	GCT L	GTT F	CGT V	GAA N	CAA K	GAC T	-
961	CCA	000	000	CTA	CAG	GAG	cor		CGA	тат	YCTC	2004	TCA	CGA	GAA	сто	AGC	тта	сст	040	
306	Н	G	P	Y	R	S	A	A	D	v	W	D	н	E	N	.010			uor	0110	-
1021	СТС	GAGC	тсс	CAT	GCA	TCA	TCC	AGC	TCA	GCT	CAA	GAC	GCG	CAG	CTG	ATC	CAA	ATA	ACA	GAA	
1081	GGG	TGC	TCI	стс	CAT	AAT	CCA	TAT	GTA	TGI	TATC	CTA	TGT	AAT	'AAT	'AAG	CAC	GGC	TGI	GTT	
1141	СТС	TAC	ATC	<b>CAA</b>	ATG	CAA	TGA	GTA	AGA	ACC	TAC	GTA	CGG	СТС	TTC	TTC	СТС	CGT	AAA	AAA	
1201	AAA	AAA	AAA	1																	

Fig. 4. Nucleotide sequence (mRNA strand) and predicted amino acid sequence of pG22-69. The nucleotide sequence derived from the genomic clone is given in lower case letters and the sequence of the cDNA clone in upper case letters.

(references listed in Figure 5 and Garcia-Perez et al., 1989; Petrash and Favello, 1989; Schade et al., 1990). The molecular structure, the biochemical characteristics of the protein (soluble protein of 34 kd), its enzymatic activity and substrate specificity, confirm the identification of this barley gene as aldose reductase. We show that barley embryo extracts are capable of reducing glyceraldehyde and, with lower efficiency, glucose and xylose. A relevant part of this enzymatic activity can be attributed to the characterized aldose reductase gene product, as evident from antibody inhibition of enzymatic activity (Table I) and activity data (Figure 7). As the enzyme has not been purified to homogeneity from barley, it cannot be excluded that other NADPH dependent enzymes contribute to the determined reducing activity. The expression of the aldose reductase transcript and the corresponding protein is under developmental and hormonal control. The steady state level of the transcript reaches its maximum in embryos of  $\sim 18$ DAP and remains constant during further development. Incubation of embryos with ABA induces the synthesis of aldose reductase. This is supported by the observation that no transcript was detected when the embryos were treated with fluridone, an inhibitor of ABA. ABA has also been



Fig. 5. Comparisons of the amino acid sequences of the barley clone pG22-69, the rat lens aldose reductase (rlar) (Nishimura *et al.*, 1989), the human placenta aldose reductase (hpar) (Bohren *et al.*, 1989), the human liver aldehyde reductase (hlalr) (Bohren *et al.*, 1989), the rho-crystallin of the frog lens (rho) (Tomarev *et al.*, 1988) and the 2,5-diketo-D-gluconic acid reductase from *Corynebacterium* (dkg) (Anderson *et al.*, 1985). Amino acid identities between pG22-69 and any of the other sequences are indicated in black. Dashes were introduced to optimize sequence alignment.



**Fig. 6.** Western blot of pG22-69 related proteins. Total protein extracts of the following tissues were prepared: lane 1, 10 DAP embryos; lane 2, 12 DAP embryos; lane 3,14 DAP embryos; lane 4, 18 DAP embryos; lane 5, 20 DAP embryos; lane 6, mature embryos; lane 7, 12 DAP embryos incubated in the presence of ABA for 3 days; lane 8, endosperm; lane 9, leaf tissue; lane 10, roots; lane 11, leaves of *C.plantagineum* (untreated); lane 12, desiccated leaves of *Craterostigma*. Always six embryos of each developmental stage were homogenized in 200  $\mu$ l Laemmli sample buffer and 30  $\mu$ l loaded per lane; for the preparation of the other samples see Materials and methods. The separated proteins were transferred onto a nitrocellulose filter, which was probed with the anti-pG22-69 antiserum.

implicated in the control of a number of genes expressed during late embryogenesis which have been correlated with increased tolerance to osmotic stress (for a review see Skriver and Mundy, 1990). These genes and the barley aldose reductase gene share modulation by ABA. Our data indicate that the levels of aldose reductase mRNA and protein are determined by the interplay of ABA and GA. The two hormones are already known for their antagonistic roles in seed physiology, being germination supportive (GA) or inhibitory (ABA) (King, 1982).

In a number of mammalian organisms aldose reductase is induced under hyperglycaemic conditions and is associated

Table I. Aldose reductase activity in fractions obtained after ammonium sulphate fractionation of S30 supernatants from the embryo

Fraction	Substrate	Activity ^a
40% a.s. fraction	glyceraldehyde	20%
70% a.s. fraction	glyceraldehyde	100%
70% a.s. fraction	xylose	31%
70% a.s. fraction	glucose	26%
70% a.s. fraction	glyceraldehyde + Statil	75%
	incubation with	55%
	pG22-69 antiserum → glyceraldehyde incubation with preimmune serum → glyceraldehyde	100%

^aExpressed in per cent of maximum activity as found in the 70% a.s. fraction incubated with glyceraldehyde as substrate. a.s., ammonium sulphate.



Fig. 7. Western blot analysis and enzymatic activity measurements of ammonium sulphate fractions of an S30 supernatant of barley embryos. The following samples were analysed via immunoblotting for the presence of pG22-69 related protein: lanes 1 and 2 respectively, 80 and 160  $\mu$ g of protein of the 40% ammonium sulphate fraction; lanes 3 and 4 respectively, 80 and 160  $\mu$ g of protein of the 70% ammonium sulphate fraction. The block diagram in the lower part of the figure reflects the relative aldose reductase activities measured in the fractions using glyceraldehyde as substrate.

with diabetic complications (Nishimura et al., 1990; see also for further references). In renal medullary cells an increase in aldose reductase activity is a response to higher osmotic stress as mediated by NaCl (Garcia-Perez et al., 1989; Moriyama et al., 1989). In all these metabolic situations aldose reductase is considered a key enzyme in the polyol pathway leading to the accumulation of sorbitol (Jeffrey and Jörnvall, 1983). Sorbitol, like other polyols, is a common cell osmolyte which helps to balance the osmotic strength of the cytoplasm with that of the environment without affecting the function of important macromolecules. Pathways leading to the accumulation of osmolytes have been studied in bacteria and lower eukaryotes (Yanay et al., 1982; Le Rudulier et al., 1984). The fact that the antibodies directed against the barley protein also detected a protein of the same relative mol. wt (34 000) in the dried leaf tissue of the desiccation tolerant plant C. plantagineum (Figure 6)



B



Fig. 8. Immunocytochemical localization of the pG22-69 encoded protein in developing barley embryos. Cross-sections of 18 DAP barley embryos were hybridized with preimmune serum (A) and anti-pG22-69, protein specific antibodies (B). The localization of the protein is indicated by the dark-brown peroxidase reaction products. Indicated are the different embryonic tissues: (a) embryonic roots, (b) shoot apex, (c) plumule with embryonic leaves, (d) scutellar tissue and (e) coleoptile.

provides further evidence that the gene encoded by pG22-69 is related to osmoprotection.

Evidence for the occurrence of the sorbitol pathway in plants is given by the finding of this compound in germinating soybean axes (Kuo *et al.*, 1990), in fruits of members of the *Rosaceae* (Wallaart, 1980), in developing maize kernels (Shaw and Dickinson, 1984) and in barley seeds (Gohl *et al.*, 1978). It has been suggested that sorbitol in these tissues might represent a form of carbon storage. Alternatively it may play an osmoregulatory role as suggested for apples (Raese *et al.*, 1978) and of the salt tolerant marsh plant, *Plantago maritima* (Ahmad *et al.*, 1979). The functioning of the sorbitol pathway has recently been suggested for germinating soybean axes (Kuo *et al.*, 1990).

With the exception of the carboxy-terminal end, the amino acid sequence of the aldose reductase protein as deduced from the cDNA clone shows regions of perfect homology with the mammalian structural genes encoding aldose reductases and aldehyde reductases. Sequence conservation among plants and animals suggests that functionally important regions must have been conserved during evolution together with similar metabolic pathways. As pointed out for mammalian aldose reductases (Nishimura et al., 1989) the barley aldose reductase is also related to crystallin, the major structural protein of the frog eye lens (Tomarev et al., 1984). A recent review revealed that functionally similar crystallins have evolved from stress responsive proteins like heat-shock proteins and stress inducible enzymes (de Jong et al., 1989). Structural similarities exist between the barley aldose reductase and the bovine lung prostaglandin F synthase as well as the diketo-D-gluconate reductase from Corynebacterium. These proteins all belong to the NADPH dependent aldo-keto reductases with the conserved protein domains representing the active sites of these enzymes.

Our present findings support the existence of a metabolic pathway in plants directing the synthesis of osmoprotective molecules. The isolation of the structural gene is a first step towards the understanding of the metabolic context in which barley aldose reductase operates.

## Materials and methods

#### Plant material

Culture of barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) plants and isolation of stage specific barley embryos are described by Bartels *et al.* (1988). If required ABA or GA (100  $\mu$ m each) or fluridone (10⁻³ mg/ml) were added to the embryo culture medium (GM).

#### Construction and screening of a cDNA library

Four  $\mu g$  of poly(A)⁺ RNA extracted from 18 DAP embryos were used as a template. Two libraries were constructed. For one library the cDNA was tailed with *d*-cytidine 5'-triphosphate and cloned into the pUC9 vector which was used to transform *E. coli* (strain TG-2) (Bartels *et al.*, 1990). For the other library *Eco*RI-linked cDNA was ligated to *Eco*RI-digested lambda NM1149 arms and packaged *in vitro*. Approximately  $5 \times 10^5$ plaque forming units were plated on the selective strain POP13. This library was differentially screened with ³²P-labelled cDNAs synthesized from RNAs extracted from 12 DAP or 18 DAP embryos. Plaques hybridizing predominantly with the 18 DAP probes were purified and subcloned into pUC19. A fragment of one of these differentially hybridizing clones was used to screen the *E. coli* plasmid library to obtain longer cDNA clones.

#### Isolation of a genomic clone

Genomic clones were isolated from a barley genomic library made from DNA of *H.vulgare* L. var. NK 1558 using EMBL-3 as a cloning vector. The library was obtained from Clontech, CA, USA. The ³²P-labelled insert of pG22-69 was used for screening and plaque purification.

#### DNA sequencing and computer analysis

The nucleotide sequence of the cDNA clone was determined on both strands by subcloning of suitable restriction enzyme digest fragments into M13mp18 and 19 (Messing and Vieira, 1982) followed by dideoxynucleotide sequencing using the T7 polymerase kit (Pharmacia LKB, Freiburg, FRG). The program WISGEN (version 5.3) of the University of Wisconsin genetic group was used for nucleic acid and protein sequence analysis (Devereux *et al.*, 1984), and amino acid comparisons were done with the TFASTA program (Pearson and Lipman, 1988).

## Other recombinant DNA techniques

Isolation of plasmid DNA, preparation of DNA fragments, ligation and transformation of *E.coli* cells were essentially carried out according to Maniatis *et al.* (1982). Isolation of barley DNA and Southern blot analysis are described by Thompson *et al.* (1983). RNA extraction, Northern analysis and hybrid release translations were performed according to Bartels *et al.* (1986, 1988).

# Construction of expression vectors and analysis of expressed proteins

The insert of pG22-69 was digested with PvuII resulting in a 847 bp fragment. This fragment was ligated into the *SmaI* site of the expression 1042

vector pGEX-1 (Smith and Johnson, 1988) to yield a translational fusion with the glutathione-S-transferase (GST). The expression of the fusion protein was induced by the addition of isopropyl- $\beta$ -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) to 0.4 mM. Transformants were screened for expression of fusion proteins as described (Smith and Johnson, 1988).

#### Antibodies and immunoblotting

To purify the pGEX(1)-22-69–GST fusion protein from *E. coli* cells inclusion bodies were prepared (Schmidt *et al.*, 1986) and the proteins were separated on 12% preparative SDS–polyacrylamide gels. The proteins were visualized with KCl, excised and electroeluted (Nelles and Bamburg, 1976). Purified fusion protein (150  $\mu$ g) was emulsified with an equal volume of complete Freund's adjuvant (Sigma) and was injected into a rabbit. Two more injections of antigen in incomplete Freund's adjuvant (Sigma) followed after 21 and a further 28 days. Serum was collected 10 days after each injection.

For immunodetection protein samples were prepared as follows: 100 mg of fresh tissue or 20 mg of dried tissue was ground and dissolved in 200  $\mu$ l of Laemmli sample buffer (0.625 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 10% glycerol, 5%  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol, 0.001% bromophenol blue), and aliquots were loaded on to the gels. Electrophoretic transfer of proteins from SDS – polyacrylamide gels to nitrocellulose membranes was carried out as described (Towbin *et al.*, 1979). The membrane was probed with antiserum (1:1000 dilution) raised against the fusion protein followed by an incubation with anti-rabbit IgG conjugated horseradish peroxidase. The protein – antibody complex was detected by using the chemiluminescence (ECL) Western blotting detection system from Amersham (Braunschweig, FRG) according to the manufacturer's recommendations.

#### Assay of enzyme activity

Around 1 g of 18 DAP embryos was homogenized under liquid nitrogen with 10 ml extraction buffer (20 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 5 mM mercaptoethanol, 0.5 mM EDTA). The thawed homogenate was centrifuged at 12 000 g for 20 min. The supernatant was saturated with ammonium sulphate to 40%. After centrifugation the ammonium sulphate concentration was raised to 70% saturation in the supernatant. The proteins precipitated by ammonium sulphate were dissolved in a small amount of extraction buffer, dialysed and aliquots were assayed for aldose reductase activity. All steps were done at  $0-4^{\circ}$ C.

Aldose reductase activity was photometrically determined by measuring the decrease in the concentration of NADPH at 340 nm for 5 min at room temperature according to Kawasaki *et al.* (1989) and Shiono *et al.* (1987). Assay mixtures (500  $\mu$ ) contained 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 6.9, 0.15 mM NADPH and 10 mM DL-glyceraldehyde (Sigma) as substrate. The reaction was initiated by adding the enzyme. One unit of enzyme activity was defined as the amount of enzyme catalysing the oxidation of 1  $\mu$ mol NADPH per min under the conditions described here. The protein concentrations were determined using the Bio-Rad protein assay kit.

#### Immunohistochemistry

Tissue fixation, paraffin embedding, sectioning and the subsequent treatments of the sections are described by Schmelzer *et al.* (1989). The immunoperoxidase staining was done according to Jahnen and Hahlbrock (1988) with the following modifications: the sections (8  $\mu$ m) were incubated for 1.5 h with the pG22-69 antiserum (dilution 1:100). After the washing procedure the sections were hybridized (1 h) with the peroxidase-labelled secondary antibody (Diagnostics Pasteur, Marne-La-Coquette, France).

#### **Acknowledgements**

The authors are grateful to B.Eilts and M.Feck for technical assistance, to M.Pasemann for typing the manuscript, to A.Spena and R.D.Thompson for critically reading the manuscript, to K.Derwenskus for immunization of the rabbits and to E.Görgen for help with the protein purification. Statil was a gift from ICI Pharmaceuticals, UK. Part of this work was supported by a grant from the European Community (Contract No. TS2-0030-D).

## References

Ahmad, I., Larker, F. and Stewart, G.R. (1979) New Phytol., 82, 671-678.

- Anderson, S., Berman Marks, C., Lazarus, R., Miller, J., Stafford, K., Seymour, J., Light, D., Rastetter, W. and Estell, P. (1985) *Science*, 230, 144-149.
- Bartels, D., Altosaar, I., Harberd, N.P., Barker, R.F. and Thompson, R.D. (1986) Theor. Appl. Genet., 72, 845–853.
- Bartels, D., Singh, M. and Salamini, F. (1988) Planta, 175, 485-492.
- Bartels, D., Schneider, K., Terstappen, G., Piatkowski, D. and Salamini, F. (1990) Planta, 181, 27–34.

- Bohren, K.M., Bullock, B., Wermuth, B. and Gabbay, K.H. (1989) J. Biol. Chem., 264, 9547-9551.
- Carper, D., Nishimura, C., Shinohara, T., Dietzchold, B., Wistow, G., Craft, C., Kadur, P. and Kinoshita, J. (1987) FEBS Lett., 220, 209-213.
- de Jong, W.W., Hendiks, W., Mulders, J.W.M. and Blomendahl, H. (1989) Trends Biochem. Sci., 14, 365-368.
- Devereux, J., Haeberly, P. and Smithies, O. (1984) Nucleic Acids Res., 12, 387-395.
- Dure, L., III, Crouch, M., Harada, J., Ho, T.-H., Mundy, J., Quatrano, R., Thomas, R. and Sung, Z.R. (1989) *Plant Mol. Biol.*, **12**, 475-486.
- Gaff, D.F. (1980) In Turner, W.C. and Kramer, P.J. (eds), Adaptation of Plants to Water and High Temperature Stress. Wiley Interscience, New York, pp. 207-209.
- Garcia-Perez, A., Martin, B., Murphy, H.R., Uchida, S., Murer, H., Cowley, B.D., Jr, Handler, J.S. and Burg, M.B. (1989) *J. Biol. Chem.*, 264, 16815-16821.
- Gohl, B., Nilsson, M. and Thomke, S. (1978) Cereal Chem., 55, 341-347.
- Jahnen, W. and Hahlbrock, K. (1988) Planta, 173, 197-204.
- Jeffrey, J. and Jörnvall, H. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 80, 901-905. Kawasaki, N., Tanimoto, T. and Tanaka, A. (1989) Biochim. Biophys. Acta, 996, 30-36.
- Kermode, A. (1990) Crit. Rev. Plant Sci., 9, 155-195.
- King, R.W. (1982) In Khan, A.A. (ed.), *The Physiology and Biochemistry of Seed Development, Dormancy and Germination*. Elsevier Biomedical Press, Amsterdam, pp. 157–181.
- Kuo, T.M., Doehlert, D.C. and Crawford, C.G. (1990) Plant Physiol., 93, 1514-1520.
- Le Rudulier, D., Strom, A.R., Dandekas, A.M., Smith, L.T. and Valentine, R.C. (1984) *Science*, **224**, 1064–1068.
- Maniatis, T., Fritsch, E.F. and Sambrook, J. (1982) Molecular Cloning. A Laborator Manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY.
- Messing, J. and Vieira, J. (1982) Gene, 19, 269-276.
- Moore, R. and Smith, J.D. (1984) Planta, 162, 342-344.
- Moriyama, T., Garcia-Perez, A. and Burg, M.B. (1989) J. Biol. Chem., 264, 16810-16814.
- Nelles, L.P. and Bamberg, J.R. (1976) Anal. Biochem., 73, 522-531.
- Nishimura, C., Matsuura, Y., Kokai, Y., Akera, T., Carper, D., Morjana, N., Lyons, C. and Flynn, R.G. (1990) J. Biol. Chem., 265, 9788-9792.
- Pearson, W.R. and Lipman, D.-J. (1988) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 85, 2444-2448.
- Petrash, J.M. and Favello, A.D. (1989) Curr. Eye Res., 8, 1021-1027.
- Poulsom, R. (1986) Biochem. Pharmacol., 35, 2955-2959.
- Raese, J.T., Williams, M.W. and Billingsley, H.D. (1978) J. Am. Soc. Hortic. Sci., 103, 796-801.
- Skriver, K. and Mundy, J. (1990) Plant Cell, 2, 503-512.
- Schade,S.Z., Early,S.L., Williams,T.R., Kezdy,F.J., Heinrikson,P.L., Grimshaw,C.E. and Doughty,C.C. (1990) J. Biol. Chem., 265, 3628-3635.
- Schmelzer, E., Krüger-Lebus, S. and Hahlbrock, K. (1989) *Plant Cell*, 1, 993-1001.
- Schmidt, J., John, M., Wieneke, U., Krüssmann, H.-D. and Schell, J. (1986) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 83, 9581–9585.
- Smith, D.B. and Johnson, K.S. (1988) Gene, 67, 31-40.
- Shaw, J.R. and Dickinson, D.B. (1984) Plant Physiol., 75, 207-211.
- Shiono, T., Sato, S., Reddy, V.N., Kador, P.F. and Kinoshita, J.H. (1987) In Flynn, T.G. and Weiner, H. (eds), *Enzymology of Carbonyl Metabolism*. A.R.Liss, New York, pp. 317–324.
- Thompson, R.D., Bartels, D., Harberd, N.P. and Flavell, R.B. (1983) *Theor. Appl. Genet.*, **67**, 87–96.
- Tomarev, S.I., Zinovieva, R.D., Dolgilevich, S.M., Luchin, S.V., Krayer, A.S., Skryabin, K.G. and Gause, G.G., Jr (1984) *FEBS Lett.*, **171**, 297-302.
- Towbin,H., Staehelin,T. and Gordon,T. (1979) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, **76**, 4350-4354.
- Watanabe, K., Fujii, Y., Nakayama, L., Ohkubo, H., Kuramitsu, S., Kagamiyama, H., Nakanishi, S. and Hayaishi, O. (1988) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, USA, 85, 11-15.
- Yanay, P.H., Clark, M.E., Hand, S.C., Bowens, D.R. and Somero, G.N. (1982) Science, 217, 1214-1222.

Received on December 27, 1990; revised on February 1, 1991