เอ็นเอคีไคเนสจากข้าว Oryza sativa L. และเอนไซม์รีคอมบิแนนท์

นางสาวธันย์ชนก ดำริห์สุข

สูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิทยาศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาชีวเกมี ภากวิชาชีวเกมี กณะวิทยาศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีการศึกษา 2552 ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย NAD KINASE FROM RICE Oryza sativa L. AND RECOMBINANT ENZYMES

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เอ็นเอดีใคเนส (NAD kinase) เป็นเอนไซม์ที่พบทั้งในเซลล์โปรคาริโอดและยุคาริโอด มี หน้าที่สร้าง NADP⁺ จาก NAD⁺ โดยใช้พลังงานจาก ATP ผ่านปฏิกิริยาฟอสฟอริเลชัน NAD๋ และ NADP⁺ เป็นตัวรับอิเล็กตรอนที่สำคัญในระบบเมแทบอลิชึม ควบคุมปฏิกิริยารีคอกซ์ในเซลล์ และ ป้องกันเซลล์จาก reactive oxygen species (ROS) ในงานวิจัยนี้เป็นการระบุหายืน NAD kinase 1 (OsNADK1) และ NAD kinase 2 (OsNADK2) จากจีโนมข้าว และโคลนเข้าสู่ pET21a(+) แล้วน้ำ พลาสมิครีคอมบิแนนท์ทรานฟอร์มเข้าสู่ Escherichia coli สาขพันธุ์ Rosetta (DE3) pLysS และ Rosetta-gami สำหรับ OsNADKI และ OsNADK2 ตามลำดับ จากการตรวจสอบการสร้างโปรตีบรี กอมบิแนนท์โดยวิธี SDS-PAGE และ Western blot analysis พบว่าโคลนดังกล่าวสามารถสร้าง โปรตีนรีคอมบิแนนท์ของ OsNADK1 ปริมาณมากในรูปอินคลูขั้นบอดี ซึ่งมีขนาดประมาณ 60 kDa เมื่อนำโปรตีนมาละลายด้วยยุเรียดวามเข้มข้น 8 โมลาร์ ไปแยกให้บริสทธิ์โดยใช้ลอลัมน์ นิกเกิลแล้ว refold พบว่า โปรตีนไม่มีแอกตีวีดี แต่เมื่อนำส่วน soluble protein ไปวัดแอกตีวีดีด้วย วิธี in-gel activity staining พบว่า soluble protein ของทั้ง NADK1 และ NADK2 มีแอกตีวีตีของ NAD kinase จึงน้ำส่วน soluble protein ของ NADK1 ไปแยกให้บริสุทธิ์โดยใช้คอลัมน์นิกเกิล พบว่าสามารถตรวจสอบโปรตีนรีคอมบิแนนท์ด้วย SDS-PAGE และเมื่อวัดด้วยปฏิกิริยารีดิวซ์ของ DCIP ได้ค่าแอกติวิตีเท่ากับ 31.33 µmolNADP/min/mg ซึ่งสูงกว่าสารละลายโปรดีนหยาบประมาณ 23 เท่า โดยมีค่า Km^{MD} เท่ากับ 0.79 mM ค่า Km^{MedTP2} เท่ากับ 0.29 mM ค่า V m^{MD} เท่ากับ 0.35 units.mg protein และค่า V ""Man 172- เท่ากับ 2.32 units.mg protein จากนั้นเมื่อครวจสอบแอกติวิดี ของโปรตีนสกัดจากใบข้าวขาวดอกมะลิ 105 ที่เลี้ยงในสารละลายอาหารที่มีเกลือ 150 มิลลิโมลาร์ พบว่าแอกติวิตีของ NAD kinase ลดลงตั้งแต่ 6 ชั่วโมงเป็นด้นไปและลดลงเรื่อยๆ จนถึง 24 ชั่วโมง หลังการได้รับความเค็ม เมื่อนำโปรตีนไปแขกให้บริสุทธิ์บางส่วนด้วยคอลัมน์โครมาโทกราฟีของ Butyl-Toyopearl พบว่าแอกติวิตีของ NAD kinase (0.7 DEAE-Toyopearl และ umol NADP/min/mg) มีความบริสุทธิ์ขึ้นทั้งหมด 12 เท่า นอกจากนี้การตรวจสอบการจับกับคัลมอดุลิน โดย ³⁵S-recombinant CaM binding assay พบว่า OsCaM1-1 จับโปรตีนรีดอมบิแนนท์ NADK2 ได้ อย่างจำเพาะแสดงให้เห็นว่า NADK2 น่าจะเป็นโปรคืนเป้าหมายของ OsCaM1-1

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THUNCHANOK DUMRISUK: NAD KINASE FROM RICE Oryza sativa L. AND RECOMBINANT ENZYMES. THESIS ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. TEERAPONG BUABOOCHA, Ph.D. THESIS CO- ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. KANOKTIP PACKDIBAMRUNG, Ph.D., 136 pp.

NAD kinase is found in both prokaryotic cells and eukaryotic cells. It catalyzes the phosphorylation of NAD⁺ to NADP⁺ using ATP. NAD⁺ and NADP⁺ act as important electron acceptors in numerous metabolic pathways. They maintain redox homeostasis and prevent cells from reactive oxygen species (ROS). In this study, NAD kinase 1 (OsNADK 1) and NAD kinase 2 (OsNADK2) from the rice Oryza sativa L. genome were identified and cloned into the expression vector pET21a(+). The resulting recombinant plasmids were introduced into Escherichia coli strain Rosetta (DE3) pLysS for OsNADK1 and Rosetta-gami for OsNADK2. As a result, the recombinant protein OsNADK1 of approximately 60 kDa was detected in the inclusion bodies by SDS-PAGE and western blot analysis. The insoluble protein was then solubilized with 8 M urea, purified by Ni-column chromatography and refolded but no NAD kinase activity could be found. However, NAD kinase activity was detected in the soluble protein fraction for both OsNADK1 and OsNADK2 by in-gel activity staining. The soluble OsNADK1 was then purified by Ni-column chromatography, detected by SDS-PAGE and its NAD kinase specific activity determined in reactions involved DCIP reduction was 31.33 µmol NADP/min/mg with a 23-purification fold. The calculated V_{max} (unit mg⁻¹ protein) and K_m (mM) are 0.35 and 0.79 for NAD⁺ and 2.32 and 0.29 for ATP, respectively. Then activity of native NADKs was assayed in the crude extracts from leaves of KDML105 rice seedlings grown under salt stress. NAD kinase activity decreased after 6 hours of salt stress treatment, and continued to decline until after 24 hours of salt stress. When NAD kinase was partially purified from rice crude protein extract using DEAE-Toyopearl and Butyl-Toyopearl column chromatography, NADK activity (0.7 µmol NADP/min/mg) was obtained with a 12-purification fold. Finally, ³⁵S-recombinant CaM binding assay showed that OsCaM1-1 specifically interacted with the protein from crude extract of the recombinant protein NADK2 suggesting that NADK2 might be a target protein of OsCaM1-1

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DepartmentBiochemistry	Student's Signature. Thurshanok
Field of StudyBiochemistry	Advisor's Signature. Kand hp
Academic Year2009	Co-advisor's Signature

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Α	absorbance, 2'-deoxyadenosine (in a DNA sequence)
bp	base pair
С	2'-deoxycytidine (in a DNA sequence)
Da	Dalton
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
DTT	dithiothreitol
EDTA	ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid
EtBr	ethidium bromide
g	gram
G	2'-deoxyguanosine (in a DNA sequence)
hr	hour
HCI	hydrochloric acid
IPTG	isopropyl-thiogalactoside
kb	kilobase
LB	Luria-Bertani
м	mole per liter (molar)
Mg ²⁺	magnesium ion
mA	milliampere
mg	milligram
min	minute
ng	nanogram
nm	nanometer
O.D.	optical density

°C	degree celcius	

- µg microgram
- µl microlitre



ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Metabolic roles of NAD⁺ and NADP⁺

Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD⁺) and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP⁺) have become well established as key energy transducers, precursors for the signaling molecules and metabolic regulators (Noctor et al. 2006). The structure of NAD⁺ and NADP⁺ differ only in the presence of an extra phosphate on the adenosine (Figure 1.1A), NAD⁺ is used in catabolic reactions and the generated NADH provides reducing power for other metabolic pathways or ATP synthesis. NADP⁺ is an essential cofactor for one of the fundamental processes of life, the photosynthesis in plant chloroplasts. NADPH is considered to be the reductive power of the cell being an indispensable cofactor of reductases maintaining the pool of reduced glutathione and thioredoxin and of detoxifying enzymes such as cytochrome P450. However, NAD(P)⁺ was discovered to be not only an electron carrier but also a precursor for molecules involved in protein modification and signaling pathways (Figure 1.1). The knowledge of the role of "NAD(P)⁺-consuming" enzymes in the regulation of important cellular functions has rapidly increased. Thus, the interest in the biosynthetic routes leading to NAD(P)⁺ formation and maintaining the nucleotide pools is rising. One of the crucial enzymes in the maintenance of the NADP⁺ pool is NAD kinase. It phosphorylates NAD⁺ to NADP⁺ using ATP as a phosphoryl donor. This reaction represents the only known way to generate NADP⁺ in all living organisms.

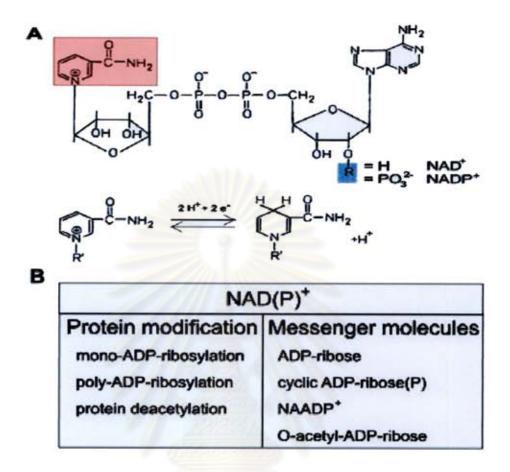


Figure 1.1: $NAD(P)^+$ as electron carrier and in regulatory reactions. (A) Structure of $NAD(P)^+$. The nicotinamide moiety is boxed in red. The lower part shows the difference in hydrogen atoms in the nicotinamide moiety during reversible conversion between oxidized and reduced forms. (B) $NAD(P)^+$ serves as a precursor of messenger molecules and as a substrate for covalent modifications of target molecules.

NAD(P)⁺ - mediated signaling

NAD(P)⁺ is used as a precursor for molecules involved in calcium signaling. The divalent cation calcium (Ca²⁺) is the most common signal transduction element in prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells which controls many processes (Berridge et al., 2000). Unlike other second messenger molecules, Ca²⁺ cannot be metabolized therefore cells have to tightly regulate intracellular Ca²⁺ levels. The cell has two sources of Ca²⁺ entry, either from the external medium or release from internal stores, mainly the endoplasmatic/sarcoplasmatic reticulum (ER/SR). These Ca influx mechanisms are balanced by Ca^{2+} pumps to remove the Ca^{2+} signal. Both processes are often organized to produce short spikes and waves of Ca²⁺ to avoid the cytotoxic effects of prolonged high intracellular Ca²⁺ levels (Pollak, 2007). The release of Ca²⁺ from internal stores is stimulated and modulated by Ca²⁺ itself or the second messenger molecules including myo-inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP3), cyclic ADP-ribose (cADPr; Figure 1.2), and nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NAADP; Figure 1.2). IP3 releases Ca^{2+} from the ER after binding its receptor (IP3R) (Streb et al., 1983). Ca²⁺ mobilization by the pyridine nucleotide derivatives was discovered shortly after (Clapper et al., 1987; Lee et al., 1989; Lee and Aarhus, 1995) and has been detected in several organisms and cell types (Lee, 2001; Guse, 2004). Cyclic ADPr was shown to be an endogenous activator of Ca²⁺. induced Ca²⁺ release by ryanodine receptor (RyR) in the ER/SR (Galione et al., 1991) while NAADP activates intracellular Ca^{2+} channels distinct from those that are

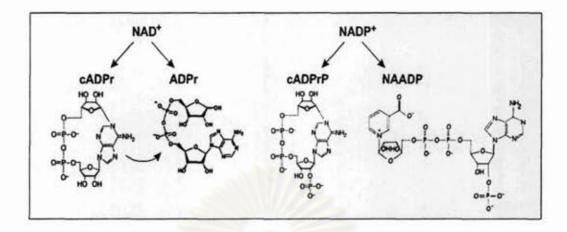


Figure 1.2: Structures of Ca²⁺-mobilizing derivatives of NAD(P)⁺. Cyclic ADPr is formed from NAD⁺ by ADPr cyclase. ADPr is generated directly by NAD⁺ hydrolysis or by cADPr hydrolysis. NAADP formation by a base-exchange reaction, substituting nicotinamide for nicotinic acid, and the same class of enzymes synthesizes cADPrP from NADP⁺. ADPr, ADP-ribose; cADPr, cyclic ADPr; cADPrP, 2'-phosphate cADPr; NAADP, nicotinic acid ADP. (Pollak *et al.*, 2007)

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย sensitive to IP3 and cADPr (Clapper et al., 1987; Lee and Aarhus, 1995).

NADK - the essential enzyme for NADP⁺ biosynthesis

NAD kinase (NADK) catalyzes the phosphorylation of NAD⁺ to NADP⁺ using ATP or inorganic polyphosphate as phosphoryl donors. This reaction represents the only known way to generate NADP+ in prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells. NADP⁺ synthesis was first reported in yeast homogenates (Vestin, 1937; von Euler and Adler, 1938). Later, the enzyme was partially purified and characterized from yeasts, mammals, plants and sea urchin (McGuinness and Butler, 1985). However, conclusive structural information has only recently become available after identification of the amino acid sequences of Mycobacterium tuberculosis and Micrococcus flavus NADKs (Kawai et al., 2000). To date, NADKs of Homo sapiens, Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Arabidopsis thaliana and multiple prokaryotes have been characterized (Magni et al., 2006; Pollak et al., 2007). NADK is an essential enzyme as has been demonstrated in Escherichia coli, M. tuberculosis, Bacillus subtilis and Salmonella enterica (Gerdes et al., 2002; Kobayashi et al., 2003; Sassetti et al., 2003; Grose et al., 2006) and in the yeast S. cerevisiae (Bieganowski et al., 2006; Shianna et al., 2006). The comparison of known NADK amino acid sequences shows a highly conserved region, the catalytic domain, within the C-terminus of the proteins whereas the N-terminal parts vary and are significantly longer in eukaryotic NADKs (Figure 1.3). The catalytic domain (Pfam PF01513) is characterized by two well-conserved motifs, the GGDG motif and a glycine-rich motif. The GGDG motif is also found in diacylglyceride kinase, sphingosine kinase and 6- phosphofructokinase thereby proposed to be a feature of a kinase superfamily including NADK (Labesse et al., 2002). The importance of both motifs for the enzymatic activity was confirmed by

site-directed mutagenesis of amino acid residues within the motifs (Labesse *et al.*, 2002; Raffaelli *et al.*, 2004; Mori *et al.*, 2005b) and was further supported by threedimensional structures of prokaryotic NADKs (Garavaglia *et al.*, 2004; Liu *et al.*, 2005; Mori *et al.*, 2005b; Oganesyan et al., 2005; Poncet-Montange *et al.*, 2007).

While several three-dimensional structures of prokaryotic NADKs have been resolved (Figure 1.4), no eukaryotic one is yet reported. *M. tuberculosis* NADK is a biological tetramer and corresponds to a dimer of dimers (Garavaglia *et al.*, 2004; Mori *et al.*, 2005b). The overall structure is organized into an N-domain, a C-domain and a C-terminal tail. The N-terminal domain resembles a classical Rossmann fold, known to be involved in dinucleotide binding (Rossmann *et al.*, 1974), consisting of a single parallel β -sheet flanked by α -helices. The C- terminal domain adopts a novel fold with structural similarity to the human Ki67 fork-head-associated domain (Garavaglia *et al.*, 2004). The structures of *Archaeoglobus fulgidus* and *Listeria monocytogenes* NADKs show similarities, two dimers assemble into a tetramer (Liu *et al.*, 2005; Poncet-Montange *et al.*, 2007). The substrates NAD⁺ and ATP and the product NADP⁺ are all bound to a cleft between the N- and C-domains. Subunit interactions are required for ligand binding (see Figure 1.4B; black broken line). Indeed, known NADKs are homo-oligomeric proteins as determined by gel filtration experiments.

Subcellular localization and physiological roles of eukaryotic NADKs

Yeast – The presence of NADK activity in the cytoplasm and mitochondria of yeast is long established (McGuinness and Butler, 1985). Three NADK isoforms in *S. cerevisiae* have been characterized recently. ScNADK-1 and ScNADK-2 are cytosolic proteins and exhibit relaxed substrate specificity with some preference

towards NAD⁺ (Kawai et al., 2001b; Shi et al., 2005) whereas ScNADK-3 localizes to the mitochondrial matrix and prefers NADH as substrate (Outten and Culotta, 2003). A global analysis of protein expression in yeast revealed ScNADK-2 to be less present (~300 molecules per cell) compared to ~5000 molecules of isoform 1 and 3 (Ghaemmaghami et al., 2003). In agreement, ScNADK-1 and ScNADK-3 are responsible for almost all NADK activity in vivo since the disruption of both is synthetically lethal, with or without the deletion of isoform 2 (Bieganowski et al., 2006; Shianna et al., 2006). The double mutant can be rescued by overexpression of any of the yeast NADK isoforms (Bieganowski et al., 2006) or human NADK (Shianna et al., 2006). Notably, ScNADK-3, the mitochondrial isoform, was established as the most critical generator of NADPH in yeast. Yeast cells deleted for this isoform are highly sensitive towards oxidative stress induced by hydrogen peroxide or hyperoxia (Krems et al., 1995; Outten and Culotta, 2003). ScNADK-3 mutants exhibit increased frameshift mutations in the mitochondrial DNA and increased petite colony formation (Strand et al., 2003). Deletion strains accumulate iron in the mitochondria and are defective in mitochondrial Fe-S cluster-containing enzymes (Outten and Culotta, 2003) leading to upregulation of genes involved in iron transport (Shianna et al., 2006). In contrast, disruption of ScNADK-1 or ScNADK-2 does not result in severe growth defects or in hypersensitivity to high oxygen concentration (Outten and Culotta, 2003). ScNADK-1 is suggested to provide NADP⁺ for cytosolic NADP-dependent dehydrogenases and detoxifying systems while the role of isoform 2 remains rather unclear (Bieganowski et al., 2006).

Plants - NADK activity has originally been associated with cytoplasmic (Simon et al., 1982), mitochondrial (Dieter and Marme, 1984) and chloroplastic fractions (Muto and Miyachi, 1981; Jarrett et al., 1982). Based on sequence similarity with NADKs from other organisms, three genes encoding putative NADKs were predicted in the A. thaliana genome (Hunt et al., 2004) and subsequently cloned and characterized (Turner et al., 2004; Turner et al., 2005). AtNADK-1 and AtNADK-3 are expressed in most tissues, while isoform 2 is only expressed in leaves (Turner et al., 2004; Berrin et al., 2005). Recent studies on the localization of overexpressed green fluorescent protein-NADK constructs in plant revealed AtNADK-2 to be targeted to the chloroplasts (Chai et al., 2005) while AtNADK-1 and AtNADK-3 are found in the cytoplasm (Chai et al., 2006). Plant NADK isoforms respond differently to stress conditions. Irradiation or treatment with hydrogen peroxide of plant cell suspensions induced AtNADK-1 mRNA and protein levels (Berrin et al., 2005). The transcript of AtNADK-3 is induced by cold, osmotic stress, a superoxide-generating agent and high salinity whereas the transcript levels of AtNADK-1 and AtNADK-2 were not significantly affected by these conditions (Chai et al., 2006). Plants deficient for AtNADK-1 exhibit increased sensitivity to oxidative stress (Berrin et al., 2005). The knockout of NADK-2 in A. thaliana delays growth and development, resulting in reduced leaf size and seed production. NADK activity and NADP(H) content was significantly lowered in leaves of the mutant compared to wild-type (Takahashi et al., 2006). AtNADK-2 protects chloroplasts against oxidative stress and plays a vital role in chlorophyll synthesis according to the importance of NADP⁺ in photosynthesis (Chai et al., 2005). Knockout of AtNADK-3 enhanced the plants sensitivity to various stress conditions

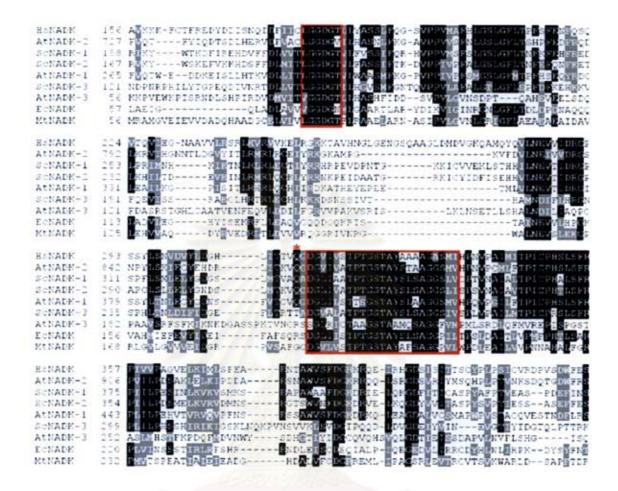


Figure 1.3: Partial multiple alignment of NADKs from several organisms. Amino acid sequences of *H. sapiens* NADK (protein ID NP_075394); *A. thaliana* NADK-1, NADK-2 and NADK-3 (NP_974347, NP_564145 and NP_177980, respectively); *S. cerevisiae* NADK-1, NADK-2 and NADK-3 (P21373, NP_010873 and NP_015136, respectively); *E. coli* NADK (NP_417105); and *M. tuberculosis* NADK (BAB21478) were compared using Clustal W. Identical and similar residues are highlighted in black and grey respectively. The two conserved NADK motifs are boxed in red. (Pollak *et al.*, 2007).

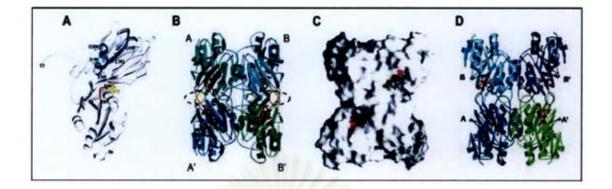


Figure 1.4: Crystal structures of prokaryotic NADKs. (A) Stereo ribbon representation of the MtNADK subunit. Residues of the GGDG sequence fingerprint and of the second conserved region are colored in red and blue, respectively. Residues proposed to be involved in the NAD binding are drawn in a ball-and-stick representation. Ct, C terminus; Nt, N terminus. Modified from (Garavaglia et al., 2004). (B) Ribbon model of quaternary structure of MtNADK-NAD. An asymmetric unit contained 2 subunits (MtNADK-NAD-A/-B, or - A'/B'). NAD⁺ is indicated in red (nitrogen, blue; phosphorus, pink). The A-A' and B-B' contact regions are enclosed by black broken line. MtNADK-flexible loops are shown in yellow (Mori et al., 2005b). (C) Molecular surface model of quaternary structure of MtNADK-NAD⁺ as shown in (B), but was rotated by 90°C. NAD⁺ is shown in blue. Surfaces of residues involved in NAD⁺ binding are colored in green (Thr200- Ser205), yellow (Asn159, Glu160), and pink (Asp85, Gly86). Modified from (Mori et al., 2005b). (D) Ribbon diagram of the AfNADK tetramer in complex with ATP. The individual monomers are labeled as A, A', B and B' (Liu et al., 2005).

(Chai *et al.*, 2006). Under these conditions the mutant plants show significantly decreased NADPH level and GSH/GSSG ratio and increased expression of stress marker genes compared to wild-type plants.

Redox-reactions generating NADPH

Besides a direct phosphorylation of NADH by NADKs several NADP⁺specific dehydrogenases, as well as nicotinamide nucleotide transhydrogenase have been identified as significant contributors to the cellular NADPH pool (Figure 1.5).

Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD), the key regulatory enzyme of the cytosolic pentose phosphate pathway, catalyzes the oxidation of glucose-6phosphate to 6-phospho-gluconolactone and the production of reducing equivalents in the form of NADPH. Salt stress in plants was reported to increased G6PD activity and protein (Valderrama *et al.*, 2006). This result suggested G6PD to be part of a mechanism to protect cells against oxidative damage. Indeed, G6PD overexpression conferred strong protection against H_2O_2 -induced cell death through induction of GSH production (Salvemini *et al.*, 1999; Tian *et al.*, 1999). Conversely, inhibition of G6PD activity potentiated H_2O_2 -induced cell death (Tian *et al.*, 1999) confirming that G6PD has an important role in antioxidant defense mechanisms. However NADPH produced by a cytosolic enzyme is unavailable to mitochondria, the major site of superoxide production.

Modulation of NADK activity

A connection between NADK activity and calcium/calmodulin (Ca⁻/CaM) is well known for decades, at least for the enzymes from sea urchin eggs (Epel *et al.*, 1981), plants (Anderson *et al.*, 1980) and human neutrophils (Williams *et al.*, 1985). Plants possess both CaM-dependent and -independent NADK isoforms that differ in their subcellular localization (Simon *et al.*, 1982; Dieter and Marme, 1984; Simon *et al.*, 1984; Pou De Crescenzo *et al.*, 2001). However, the activity of the three recombinant NADK isoforms from *A. thaliana* was not influenced by Ca^{2+}/CaM although AtNADK-2 binds CaM in a Ca^{2+} dependent manner (Turner *et al.*, 2004; Turner *et al.*, 2005).

Calcium signaling

Ca2+ serves as an intracellular messenger in many cellular processes including plant responses to environmental stresses such as salinity, drought and cold. These stresses have been shown to induce transient elevation of the cytoplasmic Ca2+ concentration level. Because of the cytotoxic effects of calcium, cells pay very particular attention to keeping cytoplasmic calcium levels much lower than the normal extracellular 10⁻³ M level; usually it is in the range 10⁻⁸-10⁻⁶ M. This is accomplished using a variety of calcium-pumping systems located both in the plasma membrane and organelles and together these operate a very efficient calcium-stat system. But, in addition, cells use the temporary elevation of cytoplasmic calcium to between 10⁻⁶ and 10⁻⁵ M that may follow plasma membrane perturbation and alteration of calcium channel activity, as signals, eliciting a variety of predetermined responses. Elevation of the Ca²⁺ concentration is detected by calcium sensor proteins. The classical calcium sensor is calmodulin (CaM), which regulates activity of its protein targets in a calcium-dependent manner. In plants, CaM may play an important role in transducing Ca²⁺-mediated signals from various environmental stresses into appropriate adaptive cellular responses.

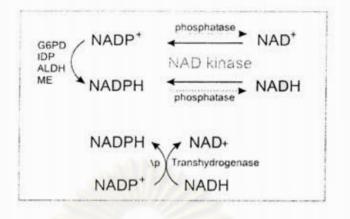


Figure 1.5: Generation of NADP in eukaryotic cells. G6PD, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase; IDP, NADP⁺-dependent isocitrate dehydrogenase; ALDH, NADP⁺- dependent aldehyde dehydrogenase; ME, NADP⁺-dependent malic enzyme; Δp , electrochemical proton gradient.



Calmodulin

Calmodulin (CaM) is probably the most well characterized Ca²⁺ sensors among major groups of Ca²⁺-binding proteins. It is a small (148 residues, 17 kDa), highly conserved, soluble, intracellular Ca²⁺-binding protein ubiquitously found in animals, plants, fungi and protozoa, and is regarded as a major transducer of Ca²⁺ signals in mammalian cells. It has four EF-hands that function in pairs. Many proteins involved in Ca²⁺ signal transduction alter their activity in response to changes in free Ca²⁺ levels, but are themselves not able to bind Ca²⁺ ions. Some of these proteins utilize CaM as a sensor and mediator of the initial Ca²⁺ signal. CaM is a multifunctional protein because of its ability to interact and regulate the activity of a number of other proteins as shown in Figure 1.6. CaM relays the Ca²⁺ signal by binding free Ca²⁺ ions to its C- and N-terminal EF-hand pairs, which causes a conformational change and enables Ca²⁺/CaM to bind to specific CaM-binding domains. The binding of Ca²⁺/CaM to its target proteins alters their activity in a calcium dependent manner.

 Ca^{2+} -bound-calmodulin-mediated signal transduction in plants is shown in Figure 1.7. Biotic and abiotic signals are perceived by receptors, resulting, in some cases, in transient changes in Ca^{2+} concentrations in the cytosol and/or organelles (e.g. nucleus). Increases in free Ca^{2+} concentrations originating from either extracellular pools or intracellular stores are capable of binding to Ca^{2+} -modulated proteins including calmodulin and calmodulin-related proteins. Structural modulations of these proteins enable them to interact with numerous cellular targets that control a multitude of cellular functions, such as metabolism, ion balance, cytoskeleton and protein modifications. In addition, Ca^{2+} and calmodulin might also regulate the expression of

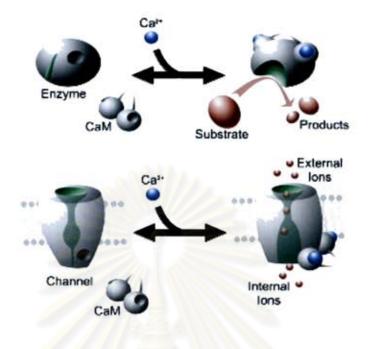


Figure 1.6: Calmodulin acts as a multifunctional protein.



genes by complex signaling cascades or by direct binding to transcription factors. Rapid changes in cellular functions result from direct interactions of calmodulin and calmodulin-related proteins with their targets (within seconds to minutes) while slower responses require gene transcription, RNA processing and protein synthesis (variable times from minutes to days).

The EF hands in CaM are organized into two distinct globular domains, each of which contains one pair of EF hands. Each pair of EF hands is considered the basic functional unit. Pairing of EF hands is thought to stabilize the protein and increase its affinity toward Ca^{2+} . Although each globular domain binds Ca^{2+} and undergoes conformational changes independently, the two domains act in concert to bind target proteins. Upon increase of Ca^{2+} concentration to submicromolar or low micromolar levels, all CaM molecules are activated. Cooperative binding is required for this "on/off" mechanism to function efficiently. The cooperativity of Ca^{2+} binding ensures that full activation of the CaM occurs in a narrow region of calcium concentration during a signaling event.

The selectivity of CaM toward Ca²⁺ also is an important factor in effective transduction of the Ca²⁺ signal. CaMs bind Ca²⁺ selectively in the presence of high concentrations of Mg²⁺ and monovalent cations in the cell. The cation selectivity is achieved by optimizations in the structure folds of the binding loop. For example, discrimination between Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ is accomplished through reduction in the size of the binding loop. Binding of Mg²⁺ ions would collapse the EF-hand loop, thereby reducing the distance between negatively charged side chains and destabilizing the CaM- Mg²⁺ complex. Even small changes in the chemical properties of the Ca²⁺ binding loop (e.g., Glu-12 \rightarrow Gln) can drastically reduce the binding affinity to Ca²⁺

(Beckingham, 1991; Haiech *et al.*, 1991). The Glu-12 \rightarrow Gln mutation changes the carboxylate side chain into carboxylamide, which removes the oxygen ligand for Ca²⁺. Together, structural analyses in combination with site-directed mutagenesis established that CaMs (and other EF hand-containing proteins, including CBLs) have evolved as highly specific Ca²⁺ sensors (Luan *et al.*, 2002).

The overall structure of Ca^{2+}/CaM is dominated by two EF-hand pairs forming the C- and N- terminal lobes and a long α -helix connecting the two lobes. In vertebrate CaM, the two EF-hand pairs share 48% sequence identity and 75% sequence similarity and the peptide backbone of the two lobes can be superimposed with a mean square derivation of ~0.7 A° (Vetter and Leclerc, 2003). Structural analysis of the Ca²⁺-free and Ca²⁺-bound states of CaM proteins reveals the conformational changes induced by Ca²⁺ binding as shown in Figure 1.8. In the Ca²⁺free state, CaM adopts a closed conformation. Ca²⁺ binding triggers a conformational change, and the protein adopts an open conformation with nearly perpendicular interhelical angles between the globular domains. This open conformation exposes a hydrophobic surface within each globular domain and permits the binding of protein targets (Babu *et al.*, 1988; Kuboniwa *et al.*, 1995, Zhang *et al.*, 1995).

 Ca^{2+} -CaM binds and regulates the activity of a wide range of proteins that are not necessarily related in structure. How can Ca^{2+} -CaMs bind to so many different proteins? More specifically, the plasticity of the Ca^{2+} -CaM structure must accommodate the variation in both the molecular size and the composition of the target proteins. This issue has been addressed by structural analyses of Ca^{2+} -CaM and target-bound Ca^{2+} -CaM.

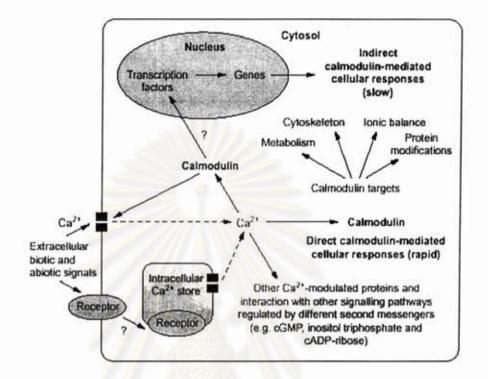


Figure 1.7: The Ca²⁺-bound-calmodulin-mediated signal transduction in plants. Broken arrows denote Ca²⁺ fluxes from extracellular or intracellular stores, and question marks signify unknown signal transduction intermediates.

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Figure 8C shows that the two globular domains of Ca2+-CaM are connected by a flexible tether that can accommodate peptides of varying sizes. The binding of CaMbinding peptides is largely driven by hydrophobic interactions between hydrophobic anchor residues of the peptide with the hydrophobic surface cavities of CaM. Methionine residues, unusually abundant in CaM, play a particularly important role in the binding of target peptides. The methionine side chains are very flexible and the sulfur atom has a larger polarizability than carbon, resulting in stronger van der Waals interactions. The hydrophobic patches of each lobe are surrounded by several charged residues, creating charged binding channel outlets. The C-terminal end of the peptidebinding channel has a negatively charged rim, whereas the N-terminal hydrophobic patch has clusters of negatively and positively charged residues. This charge distribution on the molecular surface contributes to peptide binding via electrostatic interactions and determines the relative binding orientation of CaM-binding peptides. Basic residues at the N-terminus of the peptide form salt bridges with acidic residues surrounding the peptide-binding channel of the C-terminal lobe of CaM. Together, the structures of CaM illustrate how this class of proteins can function as extremely efficient Ca2+ sensors and on/off switches, allowing them to transduce Ca2+ signals with high efficiency and accuracy.

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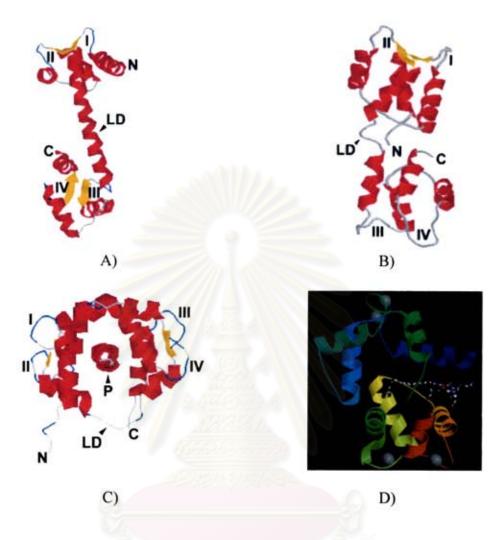


Figure 1.8: Ribbon presentations of calmodulin. (A) Ca^{2+}/CaM determined by Xray crystallography, (B) globular domain of CaM (apo-CaM) determined by NMR spectroscopy, (C) and (D) Ca^{2+}/CaM -target peptide interaction; Peptide binding causes disruption of the flexible tether, bringing the globular domains closer to form a channel around the peptide. The majority of contacts between Ca^{2+} -CaM and target peptide are nonspecific van der Waals bonds made by residues in the hydrophobic surfaces. For (A) to (C), I-IV, Ca^{2+} -binding loops in the EF-hands; N, amino- termini of the CaM; C, carboxy-termini of the CaM; LD, central linker domain and P, target peptide. The α helix, loop and β -sheet are colored in red, blue and yellow respectively.

In plants, there are multiple *Cam* genes that code for either identical proteins or proteins containing a few conservative changes. These small changes in amino acid composition of CaM isoforms may contribute to differential interaction of each CaM isoform with target proteins. The striking example for differential regulation of CaMs comes from the studies with soybean CaM isoforms. In soybean there are five CaM isoforms (SCaM1 to -5). SCaM1, -2 and -3 are highly conserved compared to other plant CaM isoforms including Arabidopsis CaM isoforms whereas SCaM4 and -5 are divergent and show differences in 32 amino acids with the conserved group (Lee et al., 1995). Soybean isoforms show differences in their relative abundance in vivo. The conserved isoforms are relatively abundant in their expression compared to divergent forms. Surprisingly, these divergent CaM isoforms are specifically induced by fungal elicitors or pathogen. These results provide evidence for the differential regulation of CaM isoforms in plants. All CaM isoforms activate phosphodiesterase (PDE) but differ in their activation of NAD kinase, calcineurin and nitricoxide synthase indicating Ca2+/CaM specificity between CaM isoforms and target proteins (Lee et al., 1997). Differential regulation of enzymes by soybean divergent and conserved CaM isoforms has also been reported (Lee et al., 2000). Although SCaM isoforms show similar patterns in protein blot overlay assays, they differ in their relative affinity in interacting with CaM binding proteins (Lee et al., 1999). In another samples, two divergent CaM isoforms that are found in Arabidopsis do not interact with proteins that bind to conserved CaM isoforms (Kohler et al., 2000). These studies suggest that conserved and divergent CaM isoforms may interact with different target proteins. There is considerable evidence to indicate that CaM genes are differentially expressed in response to different stimuli indicating that different CaM isoforms are

involved in mediating a specific signal. Three of the six Arabidopsis Cam genes (Cam1, -2 and -3) are inducible by touch stimulation indicating the presence of different cis-regulatory elements in their promoters. In potato, only one of the eight CaM isoforms (PCaM1) is inducible by touch (Takezawa et al., 1995). The presence of multiple CaM isoforms adds further complexity to the Ca²⁺ mediated network. Even though a large family of genes encoding CaM and closely related proteins from several plants has been identified, with the exception of Arabidopsis and, families of genes encoding CaM and related proteins have not been extensively conducted in a whole-genome scale. In Rice CaM proteins, The full-length amino acid sequences were subjected to phylogenetic analysis. Tree construction using the neighbor-joining method and bootstrap analysis performed with ClustalX generated a consensus tree which is depicted in Figure 1.9. This analysis led to separate these proteins into six groups: 1-6. What defines a "true" CaM and distinguishes it from a CaM-like protein that serves a distinct role in vivo is still an open question. Different experimental approaches including biochemical and genetic analyses have been taken to address this question (Buaboocha et. al., 2002). by phylogenetic analysis based on amino acid sequence similarity, five proteins in group 1 that have the highest degrees of amino acid sequence identity (≥ 97%) to known typical CaMs from other plant species were identified. Because of these high degrees of amino acid identity, and classified them as "true" CaMs that probably function as typical CaMs. They were named OsCaM1-1, OsCaM1-2, OsCaM1-3, OsCaM2 and OsCaM3. The OsCam1-1 gene strongly increased under salt stress as early as 30 min and peaked at 1 hour after treatment. In expression pattern of genes encoding OsCaM1-1, OsCam1-2, OsCam1-3, OsCam2 and OsCam3 was evidently different under salt stress treatment. The stimuli that

OsCaM1-3		0.1 LOC_0s01g16240		
OsCaM1-1		LOC_0x03g20370		
OsCaM1-2		LOC_0x07g48780		
OsCaM3		LOC_0s01g17190		
OsCaM2		LOC_0x05g41210		
OsCML1		LOC_0601g59530		
OsCML2		LOC_0s11g03980		
OICML3		LOC_0x12g03816 LOC_0x03g53200 LOC_0x12g41110		
OsCML4				
OsCML5				
OsCML6		LOC_0s11g37550		
OSCMLS		LOC_0s10g25010		
OsCML13		LOC_0s07942660		
OsCML7		LOC_0x08g02420		
OsCML9		LOC_0x05941200		
OsCML11		LOC_0x01g32120		
OsCML12		LOC_0s01941990		
OsCML14	TTTT	LOC_0x05g50180		
OsCML30		LOC_0s06g07560		
OsCML28		LOC_0s12g12730		
OsCML17	TTT	LOC_0602g39380		
OsCML22		L C LOC_0s04941540		
OsCML21		LOC_0s005g24780		
OsCML27	TTT	LOC_0s03g21380		
OsCML24		LOC_0s07g48340		
OsCML32	and the second se	LOC_0s08g04890		
OsCML10	the second second second	LOC_0s01g721000		
OsCML15		LOC 0s05g31620		
OsCML16	the second s	LOC 0s01g04330		
OsCML18	And a second	LOC 0x05g13580		
OsCML20		LOC 0x02g50080		
OsCML29	and the second second second	LOC 0x06g47640		
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Figure 1.9: Neighbor-joining tree based on amino acid similarities among OsCaM and OsCML proteins. Tree construction using the neighbor-joining method and bootstrap analysis was performed with ClustalX. The TIGR gene identifier numbers are shown and the resulting groupings of CaM and CaM-like proteins designated as 1-6 are indicated on the right. Schematic diagrams of the OsCaM and OsCML open reading frames show their EF hand motif distribution. (Boonpurapong and Buaboocha, 2007).

strongly increased the level of steady state mRNA corresponding to OsCam1-1 did not affect that of other OsCam genes. (Boonpurapong and Buaboocha, 2007).

Rice as a model monocot system

Rice is the world's single most important food crop and a primary food for more than a third of the world's population. Rice refers to two species which are *Oryza sativa* and *Oryza glaberrima*, native to tropical and subtropical southern and southeastern Asia and to Africa, respectively. Among the Asia domesticated rices, *Oryza sativa*, three sub-species are commonly distinguished based on geographic conditions, japonica (also called senica), indica and javanica, all of which include glutinous and non-glutinous varieties. The japonica varieties have narrow dark green leaves, medium-height tillers, and short to intermediate plant height. It is usually grown in cooler subtropics and temperate climates, such as Japan, Portugal, Spain, USSR, Italy, and France. The traditional indica rice varieties, widely grown throughout the tropics and subtropics, are tall and have heavy tillering with long, narrow, light green leaves. The Javanicas have flourished in the equatorial region of Indonesia.

In addition to their adaptation to climate, the three races differ in characteristics of the grain, including the content of amylose, the elongation of the grain, the temperature at which the grain becomes gelatinous and the aroma in cooking. The contrasts which most immediately strike the non-specialist are that indica rices have longer, more slender grains which usually separate when cooked, while japonica rices have shorter, rounder and more translucent grains which quickly become slightly sticky when cooked.

Oryza sativa is an annual grass as shown in Figure 1.10, which grows best when submerged in water. It grows in upland areas, irrigated areas, rainfed lowland areas, and flood-prone areas. Rice is highly adaptable and can be grown in diverse environments. It resembles a weed, 2 to 5 feet tall, depending on the variety and depth of submersion. Rice is constantly bombarded with environmental signals, both biotic and abiotic, some of which cause stress and limit the growth and development and affect the yield and quality. Oryza sativa was the cereal selected to be sequenced as a priority and has gained the status of the "model organism". Rice with its relatively small genome size (~430 Mb), ease of transformation, well developed genetics. availability of a dense physical map and molecular markers (Chen et al., 2002), high degree of chromosomal co-linearity with other major cereal such as maize, wheat, barley and sorghum (Ohyanagi et al., 2006) and together with its complete genome sequence is considered a model monocot system. It is being used to understand several fundamental problems of plant physiology, growth and developmental processes ranging from elucidation of a single gene function to whole metabolic pathway engineering. In addition, rice shares extensive synteny among other cereals thereby increasing the utility of this system. These, together with availability of ~28,000 full length cDNAs, a large number of expressed sequence tags, yeast artificial chromosomes, bacterial artificial chromosomes, P1-derived artificial chromosomes, libraries and rich forward and reverse genetics resources have made rice a worthy forerunner among the plants especially among the cereals.



Figure 1.10: Structural features of Oryza sativa L. (wikipedia, 2010 : online)



Relatively little is known about NAD kinase activity and its regulation in plant cells. Therefore, a major goal of the work presented in this thesis was to examine the activity of NAD kinase of rice *Oryza sativa* L., a model plant for monocots and one of the most ecomonically important crops in Thailand and the world, and determine the regulation of NAD kinase activity by Ca^{2+}/CaM .

Objectives of the thesis

- To clone and express rice NADK genes in E.coli and characterize the recombinant proteins.
- To determine NAD kinase activity and partially purify NAD kinase from rice Oryza sativa L. cultivar KDML105 under salt stress.
- 3. To determine the effect of OsCaM1-1 on NAD kinase.



CHAPTER II

MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Materials

2.1.1 Rice seeds

Rice Oryza sativa L. cultivar Khao Dok Ma Li 105 (KDML105)

2.1.2 Instruments

Autoclave: Labo Autoclave MLS-3020 (Sanyo Electric Co., Ltd.,

Japan)

Automatic micropipette: Pipetman P2, P20, P100, P1000 (Gilson Medical

Electronics S.A., France)

Balance: Sartorius CP423s (Scientific Promotion Co. USA)

Biophotometer (Eppendorf, Germany)

-20 °C Freezer (Sharp, Japan)

Gel documentation apparatus: Gel Doc™ (Syngene, England)

Gel electrophoresis apparatus: Gel mate 2000 (Toyobo, Japan)

Incubator: BM-600 (Memmert Gambh, Germany)

Incubator shaker: Innova[™] 4000 (New Brunswick Scientific, UK)

Laminar flow: HS-124 (International Scientific Supply Co., Ltd.,

USA)

Magnetic stirrer: Fisherbrand (Fisher Scientific, USA)

Magnetic stirrer and heater: Cerastir (Clifton, USA)

Mastercycler gradient PCR system (Eppendorf, Germany) Microcentrifuge: PMC-880 (Tomy Kogyo Co., Ltd., Japan) Microtiter plate reader (BMG Labtech) Microwave oven (Panasonic, Japan) Orbital shaker (Labinco, Taiwan) pH meter: pH900 (Precisa, Germany) PCR workstation Model#P-036 (Scientific Co., USA) Power supply: Power PAC 1000 (Bio-RAD Laboratories, USA) Refrigerated centrifuge: 5804R (Eppendorf, Germany) Refrigerated centrifuge: 5417R (Eppendorf, Germany) Spectrophotometer: DU[®]640 (Beckman Coulter, USA)

2.1.3 Materials

96-well plate: (NUNC, Denmark)
Butyl-Toyopearl (TOSOH, Japan)
DEAE-Toyopearl (TOSOH, Japan)
Filter paper: Whatman No.1 (Whatman International Ltd., England)
0.6- and 1.5-ml microcentrifuge tube (Axygen Hayward, USA)
0.22µm Millipore membrane filter (Millipore, USA)
Nipro disposable syringe (Nissho, Japan)
Nitrocellulose membrane: Protran (Whatman, USA)
0.2 ml-PCR thin wall microcentrifuge tube (Eppendorf, Germany)
10-, 100-, 1000-µl pipette tips (Axygen Hayward, USA)

PVDF membranes (Macherey-Nagel, Germany)

Quartz cuvette: Hellma 105.201-QS (sigma-aldric,USA)

2.1.4 Chemicals and reagents

Absolute ethanol (BDH, England)

Adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP) disodium salt hydrate (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Agar (Merck, Germany)

Agarose (FMC Bioproducts, USA)

Alkaline phosphatase-conjugated rabbit anti-mouse IgG (Jackson

ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc.)

Ammonium persulfate: (NH4)2S208 (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Anti-His antiserum (GE Healthcare, USA)

Bacto tryptone (Difco, USA)

Bacto yeast extract (Difco, USA)

BenchMark™ His-tagged Protein Standard (Invitrogen, USA)

Benzamidine hydrochloride (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Beta-mercaptoethanol (Fluka, Switzerland)

Boric acid (Merck, Germany)

Bovine Serum Albumin (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

5-Bromo-4-chloro-3-indole- β -D-galactopyranoside; X-gal (Sigma

Chemical co., USA)

5-Bromo-4-chloro-indolyl phosphate: BCIP (Fermentas, USA) Bromophenol blue (Merck, Germany) Calcium chloride (Carlo Erba Reagenti, Italy)

Chloroform (Merck, Germany)

Coomassie brilliant blue R-250 (Bio Basic Inc., USA)

Copper sulfate (Carlo Erba Reagenti, Italy)

dATP, dCTP, dGTP, and dTTP (Fermentas Inc., USA)

2,6-Dichlorobenzenone-indophenol sodium salt: DCIP (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Dimethyl sulfoxide: DMSO C6H6SO (Finnzymes, Finland)

di-Sodium hydrogen orthophosphate anhydrous: Na2HPO4 (Carlo

Erba Reagenti, Italy)

Dithiothreitol (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Ethidium Bromide (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid: EDTA (Carlo Erba Reagenti,

Italy)

Ethylene glycol-bis (β-aminoethylether)-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid:

EGTA (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Formaldehyde (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

D-Glucose 6-phosphate disodium salt hydrate (Fluka, Switzerland) Glacial acetic acid (Carlo Erba Reagenti, Italy)

Glycerol (BDH, England)

Glycine (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Hydrochloric acid (Merck, Germany)

Iso-1-thio-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside: IPTG (Serva, Germany)

Isopropanol (Merck, Germany)

Lambda DNA (Promega Co., USA)

Magnesium sulfate (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Methanol (Merck, Germany)

Nickel(II) sulfate hexahydrate: NiSO4 (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

β-Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide: NAD (Sigma Chemical Co.,

USA)

Nitroblue tetrazolium: NBT (Fermentas, Inc., USA)

Phenazine methosulfate: PMS (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Phenol crystal (BDH, England)

Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride: PMSF (USB, USA)

Potassium chloride (Carlo Erba Reagenti, Italy)

Sodium acetate (Carlo Erba Reagenti, Italy)

Sodium chloride (Carlo Erba Reagenti, Italy)

Sodium dodecyl sulfate (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

Sodium dihydrogen orthophosphate (Carlo Erba Reagenti, Italy)

Sodium hydroxide (Carlo Erba Reagenti, Italy)

TEMED (CH3)2NCH2CH2N(CH3)2 (Amresco, USA)

Tris-(hydroxyl methyl)-aminomethane (Fluka, Switzerland) Triton X-100 (Merck, Germany)

Tween 20 (Bio-RAD Laboratories, USA)

2.1.5 Enzymes

DNA polymerase, large (Klenow) fragment (New England Biolabs, Inc., USA) DyNAzyme II DNA polymerase (Finnzymes, Finland)

Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase from baker's yeast (Sigma

Chemical Co., USA)

Restriction endonucleases: Sall, HindIII (Fermentas, Inc., USA),

Ndel, VspI (New England Biolabs, Inc., USA)

T4 DNA ligase (New England Biolabs Inc., USA)

Taq DNA polymerase (Fermentus, Inc., USA)

Vent DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs Inc., USA)

2.1.6 Kits and Plasmids

Expression vector: pET21a(+) (Merck, Germany) Gel/PCR DNA fragments extraction kit (Geneaid, Taiwan) High-speed plasmid mini kit (Geneaid, Taiwan)

pTZ57R/T cloning vector (Fermentus, Inc., USA)

2.1.7 Radioactive

Tran-³⁵S-Label methionine (1175 Ci/mmol) (MP Biomedicals, USA)

2.1.8 Antibiotics

Ampicillin (Sigma Chemical Co., USA)

2.1.9 Oligonucleotide primers

The oligonucleotide primers were synthesized by Operon, Germany.

2.1.10 Microorganisms

Escherichia coli

strain Rosetta(DE3)pLysS

strain Rosetta-gami

strain XL1-Blue: MRF'

2.1.11 Software

BlastX (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/Blast.cgi) ClustalW (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/clustalw2/index.html) ExPASy ProtParam (http://au.expasy.org/tools/protparam.html) GENETYX version 7.0 program (Software Development Inc.) SECentral (Scientific & Educational Software)

2.2 Bacterial growth medium

Luria-Bertani broth (LB medium) (Maniatis et al., 1982)

LB medium containing 1% peptone, 0.5% NaCl and 0.5% yeast extract was prepared and pH adjusted to 7.2 with NaOH. For agar plates, it was supplemented with 1.5% (w/v) agar. The medium was autoclaved for 20 minutes at 121° C, 1.2 kg/cm². If needed, the medium was then supplemented with a selected antibiotic drug.

2.3 Methods

2.3.1 Quantitative method for determination of DNA concentration

The concentration of DNA was determined by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm (A₂₆₀) and estimated in μ g/ml using the equation: [DNA] (μ g/ml) = A₂₆₀ × dilution factor × 50 as an absorbance at 260 nm of 1.0 corresponds to 50 μ g/ml of DNA (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

2.3.2 Sequence analysis

Sequences of the cDNA clones encoding putative NADKs (designated *NADK1* and *NADK2*) were obtained from the rice databases via the Rice Genome Annotation Project (<u>http://rice.plantbiology.msu.edu/</u>) and the Rice Annotation Project Database (RAP-DB) at the NIAS (<u>http://rapdb.dna.affrc.go.jp/</u>). Sequencing of the cDNA clones was carried out at Macrogen, Korea. Multiple sequence alignment was performed using ClustalW (<u>http://www.ebi.ac.uk.clustalw</u>).

2.3.3 Cloning of the NAD kinase genes into cloning vector (pTZ57R/T)

2.3.3.1) Primer design

The genes (and their GenBank Accession numbers) used were as follows: *NADK1* (AK099730) and *NADK2* (AK065215). Based on the cDNA sequences encoding the *NADK1* and *NADK2* genes, a pair of oligonucleotide primers for amplifying the coding region of each *NADK* gene was designed using the SECentral program (Scientific & Educational Software) with *Nde1* and *Sall* restriction sites engineered at the 5' and 3' ends, respectively. They were checked for minimal self-priming and primer dimer formation. The sequences and the length of the all oligonucleotide primers are shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 The sequences and the length of oligonucleotide primers used for cloning of the NAD kinase genes

Gene	Primer	Sequence	Length
NADKI	Forward	5' -GCCCATATGTCGCTCGACGAGCTTCCGCAC- 3'	30
	Reverse	5' -CTGGTCGACATCACGCGGGCCGTCGAATGA- 3'	30
NADK2	Forward	5' -TGCCATATGCTCGCCGTCTGCGCGCGCGCAC- 3'	30
	Reverse	5' -TAAGTCGACTAATGCCTTCTGGTCCAGTCG- 3'	30

2.3.3.2) PCR amplification

The coding regions of *NADK1* and *NADK2* genes were amplified using their respective *NADK* cDNA clones, which were obtained from DNA Bank of the National Institute of Agrobiological Science (NIAS), as template. For *NADK1*, the amplification reaction was performed in a 25- μ l reaction that contained 1X NEB TermoPol buffer, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 50-100 ng of DNA template, 200 μ M each of dATP, dCTP, dGTP and dTTP, 1 μ M of each primer and 5 units of *Vent* DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs, Inc., USA). PCR amplification was performed as follows: pre-denaturation at 94 °C for 5 minutes, 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 minute, annealing vary 69-72°C for 1 minute and extension at 72°C for 1 minute. In the final extension step, 5 units of *Tag* DNA polymerase (Fermentus, Inc., USA) were added and incubated at 72 °C for 10 minutes to add a dA at the 3' end. For *NADK2*, the amplification reaction was performed in a 50- μ l reaction that contained 1X DyNAzyme II DNA polymerase buffer, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 50-100 ng of DNA template, 200 μ M each of dATP, dCTP, dGTP and dTTP, 1 μ M of each primer and 5 unit of DyNAzyme II DNA polymerase (Finnzymes, Finland). PCR amplification was performed as follows: pre-denaturation at 94 °C for 5 minutes, 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 3 minutes, annealing at 60°C for 30 seconds and extension at 72°C for 1 minute. The final extension step performed at 72 °C for 10 minutes. PCR products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized by ethidium bromide staining.

2.3.3.3) Agarose gel electrophoresis

Standard agarose gel electrophoresis method was used to separate, identify, and purify DNA fragments. The concentration of agarose gel used varied with the size of the DNA fragments to be separated. The DNA samples were run on an agarose gel in Tris-acetate-EDTA (TAE) buffer. Before loading into an agarose gel, DNA samples were mixed with 10% (v/v) DNA gel loading buffer (0.1M EDTA/NaOH pH 7.5, 50% (v/v) of glycerol, 1% (w/v) of SDS, 0.5 (w/v) of xylene cyanol FF, and 0.5 (w/v) of Bromophenol blue). Electrophoresis was performed at a constant voltage of 100 volts until the bromophenol blue dye migrated to an appropiate distance through the gel. After electrophoresis, the gel was stained with ethidium bromide solution (5-10 μ g/ml in distilled water) for 5 minutes and destained with distilled water for 10 minutes. DNA fragments on the agarose gel were visualized on UV light transilluminator and photographed. The concentration and molecular weight of DNA fragments was determined by comparison of the band intensity and the relative mobility with those of the standard $\lambda/HindIII$ DNA markers.

2.3.3.4) Extraction of DNA fragments from agarose gel

The amplification products generated by PCR were purified from agarose gel using Geneaid gel extraction protocol (Geneaid, Taiwan). After electrophoresis, the desired DNA fragment was excised as gel slice from an agarose gel using a scalpel and transferred to a microcentrifuge tube. Five hundred µl of DF buffer was added and the mixture was incubated for 10 minutes at 55-60°C or until the gel slice has been completely dissolved. During incubation, the tube was inverted every 2-3 minutes. The mixture was then transferred into a DF column and the column was centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 1 minute. The flow through solution was discarded. Then 400 µl of W1 buffer was added and the column was centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 1 minute. The flow through was discarded and 600 µl of Wash buffer was added to the DF column. The column was let standing for 1 minute and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 1 minute, then the flow through solution was discarded. The DF column was centrifuged again for 3 minutes to remove a trace element of the Wash buffer. The DF column was then placed into a sterile 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube. DNA was eluted by an addition of 15-50 µl of steriled water to the center of the DF column. The column was let standing for 2 minutes, and then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 2 minutes to elute the DNA. The DNA concentration was determined by agarose gel electrophoresis.

2.3.3.5) Ligation of PCR products to pTZ57R/T

After the PCR products were purified from the agarose gel, they were ligated to the pTZ57R/T vector (see in Appendix A). A suitable molecular ratio

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between vector and inserted DNA in a mixture of cohesive-end ligation is usually 1:3. To calculate the appropriate amount of the PCR product (insert) used in a ligation reaction, the following equation was used:

ng of vector × kb size of insert

kb size of vector × insert : vector molar ratio = ng of insert

The 20 μ l of ligation mixture, which contained appropriate amounts of the vector DNA and the gene fragment, 1x ligation buffer and 10 U of T4 DNA ligase, was incubated overnight at 16°C.

2.3.3.6) Transformation of ligated products to *E. coli* host cells by CaCl₂ method

a) Preparation of E. coli competent cells

Competent *E. coli* strain XL1-Blue was prepared according to the method of Sambrook *et al.* (1989). Three ml of LB broth (1% (w/v) tryptone, 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract, and 1% (w/v) NaCl, pH 7.2) was inoculated with a single colony of *E. coli* strain XL1-Blue and incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm overnight. Fifty ml of LB medium was then inoculated with two percents of the starting culture and the culture was incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm for 3-4 hours until the optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of the culture reached 0.45-0.55. The culture was chilled on ice slurry for 15-30 minutes and the cells were harvested by centrifugation at 8,000 xg at 4 °C for 10 minutes. The supernatant was decanted and the cell pellet was washed with 25 ml of fresh icecold 150 mM CaCl₂, resuspended by gently mixing and centrifuged at 8,000 xg at 4 °C for 10 minutes. The supernatant was discarded. The cells were resuspended with 25 ml of fresh ice-cold 150 mM CaCl₂ and incubated on ice for 30 minutes, then centrifuged at 8,000 xg at 4 °C for 15 minutes. The supernatant was discarded and finally, the cells were resuspended in 1 ml of fresh ice-cold 150 mM CaCl₂ and incubated on ice for 1 hour. These cells were used as freshly prepared competent cells.

b) Transformation by CaCl₂ method

In this study, competent cells were transformed with the recombinant plasmids by CaCl₂ method. Sixty microliters of competent cells were mixed well with 10 μ l of the ligation mixture and then placed on ice for 30 minutes. The cells were heat-shocked for 90 seconds in a waterbath set to 42 °C and quickly incubated on ice for 5 minutes. Five hundred μ l of LB medium was added then the cell suspension was incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm for 1 hour and the cells were spun down to retain 200 μ l. Finally, the cell suspension was spread onto LB agar plates containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin, 10 μ l of 0.1 M Iso-1thio- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG), and 50 μ l of 20 mg/ml 5-Bromo-4chloro-3-indole-beta-D-galactopyranoside (X-gal) (on a plate with the diameter of 10 cm) and incubated at 37 °C overnight. The recombinant clones containing the inserted DNA were white while those without inserted DNA were blue. The white colonies which potentially contained recombinant plasmids were selected and analyzed by restriction enzyme digestion.

2.3.3.7) Analysis of recombinant plasmids

a) Plasmid DNA isolation by alkaline lysis method

A single colony of recombinant cells was selected and grown in 5 ml of LB broth (1% (w/v) tryptone, 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract, and 1% (w/v) NaCl) containing 100 µg/ml of ampicillin overnight at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm. The cells were spun in a microcentrifuge at 8000×g for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The cells were resuspended in 300 µl of Lysis buffer (50 mM of Tris base, 10 mM of Na2EDTA.H2O and 100 µg/ml of RNaseA) and mixed by vortexing. The suspension was allowed to strand for 5 minutes at room temperature, then 300 µl of Alkaline-SDS solution (200mM NaOH and 1% SDS) was added and the suspension was inverted gently several times to mix and allowed to stand on ice of 5 minutes. Three hundred µl of High salt solution (3M of potassium acetate) was then added to the mixture. The suspension was mixed gently and allowed to stand for 10 minutes on ice. The insoluble salt-genomic DNA precipitate was then removed by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm at 4°C for 15 minutes. The supernatant was transferred to a fresh microcentrifuge tube and the nucleic acid was precipitated by adding 480 µl (0.6 volumes) of isopropanol. The sample was mixed thoroughly and immediately centrifuged for 20 minutes to collect the precipitated DNA. The DNA pellet was resuspended in 90 µl of sterile water and the suspension was vortexed gently. Ten µl of 3 M sodium acetate, pH 7 and 300 µl of cold absolute ethanol were added to the DNA solution, then mixed and chilled on ice for 30 minutes. The DNA was collected by centrifuging at 14,000×g for 20 minutes at 4 °C. The pellet was rinsed with 300 µl of 70% ethanol and allowed to dry for 10-15 minutes. The plasmid DNA was resuspended with 30 µl of sterile water and stored at -20 °C.

b) Restriction enzyme analysis

The recombinant plasmids isolated by the alkaline lysis method were analyzed for the presence of the interested cloned fragments by digestion with appropriate restriction endonucleases. All restriction digestion was performed in the conditions recommended by the enzyme manufacturer. The *NADK* recombinant plasmids were digested with *NdeI* and *SaII*. Each of the reactions was carried out in a 10 µl-mixture at 37 °C. The DNA products were analyzed by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. The size of DNA fragments was determined by comparing with those of the $\lambda / HindIII$ marker.

2.3.4 Cloning of NADK genes into expression vector pET21a(+)

2.3.4.1) Vector DNA preparation

The *E. coli* XL-1 Blue, which contained pET21a(+) plasmids was grown in 5 ml LB medium containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin at 37°C with shaking at 250 rpm for 16 hours. The pET21a(+) vector was extracted using Alkaline lysis method as described above. The expression vector pET21a(+) was linearized with *NdeI* and *SalI* digestion using the conditions recommended by the enzyme manufacturer. The reaction was incubated at 37°C for 3-4 hours. The linearized pET21a(+) was harvested from agarose gel using Geneaid gel extraction protocol.

2.3.4.2) Preparation of NADK gene fragments

After the *NADK* genes were cloned into pTZ57R/T and the recombinant clones were checked with restriction enzyme digestion. The recombinant plasmids that containing *NADK* genes were extracted by using Alkaline lysis method as described above. The *NADK* genes were digested with *NdeI* and *SalI* using the conditions recommended by the enzyme manufacturer. The reaction was incubated at 37°C overnight. The *NADK* gene fragments were harvested from agarose gel using Geneaid gel extraction protocol.

2.3.4.3) Ligation of NADK gene fragments to pET21a(+)

To clone *NADK* genes into the pET21a(+) expression vector, the prepared gene fragments were ligated to the linearlized vector. A suitable molecular ratio between vector and inserted DNA in a mixture of 1:5 was used. The 20 μ l of ligation mixture containing appropriate amounts of the vector DNA and the gene fragment, 1x ligation buffer and 10 U of T4 DNA ligase, was incubated overnight at 16°C.

2.3.4.4) Transformation of E. coli XL-1Blue cell by CaCl2 method

Competent cells were prepared as described above. To transform the *E* coli cells, the ligation mixtures were added to the the competent cell and then placed on ice for 30 minutes. The mixture was heat-shocked for 90 seconds in a water bath set to 42 °C and the cells were quickly incubated on ice for 5 minutes, 500 μ l of LB medium was then added the cell suspension and the suspension was incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm for 1 hour and the cells were spun down to retain 200 μ l. Finally, the cell suspension was spread onto the LB agar plates containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin and the plates were incubated at 37 °C

overnight. The recombinant clones which contained the pET21a(+) vector could growth on LB agar plates containing ampicillin. A single colony was selected and analyzed by restriction enzyme digestion.

2.3.4.5) Analysis of recombinant plasmids

A single colony of recombinant cells was selected and grown in 5 ml of LB broth (1% (w/v) tryptone, 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract, and 1% (w/v) NaCl) containing 100 µg/ml of ampicillin overnight at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm. The recombinant plasmids were extracted using alkaline lysis method. The recombinant plasmids were digested with *NdeI* and *SalI*. The reaction was incubated at 37°C overnight and the products were analyzed by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. The size of the DNA insert was determined by comparing with those of the λ / *Hin*dIII marker.

2.3.5 Sequence analysis

The recombinant plasmids were extracted by High Speed plasmid Mini kit (Geneaid, Taiwan) and nucleotide sequences of the inserts were determined. DNA sequencing was carried out at Macrogen, Korea. The sequencing primers used were the same as the primers for PCR amplification.

2.4 Expression of the NADK1 and NADK2 genes

To produce recombinant proteins, the NADK1 and NADK2 genes cloned in the expression vector pET21a(+) were expressed in *E.coli* Rosetta (DE3) and Rosetta-gami, respectively. Both proteins were expressed in *E.coli* as described below.

2.4.1 Preparation of cell expression

The recombinant pET21a(+) plasmids containing *NADK* genes were transformed into *E.coli* strain Rosetta (DE3) or Rosetta-gami cells by heat shock method. The competent cells were prepared as described above. The recombinant plasmids were mixed with the competent cells and then placed on ice for 30 minutes. The cells were heat-shocked for 90 seconds in a water bath set to 42 °C and quickly incubated on ice for 5 minutes, 500 μ l of LB medium was added, then the cell suspension was incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm for 1 hour. Finally, fifty μ l of the cell suspension was spread onto the LB agar plates containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin and incubated at 37 °C overnight.

2.4.2 Optimization for NADK genes expression

A single colony of recombinant cells was grown overnight at 37°C for 16 hours in 5 ml of LB medium, pH 7.0, containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin. The starter was diluted 1:100 into the same medium and cultured at 37°C with shaking for 3 - 4 hours until the optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of the culture reached 0.6. Protein production was induced by adding IPTG to the final concentration of 0.1 mM for *NADK1* and 0.6 mM for *NADK2* and the incubation was continued at 37°C for 3 hours. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 8000xg for 15 minutes, and then the cell pellets were washed twice in cold wash buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5) and the cells were collected again by centrifugation. The cell pellet was stored at -80°C until it was sonicated. In crude extract preparation, the cell pellet was resuspended in cold lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, and 1 mM DTT), incubated on ice for 30 minutes and then broken by sonication on ice. Unbroken cells and cell debris were removed by centrifugation at 27000xg for 30 minutes. The supernatant was kept at 4°C until it was used.

2.4.3 Determination of protein concentration

Protein concentration was determined by the modified method of Bradford, M. M. (1976). The reaction mixture contained 100 μ l of the protein sample and 1 ml of Bradford solution, which was prepared as described in (Appendix B). The combined solution was mixed by vortexing. Protein concentration of the sample was determined by measuring the absorbance at 595 nm after letting the mixture stand at room temperature for 5 minutes but before 1 hour. The concentration was calculated using the standard curve of protein standards (0-20 μ l of 1 mg/ml BSA).

2.4.4 SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

The SDS-PAGE system was performed according to the method of Bollag et al., 1996. The slab gel system contained 0.1% SDS (W/V) and consisted of 12% seperating gel and 3.9% stacking gel. Tris-glycine (25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine and 0.1% SDS), pH 8.3 was used as electrode buffer. The gel preparartion was described in (Appendix B). The protein samples were mixed with 5x sample buffer (60 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.9, 79% glycerol, 2% SDS, 0.1% bromophenol blue and 14.4 mM β -mercaptoethanol) by the ratio of 5: 1 and boiled for 10 minutes before loading to the gel. The electrophoresis was run from the cathode towards the anode at a constant current of 20 mA per gel at room temperature. The molecular weight marker proteins containing β -galactosidase (116,000 Da), bovine serum albumin (66,200 Da), ovalbumin (45,000 Da), lactate dehydrogenase (35,000 Da), restriction endonuclease Bsp98I (25,000 Da), β -lactoglobulin (18,400 Da) and lysozyme (14,400 Da) were used.

2.4.5 Protein staining

The gel was transferred to a box containing Coomassie staining solution (0.25% Coomassie Blue R-250, 50% methanol, and 7% glacial acetic acid) The gel was stained for 1 hour at room temperature with gentle shaking. After staining, the stain solution was poured off, the gel was briefly rinsed with water and incubated with the Coomassie destaining solution (10% methanol and 7% glacial acetic acid). The gel was gently destained for several times until protein bands were readily visible.

2.5 Purification of the NADK1 proteins

2.5.1 Crude extract preparation

For the large scale protein expression, a single colony of recombinant cells was grown overnight at 37 °C for 16 hours in 25 ml of LB medium, pH 7.0, containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin. Then, 1,000 ml of the same medium was inoculated with 2.0% of the starter culture and was cultured at 37 °C with shaking

for 3-4 hours until the optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of the culture reached 0.6. Protein production was induced by adding IPTG to the final concentration of 0.1 mM and the incubation was continued at 37 °C for 4 hours. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 8,000xg for 15 minutes, then the cell pellet was washed twice in cold wash buffer (20 mM Phosphate buffer, pH 7.5) and collected again by centrifugation. The cell pellet was stored at -80 °C until it was sonicated. In crude extract preparation, the cell pellet was resuspended in 50 ml of cold lysis buffer (20 mM Phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, and 1 mM DTT), incubated on ice for 30 minutes and then broken by sonication on ice. Unbroken cells and cell debris were removed by centrifugation at 20,000xg for 30 minutes. The supernatant was kept at 4 °C until it was used.

2.5.2 NADKI protein purification by Nickel Sepharose column

The high performance Ni sepharose was packed into a small column and washed with 5 column volumes of distilled water and 5-10 column volumes of binding buffer (20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4, containing 25 mM imidazole), respectively. The soluble protein fraction was loaded into the column at room temperature. The flow through was collected by a gravity flow. The column was washed with the binding buffer followed by wash buffer (20 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.4 containing 25 mM imidazole) to remove unbound proteins. After washing, the protein was eluted with elution buffer (20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4, containing 200 mM imidazole). The presence and purity of the purified protein was evaluated by SDSpolyacrylamide gel electrophoresis as described above. The imidazole was removed by dialysis for at least 4 hours at 4 °C against 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4 twice.

2.6 Western blot detection of the His-tagged protein

After running the SDS-PAGE, the SDS-gel slab was removed from the glass plates. The membrane, gel and filter paper were soaked in transfer buffer (25 mM Tris base, 150 mM glycine and 20% methanol) for 30 minutes before they were consequently laid on the Trans-Blot[®] SD (Bio-Rad) membrane. The filter paper was placed on the platform, followed by the membrane, the gel and the filter paper, respectively, as shown in Figure 2.1.



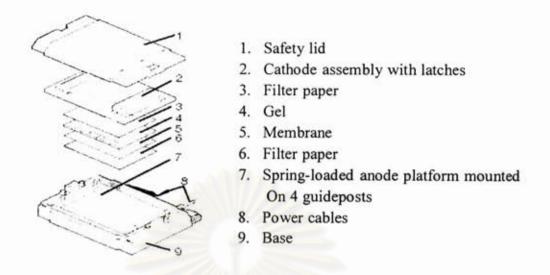


Figure 2.1 Exploded view of the Trans-Blot[®] SD (Bio-Rad).



Protein transfer was performed at a constant current of 90 mA from the cathode towards the anode for 90 minutes. After transferring the proteins from the gel to the membrane, the orientation of the gel was marked on the membrane. The membrane was then transferred to an appropriate container (petri dish) and incubated in blocking buffer (1× PBS buffer [10 mM phosphate buffer, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4, 0.05% (v/v) Tween[™]-20 and 5% (w/v) non-fat dry milk)] at room temperature overnight with gentle shaking. The membrane was washed 3 times for 10 minutes each in washing buffer (PBS-Tween buffer [1× PBS buffer (10 mM phosphate buffer, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4, 0.025% (v/v) Tween[™]-20) and incubated in an anti-His antibody solution (1: 3000 dilution) in the washing buffer containing 1% (w/v) non-fat dry milk, at ambient temperature with gentle mixing for 3 hours. Then, the membrane was washed 3 times for 10 minutes each in washing buffer and then incubated in a secondary antibody solution (1: 2500 dilution) in the washing buffer containing 1% (w/v) non-fat dry milk with agitation for 1 hour. The membrane was washed 3 times for 10 minutes each in washing buffer at room temperature. The bound antibody was detected by color development using NBT/BCIP (Fermentas) dissolved in 100 mM Tris- HCl, 100 mM NaCl and 50 mM MgCl₂, pH 9.5 as substrate.

2.7 NAD kinase assay

2.7.1 In-gel activity staining

The native polyacrylamide gel using 7% separating gel and 4% stacking gel was prepared as described in (Appendix B). Electrophoresis was performed

on 100 μg of crude extract proteins at 4 °C using Tris-glycine (25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine), pH 8.3 containing 1 mM DTT and 0.1 mM ATP. After electrophoresis, NAD kinase activity was detected by incubating the gel at 37 °C in a 10-ml staining mixture containing 2.25 ml of nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT; 2 mM), 150 μl of phenazine methosulfate (2.7 mM), 300 μl of G6P (0.1 M), 25 μl of G6PDH (0.5 units/μl), 500 μl of ATP (60 mM), 300 μl of MgCl₂ (100 mM), and 1.0 ml of Tris·HCl (1.0 M; pH 7.5) with or without 250 μl NAD⁺ (100 mM).

2.7.2 Measurement of NAD kinase activity

NADK activity was measured (150 μ L final volume) in a microtiter plate or a quartz cuvette. The standard assay mixture, unless otherwise specified, contained 50 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.9), 4 mM ATP, 4 mM NAD⁺, 6 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM CaCl₂, and 300 mM recombinant rice CaM1 (Appendix B). The reaction was initiated with up to 15-30 μ L of protein extract and allowed to proceed for 30 minutes at room temperature. The reaction was stopped by boiling for 5 minutes followed by centrifugation to remove the denatured protein. The NADP⁺ formed was detected by adding 50 μ L of the NADK assay mixture to the cycling assay (250 μ L final volume), which contained 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 17.7 mM Glc-6P, 1 mM EGTA, 0.1 units of yeast Glc-6-P dehydrogenase, 1 mg/ml 2,6-dichlorophenolindophenol (DCIP), and 1 mg/m1 methyphenazinium methylsulfate (PMS). Reduction of DCIP was monitored at 600 nm using the microtiter plate reader or the spectrophotometer.

2.8 Partial purification of NAD kinase from rice *Oryza sativa* L. cultivar Khao Dok Ma Li 105 (KDML105)

2.8.1 Preparation of rice seedlings

Seeds of the Khao Dok Ma Li 105 (KDML105) indica rice cultivar *Oryza* sativa L. were obtained from Kasetsart University. Healthy rice seeds were rinsed with deionized water and soaked for 20 minutes in 2.1% sodium hyperchlorite with shaking, then extensively washed with deionized water for at least 3 times. Washed seeds were germinated in NB medium, which was prepared as described in (Appendix B) for 7 days under a 16-hr light/8-hr dark photoperiod. After 7 days, germinated seeds were transferred to 1X Limpinuntana's nutrient solution (Limpinuntana, 1978) (Appendix B) and grown for 2 weeks under a 16-hr light/8hr dark photoperiod. To determine the effect of NaCl, 3-week old seedlings were treated with 150 µM NaCl in 1X Limpinuntana's nutrient solution for 0, 3, 6, 9, 12 or 24 hours.

2.8.2 Preparation of soluble extract

All steps were carried out at 0 °C to 4 °C. Leaves from the 3 week-old seedlings were collected, immersed in liquid nitrogen and ground in liquid nitrogen using chilled mortars and pestles. The plant material was kept frozen and ground to a fine powder. Then buffer A (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, 200 mM KCl, and 3 mM MgCl₂), 1 mM EGTA, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 1 mM phenyl methyl sulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 1 mM benzamidine, 50 μ M leupeptin, and 1X Protease inhibitor mix was added. The homogenate was filtered and centrifuged at 15,000xg for 20 minutes. The supernatant was then

dialyzed against buffer B (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EGTA, 0.5 mM EDTA, and 1 mM DTT).

2.8.3 Partial purification of NAD kinase

The crude protein in buffer B was applied to a column (25 mL) of DEAE-Toyopearl (TOSOH, Japan). The non-binding protein eluate, which contained NADK activity, was collected and brought to 3.5 M NaCl. The sample was clarified by centrifugation at 15,000xg for 10 minutes and applied (3 ml/min) to a column (10 ml) of Butyl-Toyopearl (TOSOH, Japan). The column was washed with buffer C (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, 3.5 M NaCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, and 1 mM DTT) until the A_{280} decreased to the baseline. The adsorbed proteins were eluted with a linear gradient (150 mL) of 0% to 100% buffer D (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, 30% [v/v] ethanediol, 100 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, and 1 mM DTT). NADK activity was eluted as a single peak of activity at approximately 95% buffer D. Fractions (7 mL) were collected and those containing greater than 20% peak NADK activity were pooled, dialyzed and frozen in liquid nitrogen. NADK activity was assayed as described above.

2.9 ³⁵S-recombinant CaM binding assay

³⁵S-Labeled recombinant CaM was prepared using a rice *Cam (OsCam1-1)* cloned into the pET21a(+) expression vector. Samples of NAD kinase proteins were separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and electrotransferred onto nitrocellulose membrane (whatman, USA). Following the transfer, the membrane was blocked by immersing in blocking solution (3% (w/v)

skim milk in 1X TBS-Tween-20 [20 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 0.05% (v/v) Tween-20], 5 mM CaCl₂) at room temperature for 2 hours with gentle shaking. The membrane was then washed in 1X TBS, 5 mM CaCl₂ once and incubated with probe solution (1X TBS-Tween-20, 5 mM CaCl₂, 1% (w/v) gelatin, 200 nM ³⁵S-labeled recombinant OsCaM1) for 2 hours. The membrane was washed twice with 1X TBS, 5 mM CaCl₂ and let dry at room temperature overnight. Then, the membrane was exposed to an X-ray film for 3 days to 1 week.

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CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1 NAD kinase sequence analysis

Database searches for NAD kinase (NADK) genes identified two putative NADKs in the rice (Oryza sativa L.) genome. We have named these genes OsNADK1 and OsNADK2. The primary structures of OsNADK1 and OsNADK2 proteins were compared with those of NADK1 and NADK2 from Arabidopsis. Based on pairwise alignments, OsNADK1 and OsNADK2 share 65% and 56% amino acid identities, respectively with their Arabidopsis counterparts. Multiple sequence alignment of all proteins was performed and the result excluding the diverged N-terminal regions is shown in Figure 3.1. Within these conserved C-terminal regions, two highly conserved and functionally important motifs, which have been identified within the NAD kinase family: a GGDG motif (XXX-XXGGDG-XL) and a Gly-rich motif (DGXXX-TPTGSTAY), where X represents a hydrophobic residue, are largely conserved in both OsNADK1 and OsNADK2. The GGDG motif is well conserved in four kinase families including NAD kinases, sphingosine kinases, eukaryotic diacylglycerol kinases, and phosphofructokinase. In the N-terminal extension of OsNADK2, a CaM-binding domain was predicted by comparison with NADK2 from Arabidopsis, which is conserved among putative homologs in other plants (Figure 3.2).

AtNADK2	MFLVRTDGVSCTREKVTESSLAFTHPSTQQQMLLWKTTPKTVLLLKKLG-QELMEEAKEA 697
OsNADK2	MFLVRTDGFSCTREKVTESSLAFTHPSTQQQMLMWKSPPKTVLLLKKLG-DELMEEAKEV 694
AtNADK1	VSFERGNISTAERSSKQISLTWESDPQTVLIITKPNSTSVRVLSVDM 234
OsNADK1	USEFVCD
	GGDG motif
AtNADK2	ASFLYHQENMNVLVEPEVHDVFARIPG-FGFVQTFY-IQDTSDLHERVDFVACIGGDGVI 755
OsNADK2	ASFLHHQEKMNVLVEPDVHDIFARIPG-YGFVOTFY-TODTSDLHERVDFVACIGGDGVI 752
ATNADK1	VRWLRTOKGLNIYVEPRVKEELLSESSSFNFVOTWEDDKEISLLHTKVDLLITIGGDGTV 294
OsNADK1	VRWLKEHKKINVVVEPRVSKELLTEDSYYNFIQTWDDDEEKKMLHTKVDLIVTIGGDGTV 300
	a an an ana nin na a a an anna an anna anna an an an a
AtNADK2	LHASNLFKGAVPPVVSFNLGSLGFLTSHPFEDFRQDLKRVIHGNNTLDGVYITLRMRLRC 815
OSNADK2	LHASNLFRTSVPPVVSFNLGSLGFLTSHNFEGFRQDLRAVIHGNNTLG-VYITLRMRVRC 811
ACNADK1	LWAASMFKGPVPPIVPFSMGSLGFMTPFHSEQYRDCLEAILKGPISITLRHRLQC 349
OsNADK1	LWAASLFKGPVPPVVAFSLGSLGFMTPFPSEQYRDCLDNVLNGPFSITLRNRLQC 355
	* *:.:*: .***:*.* * :*: * :::* . *:*: * Gly-rich motif
AtNADK2	EIYRKGKAMPGKVFDVLNEIVVDRGSNPYLSKIECYEHDRLITKVQGDGVIVATPTG 872
OsNADK2	EIFRNGKAMPGKVFDVLNEVVVDRGSNPYLSKIECYEHNHLITKVQGDGVIVATFTG 868
ATNADK1	HIIRDKATHEYEPEETMLVLNEVTIDRGISSYLTNLECYCDNSFVTCVQCDGLILSTTSG 409
OsNADK1	HVIRDAAKDELETEEPILVLNEVTIDRGISSYLTYLECYCDSSFVTCVQCDGLIISTTSG 415
AtNADK2	STAYSTAAGGSMVHPNVPCMLFTPICPHSLSFRPVILPDSAKLELKIPDDARSNAWVSFD 932
OSNADK2	STAYBTAAGGSMVHPNVPCMLFTPICPHSLSFRPVILPDSARLELKIPDDARSNAWVSFD 928
AtNADK1	STAYBLAAGGSMVHPQVPGILFTPICPHSLSFRPLILPEHVTVRVQVPFNSRSSAWVSFD 469
OsNADK1	STAYBLAAGGSMVHPQVPGILFTPICPHSLSFRPLILPEYVTLRVQVPHNSRGQAWASFD 475
	****** ********************************
AtNADK2	GKRRQQLSRGDSVRIYMSQHPLPTVNKSDQTGDWFRSLIRCLNWNERLDQKAL 985
OSNADK2	GKRRQQLSRGDSVQISMSQHPLPTVNKSDQTGDWFRSLIRCLNWNERLDQKALVDK 984
AtNADK1	GKDRKQLEAGDALVCSMAPWPVSTACQVESTNDFLRSIHDGLHWNLRKTQSADGP 524
OsNADK1	GKDRKLLSPGDALICSISPWPVPTACLVDSTTDFLRSIHEGLHWNLRKSQSFDGPRDVDK 535
	** *1 *. **11 11 *1.*. 1.* *11**1 *1** * *.

Figure 3.1 Sequence comparison of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) NADK1 (OsNADK1) and NADK2 (OsNADK2) with NADK1 (AtNADK1) and NADK2 (AtNADK2) from Arabidopsis. The GGDG motifs and the Gly-rich motifs are shown in red box and green box, respectively; identical residues on the same column are indicated by an asterisk (*); conserved substitutions sequences are indicated by a colon (:), semiconserved sequences are indicated by a dot (.); and a gap introduced for alignment purposes is indicated by a dash (-).

CSNADK2	-MLAVCARHOFAKLFFFFFFFLAGERAAAWVVGRWWWRPAAAGRRGVVAA	48
AtNACK2	MFLCFCPCHVPIMSRLSFAIGISSRLRFSIGLSSDGRLIPFGFRFRRNDVPFKRRLRFVI	60
	1**. * 11*.* 1 * 1 1 *1 **	
CallADK2	RASFFSSRIGLESQNYHIRDLSQLLWVGFVFGDIAEIEAYCRIFRAAEQLHIAVMSA	105
AtHADK2	RAQLSEAFSFDLGLDSQAVKSRDISNLFWIGFVFGDIAEVEAYCRIFRSAERLHGAIMET	120
	.1 **. 1*** 11** *1* *1************	
OsNADK2	LCDPEIGECFVRYDVQIEDLPVLEDKVAAVLGCMLALLNRGRKEVLSGRSGVASAFQGSE :	165
AtNADK2	LCNFVTGECRVFYDFSFEEKPLLEDKIVSVLGCILSLLNKGRKEILSGRSSSMNSFNLDD	180
	**** **** * ***: *!****!!!!****!****!	
CaNADK2	D-SIMDKIPPLALFRGDLKRCCESMQVALASYLVPSEARGLDIWRKLQRLKNACYDAGFP	224
AtNADK2	VGVAEESLPPLAVFRGEMKRCCESLHIALENYLIPDDERSGIVWRKLQKLKNVCYDAGFP	240
	1 1.1	
CeNADK2	RADGHPCFILFANWFFVYFSTVFDDSLSDELEVAFWRGGQVSEEGLEWLLLKGFKTIVDL 2	284
AtNADK2	RSDNYFCQTLFANNDFIYSSNIKEDIDSYESEIAFWRGGQVIQEGLKWLIENGFKIIVDL	300
	1'1** ****** *1* *'' 1* * * *1********	
CBNADK2	REEDVKDDLYLSAIHEAVSLGKIEV/ALFVEIGTAPSAEQVQRFAEIVSDSAKKPIYLHS	
AtHADK2	RAEIVKDIFYQIALDDAISLGKIIVVQIFIDVRMAFKAEQVELFASIVSDSSKRPIYVHS :	360
	* * *** 1* 1*1*1*1***** **11*111 **.***** **.********	
Canadk2	QEGISRTSAMVSRWKQYVTRAERLATQNRSLNGNGKHVRNDQTEQLINSPGFSSEGSENG	404
AtNADK2	KEGVWRISAMVSRWKQYMIREITHEIEVSEESKRREVSEIKLGSNAVVSGKG (412
	1**1 *********************************	

Figure 3.2 Sequence comparison of the N-terminal region containing a predicted CaM-binding domain from OsNADK2 and AtNADK2. The solid line indicates positions of the putative CaM-binding domains; identical residues on the same column are indicated by an asterisk (*); conserved substitutions sequences are indicated by a colon (:), semi-conserved sequences are indicated by a dot (.); and a gap introduced for alignment purposes is indicated by a dash (-).

3.2 Molecular cloning of the NAD kinase genes

The complete coding region for NADK1 and NADK2 was amplified by PCR using their respective full-length cDNA clone as a template and a pair of oligonucleotide primers designed by the SECentral program. For NADKI, the of the forward primer, designated as sequence NADK1-F was 5'-GCCCATATGTCGCTCGACGAGCTTCCGCAC -3', which contains an NdeI restriction site (in bold letters) at its 5' end. The sequence of the reverse primer, designated as NADK1-R was 5'- CTGGTCGACATCACGCGGGCCGTCGAATGA -3', which contains a Sall restriction site (in bold letters) at its 5' end. For NADK2, the sequence of the forward primer, designated as NADK2-F was 5'-TGCCATATGCTCGCCGTCTGCGCG CGGCAC -3', which contains an Ndel restriction site (in bold letters) at its 5' end. The sequence of the reverse primer, designated as NADK2-R was 5'- TAAGTCGACTAATGCCT TCTGGTCCAGTCG -3', which contains a Sall restriction site (in bold letters) at its 5' end. After PCR amplification, PCR products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized by ethidium bromide staining (Figure 3.3).

The *NADK1* and *NADK2* fragments were purified from agarose gel using the Geneaid gel extraction kit. The purified *NADK1 and NADK2* fragments were then ligated into pTZ57R/T vector. After the competent *E. coli* strain XL1Blue cells were transformed with the ligation mixtures, the transformants were selected by blue/white colony screening on ampicillin agar plates containing X-gal and IPTG. White colonies were randomly picked and cultured in LB broth containing 100 µg/ml of ampicillin at 37 °C overnight and the cultures were subjected to plasmid extraction. To confirm insertion of the PCR product into the vector by restriction

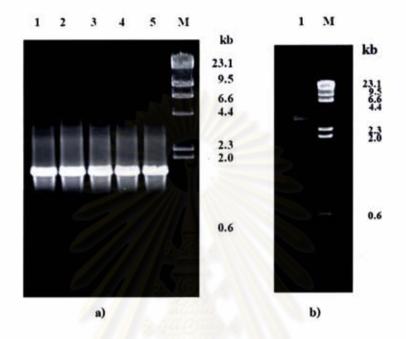


Figure 3.3 Ethidium-bromide stained 1% agarose gels of the PCR products amplified from the *NADK1* and *NADK2* cDNAs. a) Lane 1-5 *NADK1* fragments from varying annealing temperatures between 69-72 °C and b) *NADK2* fragment from the annealing temperature of 60 °C. Lanes M: λ /*Hin*dIII marker.

พูนยาทยทวพยากว จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย analysis, potential recombinant plasmids were digested with *NdeI* and *Sal*I for *NADK1* and *NdeI*, *Sal*I and *VspI* for *NADK2*, and incubated at 37 °C overnight. These reactions were then analyzed by 1.0% agarose gel electrophoresis. The results in Figure 3.4 showed that DNA fragments of approximately 1.6 and 3.0 kb for *NADK1* and *NADK2*, respectively, were obtained. The length of these gene fragments was as expected.

3.3 Expression of the recombinant NADK1 and NADK2

The *NADK1* and *NADK2* were inserted into pET21a(+) at the 5'-*Nde*I and 3'-*Sal*I sites in frame with the C-terminal His6 tag. The resulting recombinant plasmids, which were named pET21a/*NADK1* and pET21a/*NADK2*, were checked for insertion by digesting them with *Nde*I and *Sal*I from which the results were obtained as shown in Figures 3.5 and 3.6, respectively. All of the subcloned fragments were verified by DNA sequencing. The recombinant proteins were then expressed in an *Escherichia coli* system strain Rosetta (DE3) pLysS and Rosetta-gami for *NADK1* and *NADK2*, respectively.

Based upon the cDNA and sequencing data, the amino acid sequences for both recombinant NADK1 and NADK2 were deduced as presented in Figure 3.7 and 3.8, respectively. The recombinant genes were predicted to encode the recombinant proteins of 547 residues and 996 residues corresponding to molecular masses of approximately 60.6 kD and 110.3 kD for NADK1 and NADK2, respectively.

To produce the recombinant proteins, a single colony containing pET21a/NADK1 and pET21a/NADK2 was cultured in LB medium containing 100 mg/ml ampicillin at 37 °C until the OD600 reached 0.6. Isopropyl-b-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG) was added to the final concentration of 0, 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 mM

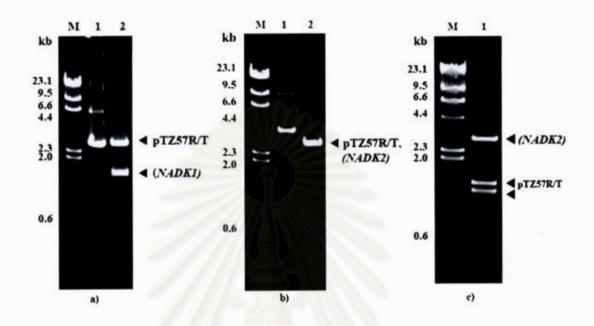
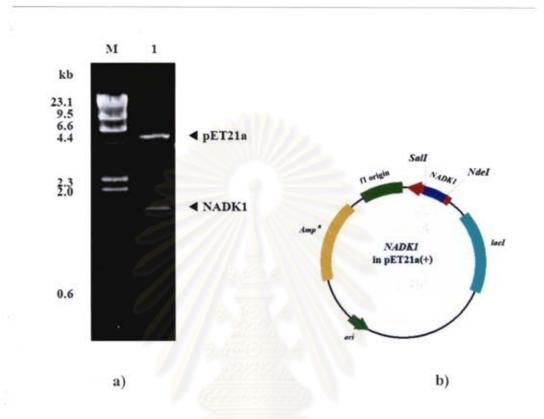
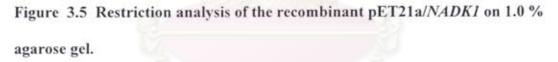


Figure 3.4 Analyses of the recombinant plasmid pTZ57R/T with *NADK1* or *NADK2* inserted by digesting with restriction enzymes followed by separation by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. a) and b) Lane 1: pTZ57R/T with fragments of *NADK1* and *NADK2* inserted, respectively without digestion and lane 2: the respective plasmids digested with *Nde1* and *Sal1*. The digested *NADK2* clone generated a single band, which consisted of both pTZ57R/T and *NADK2* fragments; and c) pTZ57R/T with the inserted *NADK2* digested with *Nde1*, *Sal1* and *Vspl*. Two bands under the *NADK2* band were the digested fragments of pTZ57R/T. Lane M: $\lambda/HindIII$ marker.





a) Lane M: λ*Hin*dIII marker

Lane 1: pET21a/NADK1 digested with NdeI and SalI

b) Schematic diagram of the recombinant pET21a(+) containing NADK1

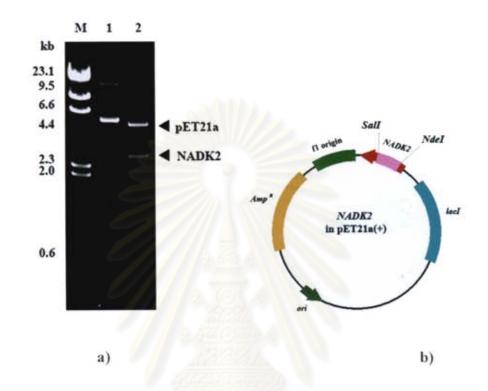


Figure 3.6 Restriction analysis of the recombinant pET21a/NADK2 on 1.0 % agarose gel.

a) Lane M: λHindIII marker

Lane 1: pET21a/NADK2 without digestion

Lane 2: pET21a/NADK2 digested with Ndel and SalI

b) Schematic diagram of the recombinant pET21a(+) containing NADK2

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ſ	S	Н	Ε	S	Ε	I	G	S	G	S	I	S	Т	V	S	S	Т	v	S	4 (
C	AGT	AGA	ATC	AGA	GAA	AGC	AGC	TTA	TGA	ATT	CCT	TGC	TCA	AAC	TCC	TAT	CAA	GTC	AACC	11
5	V	Е	S	E	К	Α	A	Y	E	F	L	A	Q	Т	P	I	К	S	Т	61
ΞA	TGC	ACA	CCT	TGT	TGA	GTI	TTC	AGA	AGC	TAT	GAG	AAC	TGT	TGC	AAA	AGC	ATT	GCG	ACGA	2
)	A	Н	L	V	Е	F	S	E	A	М	R	Т	V	A	K	A	L	R	R	8
т	TGC	AGA	AGG	GAA	AGC	TGC	TGC	TCA	AGC	TGA	GGC	GGA	AGA	GTG	GAG	GCG	TAA	ATA	TGAA	30
t	A	Е	G	K	A	A	A	Q	A	E	A	E	E	W	R	R	К	Y	E	10
Т	AGA	GAT	GGC	ACA	CAA	ACA	GCA	GAG	AAA	AAT	CAA	AGG	CTA	TGG	CAG	TTG	TGC	CAA	TAAT	3
Q	Е	М	A	H	K	Q	2	R	K	I	K	G	Y	G	S	С	Α	N	N	1
A	АТТ	AGA	AAA	GTT	GGC	CAG	CCA	ACT	AAC	ACT	GGA	GAC	GCC	TGC	ATC	TGA	TCA	AGC	GGGA	4
	L	Е	K	L	A	S	Q	L	Т	L	E	Т	P	A	S	D	Q	A	G	1
G	TTG	TGG	AAA	TCA	TGG	TAT	ATG	TTC	ACA	TGA	GGT	TCT	TCA	GGA	TGA	AAG	TCC	TGG	TCCT	4
	С	G	N	Н	G	I	С	S	H	E	V	L	Q	D	Е	S	Ρ	G	P	1
A	ccc	CCG	ATC	TAG	TCA	CAA	GCT	GGT	GAG	TAG	AAA	GGC	ATC	ATT	TAG	ACT	TTC	ATG	GGGA	5
	Ρ	R	S	S	H	K	L	۷	S	R	K	A	S	F	R	L	S	W	G	1
G	CAA	TGG	GGA	TAA	AAA	CGG	CCA	GCA	CAA	GCA	TGA	TTT	TGT	ATC	ATT	TGA	AAA	GGG	AGAT	б
	Ν	G	D	К	N	G	Q	Н	K	H	D	F	v	S	F	Ε	K	G	D	2
Т	AAC	AAC	AGC	AGA	GCG	CAG	CAA	CAA	GCA	GAT	TTT	GCT	GAA	ATG	GGA	ATC	CTC	GCC	ACAA	6
	Т	Т	A	E	R	S	Ν	K	Q	I	L	L	К	W	Е	S	S	P	Q	2
С	TGT	TCT	TTT	CAT	AAC	CAA	ACC	TAA	TTC	TAA	CTC	CGT	GCA	TGT	TCT	TTG	TGC	TGA	AATG	7
	V	L	F	I	Т	K	P	N	S	N	S	v	H	V	L	С	A	Е	М	2
Т	CAG	ATG	GCT	TAA	GGA	ACA	TAA		GAT	AAA	TGT	TGT	TGT	AGA	GCC	ACG	TGT	TAG	CAAG	7
	R	W	L	К	Е	Н	к	К	I	N	v	V	v	Е	Ρ	R	v	S	К	2
A	ACT	CTT	AAC	AGA	AGA	TTC	CTA	CTA	CAA	TTT	CAT	CCA	AAC	ATG	GGA	TGA	TGA	TGA	GGAG	8
																		Е		2
	AAA	GAT	GTT	GCA	CAC	AAA	GGT	TGA	TCT	CAT	TGT	AAC	TCT	TGG	TGG	TGA	TGG	GAC	TGTT	9
A	К	М	L	Н	Т	K	V	D	L	Ι	V	Т	L	G	G	D	G	Т	V	3
		GGC	TGC	GTC	TTT	GTT	CAA	AGG	GCC	AGT	TCC	TCC	GGT	TGT	TGC	TTT	CTC	CCT	AGGA	9
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Figure 3.7 Nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of NADK1 gene in the recombinant plasmid. The underlined amino acid sequence is a His₆ tag and the stop codon is marked with an asterisk (*).

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	G	S	L	Y	v	E	R	E	R	S	D	Н	V	D	G	N	М	С	A	620
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Figure 3.8 Nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of NADK2 gene in the recombinant plasmid. The underlined amino acid sequence is a His₆ tag and the stop codon is marked with an asterisk (*).

for the recombinant NADK1 and 0, 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 mM for the recombinant NADK2 to induce the expression. The cells were harvested at 2 hours after IPTG induction and then analyzed by 18% SDS-PAGE.

For NADK1, the SDS-PAGE results showed that the recombinant protein expression could not be detected in the soluble protein fraction (Figure 3.9) but was detected in the inclusion bodies (Figure 3.10) after 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 mM IPTG induction. For NADK2, no over- expressing band was detected in either soluble protein fraction (Figure 3.9) or inclusion bodies (Figure 3.10) after induction by varying concentrations of IPTG.

3.4 NAD kinase assay of the recombinant NADK1 and NADK2

3.4.1 Measurement of NAD Kinase Activity

NAD kinase activity in cell lysates was measured by a two-step procedure described previously with minor modifications. First, 15 μ l of cell lysate was added to a 150- μ l reaction mixture containing 50 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.9), 4 mM ATP, 4 mM NAD⁺, 6 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM CaCl₂ followed by incubation for 30 minutes at room temperature. The reaction was stopped by boiling for 5 minutes followed by centrifugation to remove the denatured protein. The amount of NADP⁺ produced was then determined, using a cycling assay, by transferring the mixture into 200 μ l of 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 17.7 mM Glc-6P, 1 mM EGTA, 0.1 units of yeast Glc-6-P dehydrogenase, 1 mg/ml 2,6-dichlorophenolindophenol (DCIP), and 1 mg/ml methylphenazinium methylsulfate (PMS). Reduction of DCIP was monitored at 600 nm. In the inclusion bodies from *E. coli* expressing NADK2, after the proteins were solubilized in 8M urea and refolded by 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 0.1 mM DTT and 0.2 mM EDTA, no NAD kinase activity was detected. On the contrary, NAD kinase

activity was found in the soluble proteins from both *E. coli* Rosetta (DE3) pLysS harboring *NADK1* and *E. coli* Rosetta-gami harboring *NADK2*. NAD kinase specific activity of the crude proteins extracted from *E. coli* expressing NADK1 was highest when the culture was not induced by IPTG and decreased when induced with higher concentrations of IPTG (Figure 3.11). For NADK2, NAD kinase specific activity of the crude proteins extracted from *E. coli* expressing NADK2 was highest when the culture was induced by 0.6 mM of IPTG (Figure 3.12). From the results above, 0.1 mM IPTG for NADK1 and 0.6 mM IPTG for NADK2 were further used for inducing production of the recombinant proteins. because of 0 mM IPTG was no detected the NADK1 band

3.4.2 In-gel activity staining

The soluble proteins extracted from *E. coli* Rosetta (DE3) pLysS harboring *NADK1* and Rosetta-gami harboring *NADK2* were separated in native electrophoresis using 7% separating gel and 4% stacking gel. Electrophoresis was performed on 100 μ g of the crude extracts at 4 °C. NAD kinase activity was detected by incubating the gel at 37 °C in a 10 ml staining mixture containing 2.25 ml of nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT; 2 mM), 150 μ l of phenazine methosulfate (2.7 mM), 300 μ l of G6P (0.1 M), 25 μ l of G6PDH (0.5 units/ μ l), 500 μ l of ATP (60 mM), 300 μ l of MgCl₂ (100 mM), and 1.0 ml of Tris·HCl (1.0 M; pH 7.5) with or without 250 μ l of NAD⁺ (100 mM). As a result, the purple precipitate appeared in the crude extracts from *E. coli* cells harboring the recombinant plasmids only in the presence of NAD⁺, which marked the position of NAD kinase activity (Figure 3.13). The result shows that the crude protein extracts of both recombinant NADK1 and NADK2 appear to have activity of NAD kinase.

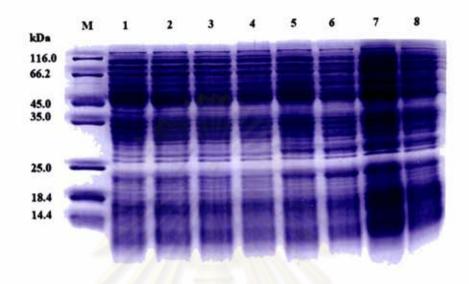


Figure 3.9 SDS-PAGE analysis of the soluble protein fractions from *E. coli* Rosetta (DE3) pLysS harboring pET21a/NADK1 and Rosetta-gami harboring pET21a/NADK2 after induction by various IPTG concentrations.

Lane M: protein marker (Fermentas)

Lane 1: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1 uninduced Lane 2: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1 induced by 0.1 mM IPTG Lane 3: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1 induced by 0.3 mM IPTG Lane 4: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1 induced by 0.5 mM IPTG Lane 5: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2 uninduced Lane 6: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2 uninduced Lane 7: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2 induced by 0.2 mM IPTG

Lane 8: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2 induced by 0.6 mM IPTG

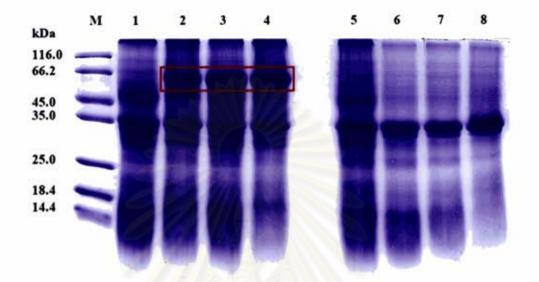


Figure 3.10 SDS-PAGE analysis of the inclusion bodies from *E. coli* Rosetta (DE3) pLysS harboring *NADK1* and Rosetta-gami harboring *NADK2* after induction by various IPTG concentrations. The red box shows bands of the recombinant NADK1 with the molecular mass of approximately 60.6 kD.

Lane M: protein marker (Fermentas)

Lane 1: inclusion bodies of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1 uninduced

Lane 2: inclusion bodies of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1 induced by 0.1 mM IPTG

Lane 3: inclusion bodies of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1 induced by 0.3 mM IPTG

Lane 4: inclusion bodies of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1 induced by 0.5 mM IPTG

Lane 5: inclusion bodies of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2 uninduced

Lane 6: inclusion bodies of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2 induced by 0.2 mM IPTG

Lane 7: inclusion bodies of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2 induced by 0.4 mM IPTG

Lane 8: inclusion bodies of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2 induced by 0.6 mM IPTG

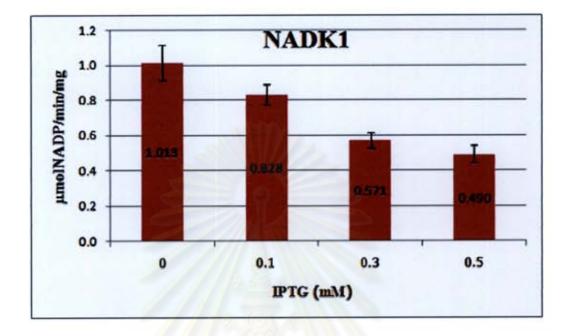


Figure 3.11 Induction of recombinant NADK1 at various IPTG concentrations. The recombinant vector pET21a/NADK1 was expressed in *E. coli* Rosetta (DE3) pLysS.

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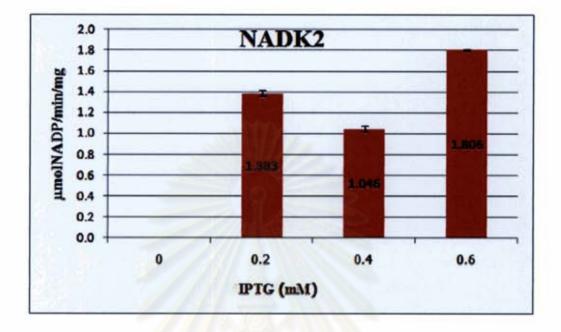


Figure 3.12 Induction of recombinant NADK2 at various IPTG concentrations.

The recombinant vector pET21a/NADK2 was expressed in E. coli Rosetta-gami.



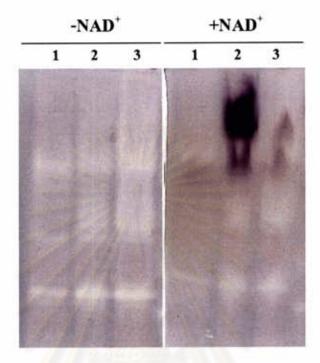


Figure 3.13 In-gel activity staining of soluble proteins extracted from *E. coli* Rosetta (DE3) pLysS harboring *NADK1* and Rosetta-gami harboring *NADK2*. NAD kinase activity was assayed by incubating the gel with (+NAD⁺) or without (-NAD⁺) the substrate NAD⁺.

Lanes 1: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a(+) (control)

Lanes 2: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK1

Lanes 3: soluble proteins of cells carrying pET21a/NADK2

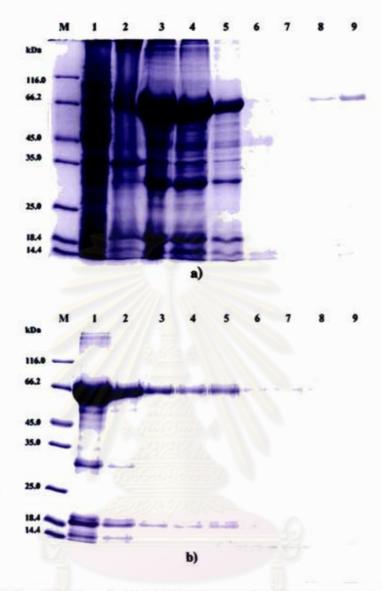
3.5 Purification and characterization of the recombinant NADK1 protein

Both recombinant proteins produced were expected to contain a His₆ tag, which consists of six consecutive histidine residues, at their carboxyl terminal end, therefore a Ni Sepharose was used to purify the proteins based on the principle that poly-His-fusion proteins bind to nickel ions. For the recombinant NADK1 protein, insoluble proteins from the inclusion bodies was dissolved with buffer containing 8 M urea and 25 mM imidazole and left overnight at room temperature with shaking. After centrifugation at 10,000xg, the supernatant was applied to the Ni Sepharose high performance column at room temperature. The flow through was collected by a gravity flow and the column was washed with the binding buffer containing with 25 mM imidazole to remove unbound proteins. After washing, the NADK1 was eluted with the elution buffer containing 200 mM imidazole. Proteins obtained from each step of purification were analyzed for the identity and purity by 18% SDS-PAGE (Figure 3.14).

Even though, no recombinant NADK1 protein was observed in the soluble protein fraction by SDS-PAGE, NAD kinase activity was detected in this fraction. Therefore, purification of the soluble NADK1 protein was attempted using a Ni Sepharose high performance column following the methods described above. All steps were performed at 4 °C. Proteins obtained from each step of purification were analyzed for the identity and purity on 18% SDS-PAGE (Figure 3.15).

To verify the presence of a His₆ tag within the recombinant NADK1 protein, western blot analysis using an anti-His6 tag antibody was conducted. After proteins of interest were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred from the gel to the PVDF membrane, detection of His6-tagged proteins was carried out with the Anti-His primary antibody (anti – His antibody: mouse anti – His Ab from mouse ascites fluid; product code 27-4710-01, Amersham Biosciences) with the dilution of 1:3000, followed by the secondary antibody, alkaline phosphatase (AP)-conjugated rabbit anti-mouse IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch) with the dilution of 1:2500. The result was visualized by assaying the alkaline phosphatase activity using NBT/BCIP (Figure 3.16).

Data describing the purification of the recombinant protein NADK1 from the soluble protein fraction were obtained as presented in Table 3.1. Overall, through the Ni Sepharose high performance column, a 23-purification fold was obtained. To examine the kinetic properties of the purified NADK1, the substrate saturation curves of NADK1 were generated and plotted as shown in Figure 3.17. Initial velocities of NADK1 were measured in the presence of a saturating concentration of one of the substrates, NAD⁺ or ATP, for varying concentrations of the other. Figure 3.17a shows the saturation curve for NAD⁺ generated in the presence of 4 mM ATP and 0.6 mM Mg²⁺ for different concentrations of NAD⁺ (0.2-6 mM). Figure 3.17b shows the saturation curve for ATP generated in the presence of 4 mM NAD⁺ for different concentrations of ATP (0.2-6 mM). Mg2+ concentration was adjusted to be 2 mM higher than each ATP concentration used to ensure that at least 90% of ATP existed as MgATP²⁻ (Delumeau, 1998) and free calcium concentration was reduced to 0.1 mM to limit CaATP2- formation. The Lineweaver-Burk plots or the inverted substrate saturation curves were constructed (Figure 3.18a, b). V_{max} is expressed in mol NADP⁺ formed h⁻¹ (mg protein)⁻¹. The calculated V_{max} (unit mg⁻¹protein) and K_m (mM) are 0.35 and 0.79 for NAD⁺ and 2.32 and 0.29 for ATP.





a) Lane M: protein marker (Fermentas)

Lane 1: insoluble proteins

Lane 2: insoluble proteins dissolved with 8 M urea

Lane 4-5: flow-through

Lane 6-7: fractions washed with buffer containing 8 M urea and 25 mM imidazole

Lane 8-9: fractions eluted with buffer containing 8 M urea and 50 mM imidazole

b) Lane M: protein marker (Fermentas)

Lane 1-3: fractions eluted with buffer containing 8 M urea and 200 mM imidazole Lane 4-9: fractions eluted with buffer containing 8 M urea and 500 mM imidazole

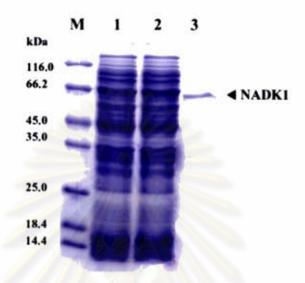


Figure 3.15 Purification of recombinant NADK1 from the soluble protein fraction.

Lane M: protein marker (Fermentas)

Lane 1: soluble proteins

Lane 2: flow-through

Lane 3: fraction eluted with 200 mM imidazole, in which a protein band with

the molecular weight of approximately 60.6 kD was obtained

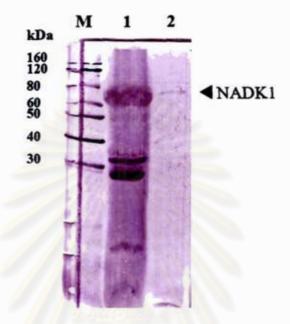


Figure 3.16 Western blot analysis of the recombinant protein from E. coli

Rosetta (DE3) pLysS harboring NADK1.

Lane M: Marker Benchmark His-tagged

Lane 1: inclusion bodies

Lane 2: NADK1 purified by Ni-Sepharose from the soluble protein

fraction

NADK1	Total volume (ml)	Protein content (mg/ml)	Total protein (mg)	Speccific Activity µmolNADPmin ⁻¹ mg ⁻¹	Total Activity µmolNADPmin ⁻¹	Purification fold
Crude	25	5.34	133.53	1.39	185.72	1
purified	5	0.08	0.38	31.33	11.84	22.53

Table 3.1 The purification table of the recombinant NADK1 by Ni-Sepharose column chromatography.



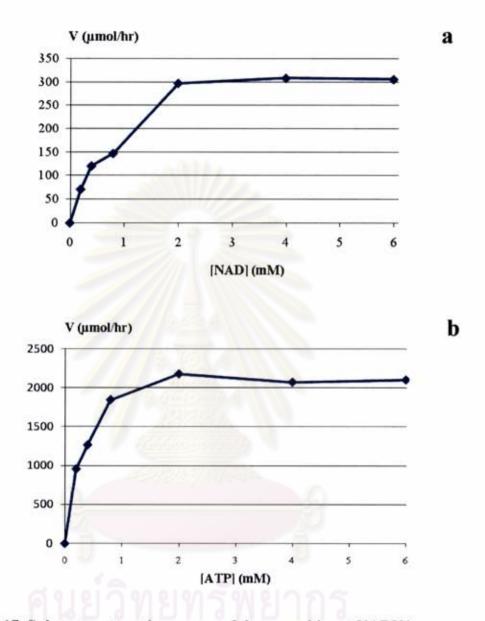


Figure 3.17 Substrate saturation curves of the recombinant NADK1.

- a) In the presence of saturating concentration of ATP (4 mM) for varying NAD⁺ concentrations (0.2, 0.4, 0.8, 2, 4 and 6 mM).
- b) In the presence of saturating concentration of NAD⁺ (4 mM) for varying ATP concentrations (0.2, 0.4, 0.8, 2, 4 and 6 mM).

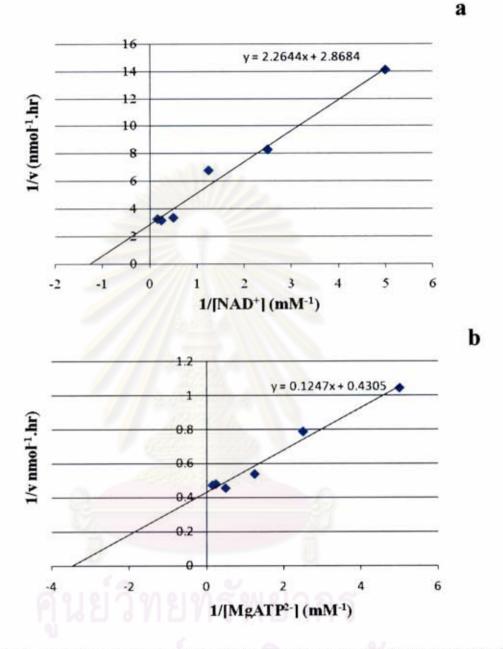


Figure 3.18 Lineweaver-Burg plots of NAD kinase. a) plot of 1/v against $1/NAD^+$ for different concentrations of ATP. b) plot of 1/v against $1/MgATP^{2-}$ for different concentrations of NAD⁺. Initial velocities are expressed in µmol of NADP⁺ formed h⁻¹ mg⁻¹.

3.6 NAD kinase activity of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) cultivar Khao Dok Ma Li 105 (KDML105).

3.6.1 Measurement of NAD kinase activity in rice under salt stress.

NAD kinase activity was assayed in the crude extracts from leaves of KDML105 rice seedlings grown under salt stress. After 1 week of germination, rice seedlings were transferred to 1X Limpinuntana's nutrient solution and grown for 2 weeks under a 16-hr light/8-hr dark photoperiod. Then, the 3-week old seedlings were treated with 150 mM NaCl in 1X Limpinuntana's nutrient solution for 0, 3, 6, 9, 12 or 24 hours. Figure 3.19 shows that, after 3 hours, NAD kinase activity remained the same as the control at 0 hr but a decrease was observed after 6 hours of salt stress treatment. The NAD kinase activity in the rice seedlings then continued to decline until after 24 hours of salt stress.

3.6.2 Partial purification of NAD kinase from rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) cultivar Khao Dok Ma Li 105 (KDML105).

Khao Dok Ma Li 105 (KDML105) rice seeds were germinated in NB medium. After 7 days, germinated seeds were transferred to 1X Limpinuntana's nutrient solution (Limpinuntana, 1978) and grown for 2 weeks under a 16-hr light/8-hr dark photoperiod. Leaves from the 3 week-old seedlings were collected and ground in liquid nitrogen using chilled mortars and pestles. The plant material was kept frozen, ground to a fine powder, and proteins were extracted according to the methods described above. Rice crude protein extract was then precipitated with 0-30%, 30-50% and 50-70% saturated ammonium sulfate. Proteins obtained from each step of purification were analyzed for the identity and purity on 18% SDS-PAGE compared with the recombinant NADK1

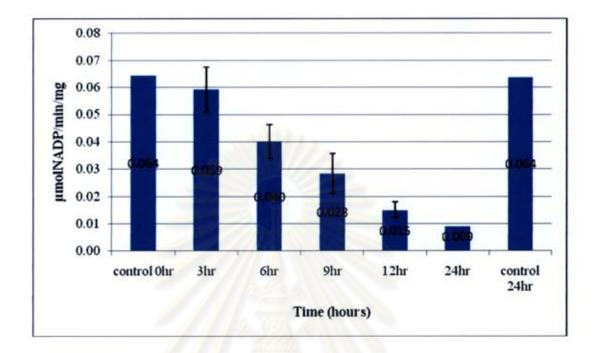


Figure 3.19 NAD kinase activity of the crude extracts from 3-week old KDML105 rice seedlings after salt stress. Controls were plants grown in 1X Limpinuntana's nutrient solution collected at the beginning (0 hr) and the end (24 hr) of the experiment.

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย and NADK2 proteins (Figure 3.20, 3.21). For the rice protein extract, proteins precipitated with 0-30% saturated ammonium sulfate had the highest NAD kinase activity (Figure 3.22), which is similar to the recombinant protein NADK2 (Figure 3.24). In contrast, the recombinant NADK1 had the highest NAD kinase activity when precipitated with 30-50% saturated ammonium sulfate (Figure 3.23). The samples with the highest specific activity would be used to assay regulation of NAD kinase by calmodulin from rice as described below.

To achieve better purification, crude protein extract was dialyzed and applied to a column (25 ml) of DEAE-Toyopearl (TOSOH, Japan). The non-binding protein eluate, which contained NADK activity, was collected and brought to 3.5 M NaCl. The sample was then applied (3 ml/min) to a column (10 ml) of Butyl-Toyopearl (TOSOH, Japan). The column was washed and eluted with a linear gradient (150 mL) of 0% to 100% buffer D (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, 30% [v/v] ethanediol, 100 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, and 1 mM DTT). NADK activity was eluted as a single peak of activity at approximately 95% buffer D. Fractions (7 ml) were collected and those containing greater than 20% peak NADK activity were pooled, dialyzed in buffer contained 50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, and 1 mM DTT. Proteins obtained from each step of purification were analyzed for the identity and purity on 18% SDS-PAGE (Figure 3.25). Data describing the partial purification of NAD kinase from the 3-week old rice seedlings were obtained as shown in Table 3.2. Overall, DEAE-Toyopearl and Butyl-Toyopearl column chromatography gave a purification fold of 11.76.

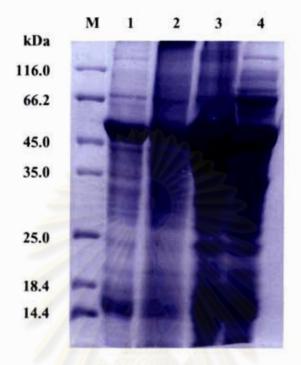


Figure 3.20 SDS-PAGE analysis of the rice protein crude extract precipitated

with saturated ammonium sulfate.

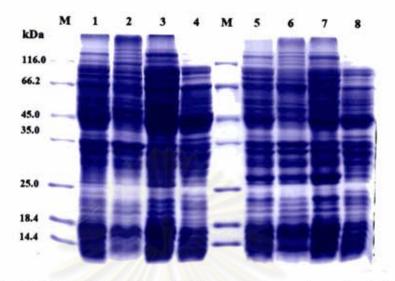
Lane M: protein marker (Fermentas)

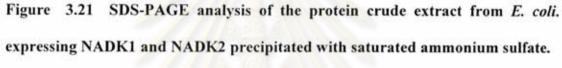
Lane 1: crude extract

Lane 2: crude extract precipitated with 0-30% saturated ammonium sulfate

Lane 3: crude extract precipitated with 30-50% saturated ammonium sulfate

Lane 4: crude extract precipitated with 50-70% saturated ammonium sulfate





Lanes M: protein marker (Fermentas)

Lane 1: crude extract from E. coli expressing NADK1

- Lane 2: crude extract from *E. coli* expressing NADK1 precipitated with 0-30% saturated ammonium sulfate
- Lane 3: crude extract from *E. coli* expressing NADK1 precipitated with 30-50% saturated ammonium sulfate
- Lane 4: crude extract from *E. coli* expressing NADK1 precipitated with 50-70% saturated ammonium sulfate

Lane 5: crude extract from E. coli expressing NADK2

- Lane 6: crude extract from *E. coli* expressing NADK2 precipitated with 0-30% saturated ammonium sulfate
- Lane 7: crude extract from *E. coli* expressing NADK2 precipitated with 30-50% saturated ammonium sulfate
- Lane 8: crude extract from *E. coli* expressing NADK2 precipitated with 50-70% saturated ammonium sulfate

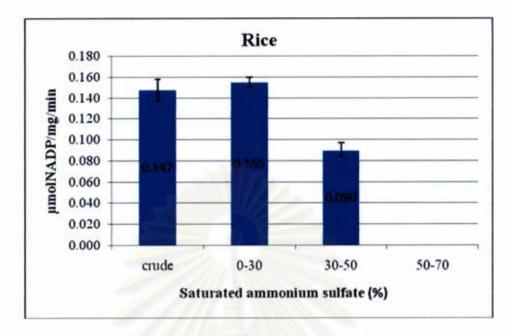


Figure 3.22 NAD kinase specific activity of rice extracts precipitated in various concentrations of saturated ammonium sulfate.

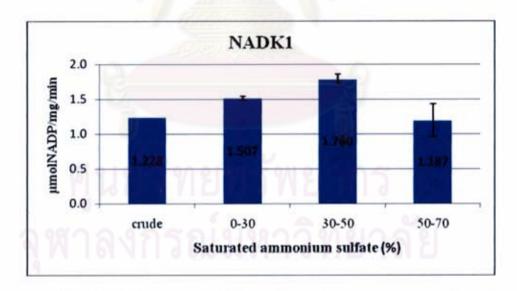
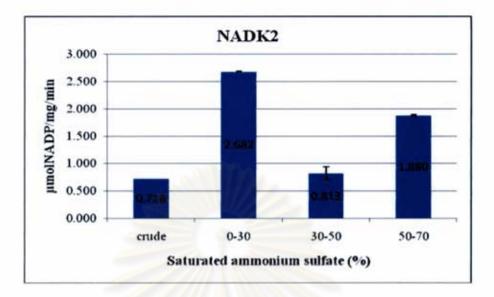
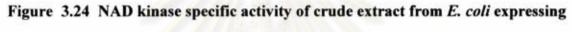


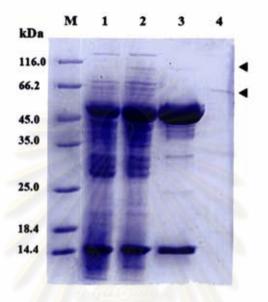
Figure 3.23 NAD kinase specific activity of crude extracts from *E. coli* expressing NADK1 precipitated in various concentrations of saturated ammonium sulfate.

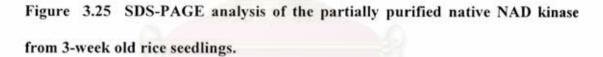




NADK2 in various concentrations of saturated ammonium sulfate.







Lane M: protein marker (Fermentas)

Lane 1: crude extract of rice

Lane 2: unbound fraction from DEAE-Toyopearl

Lane 3: eluted fraction from Butyl- Toyopearl

Lane 4: purified recombinant NADK1

Sample	Total volume (ml)	Protein content (mg/ml)	Total protein (mg)	Specific Activity µmolNADP/min/mg	Total Activity μmolNADP/min	Purification fold
crude extract	15	1.77	26.55	0.06	1.72	1
DEAEunbound	4.5	0.057	0.258	0.416	0.107	6.93
Butyl-Toyopearl	2.5	0.045	0.113	0.700	0.079	11.67

Table 3.2 The purification table of native NADK from 3-week old rice seedlings.



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3.7 Regulation by calmodulin

3.7.1 Effect of CaM on NAD kinase activity

Protein production in E. coli strain BL21 harboring the OsCam1-1 in pET21a(+) was induced with 0.1 mM IPTG for 3 hours. Proteins were extracted and applied to a Phenyl-Sepharose column followed by washing and eluting the column as described above. The proteins in each step during the purification were analyzed by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (Figure 3.26). The fractions containing OsCaM1-1 protein were pooled and dialyzed against sufficient EGTA to remove calcium ions. All proteins were concentrated using Centrifugal Filters (10000 Daltons molecular weight cut-off) (Amicon) before protein concentration was determined by Bradford solution. The effect of OsCaM1-1 on NAD kinases was examined by measuring their activity as described earlier. The results are shown in Figures 3.27, 3.28 and 3.29 for the purified recombinant NADK1, the 0-30% saturated ammonium sulfate precipitate from E. coli expressing NADK2 and the rice crude extract. For both recombinant proteins, the presence of OsCaM1-1 did not cause the activation of NAD kinase. On the contrary, NAD kinase activity tended to decrease when the Ca2+ concentration was increased, especially in NADK2. For the rice crude extract, Ca2+ also negatively affected the activity of NAD kinase. However, OsCaM1-1 appeared to reduce the effect of Ca2+ in all concentrations.

3.7.2 ³⁵S-recombinant CaM binding assay

To determine whether NADK1 and NADK2 were target proteins of a calmodulin, calmodulin-binding assay using ³⁵S-labeled recombinant calmodulin as a probe was performed. ³⁵S-Labeled recombinant CaM was prepared using the rice *Cam*

(*OsCam1-1*) cloned into the pET21a(+) expression vector. Samples of NAD kinase (recombinant NADK1, recombinant NADK2 and rice protein extract) were separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and electro-transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane (whatman, USA). Following the transfer, the membrane was blocked and incubated with the probe solution containing 200 nM ³⁵S-labeled recombinant OsCaM1-1 protein for 2 hours. The membrane was washed and exposed to an X-ray film for 1 week. Figure 3.30 shows that while no signal was detected in the recombinant NADK1 and in any protein fractions from rice *Oryza sativa* L., OsCaM1-1 specifically detected the recombinant protein NADK2, which appeared as two major bands. However, none is the expected size of NADK2 (approximately 110 kDa).

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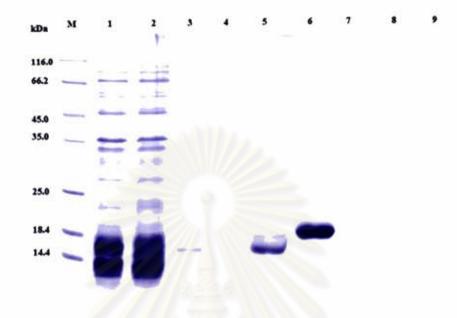


Figure 3.26 SDS-PAGE analysis of the purification of recombinant OsCaM1-1

protein by Phenyl-Sepharose.

Lane M: marker protein

Lane 1: crude protein

Lane 2: flow through

Lane 3-4: washed fraction with buffer containing 1 mM CaCl2 and 200 mM NaCl

Lane 5-9: eluted fraction with buffer containing 5 mM EGTA

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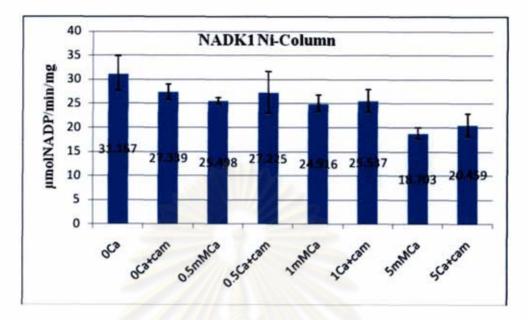


Figure 3.27 NAD kinase specific activity of the purified recombinant NADK1 in the presence of various calcium concentrations and 300 nM OsCaM1-1.

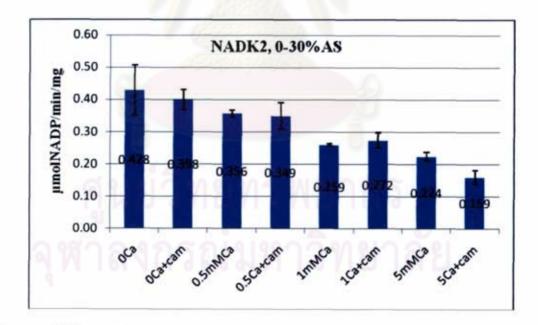


Figure 3.28 NAD kinase specific activity of the 0-30% saturated ammonium sulfate precipitate from *E. coli* expressing NADK2 in the presence of various calcium concentrations and 300 nM OsCaM1-1.

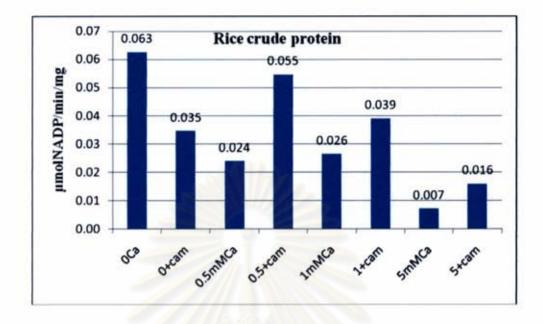
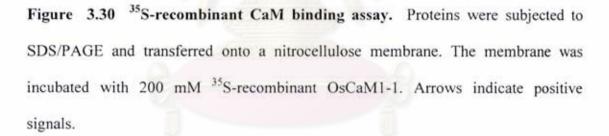


Figure 3.29 NAD kinase specific activity of the rice protein crude extract in the presence of various calcium concentrations and 300 nM OsCaM1-1.







Lane M: protein marker (Fermentus)

Lane 1: rice crude protein extract

Lane 2: unbound DEAE-Toyopearl fraction of rice crude protein

Lane 3, 5, 6: eluted fraction of Butyl-Toyopearl of rice crude protein

Lane 4: 0-30% saturated ammonium precipitate of rice crude protein

Lane 7: purified recombinant NADK1 protein

Lane 8: insoluble protein fraction from E. coli expressing NADK1

Lane 9: soluble protein fraction from E. coli expressing NADK2

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

4.1 Amino acid sequences of NAD kinase from rice Oryza sativa L.

We have identified, cloned, and characterized cDNAs encoding two distinct NADK isoforms, denoted NADK1 (OsNADK1) and NADK2 (OsNADK2) (Figure 3.1). The sequence similarity between the predicted proteins for *NADK1* and *NADK2* is restricted to the C-terminal region. The motifs, XXX-XXGGDG-XL and GDXXX-TPTGSTAY, where X represents a hydrophobic residue, have been reported in NADKs (Turner *et al.*, 2004 and Liu *et al.*, 2005). Both motifs were found to be conserved in both OsNADK1 and OsNADK2. The conserved GGDG motif of NADKs has been suggested to be catalytically important and to be involved in nucleotide binding (Shirakihara, *et al.*, 1988) or in phosphate transfer (Pignot, *et al.*, 2000).

The recombinant protein encoded by *NADK1*, with a predicted mass of roughly 60 kD, is similar to the size predicted for an Arabidopsis NADK (Turner *et al.*,2004) and a tomato CaM-independent NADK (Delumeau *et al.*,2000). We found no evidence of CaM binding to NADK1 or effect of CaM on its activity suggesting that OsNADK1 is also a CaM-independent NADK. CaM-independent NADKs have been described in a number of higher plant species including pea, spinach, oat and tomato (Simon *et al.*,1982, 1984; Gallais *et al.*,2001; Delumeau *et al.*,1998). Sequence analysis (sequence homology searches) of NADK2, which has 996 residues and a predicted molecular mass of about 110.3 kD, revealed the long N-terminal extension that shares a strong sequence similarity (about 60% identity) to AtNADK2 from Arabidopsis (Figure 3.2). This region was reported to contain a CaM-binding

domain, of which the presence appears to be unique to plant NADKs. Widespread distribution of putative NADK2 homologues in other higher plants (e.g. arabidopsis, canola, soybean, lettuce, sorghum, wheat, and others) has been reported.

A number of different physiological roles have been proposed for NADKs in plants. Having multiple, differentially regulated NADKs may afford additional metabolic flexibility in coordinating cellular NAD to NADP ratios. An important consideration, however, and one which merits additional research, is the subcellular localization of NADK isoforms in plants given the importance of NADP in different organelles. There has been substantial debate as to where CaM-dependent and independent isoforms are localized within plant cells, and the issue remains unresolved. CaM-dependent NADK activity has been observed in mitochondrial fractions (Dieter et al., 1984; Sauer et al., 1985; Pou De Crescenzo et al., 2001), chloroplastic fractions (Muto et al., 1981; Jarrett et al., 1982; Simon et al., 1984), and the cytosolic fraction (Simon et al., 1982; Gallais et al., 2000; Pou De Crescenzo et al., 2001). By comparison, CaM-independent NADK activity in plant cells has been observed in the cytosolic fraction of cells (Gallais et al., 2000; Pou De Crescenzo et al., 2001) and in the chloroplast (Simon et al., 1984). The roles of these isoforms remain unclear, although it has been suggested that chloroplastic NADK might participate in the light-stimulated conversion of NAD to NADP (Jarrett et al., 1982).

4.2 Cloning and expression of NAD kinase genes

The complete cDNA for NADK1 and NADK2 was amplified by PCR using the full-length cDNA as a template. The sense primer contained *NdeI* site, while the antisense primer consisted of *SalI* site for further cloning purpose. Vent DNA polymerase was used for amplification of *NADK1* because of its high fidelity derived in part from an integral $3' \rightarrow 5'$ proofreading exonuclease activity not possessed by *Taq*. The fidelity of Vent DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs Inc., USA) is 5-15-fold higher than that observed for *Taq* DNA polymerase. For *NADK2*, DyNazyme DNA polymerase (Finnzymes, Finland), which can amplify long PCR fragments up 4.0 kb, was used because of its improvement on the amplification of GC rich sequences or regions containing long complementary areas.

DNA fragments of NAD kinase from Rice Oryza sativa L. NADK1 and NADK2 were ligated into a TA vector, pTZ57 R/T and introduced by transformation into E. coli XL1-Blue. The lacZ reading frame is interrupted resulting in the appearance of white colonies. The NADK gene fragments were ligated with the NdeI-SalI sites of pET-21a in frame with the sequence encoding a 6x His tag to produce a fusion protein. pET system has been developed for tightly-regulated expression of recombinant proteins in E. coli cells. The approach to control basal expression is the use of vectors that contain what is termed a T7lac promoter (Studier et al., 1990; Dubendorff et al., 1991). These plasmids contain a lac operator sequence just downstream of the T7 promoter. They also carry the natural promoter and coding sequence for the lac repressor (lacl), oriented so that the T7lac and lacl promoters diverge. When this type of vector is used in DE3 lysogens, the *lac* repressor acts both at the *lacUV5* promoter in the host chromosome to repress transcription of the T7 RNA polymerase gene by the host polymerase and at the T7lac promoter in the vector to block transcription of the target gene by any T7 RNA polymerase that is made. For protein production under this system control, addition of IPTG to a growing culture of the lysogen induces T7 RNA polymerase production, which in turn transcribes the

target DNA in the plasmid.

For NADK1, the recombinant plasmid was transformed into E. coli Rosetta (DE3) pLysS, derivative of BL21, which was designed for expression of eukaryotic proteins that contain rare codons. For NADK2, E.coli Rosetta-gami, an Origami derivative, which combines the enhanced disulfide bond formation with the Rosetta characteristics resulting from the trxB/gor mutations with enhanced expression of eukaryotic proteins. Analyzed by SDS-PAGE, only expression of NADK1 in the inclusion bodies was observed. The result indicates that NADK1 was highly expressed but the protein might not be folding properly causing the insoluble aggregates while NADK2 was not expressed or expressed at a very low level if any. However, by measurement of NAD kinase activity, it was found that both genes were expressed as soluble proteins in all concentrations of IPTG used for NADK1 and in 0.2- 0.6 mM IPTG for NADK2, though at the level that could be detected by SDS-PAGE. For NADK1, it was expressed at the highest level (1.0 µmolNADP/min/mg) in the absence of IPTG while in the presence of IPTG, the level of NAD kinase specific activity was lower and continuously decreased at higher concentrations of IPTG. Expression in the absence of IPTG can occur because there is some expression of T7 RNA polymerase gene under control of the lacUV5 promoter from the E. coli genome (Novagen, USA). At higher IPTG concentrations, it is possible that the overexpressed protein may result in an accumulated misfolding protein leading to formation of inactive aggregates. For NADK2, NAD kinase specific activity was highest at 0.6 mM IPTG concentration (1.8 µmolNADP/min/mg). However, the expressed protein could not be detected by SDS-PAGE.

The ability of NADK to produce NADP⁺ in the presence of ATP was employed to obtain an activity band in the in-gel activity staining method. With the aid of the appropriate substrate and NADP⁺-dependent enzyme (G6PDH), the resulting NADPH transfer of reducing power from NADPH to NBT, by PMS, results in the formation of a blue-purple formazan precipitate at the site where the enzyme is immobilized. Results from the in-gel activity staining indicate that both recombinant proteins: NADK1 and NADK2 were produced as soluble proteins.

4.3 Purification and characterization of recombinant NAD kinase

After the host E.coli cells were collected and the cell wall was disrupted by ultrasonication. proteins were extracted in extraction buffer containing ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) to inhibit metalloproteases by chelating the divalent cations necessary for their activity. Addition of a reagent containing a thiol group such as dithiothreitol (DTT) and also a chelating agent such as EDTA in the extraction buffer will minimize the oxidation damage (Bollag et al., 1996). The recombinant NADK1 was successfully purified by Ni-sepharose column chromatography from the solubilized inclusion bodies and the soluble protein faction. Western blot analysis using an anti-His6 tag antibody confirmed identity of the recombinant proteins produced by the pET expression system. When NAD kinase activity was measured by the reactions involved reduction of DCIP, the solubilized and refolded proteins from the inclusion bodies did not show any activity. However, NAD kinase activity was detected in the soluble protein fraction from E.coli expressing NADK2. Unlike NADK1, the recombinant NADK2 protein could not be purified by Ni-sepharose or detected in western blot analysis (data not show) and

could barely be detected by in-gel activity staining suggesting that production level of the recombinant NADK2 was low.

Overall, through the Ni Sepharose high performance column, a 23-purification fold was obtained for the purification of the recombinant NADK1. Subsequently, the kinetic properties of the recombinant NADK1 were examined. All NAD kinase activities were linear with respect to time and protein concentration (data not shown). The calculated V_{max} (unit mg⁻¹protein) and K_m (mM) are 0.35 and 0.79 for NAD⁺ and 2.32 and 0.29 for ATP, respectively. Considerable variability between plant species has been reported for the V_{max} ^{Mg2+ATP} 11.1 (unit mg⁻¹protein) and K_m (mM) are 0.52 for NAD⁺ and 0.73 for ATP from arabidopsis recombinant AtNADK1 (Turner *et al.*, 2004).

4.4 NAD kinase activity of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) cultivar Khao Dok Ma Li 105 (KDML105).

Salt stress has been shown to have an effect on seed germination and growth of rice seedlings. Germination of rice seeds was remarkably decreased when NaCl concentration was increased. At 150 mM NaCl concentration the germination frequency was decreased up to 8-fold as compared to the non-stressed (0 mM NaCl) rice seeds. In addition, high level of NaCl also inhibited rice growth and caused injury on rice plants such as rolling of rice leaves, necrosis and death of rice seedlings. Beside germination and growth of rice seedlings, salt stress also had an effect on protein synthesis (Tanonkeow *et al.*,2004). In this study, NAD kinase activity was assayed in the crude extracts from leaves of KDML105 rice seedlings grown under salt stress. It was decreased after 6 hours of salt stress treatment and continued to decline until after 24 hours of salt stress. In contrast to the increase in NAD kinase activity observed after aluminium stress in monocotyledons (Slaski *et al.*, 1989) and after cold treatment in *Brassica napus* (Maciejewska, 1990), our study indicates that a NaCl treatment induces a large decrease in this enzymatic activity in the rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) cultivar Khao Dok Ma Li 105 (KDML105). A decrease in NAD kinase activity had already been reported in the salt-tolerant tomato *L. pimpinellifolium* under salt stress (Delumeau *et al.*, 2000) and in wheat after a water stress (Zagdanska *et al.*, 1990). The alterations of NAD kinase activity seem to be dependent on the nature of the stress and, from previous reports, the redox state of the NAD kinase seems to be an important modulator of its activity. Such a decrease in NAD kinase shave been shown to play important roles to proctect the cell against oxidative stress and, studies have already demonstrated that salt stress induces oxidative stress and changes in the antioxidant enzymatic defenses (Comba *et al.*, 1998; Gosset *et al.*, 1994).

In addition, our experiments indicate that a relationship exists between the external Ca^{2+} availability and the relative extent of NAD kinase inhibition. Displacement of the Ca^{2+} from the plasma membrane by NaCl had already been proposed to be a primary response to salt stress, and increases in cytosolic Ca^{2+} have also been recorded (Cramer *et al.*, 1985; Lynch *et al.*, 1987; Lynch *et al.*, 1988; Lynch, *et al.*, 1989). This could explain the decrease in NAD kinase activity observed whatever the nature of the ionic stress applied to the cells.

Solubility differences in salt are frequently exploited to separate proteins in the early stages of purification protocols. Ammonium sulfate was the salt of choice and was used in this work because it combined many useful features such as salting

out effectiveness, pH versatility, high solubility, low heat of solution and low price (Bollag et al., 1996 and Creighton, 1993). Preliminary experiment on ammonium sulfate precipitation was also done in this work. Rice crude protein extract precipitated by 0-30% saturated ammonium sulfate had the highest NAD kinase activity (Figure 3.22), which is similar to the recombinant protein NADK2 (Figure 3.24). In contrast, the recombinant NADK1 had the highest NAD kinase activity when precipitated with 30-50% ammonium sulfate. For further purification, most protocols involve some forms of chromatography, which has become an essential tool in protein purification. Ion exchange chromatography separates proteins with differences in charge to give a very high resolution with high sample loading capacity. The difference in charge properties of protein is often considerable. Ion exchange chromatography is capable of separating species with very minor differences in properties, such as two proteins differing by only one amino acid. DEAE-Toyopearl is an anion exchanger which has separates charged counter-ions. It widely used in the purification of NAD kinase from other sources. After purification by DEAE-Toyopearl, the non-binding protein eluate contained NADK activity with a 7purification fold. The next step of purification was the hydrophobic interaction chromatography (HIC). HIC takes advantage of the hydrophobicity of proteins promoting its separation on the basis of reversible hydrophobic interaction between immobilized hydrophobic ligands on chromatographic medium and non-polar regions on the surface of proteins (Queiroz et al., 2001). Butyl-Toyopearl, which butyl groups are chemically bonded on the surface of hydrophilic resin was used. Adsorption of proteins to a HIC adsorbent is favored by a high salt concentration in the mobile phase. The elution of solute is accomplished by decreasing the salt concentration with

increasing hydrophobicy. In this work, the enzyme was eluted from Butyl-Toyopearl column using linear gradient 30% [v/v] ethanediol. From this step, NADK activity was obtained with a 12-purification fold. From SDS-PAGE (figure 3.25), the bands at approximately 56 and 14 kDa were likely the Rubisco large and small subunits, respectively (Ma *et al.*,2009). We suggested that the upper band in the fraction eluted from Butyl-Toyopearl of approximately 110 kDa might be OsNADK2 and that OsNADK1 which has CaM-independent activity was undetectable following DEAE chromatography (Turner *et al.*,2004). However, we noticed that NAD kinase activity of the purified enzyme as well as of the crude extract was lost very quickly, after 5 days at 4°C. These results indicated a low stability of NAD kinase, which has also been reported in Arabidopsis (Turner *et al.*,2004) and yeast (Bieganowsk *et al.*,2006). One of the explanations is that most of the activators were separated from the enzyme and hence the enzyme was inactivated.

4.5 Regulation by calmodulin

Activity of plant NAD kinases has been reported to be regulated by Ca^{2+}/CaM in pea (Muto, 1983, Simon *et al.*, 1984), tomato (Delumeau *et al.*, 1998), oat (Pou De Crescenzo *et al.*, 2001), and maize (Dieter *et al.*, 1984). A Ca^{2+}/CaM -dependent membrane-bound NAD⁺ kinase was also described in mitochondria of maize: either linked to the outer membrane (Dieter *et al.*, 1984), or to both outer and inner membranes (Sauer *et al.*, 1985). Such membrane-bound isoform was also reported to increase after dormancy breakage in *Avena* seeds (Gallais *et al.*, 1999). Unlike Arabidopsis, in which the enzyme was fully activated by conserved CaM in the presence of calcium and displayed differential responsiveness to various CaM-like Arabidopsis proteins (Turner *et al.*,2004), our results did not show activation of any NAD kinase by Ca^{2+}/CaM suggesting that activity of both NAD kinases might not regulated by Ca^{2+}/CaM or the responsiveness of NAD kinase to Ca^{2+}/CaM regulation (if there is any) might be lost in the recombinant proteins. In sequence analysis suggests that NADK2 has a CaM-binding domain.

Even though measurement NAD kinase activity in the presence of OsCaM1-1 did not indicate Ca²⁺/CaM-dependent activation, ³⁵S-recombinant CaM binding assay showed that while no signal was detected in the recombinant NADK1 and in any protein fractions from rice *Oryza sativa* L., OsCaM1-1 specifically interacted with the recombinant protein NADK2, which appeared as two major bands, but none has the expected size of NADK2 (approximately 110 kDa). However, the possibility that the positive bands were derived from the recombinant protein that has been truncated could not be ruled out. Further experiments need to be conducted in order to make a conclusive statement that activity of this NAD kinase isoform is regulated by Ca^{2+}/CaM .

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CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

- The primary structure of OsNADK1 and OsNADK2 shares 65% and 56% amino acid similarity with NAD kinases from Arabidopsis, AtNADK1 and AtNADK2, respectively, and contains two conserved sequences: the GGDG motif and the Gly-rich motif in their conserved C-terminal region.
- The OsNADK1 and OsNADK2 genes, which encode 547 and 996 amino acids with a predicted mass of roughly 60 kDa and 110 kDa, respectively, were successfully engineered and cloned into pET21a expression vector.
- 3. NAD kinase activity in the soluble protein fraction from *E. coli* strain Rosetta (DE3) pLysS carrying *OsNADK1* and Rosetta-gami carrying *OsNADK2* was detected by in-gel NAD kinase activity staining, while SDS-PAGE detected protein bands only in the inclusion bodies from the cells expressing *OsNADK1*.
- The insoluble recombinant OsNADK1 was solubilized with 8 M urea, purified by Ni-column chromatography and refolded but no NAD kinase activity was detected.
- 5. The soluble recombinant OsNADK1 was purified using Ni-Sepharose with a 23-purification fold and the following kinetic properties: V_{max} (unit mg⁻¹ protein) and K_m (mM) of 0.35 and 0.79 for NAD and 2.32 and 0.29 for ATP, respectively.

- In leaves of KDML105 rice seedlings grown under 150 mM salt stress, NAD kinase activity in the crude protein extracts was decreased after 6 hours of treatment and continued to decline until after 24 hours.
- NAD kinase was partially purified from leaves of 3-week old rice seedlings using DEAE-Toyopearl and Butyl Toyopearl column chromatography with an overall 12purification fold.
- ³⁵S-recombinant CaM binding assay showed that OsCaM1-1 specifically interacted with the protein bands from crude extract of recombinant NADK2 suggesting that NADK2 might be a target protein of OsCaM1-1.



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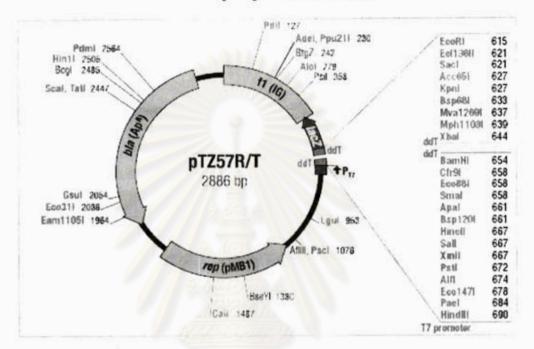
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APPENDICES

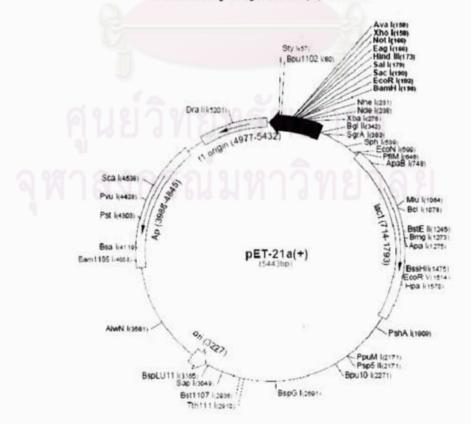
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APPENDIX A



Circle map of pTZ57R/T Vector

Circle map of pET21a(+) Vector



APPENDIX B

Chemical solution

1. Determination of protein concentration

Bradford solution:

Coomassie Brilliant Blue (G250)	100 mg
Absolute ethanol	50 ml
Stir in a container protected from light	for 2 hours.
Add 100 ml of 85% phosphoric acid.	

Mix, and adjust volume to 1 L with dH2O. Filter through Whatman No.1 pape and store the solution at room temperature in a brown glass bottle (usable for several weeks).

2. SDS-Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)

2.1. Preparation for polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

Reagents:

Resolving gel buffer 8X	
Tris base	181.7 g
H ₂ O	250 mL
Adjust pH to 8.8 with conc.	HCI.
Add water to a final volume	e of 500 ml.
Filter through 0.22 µm nitro	ocellulose.
Store at room temperature.	
Stacking gel buffer 4X	

Tris base

15.1 g

Adjust pH to 6.8 with conc. HCl.

Add water to a final volume of 250 ml.

Filter through 0.22 µm nitrocellulose.

Store at room temperature.

Acrylamide, 30% A: 0.8%B

 H_2O

Acrylamide	150 g
Bisacrylamide	4 g

Dissolve in a final volume of 500 ml (in H₂O)

Filter through 0.22 µm nitrocellulose.

Store at 4°C in a dark bottle.

Reservoir buffer 10X

Tris	base	60.5 g

Dissolve in a final volume of 2 L in H₂O.

Store at room temperature.

Before use, add 2 g of SDS (0.1% SDS) per 1 L of 1X reservoir buffer

20% (w/v) SDS

Prepare and store in a sterilized container.

Sodium dodecylsulfate 20 g

Dissolve in a final volume of 100 ml in sterile H₂O. Stir rapidly to

dissolve completely.

Filter through a 0.22-µm nitrocellulose filter.

Store at room temperature.

Sample buffer 5X

1 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.9	60 µl (60 mM)
glycerol	790 µl (79%)
20% (w/v) SDS	100 µl (2%)
2-mercaptoethanol	50 µl
Bromophenol blue	1 mg

Store at -20°C in 1-ml aliquots.

Sample buffer 2X

Tris base	150 mg (120 mM)
glycerol	2 ml (20%)
20% (w/v) SDS	2 ml (4%)
2-mercaptoethanol	1 ml (28.8 mM)
H ₂ O	5 ml
Bromophenol blue	~20 mg

Store at -20°C in 1-ml aliquots.

10% (w/v) Ammonium Persulfate

Ammonium	persulfate	0.5 g

Dissolve in a final volume of 5 ml in H_2O .

Store at Store at 4°C; prepare fresh every two weeks.

Staining solution

Coomassie Brilliant Blue R250	2.5 g
Methanol	500 ml
Glacial acetic acid	70 ml
H ₂ O	430 ml

Dissolve with rapid stirring.

Store at room temperature

Destaining solution

Methanol	100 ml
Glacial acetic acid	70 ml
H ₂ O	830 ml
Store at room temperature.	

Protocol:

1. Mix the following components listed in the table in a 125-ml flask.

Component	9%	10%	12.5%	15%
Acrylamide,	14 Strong			
30%A:0.8%B	12	13.3	16.7	20
Resolving gel buffer 8X	5	5	5	5
20 % SDS	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
H ₂ O	22.7	21.7	18	14.7

2. Swirl the flask gently, then add:

10% Ammonium persulfate	200 µl	
TEMED	20 µl	

Swirl the flask gently to mix. Be careful not to generate too many bubbles.

Degas the solution for 1 minute.

3. Pipet the solution into the gel sandwiches to a level about 2 ml below the bottom of the teeth of the gel comb. Overlay the gels with H₂O. A sharp water-gel interface will appear under the H₂O layer when the gel has

polymerized. This step will take about 15-30 min. After the gel has polymerized, pour off the H₂O layer.

4. Prepare the stacking gel solution in a 50-ml flask as follow:

Acrylamide, 30%A:0.8%B	2.6 ml
Stacking gel buffer 4X	5 ml
20% SDS	0.05 ml
H ₂ O	12.3 ml
Swirl the flask gently Mix the compo	onents, then add:
10% Ammonium persulfate	150 µl
TEMED	10 µl

Swirl the flask gently to mix. Be careful not to generate too many bubbles.

Degas the solution for 1 minute.

- 5. Swirl the flask gently to mix. Fill the tops of the gel sandwiches with the stacking gel mixture. Insert the well-forming combs into the gels. Taking care not to introduce bubbles under the "teeth". Allow the gels to set for at least 1 hr. They may be stored at 4°C in a plastic bag containing wet pieces of paper before using.
- 6. These gels should be run at 1 to 2 W (~30-50 V), on the constant power setting until the dye completely enters the stacking gel then increase the power to 3-4 W (~100-120 V). Once the dye completely enters the resolving gel, decrease the power to 2-3 W (50-100 V).
- At the end of the run, turn off the power supply, remove the gel from the apparatus, and discard the upper reservoir buffer. Gently pry apart the

glass plates, invert the glass plate to which the gel has adhered over a plastic box containing ~100-200 ml of Staining solution, and tease one corner of the gel off the plate. Allow the gel to gently fall off the plate. Cover the box and stain the gel for 1 to 2 hrs at room temperature with gentle shaking.

 After staining, pour off the used Coomassie blue solution, rinse the gel briefly with water. Then, incubate the gel in several hundred ml of Destaining solution. With gentle shaking, until protein bands are readily visible.

3. Native polyacrylamide gel

3.1. Preparation for polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

Reagents:

Resolving gel buffer 8X	
Tris base	181.7 g
H ₂ O	250 mL
Adjust pH to 8.8 with c	conc. HCl.
Add water to a final vo	lume of 500 ml.
Filter through 0.22 µm	nitrocellulose.
Store at room temperat	ure.
Stacking gel buffer 4X	
Tris base	15.1 g
H ₂ O	150 mL

Adjust pH to 6.8 with conc. HCl.

Add water to a final volume of 250 ml.

Filter through 0.22 µm nitrocellulose.

Store at room temperature.

Acrylamide, 30% A: 0.8%B

Acrylamide	150 g
Bisacrylamide	4 g
Dissolve in a final volume of 50	0 ml (in H ₂ O)

Filter through 0.22 µm nitrocellulose.

Store at 4°C in a dark bottle.

Reservoir buffer 10X

Tris base	60.5 g
Glycine	288 g
Dissolve in a final volume of 2 L in H_2O .	
Store at room temperature.	

3.2. Native-PAGE

7% Separating gel distilled water 3.487 ml 30% (w/v) Acrylamide solution 1.4 ml Separated gel buffer 8X 0.75 ml 10% Ammonium persulfate 0.36 ml 3 µl TEMED 4.0% Stacking gel distilled water 1.214 ml 30% (w/v) Acrylamide solution 0.27 ml

Stacking gel buffer 4X	0.5 ml	
10% Ammonium persulfate	0.015 ml	
TEMED	1 µl	

5x Sample buffer

1 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8	0.6 ml
Glycerol	0.5 ml
1% Bromophenol blue	0.1 ml
distilled water	0.2 ml

One part of sample buffer was added to four parts of sample.

3.3. Electrophoresis buffer, 1 litre

(25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine)	
Tris (hydroxymethyl)-aminomethane	3.03 g
Glycine	14.40 g

Dissolve in distilled distilled water to 1 litre. Do not adjust pH with acid or

base (final pH should be 8.3). Add 1 mM DTT 0.1 mM ATP before use.

4. NAD kinase assay

Reagents:

The standard assay mixture (1 ml)

	+Ca/-CaM	-Ca/+CaM	+Ca/+CaM	-NAD	Final conc.
1 M Tris-Cl (pH7.9)	50 µl	50 µl	50 µl	50 µl	(50 mM)
100 mM ATP	40 µl	40 µl	40 µl	40 µl	(4 mM)
100 mM NAD	40 µl	40 µl	40 µl		(4 mM)
1 M MgCl ₂	6 µl	6 µl	6 µl	6 µl	(6 mM)
10 mM CaCl ₂	110 µl	-	110 µl	110 µl	(2.2 mM)
25 μM recombinant CaM	-	12 μl	12 µl	12 µl	(300 nM)
H ₂ O	754 µl	852 µl	742 µl	782 µl	

The cycling assay mixture

	450 μl - 1 Rx	1,800 μl - 4 Rx	3,600 μl - 8 Rx	Final conc.
H ₂ O	328.1 µl	1312.4 µl	2624.8 µl	
1 M Tris-Cl (pH7.4)	22.5 µl	90 µl	180 µl	(50 mM)
100 mM Glc-6P	80 µl	320 µl	640 µl	(17.7 mM)
100 mM EGTA	4.5 µl	18 µl	36 µl	(1 mM)
10 mg/ml PMS	13.6 µl	54.4 µl	108.8 µl	
10 mg/ml DCIP	1.3 µl	5.2 µl	10.4 µl	5 2 0 1

Protocol:

- Add sample (≤30 µl) to a 150 µl-reaction mixture and allow to the reaction to proceed for 30 minutes at 25°C.
- Stop reaction by boiling for 5 minutes. Cool the mixture to room temperature before proceed.
- Add 50 µl of the NADK assay mixture to a 200-µl cycling assay mixture in a cuvette and place the cuvette in a spectrophotometer set at 600 nm.
- At zero time, add 5 μl of 0.01 units/μl of yeast Glc-6-P dehydrogenase and follow the reaction for 2 minutes.
- 5. Add 4 µl of 0.1 mM NADP.

5. NB medium

Establishment of rice cell suspension culture

Reagents:

NB(+2,4-D) liquid medium 1 L

Final concentrations (1X)

100X NB Nitrate stock 1 L

$(NH_4)_2SO_4$

46.3 g (463 mg/l)

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KNO3	283.0 g	(2,830 mg/l)
111103	200.05	(2,050 mg/l)

100X NB Sulfate stock 1 L

MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	18.5 g	(185 mg/l)
MnSO ₄ .H ₂ O	1.0 g	(10 mg/l)
ZnSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	200 mg	(2 mg/l)
CuSO ₄ .5H ₂ O	2.5 mg	(0.025 mg/l)

100X NB Halide stock 1 L

CaCl ₂ .2H ₂ O	16.6 g	(166 mg/l)	
кі	75.0 mg	(0.75 mg/l)	
CoCl ₂ .6H ₂ O	2.5 mg	(0.025 mg/l)	

100X NB PBMO stock 1 L

KH ₂ .PO ₄	46.0 g	(460 mg/l)
H ₃ BO ₃	300 mg	(3 mg/l)
Na ₂ MoO ₄	25.0 mg	(0.25 mg/l)

100X NB NaFeEDTA stock 1 L

FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	2.78 g	(27.8 mg/l)
Na ₂ EDTA	3.78 g	(37.8 mg/l)

Nicotinic acid stock (1 mg/ml)

Dissolve 100 mg of nicotinic acid in sterilized deionized H_2O , adjust volume to 100 ml. Filter sterilize the solution.

Pyridoxine stock (1 mg/ml)

Dissolve 100 mg of pyridoxine in sterilized deionized H_2O , adjust volume to 100 ml. Filter sterilize the solution.

Thiamine stock (10 mg/ml)

Dissolve 1 g of thiamine in sterilized deionized H_2O , adjust volume to 100 ml. Filter sterilize the solution.

Mix the followings:

Final concentrations

100X NB Nitrate stock	10 ml	
100X NB Sulfate stock	10 ml	
100X NB Halide stock	10 ml	
100X NB PBMO stock	10 ml	47
100X NB NaFeEDTA stock	10 ml	
Myo-inositol	100 mg	(100 mg/l)
Nicotinic acid stock (1 mg/m	il) 1 ml	(1 mg/l)
Pyridoxine stock (1 mg	/ml) 1 ml	(1 mg/l)
Thiamine stock (10 mg/ml)	1 ml	(10 mg/l)
2,4-D stock (1 mg/ml)	2 ml	(2 mg/l)
Casein hydrolysate	300 mg	(300 mg/l)
L-Proline	500 mg	(500 mg/l)
L-Glutamine	500 mg	(500 mg/l)
Sucrose	30 g	(30 g/l)

Adjust pH to 5.8.

Add H_2O to 1 L.

Autoclave.

6. Limpinuntana's nutrient solution

Growing rice

Reagents:

Limpinuntana's solution

20032 0 1 1

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Final concentrations (1X)

300X Solution A (1 L)		
KNO3	30.333 g	(0.10 g/L)
Ca(NO3) 2.4H2O	47.230 g	(0.16 g/L)
300X Solution B (1 L)		
MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	12.324 g	(41 mg/L)
NH ₄ H ₂ PO ₄	11.502 g	(38 mg/L)
NaCl	16.577 g	(55 mg/L)
300X Solution C (1 L)		
FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	6 g	(20 mg/Ll)
Na ₂ EDTA	8 g	(27 mg/L)
300X Solution D (1 L)		
MnCl ₂ .4H ₂ O	0.4323 g	(1.44 mg/L)
H ₃ BO ₃	0.342 g	(1.14 mg/L)
Na2MoO4.2H2O	0.0075 g	(0.025 mg/L)
ZnSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.0264 g	(0.088 mg/L)

CuSO₄.5H₂O 0.0117 g (0.039 mg/L)

1X Limpinuntana's solution (300 ml)

Mix solution A, B, C and D together (1 ml each), then add deionized water to

300 ml.

Autoclave.

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BIOGRAPHY

Miss Thunchanok Dumrisuk was born on December 12, 1983 in Bangkok. She graduated with the degree of Bachelor of Science from the Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Silpakorn University in 2005. She has studied for the degree of Master of Science at the Department of Biochemistry, Chulalongkorn University since 2006.



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