

# Nitrate Reductase Modulation in Response to Changes in C/N Balance and Nitrogen Source in Arabidopsis

Thais Huarancca Reyes<sup>1</sup>, Andrea Scartazza<sup>2</sup>, Antonio Pompeiano<sup>3</sup>, Andrea Ciurli<sup>1</sup>, Yu Lu<sup>4</sup>, Lorenzo Guglielminetti<sup>1,\*</sup> and Junji Yamaguchi<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Agriculture, Food and Environment, University of Pisa, Pisa 56124, Italy

<sup>2</sup>Institute of Agro-environmental and Forest Biology, National Research Council, Monterotondo Scalo, RM 00016, Italy

<sup>3</sup>Center for Translational Medicine (CTM), International Clinical Research Center (ICRC), St. Anne's University Hospital, Brno 62500, Czech Republic

<sup>4</sup>Faculty of Science and Graduate School of Life Science, Hokkaido University Kita-ku N10-W8, Sapporo, 060-0810 Japan

\*Corresponding author: E-mail, lorenzo.guglielminetti@unipi.it.

(Received December 6, 2017; Accepted March 18, 2018)

**Environmental cues modulate the balance of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) which are essential elements for plant metabolism and growth. In Arabidopsis, photochemical efficiency of PSII, phosphorylation status and localization of many enzymes, and the level of total soluble sugars were affected by an unbalanced C/N ratio. Since differences in C/N affect these parameters, here we checked whether different sources of N have different effects when a high C/N ratio is imposed.  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  were separately provided in C/N medium. We investigated the effects on photochemical efficiency of PSII, the level of total soluble sugars and nitrate reductase activity under stressful C/N conditions compared with control conditions. We found that treated plants accumulated more total soluble sugars when compared with control. Photochemical efficiency of PSII did not show significant differences between the two sources of nitrogen after 24 h. The actual nitrate reductase activity was the result of a combination of activity, activation state and protein level. This activity constantly decreased starting from time zero in control conditions; in contrast, the actual nitrate reductase activity showed a peak at 2 h after treatment with  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and at 30 min with  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . This, according to the level of total soluble sugars, can be explained by the existence of a cross-talk between the sugars in excess and low nitrate in the medium that blocks the activity of nitrate reductase in stressful sugar conditions until the plant is adapted to the stress.**

**Keywords:** Ammonium • ATL family • Enzyme phosphorylation • Nitrate • 14-3-3 proteins.

**Abbreviations:** NPQ, non-photochemical quenching; NR, nitrate reductase; PPFD, photosynthetic photon flux density; Rubisco, ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase-oxygenase; TSS, total soluble sugar.

## Introduction

Carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) are essential elements for plant metabolism and growth. Environmental conditions, such as  $\text{CO}_2$ , light availability, diurnal and seasonal cycles and, more

in general, biotic or abiotic stresses, modulate the availability of C and N (Gibon et al. 2004, Klotke et al. 2004, Roitsch and Gonzalez 2004, Miller et al. 2007, Smith and Stitt 2007).

C and N metabolites are tightly co-ordinated, and their ratio, referred as the 'C/N balance' (Coruzzi and Zhou 2001, Martin et al. 2002), is central for the regulation of plant growth and development. Co-ordination between C and N metabolism, and therefore regulation of the C/N ratio, occurs at different levels such as photosynthesis and amino acid synthesis (Zheng 2009).

The C/N balance sensing and signaling mechanisms have been largely unknown for years; however, recently this has started to be clarified. In particular, the E3 ubiquitin ligases ATL31 and ATL6 have been reported to be involved in the C/N response during several development stages, such as post-germinative growth, developmental processes and defense response (Sato et al. 2009, Sato et al. 2011b, Maekawa et al. 2012, Aoyama et al. 2014, Huarancca Reyes et al. 2015, Maekawa et al. 2015). ATL31/6 are members of the ATL family, a large group of plant-specific RING-type E3 ubiquitin ligases with the domain structures conserved in both mono- and dicotyledon plants (Salinas-Mondragon et al. 1999, Takai et al. 2001). E3 ubiquitin ligases are enzymes attaching ubiquitin to target proteins by means of association with E1 and E2 ubiquitin ligase (Streich and Lima 2014). Detailed studies demonstrated that ATL31/6 targets 14-3-3 proteins for ubiquitination and promotes 14-3-3 protein degradation by the 26S proteasome in response to C/N nutrient availability (Sato et al. 2011a, Yasuda et al. 2014).

The stability of 14-3-3 proteins increased as the C/N ratio changed from mild to high C/N stress in Arabidopsis seedlings, and the overexpression of 14-3-3 resulted in a hypersensitive C/N stress response. ATL31-mediated degradation of 14-3-3 is reduced under high C/N stress (Sato et al. 2009, Sato et al. 2011a). When an overaccumulation of 14-3-3 proteins occurs, plant growth was compromised or arrested. 14-3-3 proteins bind to phosphorylated motifs to regulate the activity, stability and localization of proteins involved in multiple developmental processes (Mackintosh 2004). 14-3-3 proteomic analysis using barley and tomato, among other analyses, revealed that several enzymes of carbohydrate metabolism such as sucrose synthase and invertase are targets of 14-3-3 proteins (Alexander and

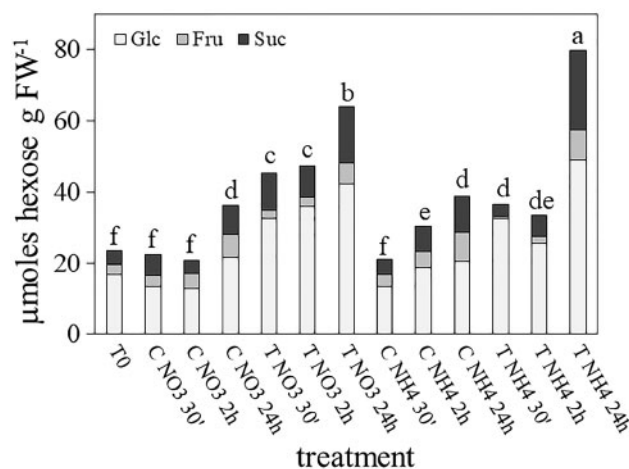
Morris 2006, Lu et al. 2016). These enzymes regulate the level of sucrose and hexoses, playing a key role in carbohydrate metabolism and partitioning, developmental processes and hormone responses (Roitsch and Gonzalez 2004, Zheng et al. 2011, Tiessen and Padilla-Chacon 2013).

Both sucrose and glucose can induce changes in gene regulation (Coruzzi and Zhou 2001) that is reflected in C/N sensing and signaling. Together with ATL31/6 targeting the mechanism of 14-3-3 proteins, sugars are finally being recognized as important regulatory molecules with signaling functions in plants. In general, source activities such as photosynthesis, nutrient mobilization and export are up-regulated under low sugar conditions, whereas sink activities such as growth and storage are up-regulated when C sources are abundantly available (Rolland et al. 2006). It is known that sugar-sensing mechanisms enable plants to turn off photosynthesis when the C skeleton is increased due to the repression of photosynthetic gene transcription and ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) activity (Krapp and Stitt 1995, Cheng et al. 1998, Coruzzi and Zhou 2001). These regulatory mechanisms involve numerous signals that arise from C and N metabolism; hence, the C/N balance plays a key role in determining a feedback control on photosynthesis (Paul and Pellny 2003).

Nitrate is the major source of N for plants and, before its incorporation into organic metabolites, it must be reduced by means of the enzyme nitrate reductase (NR). NR is located mostly in roots and shoots, and appears to be the rate-limiting step in N acquisition (Campbell 1999, Tischner 2000). NR is positively regulated by nitrate, light and carbohydrates; its regulation can occur at the transcription level, which allows long-term regulation (days), and at the post-transduction level, allowing short-term regulation (Yanagisawa 2014). NR mRNA can be rapidly accumulated in response to environmental factors, despite protein synthesis being generally slower. NR mRNA is substrate inducible, therefore nitrate plays a central role as a signal for NR transcription, as well as other environmental stimuli such as light, CO<sub>2</sub>, reduced C (particularly sucrose), N metabolites (particularly glutamine) and well-functioning chloroplasts in leaves. At the post-transduction level, a serine residue in hinge 1 is phosphorylated through a Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent kinase followed by Mg<sup>2+</sup>- or Ca<sup>2+</sup>-independent binding of a 14-3-3 protein. This mechanism allows a rapid and reversible inhibition of NR activity under unfavorable nitrate assimilation conditions (e.g. limiting light or CO<sub>2</sub>) (Yanagisawa 2014).

Among all the regulatory factors of NR, light plays a crucial role. Most of the energy for nitrate assimilation in a cell derives from photosynthesis, and it is also involved in the light regulation of NR activity and gene expression. When plants are exposed at a high and stressful irradiance level, part of the excess energy is diverted as reducing power towards nitrate reduction. In addition, light affects plant circadian rhythm, which has been proposed to influence the cyclic accumulation of NR transcript in anticipation of daylight, and a corresponding decrease as night approaches (Lillo and Ruoff 1989, Deng et al. 1990, Stitt et al. 2002).

Since previous studies demonstrated that stressful C/N conditions affect many aspects of plant metabolism (Sato et al.



**Fig. 1** Effect of glucose and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> or NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> on total soluble sugars (TSSs). Control condition (C) = 30 mM N and 100 mM glucose; treated condition (T) = 0.3 mM N and 200 mM glucose. Letters indicate significant differences within a treatment ( $P < 0.05$ ) determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the mean values were compared by using Tukey's test. Glc, glucose; Fru, fructose; Suc, sucrose.

2011a, Sato et al 2011b, Maekawa et al. 2012, Aoyama et al. 2014, Yasuda et al. 2014, Huaranca Reyes et al. 2016), here we investigate whether different N sources (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) have different effects on the photochemical efficiency of PSII ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ ), the level of total soluble sugars (TSSs) and NR activity under stressful C/N conditions.

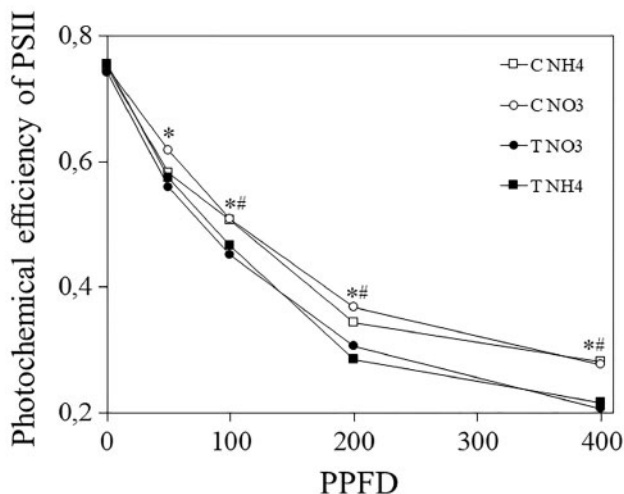
## Results

### Total soluble sugars

Soluble sugars were extracted from *Arabidopsis thaliana* seedlings harvested 30 min, 2 h and 24 h after transferring them to C/N medium containing different N sources. In general, we found higher sugar concentrations in treated samples if compared with their respective controls. Under control conditions (30 mM N and 100 mM glucose) with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> as the N source (C NO<sub>3</sub>), TSSs maintained the same level as at time zero (T0) up to 2 h after treatment, although after 24 h the TSS level significantly increased. Conversely, using NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> as the N source under control conditions (C NH<sub>4</sub>), the TSS level started to increase after 2 h of treatment, maintaining this trend up to 24 h of treatment when values reached a similar level to that of the respective C NO<sub>3</sub>. In treated conditions (0.3 mM N and 200 mM glucose) with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (T NO<sub>3</sub>), the TSS level was significantly higher than at T0 starting from 30 min, increasing up to 24 h of treatment. A similar pattern was observed with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (T NH<sub>4</sub>), starting with a lower TSS concentration than T NO<sub>3</sub> and reaching the highest TSS concentration 24 h after treatment (Fig. 1).

### Chl fluorescence

The photochemical efficiency of PSII was measured in both control and treatment conditions and in the presence of the two different N sources (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>). Chl *a* fluorescence was

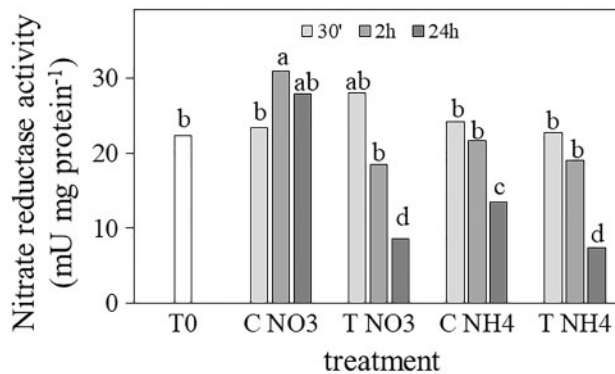


**Fig. 2** Effect of glucose and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  on the light response curve of  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$  at different light intensities after 24 h of treatment. Control condition (C) = 30 mM N and 100 mM glucose; treated condition (T) = 0.3 mM N and 200 mM glucose. \* indicates significant differences within C  $\text{NO}_3$  and T  $\text{NO}_3$ , and # indicates significant differences between C  $\text{NH}_4$  and T  $\text{NH}_4$  ( $P < 0.05$ ) determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the mean values were compared by using Tukey's test. PPFD, photosynthetic photon flux density ( $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ).

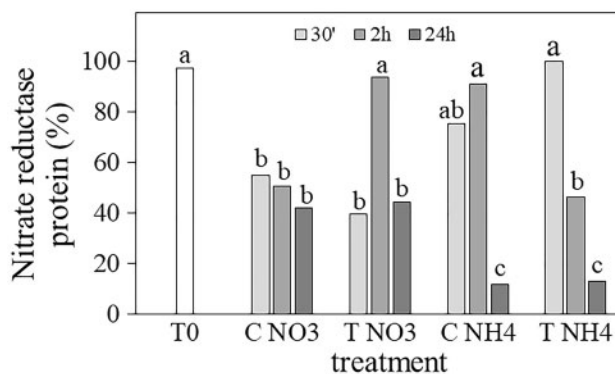
measured at  $0 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD; potential photochemical efficiency or  $F_v/F_m$ ) and at increasing light of 50, 100, 200 and  $400 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD (actual photochemical efficiency of PSII or  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$ ) after 24 h of C/N treatment in both control and treated conditions (Fig. 2). No significant differences were found between the two N sources contained in the C/N medium, either in control or in treated plants. The comparison between control and treated plants showed that both  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in treated C/N medium (T  $\text{NO}_3$  and T  $\text{NH}_4$ ) induced a lower  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$  than the control C/N medium (C  $\text{NO}_3$  and T  $\text{NH}_4$ ); however, significant differences were observed starting from  $100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and from  $50 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . Non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) increased from  $0.22 \pm 0.04$  at  $50 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD to  $0.93 \pm 0.19$  at  $400 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD, without any significant difference among treatments (data not shown).

### Nitrate reductase activity

To check how C/N stress conditions affect the ability of Arabidopsis seedlings to assimilate N in the presence of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  or  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , the potential NR activity (assayed without a phosphatase inhibitor) was investigated (Fig. 3). From time zero (T0) up to 2 h of treatment in different C/N conditions, the activity of NR remained almost unaltered for all conditions, with the exception of C  $\text{NO}_3$  in which it strongly increased after 2 h. After 24 h, the activity decreased for all C/N conditions, with significant differences between them. In detail, both treated conditions (T  $\text{NO}_3$  and T  $\text{NH}_4$ ) showed the lowest NR activity, while C  $\text{NH}_4$  had a quite significant higher activity and C  $\text{NO}_3$  had the highest NR activity of all C/N conditions.



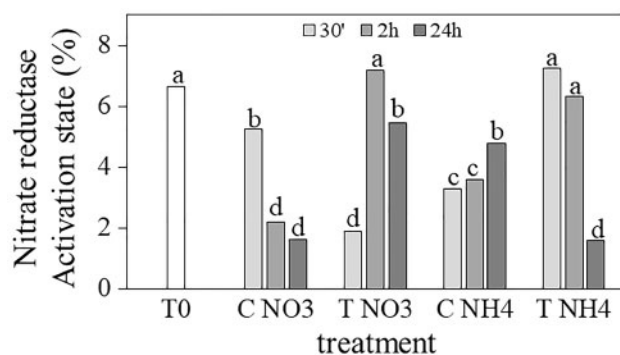
**Fig. 3** Effect of glucose and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  on potential nitrate reductase activity. Control condition (C) = 30 mM N and 100 mM glucose; treated condition (T) = 0.3 mM N and 200 mM glucose. Since the assay was conducted without phosphatase inhibitors, these values represent the maximum enzymatic activity. Letters indicate significant differences within a treatment ( $P < 0.05$ ) determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the mean values were compared by using Tukey's test.



**Fig. 4** Effect of glucose and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  on the relative nitrate reductase protein level. Control condition (C) = 30 mM N and 100 mM glucose; treated condition (T) = 0.3 mM N and 200 mM glucose. Results are shown as percentages relative to the highest band intensity (in this case T  $\text{NH}_4$  after 30 min of treatment) that is assumed to be 100%. Letters indicate significant differences within a treatment ( $P < 0.05$ ) determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the mean values were compared by using Tukey's test.

We also compared the potential NR activity results with the NR protein level (measured by immunoblotting) for each C/N condition, thus obtaining the relative NR protein level (Fig. 4; Supplementary Fig. S1). At 30 min of treatment, the relative protein level decreased when  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (C  $\text{NO}_3$  and T  $\text{NO}_3$ ) was used and remained constant when  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (C  $\text{NH}_4$  and T  $\text{NH}_4$ ) was used in comparison with T0. At 2 h, the relative protein level under T  $\text{NO}_3$  and C  $\text{NH}_4$  conditions returned to the same level as T0, while it remained low in C  $\text{NO}_3$  and significantly decreased in T  $\text{NH}_4$ . At 24 h, the relative NR protein level remained unchanged for C  $\text{NO}_3$ , while in all the other conditions it significantly decreased, particularly when  $\text{NH}_4^+$  was present in the C/N medium.

The NR activation state (i.e. comparison between the relative activity treated with and without phosphatase inhibitor) was investigated to evaluate its post-transcriptional regulation



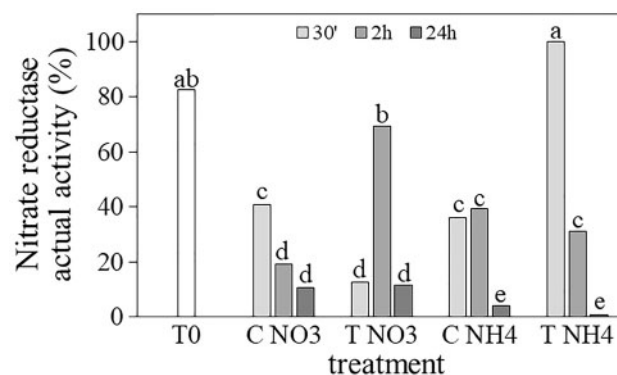
**Fig. 5** Effect of glucose and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  on nitrate reductase activation state. Control condition (C) = 30 mM N and 100 mM glucose; treated condition (T) = 0.3 mM N and 200 mM glucose. The activation state is expressed as the percentage enzymatic activity with a phosphatase inhibitor of that without an inhibitor in each sample. Letters indicate significant differences within a treatment ( $P < 0.05$ ) determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the mean values were compared by using Tukey's test.

(Fig. 5). Under C  $\text{NO}_3$  conditions, the activation state after 30 min of treatment significantly decreased in comparison with T0, followed by a sharp decline at 2 h of treatment. Under T  $\text{NO}_3$ , the activation state at 30 min of treatment was strongly reduced, reaching the lowest level, then a further increase was observed at 2 h similar to the T0 state and a slight but significant decrease was seen at 24 h. The NR activity state under C  $\text{NH}_4$  was lower at 30 min of treatment in comparison with T0; this level was maintained up to 2 h and slightly increased at 24 h, but still was lower than at T0. The opposite pattern was observed under T  $\text{NH}_4$ . The activation state at 30 min and 2 h of treatment was similar to that at T0, followed by a sharp decline.

In order to estimate the actual activity of NR, we combined the potential activity, activation state and the protein level in each experimental condition (Fig. 6). These integrated results are reported as a relative percentage of the highest recorded activity (i.e. that found in T  $\text{NH}_4$  after 30 min). The result of this analysis showed how much nitrate reduction is occurring in each C/N condition, giving an insight into the interaction between NR translation and its real activity. Generally, we observed that actual NR activity constantly decreased during the time course in comparison with T0. In C  $\text{NO}_3$ , this trend was maintained until 24 h, while in T  $\text{NO}_3$  the activity strongly decreased at 30 min after treatment, but at 2 h returned to a level similar to that at T0, and then decreased again at 24 h. In C  $\text{NH}_4$ , the trend was similar to C  $\text{NO}_3$ , even if no differences were recorded between 30 min and 2 h of treatment. Finally, in T  $\text{NH}_4$  at 30 min of treatment, the activity was maintained at the same level as T0, followed by a sharp decrease until 24 h.

## Discussion

Nitrogen triggers several metabolic pathways depending either on the availability of C and N and their relative ratio in the



**Fig. 6** Effect of glucose and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  on the actual nitrate reductase activity. Control condition (C) = 30 mM N and 100 mM glucose; treated condition (T) = 0.3 mM N and 200 mM glucose. Results are shown as percentages relative to the highest activity (in this case T  $\text{NH}_4$  after 30 min of treatment) that is assumed to be 100%. Letters indicate significant differences within a treatment ( $P < 0.05$ ) determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the mean values were compared by using Tukey's test.

medium, or on the form of the source in the substrate (Zheng 2009). In our experiments, the presence of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  or  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in control conditions (30 mM N and 100 mM glucose) did not show any significant effects on accumulation of soluble sugars. Conversely, in treated conditions (0.3 mM N and 200 mM glucose), both  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  showed an accumulation of sugars. While  $\text{NO}_3^-$  treatment rapidly induced sugar accumulation at earlier stages,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  treatment stimulated significantly higher sugar accumulation at 24 h only, possibly due to higher energy needed for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction (Stitt et al. 2002). Interestingly, sucrose accumulation was only observed in treated plants, probably due to the necessity of the cells to contrast an over accumulation of glucose (Fig. 1).

The photochemical efficiency of PSII was lower when plants were transferred to high C/N conditions for 24 h, independent of the N source and especially with an increase in light intensity. This indicates that under a high C/N ratio, plants are less tolerant to high irradiance levels. An excess of sugars also negatively affects the photosynthetic rate (Krapp and Stitt 1995, Cheng et al. 1998, Coruzzi and Zhou 2001, Paul and Pellny 2003). This regulatory mechanism enables plants to turn off photosynthesis when C skeleton availability in the growth medium is elevated, confirming that the C/N balance plays a key role in determining feedback control on photosynthesis. Photosynthesis is affected by nitrate availability (Paul and Pellny 2003), and NR represents an important channel for dissipation of excess energy from PSII, by means of transferring reducing power to NR to reduce  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Gniazdowska-Skoczek 1998, Lillo and Appenroth 2001). Consequently, when N is low in the growth medium, NR is substrate limited, and the electron transport rate is negatively affected because the excess energy cannot be dissipated through this alternative pathway. These facts agree with the reduced  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$  in low N treatments. On the other hand, our data also showed that the photochemical efficiency in control

C/N conditions is affected by the N source only at the lowest PPFD value of the light response curves ( $50 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), with C NO<sub>3</sub> showing significantly higher  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$  than C NH<sub>4</sub> ( $P < 0.05$ ). Moreover, at  $50 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PPFD,  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$  was significantly higher in C NO<sub>3</sub> than in T NO<sub>3</sub>, probably due to the efficient energy dissipation driven by NR activity, while C NH<sub>4</sub> and T NH<sub>4</sub> did not show any significant difference. Conversely, when PPFD was increased, the excess energy at PSII caused a similar reduction of  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$  in both T NO<sub>3</sub> and T NH<sub>4</sub> with respect to their relative controls, suggesting a predominant role for sugars in this feedback regulation mechanism.

The activity of NR is finely regulated at both the phosphorylation and transcriptional level in higher plants (Yanagisawa 2014). The actual activity of NR is determined by an interaction among potential activity, activation state and protein level. In this study, seedlings at T0 showed a relatively high actual NR activity probably due to the complete consumption of the N source in the growth C/N medium (100 mM glucose and 30 mM NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>) where seeds were sown. In control conditions, plants could sense both N sources, modulating the activity of NR as N was assimilated. During the time course, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> acted as a signal leading to a progressive reduction of NR activity, while NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> showed a slower but similar effect possibly due to the missing nitrate signal (Stitt *et al.* 2002). In T NO<sub>3</sub> at 30 min, NR activity collapsed when compared with T0, probably associated with the high excess of sugars that seemed to inhibit nitrate assimilation (Stitt *et al.* 2002). When plants were adapted to this stress condition, NR activity peaked at 2 h probably due to the low availability of nitrate in the treated medium, and then it strongly decreased. On the other hand, when NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was used in the treated medium, NR activity remained stable at 30 min and then it decreased. These different trends could be explained assuming that nitrate availability and sugar accumulation trigger a cross-talk that affects other cellular activities, allowing plants to dispose of excess sugar (Stitt *et al.* 2002). Therefore, when nitrate is missing, sugar excess could not be promptly sensed, resulting in higher accumulation and increasing the inhibitory effect of sugars.

In conclusion, our results highlight that the cross-talk between C and N sensing finely regulates NR at both the transcriptional and translational levels by an interaction between the C/N ratio and nitrogen sources. In particular, our data suggest a time-dependent regulation mechanism of NR activity, due to a combination of sugar accumulation and nitrate availability: (i) nitrate availability seems to play a key role in short-term NR modulation (2 h), while (ii) sugar accumulation (especially sucrose and glucose, as known in other plant systems) could play the major role in long-term NR modulation (24 h). Both factors can affect the actual activity of NR by the control of protein turnover and the phosphorylation state probably mediated by 14-3-3 proteins. Further research should be focused on understanding the origin of this cross-talk in order to better clarify the complex protein network in response to C/N availability.

## Materials and Methods

### Plant material and growth conditions

Wild-type *A. thaliana* Columbia-0 was used in this study. Sterilized seeds were sown on modified Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium containing 100 mM glucose and 30 mM N (10 mM NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> and 10 mM KNO<sub>3</sub>) and grown for 10 d after germination with a 16/8 h light/dark (long-day) photoperiod under constant temperature (23°C). Plants were then transferred to C/N media with different concentrations of glucose and N: 100 mM glucose and 30 mM N; 200 mM glucose and 0.3 mM N, where the N source was nitrate as KNO<sub>3</sub> or ammonium as NH<sub>4</sub>Cl for each medium. Each condition was produced in triplicate. Plants were harvested 30 min, 2 h and 24 h after transfer to the various C/N conditions.

### Soluble carbohydrate quantification

Soluble carbohydrates (sucrose, glucose and fructose) were extracted and assayed as reported in Pompeiano *et al.* (2017). The accuracy of the method was tested using standards with known amounts of carbohydrates. Recovery experiments were carried out to evaluate losses during extraction. The concentrations of standards added were similar to those estimated to be present in the tissues in preliminary experiments. The recovery ranged between 97% and 104%. The quantity of soluble carbohydrates was expressed as  $\mu\text{mol hexose equivalents g FW}^{-1}$ .

### Chl fluorescence

Chl fluorescence measurements were conducted using a miniaturized pulse amplitude-modulated fluorometer (Mini-PAM) (Heinz Walz GmbH) on mono-layer leaf spots, as previously described (Huaranca Reyes *et al.* 2016). The PPFD of the saturation pulse to determine the maximal fluorescence emission in the presence ( $F_m'$ ) and in the absence ( $F_m$ ) of actinic light was about  $8,000 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Fluorescence parameters were determined at growth light intensity ( $100 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and at increasing PPFDs (from 50 to  $400 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) at the indicated times after C/N treatment depending on the experiment. The potential efficiency of PSII photochemistry was calculated on dark-adapted leaves as  $F_v/F_m$ . The actual photochemical PSII efficiency ( $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$ ) and NPQ in the light were determined for each PPFD value as  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}} = (F_m - F_0)/F_m'$  (Genty *et al.* 1989) and  $\text{NPQ} = F_m/F_m' - 1$ , respectively, when steady state was achieved.  $F_m'$  represents the maximum fluorescence yield with all PSII reaction centers in the reduced state obtained from superimposing a saturating light flash during exposure to actinic light, while  $F_0$  is the minimum yield of fluorescence in dark-adapted samples.

### Nitrate reductase activity

Samples (0.2–0.5 g FW) were extracted in 5 vols. of 50 mM MOPS-NaOH, pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 15 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 2.5 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and 0.1% Triton X-100, in the presence or absence (potential activity) of one tablet of phosphatase inhibitor (PhosSTOP by Roche®) solubilized in 10 mL of extraction solution. Extracts were centrifuged at  $20,000 \times g$  for 15 min at 4°C, and the resulting

supernatants were used for the enzymatic assays after desalting. The desalting column was equilibrated with the extraction buffer without Triton X-100. Bio-Rad Protein Assay, based on the method of Bradford, was used to quantify the protein concentration in the resulting samples (Bradford 1976), and bovine serum albumin were used as standard.

Assays of NR activity were performed as previously described (Redinbaugh and Campbell 1983, Smarrelli and Campbell 1983), in the presence or absence of one tablet of phosphatase inhibitor (PhosSTOP by Roche®) each 10 ml, except for the reactions that were stopped by the addition of sulfanilamide/HCl solution instead of zinc acetate (Redinbaugh and Campbell 1985).

### Nitrate reductase protein level

Plant material was ground to a fine powder in liquid nitrogen and weighed. Extraction was conducted without a phosphatase inhibitor. Bio-Rad Protein Assay, based on the method of Bradford, was used to quantify the protein concentration in the resulting samples (Bradford 1976). A 10 µg aliquot of total protein for each sample was subjected to SDS-PAGE. Western blot was carried out with polyclonal anti-NR antibody (AS08310, Agrisera) at a 1:2,000 dilution as the primary antibody followed by polyclonal goat anti-rabbit IgG (AS09602, Agrisera) at a 1:25,000 dilution as secondary antibody. Illuminance was determined with chemiluminescent horseradish peroxidase substrate.

### Statistical analysis

Values presented are means of three replicates. Data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the mean values were compared by using Tukey's test. Significant differences for all statistical tests were evaluated at the level of  $P < 0.05$ . For all parameters, the assumption of normality distribution was confirmed by Shapiro-Wilks test.

### Funding

This work was supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) [Invitation Fellowship Program for Research in Japan (No. L-13564)]. and Erasmus Mundus PUEDES [Grant agreement No. 2013-2586/001-001-EM Action 2 to T.H.R.].

### Supplementary Data

Supplementary data are available at PCP online.

### Disclosures

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

### References

Alexander, R.D. and Morris, P.C. (2006) A proteomic analysis of 14-3-3 binding proteins from developing barley grains. *Proteomics* 6: 1886-1896.

- Aoyama, S., Huaranca Reyes, T., Guglielminetti, L., Lu, Y., Morita, Y., Sato, T., et al. (2014) Ubiquitin ligase ATL31 functions in leaf senescence in response to the balance between atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and nitrogen availability in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 55: 293-305.
- Bradford, M. (1976) A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. *Anal. Biochem.* 72: 248.
- Campbell, W.H. (1999) Nitrate reductase structure, function and regulation: bridging the gap between biochemistry and physiology. *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. Plant Mol. Biol.* 50: 277-303.
- Cheng, S.H., Moore, B. and Seemann, J.R. (1998) Effects of short- and long-term elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on the expression of ribulose-1, 5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase genes and carbohydrate accumulation in leaves of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh. *Plant Physiol.* 116: 715-723.
- Coruzzi, G.M. and Zhou, L. (2001) Carbon and nitrogen sensing and signaling in plants: emerging 'matrix effects'. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 4: 247-253.
- Deng, M.D., Moureaux, T., Leydecker, M.T. and Caboche, M. (1990) Nitrate-reductase expression is under the control of a circadian rhythm and is light inducible in *Nicotiana tabacum* leaves. *Planta* 180: 257-261.
- Genty, B., Briantais, J.-M. and Baker, N.R. (1989) The relationship between the quantum yield of photosynthetic electron transport and quenching of chlorophyll fluorescence. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 990: 87-92.
- Gibon, Y., Blasing, O.E., Palacios-Rojas, N., Pankovic, D., Hendriks, J.H.M., Fisahn, J., et al. (2004) Adjustment of diurnal starch turnover to short days: depletion of sugar during the night leads to a temporary inhibition of carbohydrate utilization, accumulation of sugars and post-translational activation of ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase in the following light period. *Plant J.* 39: 847-862.
- Gniazdowska-Skoczek, H. (1998) Effect of light and nitrates on nitrate reductase activity and stability in seedling leaves of selected barley genotypes. *Acta Physiol. Plant.* 20: 155-160.
- Huaranca Reyes, T., Maekawa, S., Sato, T. and Yamaguchi, J. (2015) The *Arabidopsis* ubiquitin ligase ATL31 is transcriptionally controlled by WRKY33 transcription factor in response to pathogen attack. *Plant Biotechnol.* 32: 11-19.
- Huaranca Reyes, T., Scartazza, A., Lu, Y., Yamaguchi, J. and Guglielminetti, L. (2016) Effect of carbon/nitrogen ratio on carbohydrate metabolism and light energy dissipation mechanisms in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 105: 195-202.
- Klotke, J., Kopka, J., Gatzke, N. and Heyer, A.G. (2004) Impact of soluble sugar concentrations on the acquisition of freezing tolerance in accessions of *Arabidopsis thaliana* with contrasting cold adaptation—evidence for a role of raffinose in cold acclimation. *Plant Cell Environ.* 27: 1395-1404.
- Krapp, A. and Stitt, M. (1995) An evaluation of direct and indirect mechanisms for the 'sink-regulation' of photosynthesis in spinach: changes in gas exchange, carbohydrates, metabolites, enzyme activities and steady-state transcript levels after cold-girdling source leaves. *Planta* 195: 313-323.
- Lillo, C. and Appenroth, K.-J. (2001) Light regulation of nitrate reductase in higher plants: which photoreceptors are involved? *Plant Biol.* 3: 455-465.
- Lillo, C. and Ruoff, P. (1989) An unusually rapid light-induced nitrate reductase mRNA pulse and circadian oscillations. *Naturwissenschaften* 76: 526-528.
- Lu, Y., Yasuda, S., Li, X., Fukao, Y., Tohge, T., Fernie, A.R., et al. (2016) Characterization of ubiquitin ligase ATL31 and proteomic analysis of 14-3-3 targets in tomato fruit tissue (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.). *J. Proteomics* 143: 254-264.
- Mackintosh, C. (2004) Dynamic interactions between 14-3-3 proteins and phosphoproteins regulate diverse cellular processes. *Biochem. J.* 381: 329-342.

- Maekawa, S., Sato, T., Asada, Y., Yasuda, S., Yoshida, M., Chiba, Y., *et al.* (2012) The Arabidopsis ubiquitin ligases ATL31 and ATL6 control the defense response as well as the carbon/nitrogen response. *Plant Mol. Biol.* 79: 217-227.
- Maekawa, S., Takabayashi, A., Huaranca Reyes, T., Yamamoto, H., Tanaka, A., Sato, T., *et al.* (2015) Pale-green phenotype of *atl31atl6* double mutant leaves is caused by disruption of 5-aminolevulinic acid biosynthesis in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *PLoS One* 10: e0117662.
- Martin, T., Oswald, O. and Graham, I.A. (2002) Arabidopsis seedling growth, storage lipid mobilization, and photosynthetic gene expression are regulated by carbon: nitrogen availability. *Plant Physiol.* 128: 472-481.
- Miller, A.J., Fan, X., Orsel, M., Smith, S.J. and Wells, D.M. (2007) Nitrate transport and signalling. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58: 2297-2306.
- Paul, M.J. and Pellny, T.K. (2003) Carbon metabolite feedback regulation of leaf photosynthesis and development. *J. Exp. Bot.* 54: 539-547.
- Pompeiano, A., Huaranca Reyes, T., Moles, T.M., Villani, M., Volterrani, M., Guglielminetti, L., *et al.* (2017) Inter- and intraspecific variability in physiological traits and post-anoxia recovery of photosynthetic efficiency in grasses under oxygen deprivation. *Physiol. Plant.* 161: 385-399.
- Redinbaugh, M.G. and Campbell, W.H. (1983) Purification of squash NADH:nitrate reductase by zinc chelate affinity chromatography. *Plant Physiol.* 71: 205-207.
- Redinbaugh, M.G. and Campbell, W.H. (1985) Quaternary structure and composition of squash NADH:nitrate reductase. *J. Biol. Chem.* 260: 3380-3385.
- Roitsch, T. and Gonzalez, M.C. (2004) Function and regulation of plant invertases: sweet sensations. *Trends Plant Sci.* 9: 606-613.
- Rolland, F., Baena-Gonzalez, E. and Sheen, J. (2006) Sugar sensing and signaling in plants: conserved and novel mechanisms. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* 57: 675-709.
- Salinas-Mondragon, R.E., Garciduenas-Pina, C. and Guzman, P. (1999) Early elicitor induction in members of a novel multigene family coding for highly related RING-H2 proteins in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant Mol. Biol.* 40: 579-590.
- Sato, T., Maekawa, S., Yasuda, S., Domeki, Y., Sueyoshi, K., Fujiwara, M., *et al.* (2011a) Identification of 14-3-3 proteins as a target of ATL31 ubiquitin ligase, a regulator of the C/N response in Arabidopsis. *Plant J.* 68: 137-146.
- Sato, T., Maekawa, S., Yasuda, S., Sonoda, Y., Katoh, E., Ichikawa, T., *et al.* (2009) CNI1/ATL31, a RING-type ubiquitin ligase that functions in the carbon/nitrogen response for growth phase transition in Arabidopsis seedlings. *Plant J.* 60: 852-864.
- Sato, T., Maekawa, S., Yasuda, S. and Yamaguchi, J. (2011b) Carbon and nitrogen metabolism regulated by the ubiquitin-proteasome system. *Plant Signal. Behav.* 6: 1465-1468.
- Smarrelli, J., Jr. and Campbell, W.H. (1983) Heavy metal inactivation and chelator stimulation of higher plant nitrate reductase. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 742: 435-445.
- Smith, A.M. and Stitt, M. (2007) Coordination of carbon supply and plant growth. *Plant Cell Environ.* 30: 1126-1149.
- Stitt, M., Müller, C., Matt, P., Gibon, Y., Carillo, P., Morcuende, R., *et al.* (2002) Steps towards an integrated view of nitrogen metabolism. *J. Exp. Bot.* 53: 959-970.
- Streich, F.C., Jr. and Lima, C.D. (2014) Structural and functional insights to ubiquitin-like protein conjugation. *Annu. Rev. Biophys.* 43: 357-379.
- Takai, R., Hasegawa, K., Kaku, H., Shibuya, N. and Minami, E. (2001) Isolation and analysis of expression mechanisms of a rice gene, ELS, which shows structural similarity to ATL family from Arabidopsis, in response to N-acetylchitoooligosaccharide elicitor. *Plant Sci.* 160: 577-583.
- Tiessen, A. and Padilla-Chacon, D. (2013) Subcellular compartmentation of sugar signaling: links among carbon cellular status, route of sucrolysis, sink-source allocation, and metabolic partitioning. *Front. Plant Sci.* 3: 306.
- Tischner, R. (2000) Nitrate uptake and reduction in higher and lower plants. *Plant Cell Environ.* 23: 1005-1024.
- Yanagisawa, S. (2014) Transcription factors involved in controlling the expression of nitrate reductase genes in higher plants. *Plant Sci.* 229: 167-171.
- Yasuda, S., Sato, T., Maekawa, S., Aoyama, S., Fukao, Y. and Yamaguchi, J. (2014) Phosphorylation of Arabidopsis ubiquitin ligase ATL31 is critical for plant carbon/nitrogen nutrient balance response and controls the stability of 14-3-3 proteins. *J. Biol. Chem.* 289: 15179-15193.
- Zheng, Y., Anderson, S., Zhang, Y. and Garavito, R.M. (2011) The structure of sucrose synthase-1 from *Arabidopsis thaliana* and its functional implications. *J. Biol. Chem.* 286: 36108-36118.
- Zheng, Z.-L. (2009) Carbon and nitrogen nutrient balance signaling in plants. *Plant Signal. Behav.* 4: 584-591.