Arabidopsis E2Fc is required for the DNA damage response under UV-B radiation epistatically over the microRNA396 and independently of E2Fe

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SUMMARY

UV-B radiation inhibits plant growth, and this inhibition is, to a certain extent, regulated by miR396-mediated repression of Growth Regulating transcription Factors (GRFs). Moreover, E2Fe transcription factor also modulates Arabidopsis leaf growth. Here, we provide evidence that, at UV-B intensities that induce DNA damage, E2Fc participates in the inhibition of cell proliferation. We demonstrate that *E2Fc* deficient plants show a lower inhibition of leaf size under UV-B conditions that damage DNA, decreased cell death after exposure and altered *SOG1* and *ATR* expression. Interestingly, the previously reported participation of E2Fe in UV-B responses, which is a transcriptional target of E2Fc, is independent and different of that described for E2Fc. On the other hand, we here demonstrate that E2Fc has an epistatic role over the miR396 pathway under UV-B conditions. Finally, we show that inhibition of This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1111/tpj.14158 This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved. cell proliferation by UV-B is independent of the regulation of class II TCP transcription factors. Together, our results demonstrate that E2Fc is required for miR396 activity on cell proliferation under UV-B, and that its role is independent of E2Fe, probably modulating DNA damage responses through the regulation of *SOG1* and *ATR* transcript levels.

INTRODUCTION

Plants are usually exposed to a changing environment, which impacts on their developmental programs. In particular, light affects different plant processes during development; and even though ultraviolet-B (UV-B) radiation (280-315 nm) represents only a small part of the solar radiation that reaches the Earth, it modifies plant morphology and physiology. One developmental response to UV-B in plants is the reduction of the leaf area (Wargent et al., 2009a,b; Fierro et al., 2015; Casadevall et al., 2013; Yan et al., 2012; Fina et al., 2017a). This reduction can be a consequence of an inhibition of cell division and/or a decrease in cell expansion (Hectors et al., 2010), which reflect differences in experimental conditions. For example, stress-inducing UV-B conditions that produce DNA damage can inhibit cell proliferation, while lower doses and/or chronic UV-B irradiation can result in both inhibition of cell proliferation and expansion (for a revision, see Dotto and Casati, 2018). Previously, we demonstrated that in Arabidopsis, at UV-B intensities that can produce accumulation of DNA damage, the reduction in leaf area was a result of the inhibition of cell proliferation mediated by miR396, a microRNA which downregulates the expression of GROWTH REGULATING FACTORS (GRF) transcription factors, among other targets (Casadevall et al., 2013; Debernardi et al., 2012). Arabidopsis GRFs are a family of transcription factors that regulate numerous developmental processes acting redundantly (Kim et al., 2003). GRF genes are expressed in all seed plants examined (van der Knaap et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2003; Choi et al.; 2004; Zhang et al., 2011). In leaf primordia, miR396 is expressed at low levels and increases during organ development, whereas GRFs are expressed in an opposite way (Rodriguez et al., 2010; Debernardi et al., 2012). Therefore, miR396 is expressed preferentially in the distal part of young developing leaves reducing cell proliferation through the down-regulation of GRF activity and other cell cycle genes (Rodriguez et al., 2010). After UV-B exposure, while miRNA396 was upregulated in proliferating leaves, GRF1, GRF2 and GRF3 transcripts were decreased; and the induction of miR396 resulted in the inhibition of cell proliferation but not cell expansion (Casadevall et al., 2013). Similar results were found using maize plants, where UV-B levels in solar radiation also inhibited leaf growth as a consequence of a decrease in cell production in the meristems of the developing leaf; this decrease in the meristem size was also a consequence of the down-regulation of *GRF* transcription factors and of an increase in miR396 levels (Fina *et al.*, 2017a).

On the other hand, the decrease in leaf size can be the result of a reduction in the cell area, which can be due to changes in cell ploidy as a consequence of endoreduplication, an alternative cell cycle during which the cell increases its DNA content without cell division. The physiological role of endoreduplication is not clear, probably playing an important role during differentiation. One hypothesis is that mutations that are accumulated during plant sessile life can be protected by endoreduplication, as various copies of a gene in a genome would maintain a functional copy in case of damage (Gegas et al., 2014). The switch from the mitotic cell cycle to the endocycle is regulated by the activity of transcriptional factors from the E2F family. Arabidopsis has 6 E2F transcription factors (E2Fa-f) and two DP interaction proteins (DPa and DPb). E2Fa, E2Fb and E2Fc require to heterodimerize with either DPa or DPb to function; while E2Fd/DEL2, E2Fe/DEL1 and E2Ff/DEL3 can act independently of DP proteins (Ramirez-Parra et al., 2007). E2F/DP factors regulate the expression of a group of genes that are necessary for cell cycle progression, but also genes in other functional categories (Ramirez-Parra et al., 2003; Vandepoele et al., 2005; Ramirez-Parra et al., 2007; Naouar et al., 2009). In addition, the RETINOBLASTOMA-RELATED1 (RBR1) protein can bind and inhibit the E2F/DP transcription factor complex when bound to the promoter of genes, repressing their expression in the absence of a signal to enter a new cell cycle (Nakagami et al., 1999 and 2002; Uemukai et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2012). The Arabidopsis thaliana RBR1 binds the three typical E2F transcription factors, with E2Fa and E2Fb acting as activators and E2Fc as a repressor of cell proliferation (Inzé and De Veylder, 2006; Polyn et al., 2015). RBR probably represses cell proliferation through E2Fb (Magyar et al., 2012), while E2Fc acts as a transcriptional repressor and is required for the correct end of cell division and occurrence of endoreduplication (del Pozo et al., 2006; de Jager et al., 2009). Thus, both RBR1 and E2Fc probably act as negative regulators for cell division and are necessary for the exit from the mitotic cell cycle.

The change from a mitotic cell cycle into an endoreduplication cycle has been demonstrated to be controlled by E2Fe/DEL1, which represses the endocycle onset (Vlieghe *et al.*, 2005; Lammens *et al.*, 2008). Interestingly, E2Fe/DEL1 is also a transcriptional repressor of PHR1/UVR2, a cyclobutane pyrimidine dimer photolyase in Arabidopsis (Radziejwoski *et al.*, 2011). After UV-B exposure, *e2fe* mutants show higher DNA repair than wild type (WT) plants and also resume endoreduplication faster than control plants. As a

consequence, these plants show a lower inhibition of leaf growth by UV-B with larger cells showing higher ploidy levels (Radziejwoski et al., 2011). Besides, E2Fe is transcriptionally regulated by the typical E2Fb and E2Fc transcription factors; which antagonistically control E2Fe levels through the competition for a single E2F cis-acting binding site (Berckmans *et al.*, 2011). In this way, while E2Fb is an activator of E2Fe expression, E2Fc represses its expression.

In this work, to further expand our knowledge on the pathways that participate in the regulation of leaf growth under UV-B exposure in Arabidopsis and the participation of E2F transcription factors (TF) in this regulation, we investigated the role of the typical E2Fc TF, and its contribution, together with miR396 and GRFs, in the regulation of leaf size after UV-B exposure. We demonstrate that E2Fc regulates leaf size under UV-B without participating in DNA damage repair after UV-B. However, E2Fc probably participates in other DNA damage responses, as *E2Fc* deficient plants show decreased programmed cell death after UV-B exposure, and altered expression of *SOG1* and *ATR*, which regulate DNA damage responses after UV-B exposure in Arabidopsis. We also here provide evidence that *E2Fc* deficiency counteracts the effect of *MIM396*, suggesting that E2Fc may be a regulator of miR396 activity. Finally, we here demonstrate that UV-B effects that require the participation of miR396 are not regulated by class II TCPs transcription factors.

RESULTS

E2Fc regulates leaf growth under UV-B conditions

Previously, the transcription factor E2Fe/DEL1 was demonstrated to participate in the regulation of leaf growth under UV-B conditions, repressing the expression of the CPD photolyase *PHR1/UVR2* in Arabidopsis (Radziejwoski *et al.*, 2011). Because *E2Fe* is negatively regulated by E2Fc, we investigated if E2Fc also modulates the inhibition of cell proliferation after UV-B exposure in Arabidopsis. Thus, we analyzed the effect of UV-B radiation in growth inhibition and cell proliferation using Arabidopsis transgenic plants expressing an RNAi construct targeting the *E2Fc* gene (*E2FcRNAi*, del Pozo *et al.*, 2006). Transgenic *E2FcRNAi* plants show decreased levels of *E2Fc* (del Pozo *et al.*, 2007; Figure S1); and they are smaller than WT Col-0 plants, with curled rosette leaves, as already reported (del Pozo *et al.*, 2006 and 2007; Figure 1a-b). WT and transgenic plants were irradiated with a single UV-B light treatment during 4h at an intensity of 2W m⁻² 12 days

after stratification (DAS). At this moment, leaf #5 is emerging and has proliferating cells (Casadevall *et al.*, 2013). Two days after the treatment, the rosette area of WT and *E2FcRNAi* plants is significantly smaller in UV-B treated plants than in plants that were kept in the absence of UV-B; this difference persists 8 days after the treatment (Figure 1a). However, UV-B irradiated *E2FcRNAi* plants have a similar rosette area as UV-B irradiated WT plants (Figure 1a-b). Thus, *E2FcRNAi* plant growth is less inhibited by UV-B than WT plants. To confirm that the phenotype observed was due to decreased *E2Fc* expression caused by the RNAi construct, we took advantage of the natural tendency of transgenes to be transcriptionally silenced. Silenced plants were identified by the presence of the transgene (determined by PCR amplification of the *35S* promoter, Figure S1e) combined with the analysis of *E2Fc* expression (Figure S1a). Silenced plants showed *35S* amplification, similar *E2Fc* transcript levels as WT plants, and looked like WT plants (Figure S1g), confirming that transgene expression is required to produce the observed phenotype.

The average area in fully expanded leaf #5 was also analyzed under control conditions and after UV-B exposure (Figure 1c); the results demonstrate that the decrease in rosette area by UV-B is due to a decrease in final leaf area in both lines. While leaf #5 area in *E2FcRNAi* plants is smaller than that of WT plants under control conditions; after UV-B exposure, both plants have leaves of similar sizes (Figure 1c-d). In *E2FcRNAi* control plants, average leaf #5 area is smaller because transgenic leaves have less palisade cells (Figure 1f) with smaller areas (Figure 1e). In UV-B irradiated plants, while leaf #5 area is significantly reduced in both plants; the average cell area is not affected by the treatment in any of the two lines analyzed (Figure 1e). However, the decrease in the number of cells already reported under our experimental conditions (Casadevall *et al.*, 2013) is significantly lower in *E2FcRNAi* than in WT leaves (Figure 1f). Therefore, *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5 have more cells than WT leaves after UV-B exposure, suggesting that *E2Fc* is important for the repression of cell proliferation in young leaves of Arabidopsis under UV-B.

Average leaf area in fully expanded leaves #1/2 and #7 was also analyzed, both under control conditions and after UV-B exposure. Leaf #1/2, at the moment of the UV-B treatment, has only expanding cells that have finished division; while leaf #7 is emerging (Casadevall *et al.*, 2013). As shown in Figure S2, whereas both leaves #1/2 and #7 showed a decrease in average area after UV-B exposure in WT and *E2FcRNAi* plants, the decrease in leaf #1/2 was similar for both genotypes while significantly different in leaf #7. Leaf #7 from

E2FcRNAi plants, similarly as leaf #5, showed a lower inhibition of growth due to a lower inhibition of cell proliferation by UV-B. Similarly as shown for leaf #5, in leaves where cells are dividing at the moment of the irradiation, E2Fc participates in the control of cell proliferation. In contrast, growth of leaf #1/2 from WT and *E2FcRNAi* plants was similarly decreased by UV-B as a consequence of a similar decrease in cell expansion (Figure S2). Therefore, E2Fc affects cell division but it does not participate in the inhibition of cell expansion by UV-B.

Previously, we demonstrated that UV-B inhibition of cell proliferation was mediated by the action of miR396 and GRF transcription factors (Casadevall *et al.*, 2013; Fina *et al.*, 2017a). To investigate if the decrease in cell proliferation by UV-B in *E2Fc* deficient plants is through the regulation of the expression of miR396 and GRFs, we analyzed the expression of *GRF2* and *GRF3*. Both under control conditions and after UV-B exposure, *GRF2* and *3* were similarly expressed in WT Col-0 and in *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5 (Figure 2a-b). However, although miR396 was up-regulated by UV-B in leaves of both plants, this up-regulation was significantly lower in *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5 (Figure 2c). Thus, E2Fc may regulate miR396 levels under UV-B conditions, without affecting *GRFs* expression.

Furthermore, transcript levels encoding other E2F and DP proteins were measured. E2Fa and E2Fe (Figure 2d-e) but not E2Fb, E2Fd, E2Ff or DPb (Figure S3) were increased in E2Fc deficient plants, both under control conditions and after exposure. Although DPa levels were similar under control conditions in WT and E2Fc deficient plants, the upregulation by UV-B was lower in the transgenic plants than WT plants (Figure 2f). Previously, del Pozo et al. (2006) demonstrated that E2Fc regulates the expression of cell cycle genes. In our experiments, under control conditions in the absence of UV-B, KNOLLE and H4 transcripts levels were slightly but significantly increased in E2FcRNAi leaf #5. Interestingly, after UV-B exposure, these transcripts, and also the CYCLIN-DEPENDENT KINASE B1,2 (CDKB1;2), showed increased levels compared to those in WT leaves (Figure 2g-i). A time course analysis of selected transcripts shows that after 4h of UV-B exposure, changes in gene expression of cell cycle genes and levels of miRNA are more evident than those measured after shorter exposure times, or under recovery conditions in the absence of UV-B (Figure S4). Together, the results demonstrate that decreased E2Fc levels affect expression of proteins in the E2F regulation pathway and cell cycle genes, which in turn may affect cell proliferation under UV-B.

Similarly, transcripts encoding proteins that participate in UV-B signaling and response through the UVR8 photoreceptor were studied (Brown et al., 2005). UVR8 levels were similar in WT and E2FcRNAi plants, after UV-B exposure and under control conditions (Figure 3a). HY5 (encoding a transcription factor that regulates UV-B responses in the UVR8 pathway), CHS and F3H (encoding chalcone synthase and flavanone 3-hydroxylase, respectively, which participate in the biosynthesis of UV-B absorbing pigments) were significantly and similarly increased after UV-B exposure in WT and E2FcRNAi plants (Figure 3b-d). Nevertheless, UV-B absorbing pigments and anthocyanins levels were higher in *E2FcRNAi* plants (Figure 3e and g); both under control and UV-B conditions (Figure 3f and h). Despite this, both WT and E2FcRNAi plants showed similar accumulation of superoxide anion, a reactive oxygen species, by nitroblue tetrazolium staining after UV-B exposure, suggesting that differences in UV-B absorbing pigments do not modulate the oxidative state of *E2FcRNAi* plants under UV-B conditions (Figure 3i). Thus, the inhibition of plant growth by UV-B mediated by E2Fc seems to be independent of the activation of the UV-B signaling pathway mediated by UVR8 and HY5, pigment accumulation and oxidative stress status.

Experiments were also done using plants overexpressing a truncated form of E2Fc that lack the N-terminal region that is involved in regulating protein stability but retains functional activities in vivo (E2FcOE; del Pozo et al., 2002; Figure S1b). As previously reported, plants looked similar as WT plants (Figure S5; del Pozo et al., 2002). Interestingly, while *E2FcOE* leaf#5 had a similar size as the same leaf from WT plants (Figure S5c-d), it had less cells (Figure S5i) with bigger areas (Figure S5f-g); both under control conditions and after UV-B exposure. While leaf#5 area decreased after UV-B exposure in both plants, this decrease was similar without showing significant differences between genotypes (Figure S5e). UV-B radiation did not affect cell area in leaf #5 of neither plant (Figure S5h), while cell number decreased to a similar extent in leaves from both plants (Figure S5j). It is interesting to note that *E2FcOE* leaf #5 has less cells with bigger areas, demonstrating that the overexpression of the DP dimerization partners is not required for the phenotype observed (Figure S5f, g and i). Similar results were obtained when leaves #1/2 and #7 were analyzed (Figure S2). In this way, E2Fc overexpression does not affect plant growth under UV-B conditions, suggesting that a threshold level of this transcription factor is enough for its function in UV-B responses.

E2Fc regulates root growth and have a role in the induction of root stem-cell death by UV-B regulating *ATR* and *SOG1* expression, but it does not participate in DNA damage repair

UV-B sensitivity in *E2FcRNAi* plants was also investigated by inhibition of primary root elongation assays (Tong *et al.*, 2008; Fina *et al.*, 2017b). Under control conditions in the absence of UV-B, *E2FcRNAi* plants had shorter primary roots than WT plants. One day after the end of the UV-B treatment, while WT plants showed a significant decrease in primary root elongation compared with untreated plants, *E2FcRNAi* plants showed a lower inhibition. This difference persisted 4 days after the treatment, so transgenic plants showed a lower inhibition of primary root elongation than WT plants after UV-B exposure (Figure 4a,b). Inhibition of primary root elongation after UV-B was also similar in WT and *E2FcOE* plants (Figure S6), again suggesting that a threshold E2Fc level seems to be enough for its function in root elongation under UV-B.

To investigate if E2Fc participates in the induction of programmed cell death (PCD) in response to UV-B, we evaluated cell death in root tips (Furukawa *et al.*, 2010; González Besteiro and Ulm, 2013; Falcone Ferreyra *et al.*, 2016). Neither line showed dead cells when they were kept under control conditions in the absence of UV-B. *E2FcRNAi* root tips showed significantly fewer dead cells compared to WT roots (Figure 4c-d), suggesting that E2Fc has a role in PCD after UV-B exposure. *E2Fc* overexpression did not change PCD responses after exposure (Figure S6e), suggesting that E2Fc levels in the cell are sufficient to elicit the UV-B response observed.

It was previously demonstrated that PCD induced by UV-B radiation requires Suppressor of Gamma Response 1 (SOG1; Furukawa *et al.*, 2010). SOG1 is a transcription factor that regulates many responses to genotoxic agents in Arabidopsis. UV-B-induced PCD also requires the activation of the DNA-damage protein kinases Ataxia Telangiectasia Mutated (ATM), and ATM and Rad3-related (ATR; Furukawa *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, we analyzed if *E2FcRNAi* plants showed altered *SOG1*, *ATM* and *ATR* expression. Figure 4e,f shows that *E2FcRNAi* plants have constitutive higher *SOG1* and *ATR* mRNA levels than WT plants, and transcripts levels in the transgenic plants are not regulated by UV-B radiation as WT plants. In contrast, *ATM* levels are similar in both plants (Figure 4g). Thus, E2Fc may regulate PCD after UV-B exposure by regulating the expression of *SOG1* and *ATR* genes in Arabidopsis. Absorption of UV-B by DNA induces the formation of pyrimidine dimers (CPDs) in the DNA, and, to a lesser extent, pyrimidine (6-4) pyrimidone photoproducts (Friedberg *et al.*, 1995). *e2fe* mutants accumulate lower CPD levels after UV-B exposure because they overexpress *PHR1/UVR2*, which encodes the type-II cyclobutane pyrimidine dimer photolyase (Radziejwoski *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, we also examined CPD accumulation after UV-B exposure in *E2FcRNAi* and *E2FcOE* plants, to analyze if the DNA damage phenotype in *e2fe* mutants is regulated by E2Fc. After a 4-h-UV-B treatment, similar levels of unrepaired lesions were measured in WT, *E2FcRNAi* and *E2FcOE* transgenic plants (Figure S6b and f). Moreover, WT and *E2FcRNAi* lines showed similar expression of the DNA repair enzymes *UVR2* and *UVR3* (encoding a 6-4 photoproduct photolyase), both under control conditions and after a UV-B treatment (Figure S6c-d), in contrast to what was previously reported in *E2Fe* deficient plants (Radziejwoski *et al.*, 2011).

In contrast to what was previously reported using e2fe knockout plants (Radziejwoski *et al.*, 2011), UV-B radiation did not affect ploidy levels in *E2FcRNAi* plants (Figure S7a). While transgenic plants had a lower calculated endoreduplication index than WT Col-0 plants under control conditions, this index was not affected by the treatment (Figure S7b). Together, changes in plant growth by UV-B in *E2Fc* deficient plants are independent on DNA damage repair mechanisms and ploidy changes, contrary to what was previously reported using *E2Fe* deficient plants, suggesting that both transcription factors participate in different UV-B responses pathways, affecting plant growth in different ways. Therefore, UV-B effects mediated by E2Fe are not through its regulation by E2Fc.

E2Fc is required for miR396 activity

Previously, we demonstrated that *MIM396* plants, expressing an artificial target mimic directed against miR396 and showing a decrease in the endogenous microRNA activity, were less sensitive to the inhibition of leaf growth by UV-B (Casadevall *et al.*, 2013). These results are similar to those presented in Figure 1 using *E2FcRNAi* plants. Moreover, our results show that in *E2FcRNAi* proliferating leaves, UV-B up-regulation of miR396 is decreased (Figure 2c). Thus, E2Fc may affect miR396 activity, or viceversa.

To test these hypotheses, we crossed *MIM396* with *E2FcRNAi* transgenic plants to generate *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* double transgenic plants, expressing the target mimicry (Figure S1c) and showing a similar decrease in *E2Fc* expression as *E2FcRNAi* plants (Figure S1a). *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* plants (as well as the reciprocal cross, *E2FcRNAixMIM396*) were

smaller than WT and *MIM396* plants when they were grown in the absence of UV-B, but looked similar to *E2FcRNAi* plants (Figure 5a,b; Figure S8a). Similarly as *E2FcRNAi* plants, the double transgenic plants had smaller leaves (Figure 5c,d; Figure S8b) with smaller and lower number of cells (Figure 5e,f; Figure S8c,d) than WT and *MIM396* plants. After UV-B exposure, the double transgenic plants also looked similar to *E2FcRNAi* plants and different from WT and *MIM396* plants (Figure 5; Figure S8), suggesting the E2Fc is probably epistatic over miR396.

We also analyzed CPD accumulation and PCD after UV-B exposure. Although all single and double transgenic plants showed lower and similar root meristematic death cells after UV-B exposure than WT plants (Figure 6a-b; Figure S9a); while *MIM396* transgenic plants accumulated lower CPDs after a UV-B treatment, *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* plants showed similar DNA damage levels as WT and *E2FcRNAi* plants (Figure 6c; Figure S9b). Thus, higher DNA repair after UV-B damage in *MIM396* plants requires E2Fc activity.

To further validate the hypothesis that E2Fc acts epistatically over miR396, we analyzed *GRF1*, 2 and 3 expression in *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* plants. While *GRF1*, 2 and 3 were highly expressed and were not repressed by UV-B radiation in *MIM396* plants as previously reported (Debernardi *et al.*, 2012; Casadevall *et al.*, 2013); these 3 TFs were similarly expressed in WT Col-0, *E2FcRNAi* and *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* plants, both under control conditions and after UV-B exposure (Figure 7a-c). Therefore, postranscriptional regulation of GRFs by miR396 is overcome by decreased levels of E2Fc.

Finally, primary root elongation after UV-B exposure was analyzed. As shown in Figures S9c and S10, *MIM396* plants have a shorter primary root than WT plants, but they show a lower inhibition of primary root elongation after UV-B exposure. Interestingly, all transgenic plants analyzed exhibited a lower inhibition of primary root length by UV-B than WT plants (Figures S9c and S10b), so this UV-B response is similar for all genotypes studied.

E2Fc expression and UV-B regulation is independent of the UVR8 photoreceptor and the MPK3 pathway

To analyze if the UVR8 photoreceptor modulates E2Fc-mediated inhibition of plant growth by UV-B regulating its expression and that of other transcription factors from this family, we analyzed E2F expression in uvr8 mutants under control conditions and after UV-B exposure. Interestingly, E2Fc expression was similar in uvr8 and in WT plants, both under control conditions and after UV-B exposure (Figure 7d). In both plants, E2Fc was significantly upregulated by UV-B, as previously reported (Fina *et al.*, 2017b). Similar expression and UV-B-regulation in WT plants and *uvr*8 mutants were also measured for the other Arabidopsis E2F TFs (Figure 7d).

Other molecular pathways also participate in plant responses to UV-B, for example the MPK3 regulated pathway (Jenkins, 2017). Nevertheless, in *mpk3* mutants, transcript levels of *E2Fc* and all *E2F* TFs are similar to those in WT plants, both under control conditions and after UV-B (Figure 7e), demonstrating that their regulation is independent of the MPK3 pathway, in contrast to what was previously reported on the UV-B regulation of *GRFs* (Casadevall *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, *E2Fc* expression may be mediated by alternative UV-B regulated pathways, such as DNA damage signaling; MPK6 kinase activity, reactive oxygen species, or hormone signaling (Jenkins, 2017).

TCP transcription factors are not required for the UV-B responses mediated by miR396

The *miR396* precursor is encoded by two genes, *MIR396A* and *MIR396B*; *MIR396B* is transcriptionally regulated by class II TCPs TFs (Schommer *et al.*, 2014). Thus, we finally investigated if the UV-B modulated growth responses affected in *MIM396* plants were also regulated by this class of TFs. Figure S11 shows that tcp2x3x4x10 quadruple mutant, deficient in the expression of 4 class II TCPs (Bresso *et al.*, 2018), has a smaller rosette area under control conditions in the absence of UV-B than WT Col-0 plants (Figure S11a,b), which is decreased after UV-B exposure. However, the decrease in rosette area after UV-B was similar in both plants (Figure S11b, inset). Similarly, primary root length of the tcp2x3x4x10 mutant was shorter than that of WT plants, both under control conditions and after UV-B exposure between both lines (Figure S11d). Moreover, the quadruple mutant did not show significant differences in DNA damage accumulation (Figure S11e) nor in PCD (Figure S11f) after a UV-B treatment from WT plants. Therefore, miR396 and E2Fc UV-B induced responses are independent of the regulation of class II TCPs.

DISCUSSION

We previously demonstrated that Arabidopsis and maize plants irradiated with UV-B at intensities similar as those present in natural sunlight show an inhibition of leaf growth, and this occurs because UV-B impairs cell proliferation in developing organs (Casadevall et al., 2013; Fina et al., 2017a). This inhibition is, at least in part, regulated by miR396-mediated repression of transcription factors of the GRF family. Interestingly, Radziejwoski et al. (2011) also showed that E2Fe/DEL1 modulates Arabidopsis leaf growth under UV-B conditions; E2Fe controls the basal expression of a CPD photolyase and it is also a repressor of the endocycle onset (Vlieghe et al., 2005). These authors suggested that when DNA is damaged, plants endoreduplicate slower than control plants in the absence of UV-B. Thus, coordinated transcriptional induction of the photolyase with the endoreduplication onset by E2Fe could help plants to adapt to increased UV-B (Radziejwoski et al., 2011). In this work, we analyzed if the role of E2Fe in UV-B responses is regulated by the action of E2Fc, as E2Fe is a transcriptional target of E2Fc (Berckmans et al., 2011). We here demonstrate that E2Fc modulates plant growth under UV-B conditions, but in a different way as E2Fe. Both E2Fc and E2Fe deficient plants show a lower decrease in leaf growth than WT plants after UV-B (Radziejwoski et al., 2011). However, while e2fe mutant leaves after irradiation are bigger mostly because they have bigger cells correlating with increased endoreduplication (Radziejwoski et al., 2011); E2FcRNAi plants have leaves with more cells than WT plants; without showing differences in cell ploidy after exposure. Also, e2fe mutants accumulate lower levels of CPDs after UV-B irradiation, whereas E2FcRNAi plants show similar DNA damage as WT plants (Figure S6, Radziejwoski et al., 2011). Despite E2FcRNAi plants show increased levels of *E2Fe* transcripts, E2Fc and E2Fe probably regulate UV-B responses in distinct ways. Besides E2Fe, E2Fc regulates, directly or indirectly, other targets, such as SOG1 and ATR, which may control cell proliferation; while E2Fe, not through E2Fc coordinates DNA repair by regulating photolyase expression regulation, and endoreduplication onset. As both E2Fb and E2Fc antagonistically control E2Fe expression under light conditions, and E2Fe levels are regulated through the balance between E2Fb and E2Fc expression (Berckmans et al., 2011); it is possible that under UV-B conditions, photolyase levels and the endoreduplication onset may be established through E2Fe mostly regulated by E2Fb, or by other TFs.

RBR1 can bind to the three typical E2F transcription factors E2Fa-c, and inhibit the E2F/DP transcription factor complex when bound to the promoter of genes, repressing their expression in the absence of a signal to enter a new cell cycle (Nakagami *et al.*, 1999 and 2002; Uemukai *et al.*, 2005; Zhao *et al.*, 2012). Interestingly, RBR1 has a role protecting genome integrity in Arabidopsis. When DNA damage occurs, RBR1 and E2Fa are recruited to damaged DNA (Horvath *et al.*, 2017). RBR1 interacts with the DNA repair protein AtBRCA1, which can also co-localize with RBR1 foci, suggesting that they could function together maintaining genome integrity. RBR1 also leads to cell death, especially after exposure to genotoxic agents such as aluminium and *rbr1* mutant cells show increased levels of DNA lesions (Biedermann *et al.*, 2017). As shown in Figure 7, UV-B increases *E2Fc* and *E2Fa* levels; moreover, *E2Fa* expression is further increased in *E2FcRNAi* plants (Figure 2). Since RBR regulates cell death through E2Fa (Horvath *et al.*, 2017), the interconnection between these E2Fs might play regulatory role in the control of organ growth and cell death.

In our experiments, despite E2Fc does not directly participate in DNA repair, it has a role in the DNA damage response after UV-B irradiation, as after exposure, there are less dead root meristematic cells in *E2FcRNAi* compared to those in WT roots. Plants employ PCD when they suffer from severe DNA damage, particularly in stem cells. We here show that E2Fc regulates the expression of SOG1 and ATR. Arabidopsis SOG1 is a plant-specific transcription factor that plays a central role in the DNA damage response, regulating the expression of genes that participate in DNA repair, cell proliferation and cell death. In response to a genotoxic treatment, SOG1 is phosphorylated in an ATM-dependent and ATRindependent manner (Yoshiyama et al., 2013). ATR and ATM are involved in different responses to DNA damage, while ATR mostly recognizes ssDNA damage or replicative stress, ATM recognizes double strand breaks; when these damages occur, either or both kinases activate PCD induction (Culligan et al., 2006, Yoshiyama et al., 2014). Thus, DNA damage by UV-B usually produces ATR-activating structures. Interestingly, in UVBirradiated atr and atm mutants, there is elevated PCD, suggesting that ATR and/or ATM may both activate pathways that regulate PCD after exposure (Furukawa et al., 2010). In contrast, sog1-1 mutant plants are deficient of PCD after UV-B exposure, indicating that SOG1 also has a role in the stem cell death (Furukawa et al., 2010). Interestingly, the sog1-1 mutation impairs transcriptional repression of the cell cycle related genes CDKB2;1 and KNOLLE after DNA damage (Yoshiyama et al., 2009), suggesting that SOG1 is involved in DNA damageinduced cell cycle arrest, and consequently, altered expression of cell cycle genes in E2FcRNAi plants may be mediated by SOG1 regulation. Noteworthy, both SOG1 and ATR

have putative E2F consensus binding sites in their promoters (Figure S12; Vandepoele *et al.*, 2005). Although the direct binding of E2F TF to both promoters needs to be validated, it is possible that these genes may be direct targets of E2Fc. Together, E2Fc may modulate plant growth and DNA damage response after UV-B by regulating *SOG1* and *ATR* expression. In this way, E2Fc may regulate PCD, without having a direct participation in DNA repair.

Besides repressing cell proliferation in developing leaves, E2Fc also regulates root elongation under UV-B conditions. The results presented here demonstrate that that E2Fc not only can act as a repressor, but it can also be an activator during normal development. This was previously shown in de Jager et al. (2009), where they demonstrated that E2Fc can also activate the expression of a number of genes; therefore its in vivo role seems not only as a repressor but also as an activator of gene expression. Changes in the expression of cell cycle genes in del Pozo et al. (2006) are similar as those described now in this work; and despite that there does not seem to be correlation between cell cycle gene expression and the cell phenotypes shown here, both analysis demonstrate that E2Fc is required for proper expression of these genes, and that their altered expression could be related to the observed leaf cell phenotypes in control leaves and after UV-B exposure. On the other hand, we here show leaf and root growth regulation is independent of the expression of UV-B responsive genes of the UVR8 pathway, MPK3 activity, pigment accumulation or oxidative stress responses. On the other hand, E2Fc overexpression does not modify the UV-B responses analyzed. Thus, regulation of target genes by E2Fc probably only requires basal expression levels normally occurring in the cells. Alternatively, overexpression of a truncated E2Fc might function in a different way, eg. competing with related E2Fs for DP proteins.

We here also provide evidence that the regulation of cell proliferation under UV-B conditions mediated by the miR396 pathway requires E2Fc activity. In Arabidopsis plants, UV-B radiation induces the accumulation of miR396 in proliferating cells, and this increase parallels a decrease in the expression of *GRF1*, *GRF2*, and *GRF3* (Casadevall *et al.*, 2013). In this work, we show that miR396 levels are increased by UV-B in *E2FcRNAi* plants, but to a lower degree than that in WT plants. *MIM396* plants that were crossed with *E2FcRNAi* plants look similar to *E2FcRNAi* plants, both under control conditions and after UV-B exposure. Moreover, while *MIM396* accumulates lower DNA damage after UV-B exposure, *E2FcRNAi*, *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* and *E2FcRNAi* plants, *GRF1*, *2* and *3* are similarly expressed as in WT and *E2FcRNAi* plants under control conditions and they are repressed by UV-B, while in *MIM396* plants they are highly expressed and are not down-regulated by UV-B

radiation as previously reported (Figure 7, Debernardi et al., 2012; Casadevall et al., 2013). We previously demonstrated that post-transcriptional regulation of GRFs by miR396 was important for the regulation of leaf growth inhibition by UV-B in maize and Arabidopsis (Casadevall et al., 2013; Fina et al., 2017a). Therefore, postranscriptional regulation of GRFs by miR396 is overcome by decreased levels of E2Fc. Together, E2Fc seems to act epistatically over miR396. As miR396 levels after UV-B exposure are lower in E2FcRNAi plants, the expression of miR396 may require E2Fc activity; or alternatively, proteins that process the miR396 precursor may be regulated by E2Fc. Furthermore, our results show that under control conditions in the absence of UV-B, genes related to cell cycle regulation and DNA damage responses are significantly increased in the E2FcRNAi line (Figure 2 and Figure 4), suggesting that either E2Fc and/or (a) repressor(s) regulated by E2Fc independently of UV-B may modulate plant growth under control conditions, and this could be a reason why the phenotype in *E2FcRNAi* plants is dominant over that of *MIM396* plants. Moreover, under UV-B conditions, a different growth regulator may be expressed, that may affect the expression of miR396, DPa, the cell cycle genes and/or SOG1, which, may also further regulate the decrease leaf area and cell number measured after exposure.

Finally, we provide evidence that the regulation of cell proliferation under UV-B in Arabidopsis is independent of the regulation of class II TCP transcription factors. In Arabidopsis, five class II TCPs (*TCP2*, *TCP3*, *TCP4*, *TCP10*, and *TCP24*) are regulated by the microRNA miR319. miR319-regulated TCPs have been demonstrated to control leaf development and cell proliferation in *A. thaliana* leaves, by activating the expression of *MIR396b* (Palatnik *et al.*, 2003; Schommer *et al.*, 2014). The *tcp2x3x4x10* quadruple mutant, deficient in the expression of 4 class II TCPs (Bresso *et al.*, 2018), has similar UV-B related phenotypes as WT plants. Consequently, miR396 and E2Fc UV-B induced responses are independent of the regulation of class II TCPs.

In conclusion, we here demonstrate that, at UV-B intensities that induce DNA damage, inhibition of cell proliferation is regulated by the E2Fc, which regulates the expression of *SOG1* and *ATR*. E2Fc has also an epistatic role over the miR396 pathway. The inhibition of cell proliferation is independent on the regulation of class II TCP transcription factors. In addition, the previously reported participation of E2Fe in UV-B responses, which is a transcriptional target of E2Fc, is independent and different of that described for E2Fc.

Plant material, growth conditions and irradiation protocols

A. thaliana ecotype Columbia (Col-0) was used for all experiments. The *E2FcRNAi* and *E2FcOE* seed stocks were provided by Dr. Crisanto Gutierrez (Centro de Biología Molecular Severo Ochoa, Spain), the *MIM396* and *tcp* 2x3x4x10 lines were provided by Dr. Javier Palatnik (IBR, Rosario, Argentina); and the *uvr8* and *mpk3* mutants were provided by Dr. Roman Ulm (University of Geneva, Switzerland). Plants were grown and UV-B irradiated as described in Casadevall *et al.* (2013).

Primary root elongation assays were done as describe in Fina et al. (2017b).

Quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA purification and qRT-PCR were done as described in Casadevall *et al.* (2013). Primers for each transcript under study were designed using the PRIMER3 software (Rozen and Skaletsky, 2000). Transcript levels were normalized to those of the *A. thaliana* calcium dependent protein kinase3 that has been previously demonstrated not to be UV-B regulated (Ulm *et al.*, 2004; *CPK3*, Table S1). miR396 levels were determined by stem-loop qRT-PCR, as previously described (Chen *et al.*, 2005). Each qRT-PCR was repeated at least three times on three different biological replicates.

Identification of the artificial target mimic directed against miR396

The identification of the artificial target mimic in *MIM396*, *E2FcRNAixMIM396* and *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* lines was done using a RT-PCR-based approach. The cDNA was synthesized as described in Casadevall *et al.* (2013), and PCR analysis was carried out using primers which hybridize to a specific sequence in the mimic construction (Table S1). Primers that amplify *CBP20* were used as a positive control.

DNA damage analysis, root length measurements and rosette area quantification

Cyclobutane pyrimidine dimers (CPD) accumulation, primary root elongation and rosette area were analyzed as described in Fina *et al.* (2017b).

Microscopic observations and programmed cell death analysis

Microscopic observations of leaves and programmed cell death analysis of meristematic root cells were done as described in Casadevall *et al.* (2013) and Falcone Ferreyra *et al.* (2016).

Flow cytometric analysis of leaf #5

Flow cytometric analysis of leaf #5 was done as described in Fina *et al.* (2017b). The endoreduplication index (EI) was calculated from the percentage values of each ploidy class with the formula: EI=[(0x%2C)+(1x%4C)+(2x%8C)+(3x%16C)+(4x%32C)]/100 (Barrow and Meister, 2003). This experiment was done in triplicate, each time using 10 plants corresponding to each treatment/genotype. In every experiment, for each treatment/genotype, at least 5,000 nuclei were analyzed.

Extraction of total UV-B absorbing compounds

UV-B absorbing compounds extraction was performed as previously described (Falcone Ferreyra *et al.*, 2016). UV-B absorbing compounds were quantified by absorbance at 330 nm, and anthocyanins at 540 nm.

Superoxide staining

For superoxide detection, plants were vacumm-infiltred with 0.35 mg mL⁻¹ nitroblue tetrazolium in 25 mM Hepes buffer pH 7.4. Plants were transferred to 80% (v/v) ethanol and boiled for 2 min. Experiments were repeated three times using at least three different plants.

Analysis of promoter sequences

The analysis of promoter sequences was done using the PlantPAN2.0 software (http://plantpan2.itps.ncku.edu.tw/).

Statistical analysis

Data presented were analyzed using ANOVA models (a = 0.05) using the Sigma Plot package. When comparing two data sets, Student's t test was used (p < 0.05), and significant differences are indicated with different letters.

Accession number

E2Fa (AT2G36010), *E2Fb* (AT5G22220), *E2Fc* (AT1G47870), *E2Fd/DEL2* (AT5G14960), *E2Fe/DEL1* (AT3G48160), *E2Ff/DEL3* (AT3G01330), *DPa* (AT5G02470), *DPb* (AT5G03415), *UVR2* (AT1G12370), *UVR3* (AT3G15620), *GRF1* (AT2G22840), *GRF2* (AT4G37740), *GRF3* (AT2G36400), *HY5* (AT5G11260), *F3H* (AT3G51240), *CHS* (AT5G13930), *UVR8* (AT5G63860), *ATM* (AT3G48190), *ATR* (AT5G40820), *SOG1* (AT1G25580),, *KNOLLE* (AT1G08560), *CDKB1;2* (AT3G54180), *H4* (At2g28740), *miR396A* (AT2G10606); *miR396B* (AT5G35407).

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The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

SHORT SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION LEGENDS:

leaf #5. exposure. Figure S10. Primary root inhibition assays in Col-0, E2FcRNAi, MIM396 and MIM396xE2FcRNAi plants after UV-B exposure.

> Figure S11. UV-B effect on cell proliferation is independent of class II TCP transcription factors.

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Figure S1. Relative expression levels of E2Fc and MIM396 in WT Col-0, E2FcRNAi, silenced *E2FcRNAi*, *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* and *E2FcRNAixMIM396* plants; and phenotypes of silenced *E2FcRNAi* plants.

Figure S2. UV-B affects cell expansion in leaves with non-proliferating cells, and cell proliferation in leaves with diving cells of Col-0, *E2FcRNAi* and *E2FcOE A. thaliana* plants.

Figure S3. UV-B effect on expression levels of E2F and DP proteins in Col-0 and E2FcRNAi

Figure S4. UV-B effect on expression levels of miR396, *E2Fa* and *KNOLLE* in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5 after different times of UV-B exposure.

Figure S5. UV-B effects on leaf growth in proliferating leaves of Col-0 and *E2FcOE* plants.

Figure S6. Primary root inhibition assays, number of stem cells that are dead and relative CPD levels in Col-0 and E2FcOE plants after UV-B exposure. CPD levels, UVR2 and UVR3 expression in Col-0 and E2FcRNAi plants after UV-B exposure.

Figure S7. Analysis of DNA ploidy in leaf #5 of Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* plants.

Figure S8. Rosette area, average leaf area, average cell area, and cell number of fully expanded leaf #5 of control and UV-B treated Col-0, E2FcRNAi, MIM396 and E2FcRNAixMIM396 plants.

Figure S9. Number of stem cells that are dead, relative CPD levels and primary root inhibition assays in Col-0, E2FcRNAi, MIM396 and E2FcRNAixMIM396 plants after UV-B **Figure S12.** Schemes of the *ATR* and *SOG1* promoters showing the positions and sequences of putative E2F-binding sites.

Table S1. Primers used for RT-qPCR and RT-PCR.

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FIGURE LEGENDS:

Figure 1. UV-B affects cell proliferation but not cell expansion in proliferating leaves of Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi A. thaliana* plants.

(a) Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* plants that were treated with UV-B for 4 h or were kept in the absence of UV-B at 12 DAS, 15 days after the end of the treatment.

(b) Rosette area of control and UV-B treated Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* plants measured every 2 days from germination until 20 DAS. Plants were UV-B treated at 12 DAS.

(c) Fully expanded leaf #5 from UV-B treated or control Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* plants. Average leaf area (d), average cell area (e) and cell number (f) of fully expanded leaf #5 from UV-B treated or control plants. Results represent the average \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical significant differences applying ANOVA test (P <0.05).

Figure 2. UV-B effect on expression of cell cycle, proliferation-related genes, and *E2F* transcription factors in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5.

Relative expression levels of *GRF2* (a), *GRF3* (b), miR396 (c), *E2Fa* (d), *E2Fe* (e), *DPa* (f), *KNOLLE* (g), *CDKB1;2* (h) and *H4* (i) by RT-qPCR in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5 under control conditions (C), or immediately after a 4 h-UV-B treatment (UV-B). Results represent the average \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical significant differences applying ANOVA test (P <0.05). Data represent 3 biological replicate experiments. Each qRT-PCR was repeated at least three times on each biological replicate.

Figure 3. Expression analysis of UV-B responsive genes and UV-B absorbing pigment content in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5 after UV-B exposure.

(a-d) Relative expression levels of *UVR8* (a), *HY5* (b), *CHS* (c) and *F3H* (d) by RT-qPCR in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5 under control conditions (C) or after a 4 h-UV-B treatment (UV-B).

(e-h) UV-B absorbing pigments (e-f) and anthocyanins (g-h) in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* leaves under control conditions (C), or after a 4 h-UV-B treatment (UV-B). (f and h) Ratios of absorbances from UV-B-irradiated relative to control leaves are shown.

Results represent the average \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical significant differences applying ANOVA test (P <0.05). Data represent 3 biological replicate experiments. Each experiment was repeated at least three times on each biological replicate.

(UV-B).

(i) NBT staining for superoxide in WT Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* transgenic plants under control condition (C) and after UV-B exposure (UV-B).

Figure 4. Primary root inhibition, stem cell death and expression of DNA damage response genes in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* plants after UV-B.

(a and b) Average root lengths in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* plants (a), and representative pictures of one experiment (b). Results represent the average of 30 biological replicates \pm S.E.M.

(c) Representative images of stem cells and adjacent daughter cells from WT Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* plants that were scored for intense PI staining to count dead stem cells per root after UV-B. (d) Number of stem cells that are dead after UV-B exposure.

(e-g) UV-B effect on expression levels of *SOG1* (e), *ATR* (f) and *ATM* (g) in Col-0 and *E2FcRNAi* leaf #5. Relative expression levels were determined by RT-qPCR under control conditions (C), or after a 4 h-UV-B treatment (UV-B). Results represent the average \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical significant differences applying ANOVA test (P <0.05). Data represent 3 biological replicate experiments. Each qRT-PCR was repeated at least three times on each biological replicate.

Figure 5. UV-B effect in cell proliferation mediated by miR396 requires E2Fc.

(a) Col-0, *E2FcRNAi*, *MIM396* and *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* plants that were treated with UV-B radiation for 4 h or were kept under conditions at 12 DAS, fifteen days after the end of the treatment.

(b) Rosette area of control and UV-B treated Col-0, *E2FcRNAi*, *MIM396* and *MIM396xE2Fc* plants measured every 2 days from germination until 20 DAS. Plants were UV-B treated at 12 DAS.

(c) Fully expanded leaf #5 from UV-B treated or control Col-0, *E2FcRNAi*, *MIM396* and *MIM396xE2Fc* plants.

Average leaf area (d), average cell area (e), and cell number (f) of fully expanded leaf #5 from UV-B treated or control plants. Results represent the average \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical significant differences applying ANOVA test (P <0.05).

Figure 6. Lower DNA damage after UV-B in MIM396 plants requires E2Fc.

(a) Representative images of stem cells and adjacent daughter cells from WT Col-0, *E2FcRNAi, MIM396* and *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* plants that were scored for intense PI staining to count dead stem cells per root after UV-B.

(b) Number of stem cells that are dead after UV-B exposure.

(c) Relative CPD levels in the DNA of WT Col-0 *E2FcRNAi*, *MIM396* and *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* plants immediately after a 4-h UV-B treatment. Results represent averages \pm S.E.M. of six independent biological replicates. Different letters indicate statistical significant differences applying ANOVA test (P <0.05).

Figure 7. Effect of UV-B radiation on *GRF* and *E2F* expression in leaf #5 from different lines.

(a-c) Relative expression levels of *GRF1* (a), *GRF2* (b) and *GRF3* (c) in Col-0, *E2FcRNAi*, *MIM396* and *MIM396xE2FcRNAi* leaf #5.

(d-e) Relative expression levels of *E2Fa-f* in Col-0, *uvr8* (d) and *mpk3* (e) leaf #5.

Transcript levels were determined by RT-qPCR under control conditions (C), or after a 4 h-UV-B treatment (UV-B). Results represent the average \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical significant differences applying ANOVA test (P <0.05). Data represent 3 biological replicate experiments. Each qRT-PCR was repeated at least three times on each biological replicate.



Figure 1









Figure 3.



Figure 4







Figure 6



Figure 7.