

Lecture 12: Ethylene, an olefin



Discovery

Biosynthesis

Physiological effects

Signal transduction

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Discovery of ethylene

During the 19th century: coal gas used for street illumination
- trees in vicinity of street lamps defoliated more extensively than other trees
→ coal gas and air pollutants affect plant growth and development → ethylene identified as the active component of coal gas

1901: **Dimitry Neljubov** identifies that the "**triple response**" is caused by ethylene
- his observation: dark-grown pea-seedlings grown in the laboratory had the following symptoms:



reduced stem/hypocotyl elongation
increased lateral root growth (swelling), reduced root elongation
abnormal, horizontal growth/exaggeration of curvature of apical hook

by growing plants in fresh air, they regained their normal morphology and rate of growth

3-day-old Arabidopsis seedlings

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Discovery of ethylene

1910: **H. H. Cousins** identifies ethylene as a natural product of plant tissues
"emanations" from oranges stored in a chamber caused premature ripening of bananas when gas was passed through a chamber containing the fruit

Note: since oranges produce very little amounts of ethylene, it's likely that the oranges were infected with the fungus *Penicillium*, which produces copious amounts of ethylene

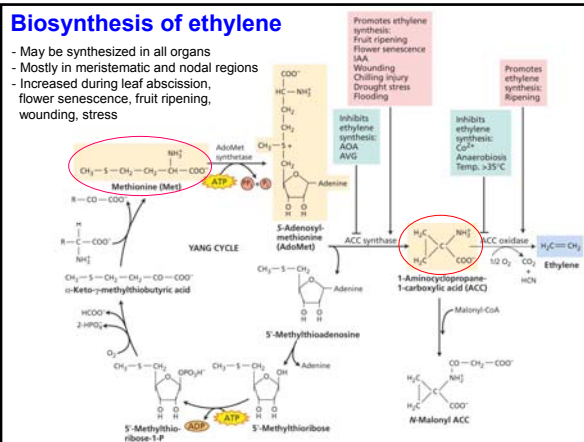
1934: **R. Gane** and others identified ethylene chemically as natural product of plant metabolism
ethylene was classified as a hormone

1959: introduction of gas chromatography → role of ethylene as plant hormone revisited

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Biosynthesis of ethylene

- May be synthesized in all organs
- Mostly in meristematic and nodal regions
- Increased during leaf abscission, flower senescence, fruit ripening, wounding, stress

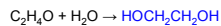


Properties of ethylene

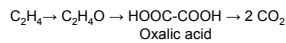
MW = 28 g/mol

Flammable

Readily undergoes oxidation to ethylene oxide, C₂H₄O, which can be hydrolyzed to ethylene glycol



Complete oxidation of ethylene



Released from tissue and diffuses to gas phase through intercellular space and outside the tissue

KMnO₄ – an effective absorbent of ethylene
reduces concentration of ethylene in apple storage areas from 250 μL L⁻¹, extending the storage life of the fruit

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Catabolism and conjugation of ethylene

Catabolism

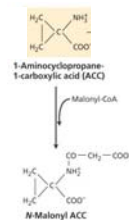
Metabolic breakdown products: CO₂, C₂H₄O, HOCH₂CH₂OH, glucose conjugate of ethylene glycol

Conjugation

- Not all ACC is converted to ethylene

- ACC conjugated to N-malonyl ACC, which does not break down and accumulates in tissue

- Control of ethylene biosynthesis



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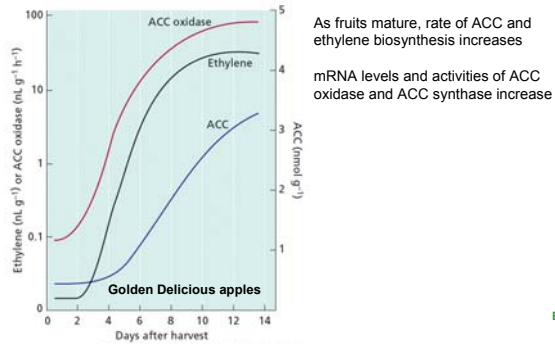
Factors affecting ethylene biosynthesis

Stimulation of ethylene biosynthesis by:

- developmental state (fruit ripening)
- environmental conditions (stress)
- other plant hormones (auxin, cytokinin)
- physical and chemical injury

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Changes in ethylene and ACC content and ACC oxidase activity during fruit ripening



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Factors affecting ethylene biosynthesis

Auxin-induced ethylene production

- auxin promotes ethylene biosynthesis by enhancing ACC synthase activity
- inhibitors of protein synthesis block both ACC and IAA-induced ethylene synthesis
- Transcription of several ACC synthase genes elevated by exogenous IAA

Cytokinins promote ethylene biosynthesis in some tissues

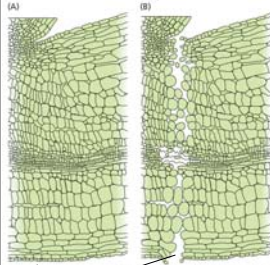
- e.g. application of exogenous cytokinin causes rise in ethylene production, resulting in triple-response phenotype in Arabidopsis
- Effect due to increased stability and/or activity of one isoform of ACC synthase

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Roles of ethylene and auxin during leaf abscission

Abscission = the shedding of leaves, fruits, flowers...

Jewelweed (*Impatiens*)



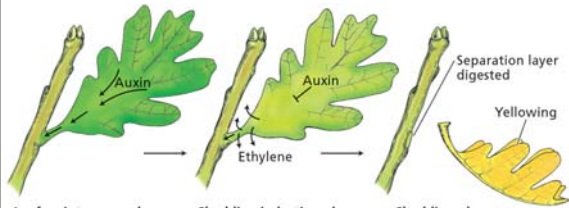
- (A)
- 2 or 3 layers in abscission zone undergo cell wall breakdown
- (B)
- Resulting protoplasts round up and increase in volume, pushing apart the xylem cells, facilitating separation of leaf from stem

Abscission zone

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Roles of ethylene and auxin during leaf abscission

Model of hormonal control of leaf abscission



Leaf maintenance phase
High auxin from leaf reduces ethylene sensitivity of abscission zone and prevents leaf shedding.

Shedding induction phase
A reduction in auxin from the leaf increases ethylene production and ethylene sensitivity in the abscission zone, which triggers the shedding phase.

Shedding phase
Synthesis of enzymes that hydrolyze the cell wall polysaccharides, resulting in cell separation and leaf abscission.

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Effect of ethylene on abscission in birch

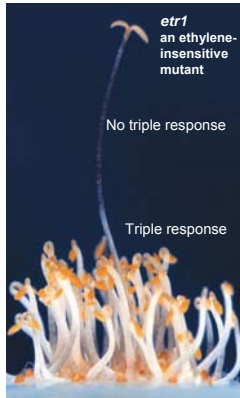


Transgenic: birch plant transformed with mutated version of Arabidopsis ethylene receptor, ETR1

Transgenic plants do not drop their leaves when sprayed with 50 ppm of ethylene

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Ethylene receptors



Isolation of mutant plants that:
 fail to respond to exogenous ethylene (**ethylene-resistant or ethylene-insensitive**)
 display the response even in the absence of ethylene (**constitutive mutants**)

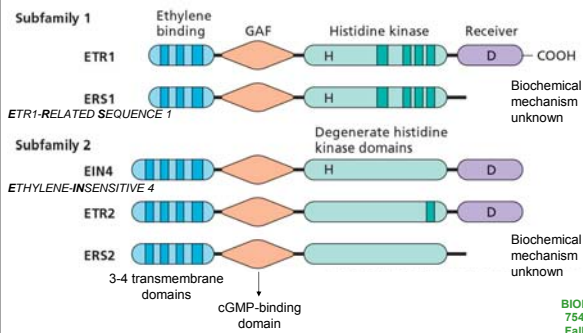
etr1 = **ethylene resistant 1**; first ethylene-insensitive mutant isolated
ETR1 encodes two-component histidine kinase, first eukaryotic histidine kinase isolated
 ↓
 ETR1 might be an ethylene receptor

Arabidopsis seedlings grown in the presence of ethylene

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Ethylene receptors in Arabidopsis

Arabidopsis genome encodes four additional proteins similar to ETR1, which all bind ethylene



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High affinity binding of ethylene to its receptor requires a copper cofactor

Ethylene binds to its receptor via copper or zinc
 predicted because of the high affinity of olefins for these metals

Evidence for copper binding comes from identification of **RAN1 (RESPONSIVE TO ANTAGONIST 1)**
ran1 mutations block formation of functional ethylene receptors
 RAN1 transfers copper ion to ethylene receptor

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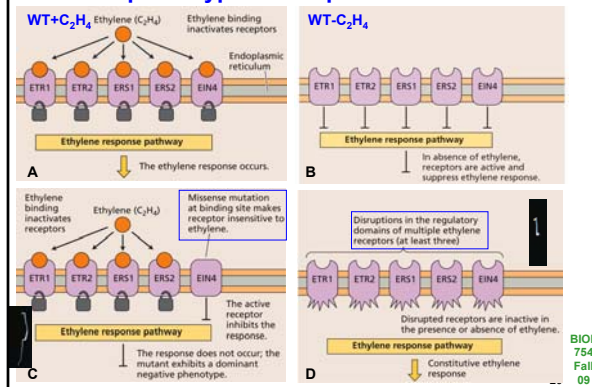
Unbound ethylene receptors are negative regulators of the response pathway

- In Arabidopsis, tomato (and others?), ethylene receptors are encoded by multigene family
- The 5 Arabidopsis ethylene receptors are functionally redundant, i.e.
 - inactivation of one gene → no effect
 - inactivation of all five genes → constitutive ethylene response

Observation that ethylene response, such as triple response, become constitutive when receptors are disrupted → indication that **receptors are normally "on", i.e. in an active state**

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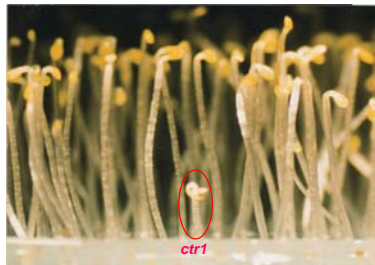
Model of ethylene receptor action based on the phenotype of receptor mutants



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A serine/threonine kinase is also involved in ethylene signaling

ctr1 = constitutive triple response 1 in the absence of ethylene

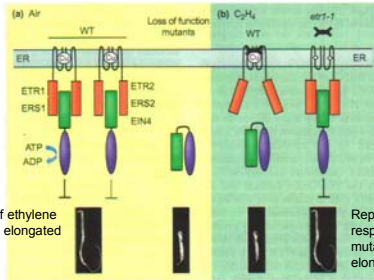


Arabidopsis seedlings grown in dark in air for 3 d

CTR1 – related to RAF-1, a MAPKKK serine/threonine protein kinase (mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase)

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Proposed signaling mechanism of ethylene receptors and CTR1 at the ER



Repression of ethylene responses → elongated hypocotyl

- in absence of ethylene → receptors in active state
- receptors interact with CTR1
- Loss of function of multiple receptors → dissociation of CTR1
- result: ethylene responses occur → short hypocotyl

- presence of ethylene causes conformational change → inactive receptors
- CTR1 is released and becomes inactivated
- result: ethylene responses occur: short hypocotyl
- dominant mutation in receptor that disrupts ethylene binding → constitutive receptor-CTR1 interaction and repression of downstream components

Other components in the ethylene signaling pathway

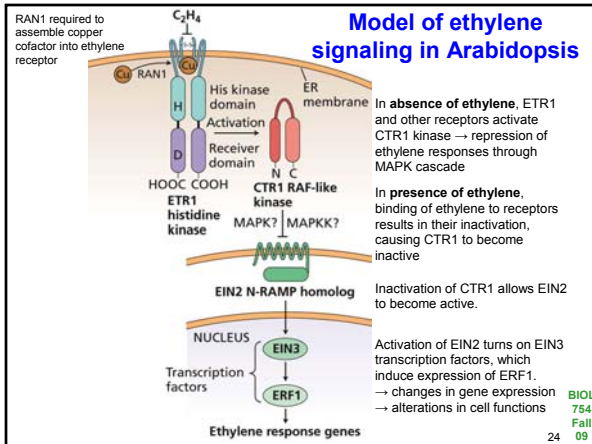
- Ethylene affects mRNA level of numerous genes, e.g. cellulase, ripening-related genes, ethylene-biosynthetic genes

EIN3 transcription factors = key components in mediating ethylene effect on gene transcription

in response to ethylene, homodimers of EIN3 bind to promoter of **ERF1 (ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR 1)** and activate its transcription

ERFs encode proteins belonging to **ERE (ETHYLENE RESPONSE ELEMENT)**-binding proteins, a family of transcription factors

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RAN1 required to assemble copper cofactor into ethylene receptor

Model of ethylene signaling in Arabidopsis

In absence of ethylene, ETR1 and other receptors activate CTR1 kinase → repression of ethylene responses through MAPK cascade

In presence of ethylene, binding of ethylene to receptors results in their inactivation, causing CTR1 to become inactive

Inactivation of CTR1 allows EIN2 to become active.

Activation of EIN2 turns on EIN3 transcription factors, which induce expression of ERF1. → changes in gene expression → alterations in cell functions

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