Obligate Heterodimerization of *Arabidopsis* Phytochromes C and E and Interaction with the PIF3 Basic Helix-Loop-Helix Transcription Factor

Ted Clack, Ahmed Shokry, Matt Moffet, Peng Liu, Michael Faul, and Robert A. Sharrock

Department of Plant Sciences and Plant Pathology, Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana 59717

Phytochromes are dimeric chromoproteins that regulate plant responses to red (R) and far-red (FR) light. The *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome encodes five phytochrome apoproteins: type I phyA mediates responses to FR, and type II phyB–phyE mediate shade avoidance and classical R/FR-reversible responses. In this study, we describe the complete in vivo complement of homodimeric and heterodimeric type II phytochromes. Unexpectedly, phyC and phyE do not homodimerize and are present in seedlings only as heterodimers with phyB and phyD. Roles in light regulation of hypocotyl length, leaf area, and flowering time are demonstrated for heterodimeric phytochromes containing phyC or phyE. Heterodimers of phyC and chromophoreless phyB are inactive, indicating that phyC subunits require spectrally intact dimer partners to be active themselves. Consistent with the obligate heterodimerization of phyC and phyE, phyC is made unstable by removal of its phyB binding partner, and overexpression of phyE results in accumulation of phyE monomers. Following a pulse of red light, phyA, phyB, phyC, and phyD interact in vivo with the PHYTOCHROME INTERACTING FACTOR3 basic helix-loop-helix transcription factor, and this interaction is FR reversible. Therefore, most or all of the type I and type II phytochromes, including heterodimeric forms, appear to function through PIF-mediated pathways. These findings link an unanticipated diversity of plant R/FR photoreceptor structures to established phytochrome signaling mechanisms.

INTRODUCTION

Red (R) and far-red (FR) light and the ratio of these colors are key environmental cues in the regulation of plant growth and development, reproduction, circadian rhythms, and competitive responses. Phytochromes (phys) are soluble chromoprotein receptors that exist in two photointerconvertible forms, R-absorbing Pr and FR-absorbing Pfr (Rockwell et al., 2006; Bae and Choi, 2008). The presence of R converts inactive Pr molecules to the signaling-active Pfr conformation, and, conversely, FR converts them back to inactive Pr. Phytochromes are found in eukaryotes, including plants, green algae, and fungi, and in prokaryotes, including both photosynthetic cyanobacteria and eubacteria (Sharrock, 2008). In eukaryotes, the phy Pr and Pfr forms are predominantly cytosolic and nuclear in location, respectively (Nagatani, 2004; Kevei et al., 2007). Moreover, in higher plants, a large number of downstream signaling partner proteins have been shown to bind differentially to these two photoreversible conformers (Castillon et al., 2007; Quail, 2007; Bae and Choi, 2008).

Plants contain multiple forms of phytochrome, and, in angiosperms, these fall into two functional groups, type I and type II. In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, there are five PHY genes (PHYA–PHYE), and analysis of laboratory mutants, natural sequence variants, and transgenic lines with altered PHY gene expression has revealed many of their in vivo functions. Type I phyA is the primary photoreceptor for very low fluence responses to a broad spectrum of light and for high irradiance responses to continuous FR. Type II phyB–phyE principally regulate R/FR photoreversible low fluence responses and shade-avoidance/neighbor-sensing responses to the ratio of R to FR (Mathews, 2006; Rockwell et al., 2006). Plant phys have a conserved domain structure: PLD-GAF-PHY-PAS-PAS-HKRD (Figure 1A), where domain designations are PAS (Per/Arnt/Sim), PLD (PLA-like), GAF (cGMP phosphodiesterase/adenyl cyclase/Fr/l), PHY (phytochrome-specific), and HKRD (histidine kinase-related domain). Crystal structures for the chromophore binding/photosensory N-terminal PLD-GAF and PLD-GAF-PHY regions of several prokaryotic phytochromes have been determined (Wagner et al., 2005, 2007; Yang et al., 2008). Plant phytochromes contain homodimers of phyA and phyB, and in angiosperms, these fall into two functional groups, type I and type II. In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, there are five PHY genes (PHYA–PHYE), and analysis of laboratory mutants, natural sequence variants, and transgenic lines with altered PHY gene expression has revealed many of their in vivo functions. Type I phyA is the primary photoreceptor for very low fluence responses to a broad spectrum of light and for high irradiance responses to continuous FR. Type II phyB–phyE principally regulate R/FR photoreversible low fluence responses and shade-avoidance/neighbor-sensing responses to the ratio of R to FR (Mathews, 2006; Rockwell et al., 2006). Plant phys have a conserved domain structure: PLD-GAF-PHY-PAS-PAS-HKRD (Figure 1A), where domain designations are PAS (Per/Arnt/Sim), PLD (PLA-like), GAF (cGMP phosphodiesterase/adenyl cyclase/Fr/l), PHY (phytochrome-specific), and HKRD (histidine kinase-related domain). Crystal structures for the chromophore binding/photosensory N-terminal PLD-GAF and PLD-GAF-PHY regions of several prokaryotic phytochromes have been determined (Wagner et al., 2005, 2007; Yang et al., 2008). However, the structure of the plant-specific C-terminal PAS-PAS-HKRD region remains to be solved. Evidence has been presented for R-mediated uncovering of a nuclear localization signal located within the phyB PAS-PAS region (Chen et al., 2005). In addition, various types of experiments, including analysis of the behavior of phy fragments expressed in vivo, yeast and bacterial interaction assays, and results of site-directed mutagenesis indicate that phyA and phyB dimerize via sequences in their C-terminal regions (Edgerton and Jones, 1992; Cherry et al., 1993; Wagner et al., 1996; Kim et al., 2006).

Homodimers of phyA and phyB have been observed in wild-type and phy overexpresser lines (Jones and Quail, 1986; Wagner et al., 1996), and the native complement of
phytochromes in plants has often been assumed to consist of only homodimeric forms. However, in *Arabidopsis*, heterodimers of type II phy have been observed in vivo (Sharrock and Clack, 2004). Formation of such heteromeric photoreceptors increases the potential complexity of R/FR light sensing and signaling mechanisms in plants. Analysis of *phyB* mutants has shown that this phy has a very prominent role in R/FR ratio-sensing and R/FR-reversible responses (Somers et al., 1991; Reed et al., 1993; Weller et al., 1995; Takano et al., 2005). By contrast, *phyC*, *phyD*, and *phyE* mutants in *Arabidopsis* and *phyC* mutants in rice (*Oryza sativa*) are only mildly deficient in R/FR sensitivity compared with the wild type (Aukerman et al., 1997; Devlin et al., 1998; Franklin et al., 2003a; Monte et al., 2003; Takano et al., 2005), indicating that these phy forms mediate more subtle shade/neighbor-induced or R/FR-reversible responses, fine-tuning light development in concert with phyB. This can readily be reconciled with the origin of phyD as the product of a recent duplication of the *PHYB* gene in *Brassicaceae* (Mathews and McBreen, 2008). However, the *PHYC* and *PHYE* genes are ancient and widely distributed in flowering plants (Mathews and Sharrock, 1997; Mathews, 2006), particularly *PHYC*, which arose before the origin of angiosperms, and the in vivo mechanisms of their subtle individual activities and their interactions with phyB are not known.

Phytochromes A and B bind to a large number of signaling proteins in an R/FR light-dependent manner (Castillon et al., 2007; Quail, 2007; Bae and Choi, 2008). The PIF1/PIL5, PIF3, PIF4, PIF5/PIL6, PIF6/PIL2, and PIF7 basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) proteins are principally negative regulators of photomorphogenesis, bind preferentially to the Pfr form of one or both of these phytochromes in vitro, and in most cases are degraded in vivo in phy-dependent ways after transfer from the dark to R (Ni
The Pfors of phyA, phyB, and phyD transiently colocalize with PHYTOCHROME INTERACTING FACTORS (PIF3) in nuclear bodies that form within 2 min of exposure to FR or R light (Bauer et al., 2004). This R-induced association with nuclear bodies and the phosphorylation and degradation of PIF3 in vivo are dependent upon the presence of at least one of either the active phyA binding or the active phyB binding (APB) domains of PIF3 (Al-Sady et al., 2006). PIF1 has been shown to interact with both phyA and phyB in vivo (Shen et al., 2008). However, conformation-dependent interactions between phys and most of the PIFs, including PIF3, have not been confirmed by pull-down assays from plant extracts. Moreover, phyC, phyD, and phyE do not bind to the APB domain of PIF3 protein in vitro as Pr or Pfr, suggesting that these phytochromes may signal through other pathways (Khanna et al., 2004).

In this study, we have characterized the dimerization specificities of the Arabidopsis phytochromes in yeast two-hybrid analyses and by communoprecipitation (co-IP) from seedling extracts. We find that two phytochrome forms, phyC and phyE, do not homodimerize and, instead, heterodimerize with phyB and phyD. Since the PHYC gene evolved very early and representatives of this gene lineage are found in most angiosperms (Mathews and Sharrock, 1997; Mathews, 2006), heterodimerization is likely a fundamental property of phytochromes throughout plants. In addition, we show that phyA, phyB, phyC, and phyD coinmunoprecipitate from seedling extracts with the PIF3 transcription factor in a R/FR-reversible manner. Hence, most or all phytochromes, including heterodimeric forms, appear to function through PIF-mediated pathways.

RESULTS

Phytochrome C-Terminal Binding Interactions

Yeast two-hybrid assays were performed with the Arabidopsis phyA through phyE N-terminal chromophore binding/photosensory regions and with large and small fragments of the C-terminal regions as shown in Figure 1A. No interaction was detected among the 600– to 650–amino acid N-terminal regions, which is consistent with previous observation that the truncated N-terminal regions of phyA and phyB remain monomeric when expressed in plants (Cherry et al., 1993; Wagner et al., 1996). The large C-550 PAS-PAS-HKRD phy regions and the small C-200 phy regions exhibit distinctive patterns of self- and cross-interaction. Figure 1B shows β-galactosidase assay results for all combinations of these C-terminal regions. In control assays, while all of the phy C-550 and C-200 fusions to the GAL4 activation domain (AD) have very low background activities by themselves, several of the GAL4 DNA binding domain (BD) fusions show autoactivation of β-galactosidase, notably the BD-phyB-C550 and BD-phyD-C200 constructs. Taking these background values into account, assay results indicate that the following binding interactions are mediated by sequences in both the phytochrome C550 and C200 clones: A/A, D/D, B/D, B/E, and D/E. Interaction between the phyB and phyE C termini is seen in the AD-phyE-C550 X BD-phyB-C550 assay but not in the reciprocal assay or in assays using the C200 regions of these apoproteins (Figure 1B). The β-galactosidase enzyme values for homodimerization of phyB are low and are seen only with the C200 region. Nevertheless, these assays are consistent with all of the heterodimerization interactions previously observed (Sharrock and Clack, 2004) and with observations that homodimerization of both phyA and phyB is mediated by sequences in their PAS domains and C-terminal 200 amino acids (Edgerton and Jones, 1992; Cherry et al., 1993; Wagner et al., 1996; Kim et al., 2006).

Although the C-200 and C-550 AD-phyC and BD-phyC fusion proteins show no interaction with themselves or any other phytochrome in Figure 1B, they are expressed in yeast (Figure 1C). It is possible that these protein fusions do not fold correctly in yeast cells. No evidence for homodimerization of phyE C-terminal sequences is seen in yeast, although phyE interacts with phyD (Figure 1B), demonstrating that phyE C-terminal sequences are capable of binding interactions in this assay. These findings suggest that phyC and phyE may not homodimerize. To further investigate this, full-length phyB, phyC, and phyE proteins were synthesized in vitro and their quaternary structures were assayed by non-denaturing gel electrophoresis. Supplemental Figure 1 online shows that, although phyB migrates as a homodimer in the presence or absence of phycoerythrin chromophore, neither phyC nor phyE forms a discrete homodimer band.

phyC Forms Only Heterodimers

To test the ability of phyC to bind to itself or to other phytochromes in vivo, transgenes containing epitope-tagged phyC driven by the 3S5 promoter were introduced into No-0 wild-type Arabidopsis (Figure 2A). It has previously been observed that the phyC apoprotein is poorly overexpressed when driven by the 3S5 promoter but that this additional phyC produces an enlarged leaf phenotype (Qin et al., 1997). Figure 2B shows that phyC tagged with six myc epitopes on either its N (m6-COE) or C terminus (COE-m6) can confer the increased leaf area phenotype. Blot analysis shows that the m6-phyC and phyC-m6 proteins are present at levels similar to endogenous phyC in seedling extracts of these lines, so the transgene products are not substantially overexpressed. Immunoprecipitation (IP) of the extracts with anti-myc antibody pulls down either m6-phyC or phyC-m6 but fails to co-IP native phyC (Figure 2C). The tagged phyC proteins also do not pull down phyA or phyE. However, they both co-IP phyB and very weakly pull down phyD (Figure 2C). These results suggest that phyC does not form homodimers in these lines but, instead, heterodimerizes with phyB and to a small extent with phyD. It should be noted that, throughout this article, extract and IP immunoblot panels in figure panels are not always comparable exposures and cannot be used to directly compare the levels of the phytochromes in one panel with those in other panels. Each panel, however, represents results from a single blot so lanes within panels are directly comparable.

Formation of phyB/phyC heterodimers (phyB/C) and a very weak signal for formation of phyC/D heterodimers was previously observed via IP of epitope-tagged phyB and phyD (Sharrock and Clack, 2004). To confirm that phyC does not bind to itself in vivo,
doubly transgenic lines, containing both the m6-COE gene and a 35S:his6-phyC (his6-COE) construct were produced. Figure 2D shows that these lines contain similar levels of the transgene products and native phyC and that IP of m6-phyC from extracts of these plants does not coprecipitate either the native phyC or the his6-phyC.

Expression of m6-phyC from the 35S promoter likely results in that protein being expressed at levels and in cells that are not representative of the normal pattern of the native PHYC promoter, and this could affect the IP results. Therefore, transgenes with a PHYC upstream promoter region fused to either the β-glucuronidase (GUS) or m6-phyC coding region were introduced into the Columbia (Col) wild-type or Col phyC-3 mutant backgrounds. The PPHYC-GUS fusion is broadly expressed throughout seedlings, in a pattern similar to the PPHYB-GUS fusion (see Supplemental Figure 2 online). In Figure 3A, the PPHYC-m6-phyC transgene (m6-PHYC) is seen to fully complement the red light hypocotyl elongation phenotype of the phyC-3 null mutant (Monte et al., 2003). Figure 3B shows that IP of m6-phyC from extracts of WT(m6-PHYC) lines does not coprecipitate native phyC, confirming that phyC does not bind to itself in planta. However, phyB strongly coprecipitates with m6-phyC irrespective of whether native phyC is present or absent. In addition, as in Figure 2C, phyD very weakly co-IPs with m6-phyC, indicating that phyC can bind to phyD but predominantly dimerizes with phyB. The experiments in Figures 2C and 3B were performed with dark-grown seedlings, while those in Figure 2D were done with light-grown seedlings. Homodimerization of phyC was not detected irrespective of the light conditions.

**phyE Forms Only Heterodimers**

Yeast two-hybrid experiments indicate that the C terminus of the phyE apoprotein interacts with the phyB and phyD C termini, but not with itself (Figure 1B). To determine the binding characteristics of phyE in vivo, a PPHYE:phyE-myc6 transgene (PHYE-m6) was introduced into Landsberg erecta (Ler) wild-type, phyE, and phyB phyE (abbreviated phyBE) host plants. The phyE mutation causes early flowering in a phyB background (Devlin et al., 1998), but no effect of the phyE mutation by itself has been reported. Figure 4A shows that the phyE mutant flowers a few days earlier than the wild type under short days and that the PHYE-m6 transgene is biologically active; it induces delayed flowering in a

![Figure 2. Overexpressed phyC Forms Heterodimers with phyB and phyD but Does Not Homodimerize.](image-url)
wild-type background and complements the phyE early-flowering phenotype in both the phyE and phyBE backgrounds. Figure 4B shows that IP of phyE-m6 from extracts of dark-grown WT (PHYE-m6) seedlings fails to coprecipitate native phyE but does co-IP phyB and phyD. Co-IP of phyB and/or phyD with phyE-m6 is also observed in the complemented phyE(PHYE-m6) and phyBE(PHYE-m6) lines (Figure 4B). Similar results to these were obtained from IP of extracts of light-grown seedlings. Therefore, in seedlings, phyE is present as phyB/E and phyD/E heterodimers but not as a homodimer. Although not quantified, phyD was more readily detected than phyB in the phyE-m6 co-IP fractions in these experiments, suggesting that phyD/E heterodimers likely predominate over phyB/E dimers.

The in Vivo Phytochrome Array

Together with the data presented by Sharrock and Clack (2004), Figures 2 to 4 provide a comprehensive assessment of the in vivo binding of each of the four Arabidopsis type II phytochromes to itself, each other, and phyA. Three of the five observed heterodimeric complexes of these molecules (phyB/C, phyB/D, and phyB/E) were previously shown by size-exclusion chromatography to migrate at molecular masses characteristic of phytochrome dimers (Sharrock and Clack, 2004), so it is likely that the interaction of phyD with phyC and phyE also results from dimerization of these proteins. No type II phytochrome shows detectable binding interaction with type I phyA. Therefore, we conclude that the phytochrome array in wild-type Arabidopsis seedlings consists of homodimers of phyA, phyB, and phyD, the phyB/C, phyB/D, phyB/E, and phyD/E heterodimers, and a very small amount of phyC/D (Figure 4C).

To estimate the relative seedling pool sizes of the different forms of phyB, the amounts of phyB homodimer and phyB-containing heterodimers in extracts of the phyB(myc-PHYB) line were determined using a quantitative IP approach. In Figure 5, samples from two independent dark-grown seedling anti-myc IPs were separated by electrophoresis along with standard curves of purified apoproteins, and the quantities of each immunoprecipitated phytochrome were determined from immunoblots. In dark-grown phyB(myc-PHYB) seedlings, the levels of the mycC-phyB, phyC, phyD, and phyE proteins per 1000 μg of total extract protein were calculated as 60 to 80 ng, 3 to 5 ng, 3 to 4 ng, and 0.5 to 2 ng, respectively (Figure 5). This indicates that, out of the total phyB-containing phytochrome in these dark-grown seedlings, the majority (~85%) is homodimeric, with low levels (2 to 7%) of the three heterodimeric forms. These values are not markedly different from the relative levels of the four type II phytochromes (67% phyB, 13% phyC, 10% phyD, and 10% phyE) previously measured in dark-grown wild-type seedlings (Sharrock and Clack, 2002).

Stability and Quaternary Structure of Excess phyC and phyE

Hirschfeld et al. (1998) observed that the level of phyC phytochrome is decreased fivefold relative to the wild type in phyB but not phyA mutants. Figure 6A shows that, in diverse Arabidopsis Ler lines containing single or multiple phy mutations, reduction in phyC level correlates with presence of a phyB null mutation, indicating that, in the absence of its principle binding partner, phyC is destabilized. There is no significant effect of phyD or phyE mutations by themselves on the level of phyC, but there is a small additive effect of combining the phyB and phyD mutations (Figure 6A). This suggests that phyD can weakly stabilize phyC by dimerizing with it when phyB is absent. To test whether loss of phyB shifts the dimerization of phyC to other type II phytochromes or even to itself, extracts of phyB(m6-COE) lines were immunoprecipitated with the myc antibody. Figure 6B shows that there is no evidence for phyC homodimerization in these lines, but dimerization of the m6-phyC protein with phyD is
increased. Therefore, a phyB null mutation in Arabidopsis has complex effects. It not only removes homodimeric phyB and a number of phyB/phyX heterodimeric phytochromes but also causes a reduction in the total level of phyC and an increase in the level of the phyC/D heterodimer.

The level of phyE is not altered in single or multiple phyB or phyD mutants (Figure 6A). Therefore, unlike phyC, absence of its binding partner phytochromes does not destabilize phyE. To test whether the absence of both phyB and phyD causes phyE to

Figure 4. Biological Activity and Heterodimerization of Epitope-Tagged phyE.

(A) Structure of the PHYE-m6 transgene and complementation of the phyE mutant early flowering response. The phyE-myc6 coding sequence was fused to a 1.8-kb PHYE promoter region and transformed into the Ler wild-type, phyE, and phyBE genetic backgrounds. Plants were grown under short days (8 h light/16 h dark) at 21°C. Error bars represent the SE of 12 plants.

(B) Immunoblot analysis of protein extracts of 7-d-old dark-grown seedlings of the lines from (A) prior to immunoprecipitation and of proteins precipitated from those extracts by the anti-myc antibody. Lines expressing the PHYE-m6 transgene in the wild-type background contain both native phyE and the higher molecular weight myc6-tagged phyE.

(C) Phytochrome dimer contents of wild-type and phy mutant lines. The phytochrome complements that have been demonstrated by in vivo co-IP in the wild-type and phyB lines, and those projected for monogenic and selected multiply phy mutant lines are summarized. The symbol (±) indicates a very low amount of that dimer form.

Figure 5. Quantitative Immunoprecipitation Assay for phyB-Containing Dimers.

(A) Immunoblot analysis of anti-myc IP fractions from the phyB(myc-PHYB). Phytochrome dimers were detected and quantified using an anti-phy antibody. The symbol (±) indicates a very low amount of that dimer form.
either homodimerize or heterodimerize with phyC or phyA, a P_PHYE:<myc3-phyE> gene was introduced into the Ler phyBD double mutant. Figure 7A shows that, in these phyBD(m3-PHYE) lines, the absence of phyB and phyD does not cause m3-phyE to dimerize with native phyE or to heterodimerize with phyC or phyA. This suggests that excess phyE molecules remain monomeric. In Figure 7B, native gel analysis of lines overexpressing each of the five myc6-tagged phytochromes shows that phyA, phyB, and phyD, which are capable of forming homodimers, are almost exclusively present as dimers. The 35S:m6-phyC line also contains only dimers of the tagged protein, but m6-phyC is not significantly overexpressed (Figures 2C and 2D). By contrast, overexpressed m6-phyE is predominantly present in plant extracts as a monomer, a form that is not present when myc-tagged phyE is expressed at a normal level from the PHYE promoter (Figure 7B). Hence, cells treat excess amounts of the two obligately heterodimeric phytochromes, phyC and phyE, in

![Figure 6.](attachment:image6.png)

**Figure 6.** Reduced Overall Levels of phyC but Increased phyC/D Heterodimerization in the phyB Mutant. 

(A) Immunoblots of the phyA-phyE protein levels in wild-type and phy mutant lines. Seedlings were grown for 7 d in the dark, proteins were extracted and separated by SDS-PAGE, and immunoblots were prepared and probed with the indicated anti-phy antibodies.

(B) Immunoblots of extracts and myc antibody IPs of phyB mutant lines expressing the m6-COE transgene. Seedlings of the indicated lines were grown for 7 d in the dark, extracts were prepared and immunoprecipitated with anti-myc antibody, and immunoblotting was performed with the anti-phy antibodies. The asterisk indicates a presumed phyC degradation product that does not comigrate with native phyC on gels with higher separation.

![Figure 7.](attachment:image7.png)

**Figure 7.** Lack of Dimerization of phyE in the Absence of phyB and phyD and Accumulation of Overexpressed phyE as a Monomer.

(A) Immunoprecipitation of phyE-m6 and myc2-phyE from seedling extracts of WT(PHYE-m6) and phyB(m3-PHYE) lines. Seven-day-old dark-grown seedlings of the indicated lines were extracted. Extracts were immunoprecipitated with the myc antibody, and IP samples were fractionated on SDS-PAGE, blotted, and probed with the anti-phy antibodies. Very long exposures of the blots in this experiment did not reveal evidence for dimerization of m3-phyE protein with any potential partner phytochrome in the phyB phyD mutant background.

(B) Native gel analysis of non-denatured extracts of seedlings expressing myc-tagged phyA-phyE. 35S promoter-driven overexpression constructs for m6-phyA, m6-phyC, m6-phyD, and m6-phyE were in the No-0 wild-type genetic background. The m6-phyB protein was expressed from the PHYB promoter in the No-0 phyB(myc-PHYB) line, and the phyE-m6 protein was expressed from the PHYE promoter in the Ler phyE(PHYE-m6) line. Samples from two independent lines of the epitope-tagged phyE-expressing genotypes were analyzed. Non-denatured extracts were prepared from 7-d-old dark-grown seedlings and fractionated on 4 to 20% native PAGE gels. Blots of the gels were probed with the anti-myc antibody (d, dimer; m, monomer). A small amount of monomeric phyA is seen in the m6-AOE extract. The bottom panel shows a myc antibody-probed immunoblot of an SDS-PAGE gel of the extracts used in the native gel analysis.
different ways: excess phyC is degraded, whereas excess phyE is stable but monomeric.

**phyC Is Stabilized but Inactive in the Presence of Chromophoreless phyB Apoprotein**

If the instability of phyC in phyB mutant lines (Figure 6A) results from lack of its major dimerization partner, expression of chromophoreless phyB containing a Cys357Ser mutation (PHYBC357S) in the phyB mutant background should restore the phyC level. Figure 8A shows that this in fact occurs. However, expression of chromophoreless phyB does not increase the sensitivity of hypocotyl elongation of the phyB mutant completely lacks type II phytochrome homo- and heterodimers (Figure 4C) and should be phenotypically identical to phyBCD, phyBDE, and phyBCDE multiple mutants. Although not all combinations of phy mutations have been constructed, it appears that this prediction is not borne out. Figure 9 shows flowering times under short days and hypocotyl lengths under R of phyB, phyD, and phyE mutants and lines containing combinations of these mutations. The phyB and phyE mutants flower early relative to the wild type, and combination of phyB with either phyD or phyE exacerbates this phenotype. This is consistent with loss of the predicted phytochrome forms in these lines (Figure 4C). However, the phyBDE triple mutant flowers several days earlier than the phyBDE double mutant, illustrating that, in the absence of its phyB and phyD dimerization partners, phyE has biological activity. Relative to the phyBD line, the phyBDE triple mutant also has elongated hypocotyls under R at the seedling stage (Figure 9). It has previously been observed that these two differ in flowering time at 16°C and that the phyABDE quadruple mutant flowers early and has altered expression of the FLOWERING LOCUS T mRNA relative to the phyABD triple mutant at 16°C (Halliday et al., 2003). These light responses demonstrate that a small flux of signaling activity through pathways involving phyE, mediated either by undetected amounts of homodimers of this protein or by activity of phyE monomers, can have physiological effects.

Similar reasoning suggests that, because phyC forms only heterodimers, a phyABDE quadruple mutant should contain no dimeric phytochrome (Figure 4C). However, phyABDE does not develop under continuous R with a completely etiolated phenotype; it has very small but significant increases in cotyledon area and angle under R compared with in the dark (Franklin et al., 2003b). Hence, a small sensitivity to R remains in Arabidopsis seedlings that contain only phyC. Again, whether this is mediated through undetected phyC homodimers or phyC monomers is not known.

**Phytochrome Heterodimers Interact with the PIF3 bHLH Protein in Vivo in an R/FR-Dependent Manner**

A line expressing a 35S:PIF3-myc6 transgene (PIF3-m6) was constructed and, as previously observed (Kim et al., 2003), showed hyposensitivity to R light (see Supplemental Figure 3 online). Extracts of seedlings of this line harvested over a 10-min time course following a 30-s pulse of R were prepared and immunoprecipitated with the anti-myc antibody. Figure 10A shows that, by 10 min following the R pulse, the PIF3-m6 protein is shifted in migration, due to phosphorylation (Al-Sady et al., 2006), and is beginning to be degraded as previously observed.
for native PIF3 (Bauer et al., 2004; Park et al., 2004; Al-Sady et al., 2006). By 1 min after the R pulse, phyA, phyB, phyC, and phyD are all detected in the PIF3-m6 immunoprecipitate, whereas they are not detected in control samples from untransformed lines or from the non-R-treated samples (Figure 10A). Therefore, all of the phytochromes, with the possible exception of phyE, bind either directly or indirectly to PIF3 upon their conversion to Pfr in vivo.

phyA and phyB synthesized in vitro and assembled with a phycocyanobilin chromophore co-IP selectively in their Pfr forms, indicating that these two phys bind directly to PIF3 after exposure to light (Zhu et al., 2000). In addition, the isolated PIF3 APB domain binds in vitro to phyB but not to phyC or phyD (Khanna et al., 2004). Therefore, the association of the Pfr forms of phyC and phyD with PIF3 in vivo (Figure 10A) more likely results from PIF3 binding to phyB/C and phyB/D heterodimers through their phyB subunits than from direct phyC-to-PIF3 and phyD-to-PIF3 binding. The immunoprecipitate panels for the anti-phy antibodies in Figure 10 are from long exposures of chemiluminescent blots to film, suggesting that only a small fraction of each of these phytochromes is interacting with PIF3. This is expected because PIF3 is predominantly nuclear (Ni et al., 1998), and, in dark-grown seedlings treated with a R pulse, only a small fraction of each of the phytochromes is located in the nucleus (Kircher et al., 2002). Colocalization of phyB–yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) with PIF3–cyan fluorescent protein in nuclear bodies occurs within 2 min of exposure to R light (Bauer et al., 2004), indicating that interaction of these proteins within the nucleus can be rapidly induced by light. However, it cannot be ruled out that, if a small fraction of PIF3 is in fact localized to the cytoplasm, the phyA–phyD that co-IP with PIF3-m6 in Figure 10A could be from the cytosolic phytochrome pool. Either way, it is expected that the majority of PIF3 molecules and the majority of each of the phytochromes are not in the same cellular compartment under the conditions of this experiment, so their interaction should be limited. Of all of the phytochromes, phyC is the most readily detected as binding to PIF3, perhaps because of high specificity and titer of the anti-phyC antibody. Immunoprecipitation data obtained up to this time for phyE interaction with PIF3-m6 in vivo are inconclusive (Figure 10A).

Figure 10B shows that, using 15-s pulses of light, induction by R of co-IP of phyA, phyB, phyC, and phyD with PIF3-m6 is at least partially reversible with FR. Since phyC is present in

Figure 9. Light Responses of Mutants Lacking Selected Combinations of Phytochrome Dimers.

Flowering times under an 8-h-light/16-h-dark photoperiod and hypocotyl lengths of 5-d-old seedlings grown under continuous R (30 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\)) were measured for the indicated lines. Error bars represent the st for 12 plants and 20 to 25 seedlings, respectively.

Figure 10. R/FR-Reversible Co-IP of Phytochromes with PIF3-myc\(_6\) from Seedling Extracts.

(A) Rapid binding of phyA, phyB, phyC, and phyD to PIF3-m6 following a pulse of R light.

Five-day-old dark-grown wild-type and 35S:PIF3-myc\(_6\) seedlings were kept in the dark (D) or exposed to 30-s pulse of R (30 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\)) and returned to the dark. The R-pulsed 35S:PIF3-m6 seedlings were harvested over the indicated 10-min time course, and one R-pulsed wild-type sample was harvested at 3 min following return to the dark. Protein extracts were prepared and IP performed with the anti-myc antibody. Samples of the immunoprecipitates were fractionated by SDS-PAGE, and immunoblots were probed with the anti-myc antibody to detect PIF3-m6 and the anti-phy antibodies. Arrows to the right of the blot panels indicate the positions of the respective antigens. The two arrows to the right of the blot panels indicate the positions of the respective antigens. The two arrows to the right of the blot panels indicate the positions of the respective antigens. The two arrows to the right of the blot panels indicate the positions of the respective antigens.

(B) FR reversibility of R-induced phy-PIF3 binding. Five-day-old dark-grown 35S:PIF3-myc\(_6\) seedlings were kept in the dark (D) or exposed to 15-s pulse of R (39 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\)) or 15-s pulse of R followed by 15-s FR (39 \( \mu \)mol m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\)), returned to the dark, and harvested 3 min later. Proteins were extracted and immunoprecipitated with anti-myc antibody. IP samples were fractionated by SDS-PAGE, and immunoblots were probed with the anti-myc or anti-phy antibodies. The IP blots on the right include parallel blots of the dark extract (Ext.) that were fractionated on the same PAGE gels as the IP samples to provide size standards for the phy proteins.
DISCUSSION

Since the initial description of multiple forms of phytochrome in plants (Sharrock and Quail, 1989), there has been a prevailing assumption that, as was originally shown for purified native phyA (Jones and Quail, 1986), all phytochromes in cells exist as homodimers. This assumption was challenged by the identification of phy heterodimers in Arabidopsis seedling extracts (Sharrock and Clack, 2004). Here, by testing the binding specificities of all of the Arabidopsis phytochromes using yeast two-hybrid and co-IP analyses, we conclude that in fact heterodimerization of plant phy is common. More remarkably, there is no evidence for homodimerization of phyC or phyE, indicating that these two forms are present in cells only as heterodimers with phyB or phyD. These observations lead to a revision of the model for the higher-plant R/FR-sensing photoreceptor array and have important implications for the interpretation of phenotypes of the phy mutants and phy overexresser lines that have been central to defining plant photoreceptor functions and interactions. Figure 4C shows a summary of the phytochrome contents of wild-type Arabidopsis and a number of phy mutants and mutant combinations. With regard to other species, it will be interesting to determine whether phyB and phyC, which are present in most dicots and monocots, always form a heterodimer and whether any gymnosperm phys also show this property.

It is likely, though not yet directly shown, that all of the higher-plant phys attach the same phytochromobilin chromophore and that differences in the photosensing and regulatory activities of the phyA-E receptor types reflect differences in their respective apoprotein sequences. The PHY gene family has changed and expanded over the course of angiosperm evolution (Mathews, 2006). The progenitor PHYA, PHYB, and PHYC genes diverged early, as most angiosperms contain these three homologs, and their products are similarly divergent in amino acid sequence (~50% identity). The PHYE gene arose later, by duplication of PHYB, but probably early in the dicot lineage. Our findings suggest that PHYC and PHYE evolved to encode proteins that function in physical association with PHYB and PHYB-like gene products, increasing the diversity of R/FR receptor types in a combinatorial way. The PHYD gene arose via a much later duplication of PHYB in Brassicaceae (Mathews and McBreen, 2008). Like phyB, phyD can heterodimerize with phyC and phyE. From these considerations, we propose that phyB and phyD constitute the core type II phytochrome subunits through which type II phy function is mediated. Moreover, since formation of the phyB<sup>2357S</sup>/phyC heterodimer does not significantly alter the sensitivity of the phyB mutant to R, it is likely that phyC subunits require active phyB core partners to be active themselves.

Yeast two-hybrid analyses indicate that the Arabidopsis phytochrome homomeric and heteromeric subunit interactions are mediated by sequences in the C-terminal halves of the apoproteins. This is consistent with previous observations that deletion of the C-terminal 200 amino acids of oat (Avena sativa) phyA or the C-terminal 470 amino acids of Arabidopsis phyB generates monomeric photoactive N-terminal phy fragments in vivo (Cherry et al., 1993; Wagner et al., 1996). Cyanobacterial, eubacterial, and fungal phytochromes have C-terminal domains that function as light-regulated two-component histidine kinases, whereas plant phyts have unique C termini that contain two PAS domains and a region homologous to two-component histidine kinases but lacking residues critical to HK activity (Sharrock, 2008). The phyB/C terminus is required for light-induced nuclear localization and nuclear body formation (Chen et al., 2005). Our findings demonstrate that this region of plant phy is also critical for intrasubunit contacts that determine dimer structure and heterogeneity. Moreover, in phyB<sup>2357S</sup> lines, phyC subunits are stabilized by and presumably bound to chromophoreless phyB subunits but lack light-sensing activity. This suggests that dimerization and intrasubunit interactions are integral to phy signaling mechanisms.

The light-dependent phenotype of phyB null mutants is much stronger than that of monogenic phyC, phyD, or phyE null mutants. The phyB phenotype includes deficiencies in R/FR-regulated hypocotyl elongation, hook opening, cotyledon and leaf expansion, flowering time, gene expression, and circadian timing (Somers et al., 1991; Reed et al., 1993). The monogenic phyC, phyD, and phyE mutants show similar but milder alterations in subsets of those light responses (Aukerman et al., 1997; Devlin et al., 1998; Franklin et al., 2003a; Monte et al., 2003). We have shown that the majority of phyB is present in seedlings as phyB/B homodimers, but 2 to 7% is present as each of the phyB/C, phyB/D, and phyB/E heterodimers. Considering the levels of the various phy proteins present in seedlings (Sharrock and Clack, 2002), these proportions are consistent with approximately equivalent probabilities of a phyB subunit dimerizing with any of its four partners. Although phyB/B homodimers appear to have stronger overall activity than any of the individual heterodimers, it may be difficult to predict the selective value of individual photoreceptor function. For example, when analyzed under laboratory conditions, phyB mutants flower early under most photoperiods, but phyC mutants do not, suggesting that phyB/C heterodimers play only a minor role in this response (Franklin et al., 2003a; Monte et al., 2003). However, polymorphism at the PHYC gene accounts for significant variation in flowering time, and growth responses among Arabidopsis ecotypes and different naturally occurring PHYC alleles, presumably functioning through phyB/C heterodimers, are subject to diversifying selection (Balasubramanian et al., 2006).

The instability of phyC in phyB null-containing mutants, accompanied by a concurrent increase in the low-abundance phyC/D heterodimer, and formation of phyE monomers when that protein is overexpressed lend support to a model for phytochrome structural diversity that has obligate heterodimerization as a major component. Nevertheless, there are some inconsistencies between the proposed phy contents of some of the Arabidopsis mutant lines in Figure 4C and the light response phenotypes of those lines. For example, pairs of multiple mutants that should completely lack type II phy dimers but differ in the presence or absence of a phyE mutation (phyBD versus phyBDE and phyABD versus phyABDE) show small differences in light...
Response (Figure 9; Franklin et al., 2003b; Halliday et al., 2003; Halliday and Whitelam, 2003). In addition, the Arabidopsis phyABDE quadruple mutant retains a slight sensitivity to R for cotyledon expansion and induction of ATHB-2 gene transcription (Franklin et al., 2003b). These observations indicate that phyC and phyE have some signaling activity in the absence of their known dimerization partners. It is not known whether this weak partner-independent function results from the activity of phyC and phyE monomers or from pools of phyC and phyE homodimers that we have been unable to detect.

There is a great deal of evidence for direct light-regulated interaction of phyA and phyB with downstream signaling proteins (Castillon et al., 2007; Quail, 2007; Bae and Choi, 2008). One major group of these proteins consists of the members of the PIF/PHL bHLH family. The archetypal phytochrome binding bHLH protein, PIF3, was shown to bind differentially in vitro to phyA and phyB in their Pfr conformations (Ni et al., 1999; Zhu et al., 2000). PIF3 is rapidly phosphorylated and degraded in vivo after a pulse of R, and the pif3 mutant is hypersensitive to R at the seedling stage (Bauer et al., 2004; Monte et al., 2004; Park et al., 2004). These findings demonstrate that PIF3 primarily functions during deetiolation as a negative regulator of photomorphogenesis, although a positive role for PIF3 in rapidly phy-induced regulation of gene expression has also been shown (Al-Sady et al., 2008). The PIF1/PILO, PIF3, PIF4, PIF5/PILO6, PIF6/PILO2, and PIF7 bHLH proteins all function downstream of phyA and/or phyB, and mutations in the genes encoding these proteins result in defective light-sensing phenotypes. Like PIF3, the PIF1, PIF4, and PIF5 proteins are phosphorylated and degraded in R (Shen et al., 2007; Lorrain et al., 2008; Shen et al., 2008). In addition, PIF3 and PIF7 colocalize with phyA or phyB in nuclear bodies (Bauer et al., 2004; Al-Sady et al., 2006; Leivar et al., 2008). However, only one bHLH protein has previously been shown by co-IP to interact with phytochrome in a light-regulated manner in vivo; PIF1/RFR reversibly co-IPs phyA and phyB (Shen et al., 2008). We have demonstrated, using co-IP from seedling extracts, that PIF3 binds, either directly or indirectly, to phyA, B, C, and D within the first few minutes after a 15- or 30-s pulse of R and that this binding is partially reversed if the R pulse is followed by a FR pulse. These results provide direct evidence for light-regulated phy-PIF3 interaction in vivo. They also show that PIF3 binds to both homodimeric and heterodimeric phytochromes because phyA is present only as a homodimer and phyC is present only as a heterodimer in the seedling extracts. Khanna et al. (2004) demonstrated that the PIF3 APB domain binds in vitro to phyB but not phyC or phyD. Therefore, it is likely that the phyC and phyD molecules that coprecipitate with PIF3 in Figure 10 are pulled down as a result of PIF3 binding to phyB subunits present in phyB/C and phyB/D heterodimers. Nevertheless, these results suggest that all phytochromes, with the possible exception of phyE-containing forms, signal at early stages of deetiolation through PIF proteins.

Experiments monitoring the localization of phy-green fluorescent protein fusions of type II phyB-E all show some fluorescence in nuclei of etiolated cells, suggesting that a small fraction of these phy is constitutively nuclear. Following transfer from dark to continuous R, phyB-YFP and phyD-YFP colocalize with PIF3-cyan fluorescent protein within minutes (Bauer et al., 2004). The time courses of in vivo PIF3-m6 interaction with phyA, B, C, and D presented here are consistent with those observations, showing that these four phys can be pulled down by PIF3-m6 within a minute after an R pulse and that these interactions peak at ~3 min after the light pulse. This supports a model in which the Pfr forms of small fractions of the diverse phy dimer forms, either rapidly translocated from the cytoplasm to the nucleus upon exposure to light or present in the nucleus prior to light-induced nuclear import of larger amounts of the phys, bind to members of the PIF bHLH family and mediate rapid R/FR responses. These findings contribute to a growing understanding of photoreceptor function and early transduction events in light signaling pathways.

METHODS

Plant Growth, Measurement, and Histochemical Staining

The Arabidopsis thaliana phyB-1, phyD-1, and phyE-1 mutant lines and the multiply mutant lines generated from these are in the Ler genetic background (Aukerman et al., 1997; Devlin et al., 1998; Franklin et al., 2003b). The phyC-3 mutant is in the Col background (Monte et al., 2003). Seeds were surface sterilized and planted on Murashige and Skoog medium containing 0.8% agar without sucrose. The plates were incubated in the dark for 3 d at 4°C, exposed to fluorescent light at room temperature for 3 h to induce uniform germination, and then transferred to the growth conditions described in the figure legends. R (670 nm) and FR (735 nm) light were supplied by LEDs in an E-30LED growth chamber (Percival). Hypocotyl lengths were determined by laying out at least 20 seedlings per treatment on 0.8% agar plates, photographing them, and measuring the hypocotyls using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health). First primary leaf areas were measured by excising these organs from 10-d-old seedlings grown under fluorescent light (60 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹), placing them on agar plates, and determining their areas using ImageJ. Flowering experiments were conducted in a growth chamber (Conviron) containing fluorescent bulbs (160 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) at 21°C. Flowering time was measured as the day on which the first floral bud became visible at the center of the rosette. Histochemical staining of seedlings for GUS activity was performed as described (Goosey et al., 1997).

Plasmid Construction and Plant Transformation

All plant transformation plasmids were constructed in vectors derived from pBl123 (Sharrock et al., 2003a). These carried selectable marker genes encoding kanamycin resistance, designated pBI clones, or gentamicin resistance, designated pGNT clones. Full-length PHYA, PHYB, PHYC, and PHYD cDNA sequences from the Col ecotype and a PHYE cDNA sequence from the Ler ecotype were used in construction of all recombinant clones. The phyB(myc-PHYB) and WT(myc-DOE) lines were as described (Sharrock and Clack, 2004). The PHYB, PHYC, and PHYE cDNA sequences were translationally fused at their N termini or their C termini to the myc9, his6, or myc3 epitope tags and placed under the control of the 35S promoter, a PHYC gene promoter region, or the PHYB or PHYE gene promoters previously described (Goosey et al., 1997), as indicated for each construct. DNA sequences, relevant restriction sites,
and protein reading frames of the N-terminal and C-terminal cloning junctions from the epitope-tagged transgenes are presented in Supplemental Figure 4 online. DNA oligonucleotides used in construction of recombinant genes are listed in Supplemental Table 1 online. The PHYC promoter fragment contained 3149 bp of Col genomic sequence upstream of the ATG start codon. For the PPHYC::GUS transgene, a fragment containing the 3.15-kb PHYC promoter and the first 21 amino acids of the phyC polypeptide was translationally fused to the GUS sequence. The PHYB::GUS transgene was identical to the PphyB::phyB construct (Sharrock et al., 2003b) except for a G-to-C substitution at base pair 1070 of the phyB coding sequence, changing the chromosome attachment site Cys-357 to a Ser. Site-directed mutagenesis was performed with a Quik-Change Lightning kit (Stratagene). The PIF3 coding sequence was amplified by RT-PCR from Col wild-type dark-grown seedling cDNA, prepared with a SuperScript III cDNA kit (Invitrogen).

Plant transformations were performed by the floral dip method using Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101. The pBI-3SS:myc6-phyC (m6-COE), pBI-3SS:phyC-myc6 (COE-m6), and pGNT-3SS:his6-phyC (his6-COE) T-DNA regions were transformed into No-0 wild type, and the pBI-3SS:myc6-phyC (m6-COE) construct was also transformed into No-0 phyB-1. The pBI-PHYC::phyC-myc6 (m6-PHYC) construct was transformed into Col wild type and phyC-3. The pBI-PHYC::phyE-myc6 (PHYE-mq) T-DNA region was transformed into the Ler wild-type, phyE-1, phyE-1 phyD-1, and phyB-1 phyE-1 backgrounds. The pBI-PHYC::phyC357S-myc3-phyE (m3-PHYE) gene was transformed into Ler phyB-1 phyD-1. The PHYE promoter fragment consisted of 1.8 kb of genomic sequence upstream of the phyE start codon. The pBI-PHYC::phyC357S-myc3-phyE (PHYB::GUS) T-DNA was transformed into No-0 phyB-1, and the pBI-3SS:myc6-phyA (m6-AOE) and pBI-3SS:myc6-phyE (m6-EOE) constructs were transformed into No-0 wild type. The pBI-PHYC::phyC357S-myc6 was transformed into the Col wild type. In each of these transformations, multiple independent homozygous T3 lines expressing the PHY transgene were identified and used in experiments.

Protein Extraction, Immunoprecipitation, Immunoblots, and Native Gel Electrophoresis

Seedling protein extracts were prepared, and IPs were performed with the anti-myc 9E10 antibody as described (Sharrock and Clack, 2004). Seedling extract and IP samples were analyzed by 6% SDS-PAGE, and incubations at 30°C. Immunoblotting, and detection of antigen with the monoclonal antibodies anti-myc 9E10, anti-phyA 073d, anti-phyB B6B3, anti-phyC C11 and C13, were performed. Seedling protein extracts were prepared, and IPs were performed with the anti-myc antibody as described (Sharrock and Clack, 2004). Yeast two-hybrid assays were performed with materials and protocols from the Matchmaker GAL4 System 3 (Clontech). Regions from the PHY cDNA sequences encoding the following phy amino acid sequences were PCR amplified and cloned into the pGAD-T7 and pGBK-T7 vectors: phyA C-550 (S589-K1122) and phyA C-200 (Q930-K1122), phyB C-550 (E620-Y1172) and phyB C-200 (Q962-Y1172), phyC C-550 (Q578-11111) and phyC C-200 (Q917-11111), phyD C-550 (E824-S1164) and phyD C-200 (S955-S1164), and phyE C-550 (R570-K1112), and phyE C-200 (Q905-K1112). Primers used in PCR are listed in Supplemental Table 1 online. Assays were performed under room light conditions.

In Vitro Transcription and Translation

By introducing NdeI sites at their ATG start codons (see Supplemental Table 1 online), the full-length Arabidopsis Col wild-type PHYB and PHYC cDNA sequences were cloned into the PET3c expression vector and the Ler wild-type PHYE cDNA sequence was cloned into the pET-30a expression vector (Novagen). Plasmid DNA samples were amplified with primers 5′-TCCCGCAGAAATTACTACGAC-3′ and 5′-CCGGATATGTTCTCCCTTCA-3′ to produce template PCR fragments, and these were transcribed and translated in the presence of 35S-methionine using reagents and protocols from the TNT T7 Quick for PCR DNA kit (Promega). Following incubation for 90 min at 30°C for transcription/translation, 10 μM 3E-phycocyanobilin was added to some reactions, and incubations at 30°C were performed for an additional 90, 180, and 270 min. Labeled reactions were fractionated on 4 to 20% nondenaturing PAGE gels, dried, and exposed to autoradiography film. Phycocyanobilin was prepared from lyophilized Spirulina patens (Terry et al., 1993).

Accession Numbers

Sequence data from this article can be found in the Arabidopsis Genome Initiative or GenBank/EMBL databases under the following accession numbers: PHYA (AT1G09570), PHYB (AT2G18790), PHYC (AT5G35840), PHYD (AT4G16250), PHYE (AT4G18130), and PIF3 (AT1G09530).

Supplemental Data

The following materials are available in the online version of this article.

**Supplemental Figure 1.** Native Gel Analysis of in Vitro–Translated phyB, phyC, and phyE with and without Phycocyanobilin Chromophore.

**Supplemental Figure 2.** Histochemical Localization of PPHYC::GUS Expression in Light-Grown Seedlings.

**Supplemental Figure 3.** Hypocotyl Lengths of Wild-Type and the 3SS:PIF3-myc6 Transgenic Line Grown for 7 d under 25 μmol m−2 s−1 Continuous Red Light.

**Quantitative Immunoprecipitation Assay**

Seedlings of the phyB(myc-PHYB) line (Sharrock and Clack, 2004) were grown for 7 d in darkness, extracted, and immunoprecipitated as two independent replicate experiments. Samples of tissue extracts containing 833 μg of total protein from the first experiment and 1000 μg from the second experiment were immunoprecipitated with the anti-myc antibody and fractionated by 6% SDS-PAGE along with standard curves of purified Escherichia coli-expressed phyB–phyE apoproteins (Sharrock and Clack, 2002). Gels were blotted to nitrocellulose and probed with the anti-phy antibodies. Immunoblot chemiluminescence signals on autoradiography film were scanned and quantified by densitometry (Sharrock and Clack, 2002).
Supplemental Figure 4. Sequences of PHYC, PHYE, PHYA, and PIF3 Epitope-Tagged Transgene Cloning Junctions.

Supplemental Table 1. Oligonucleotide Primers.

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Obligate Heterodimerization of *Arabidopsis* Phytochromes C and E and Interaction with the PIF3 Basic Helix-Loop-Helix Transcription Factor

Ted Clack, Ahmed Shokry, Matt Moffet, Peng Liu, Michael Faul and Robert A. Sharrock

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