

Effect of short term high temperature exposure on gene expression in
raspberry cultivars

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Running head- '*Temperature stress and gene expression in raspberries*'

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SUMMARY

Effect of high temperature stress (27 and 37°C for 24 h) on gene expression profiles of annual-fruited raspberry cultivars ‘Autumn Bliss’, ‘Autumn Treasure’, ‘Erika’ and ‘Polka’ at the flower initiation stage were evaluated using a custom *Rubus* microarray. Significant genes were obtained by pairwise t-tests using volcano plots for each cultivar by treatment. An elevation of temperature ($\Delta 10^{\circ}\text{C}$) altered the expression of 40 genes (38 were down- and two up-regulated) amongst the four cultivars. Volcano filtering identified 12 common candidate genes that were modulated differentially in ‘Autumn Bliss’ and ‘Erika’ at 37°C compared to 27°C. Two aquaporin genes (PIP1 and TIP2) were down-regulated in ‘Autumn Bliss’ but up-regulated in ‘Autumn Treasure’, ‘Polka’ and ‘Erika’. Down-regulated genes included those encoding major latex-like protein (MLPs), plasma membrane proteins (PMPs), cysteine proteins and other stress-related proteins. Validation by real-time quantitative RT-PCR indicated subtle gene expression changes suggesting a mild response to heat stress. This study has used molecular tools to increase our understanding and identify candidate genes involved in the heat stress response of raspberry cultivars.

Most raspberry (*Rubus idaeus* L) production is concentrated in cold temperate areas of the world. However, annual-fruited raspberries tend to be grown in warmer regions such as Southern parts of Europe where the summer temperature is relatively high (Graham *et al.*, 2007; Graham and Jennings, 2009). The optimum temperature for annual-fruited raspberry cultivation ranges from 16 to 24°C but some cultivars like ‘Polka’ grow successfully even at 30°C (Sonsteby and Heide, 2009). Existing raspberry cultivars are poorly adapted to high temperatures that may occur during the summer months and in protected cultivation (e.g., greenhouse and tunnels) (Ballington and Fernandez, 2008). A study by Gotame *et al.* (2013) indicated that temperatures above 32°C generally reduced maximum photosynthetic efficiency in annual-fruited raspberries. The outdoor temperature is expected to fluctuate more and increase further due to climate change. Elevated temperatures have adverse effects on plant physiology, biochemistry and metabolism (Wahid *et al.*, 2007), modulate gene expression, proteins and metabolites (Ahuja *et al.*, 2010), and cause protein aggregation and denaturation (Berry and Bjorkman, 1980). In strawberry, total protein content decreased and peroxidase activity increased when leaves were exposed to temperatures above 25°C (Gulen and Eris, 2004). As with other abiotic stresses, growing plants at a high temperature also triggers defence mechanisms by changing the levels of gene transcripts through physical changes within the plant system and by creating signals for metabolic adjustment (Mittler *et al.*, 2012). Heat stress causes alterations in the expression of genes for osmoprotectants, detoxifying enzymes, transporters, and regulatory proteins. For example, an analysis of grapevine leaves reported that heat stress up-regulated by two-fold, genes of important traits including cell rescue, protein fate, primary and secondary metabolism, transcription factors and signal transduction compared to recovered leaves (Liu *et al.*, 2012).

Microarrays are powerful tools for measuring the expression of many genes of interest in different tissues and stages of development (Slonim and Yanai, 2009). Gene expression

profiling using microarrays have increased our understanding of several important biological questions in many crops including berries (e. g. strawberry, blackcurrant, raspberries etc.) during specific physiological conditions (Aharoni and O'Connell, 2002; Mazzitelli *et al.*, 2007; Chen *et al.*, 2010; Hedley *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, they have also been used to evaluate the changes in gene patterns and transcriptome levels affected by high temperature in horticultural crops e.g., Chinese cabbage (Yang *et al.*, 2006), tomato (Frank *et al.*, 2009), sunflower (Hewezi *et al.*, 2008), potato (Ginzberg *et al.*, 2009) and grapes (Liu *et al.*, 2012). Microarrays were also used to identify candidate genes associated with bud dormancy release in raspberry (Mazzitelli *et al.*, 2007) and blackcurrant (Hedley *et al.*, 2010). These studies related the expression of specific genes to physiological changes during normal growth conditions.

Gene expression in response to high temperature conditions in leaf tissues of raspberry, particularly at the flower initiation stage has not yet been reported. In this study, we used a *Rubus* microarray to study the effect of high temperature conditions (27 and 37°C) for a short period (24 h) on gene expression levels in four annual-fruited raspberry cultivars ('Autumn Bliss', 'Autumn Treasure', 'Erika' and 'Polka'). In terms of heat tolerance and susceptibility, 'Autumn Bliss' was the most susceptible and 'Autumn Treasure' and 'Erika' showed some degree of tolerance based on chlorophyll fluorescence and chlorophyll pigment analysis (Gotame *et al.*, 2013). Therefore in this study, we selected and compared the most susceptible to more tolerant cultivars to identify gene expression changes in raspberry leaves under high temperature stress.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material and treatment

Rootstocks of four annual-fruited raspberry cultivars, 'Autumn Bliss', 'Autumn Treasure', 'Erika' and 'Polka' were propagated in 3.5 L pots in duplicate and grown under greenhouse conditions at 20 ±5°C with a photoperiod of 14 h until flower initiation. Irrigation was supplied once a day to achieve pot capacity with a fertilizer solution with an EC of 2.16 mS cm⁻¹ containing 40 mg L⁻¹ NH₄-N, 165 mg L⁻¹ NO₃-N, 44 mg L⁻¹ phosphorus (P) and 257 mg L⁻¹ potassium (K). When plants reached the stage of flower initiation (usually seven weeks after root sprouting), they were transferred to climate chambers (MB-teknik, Broendby, Denmark) set at 27 and 37°C with a day length of 14 h. In the climate chambers, the irradiance was constant at 350 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ photosynthetic active radiation and relative humidity was 60% ±5%. All plants were watered by hand with a complete nutrient solution to pot capacity at constant times of day of 08:00 am and 05:00 pm. The youngest leaf at the top of the shoot from each plant was collected after 24 h exposure to high temperature and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored in -80°C before freeze dried (Christ Gamma 1-20 LSC, UK) for RNA extraction.

RNA isolation

Total RNA was extracted from freeze dried leaf (0.1 g) samples collected after 24 h heat exposure using the RNeasy® Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's recommendations including the addition of 10% v/v RNA Isolation Aid (Ambion Life Technologies Ltd, UK) and 1% v/v β-mercaptoethanol (Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., UK) to extraction buffer RLT. The concentration and purity of the RNA was analyzed spectrophotometrically at 230, 260, and 280 nm using a NanoDrop® ND-1000 Full-spectrum UV-Visible Spectrophotometer (ThermoFischer Scientific, Epsom, UK) and an A₂₆₀/A₂₈₀ ratio of 1.8-2.0 indicated good quality RNA. The integrity of the RNA was also checked by

both agarose gel electrophoresis (2%) and an Agilent Bio-analyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) which reports an objective RNA integrity indicator value (RIN) ranging from one (degraded) to ten (intact). The RNA extracted from the leaf material of all four raspberry cultivars had A_{260}/A_{280} ratios in the range of 1.8-2.0 and RIN values were usually >7.0 indicating a high quality. The RNA samples were aliquoted in batches and stored at -80°C.

Microarray processing and data analysis

A simple pairwise microarray experimental plan was devised to utilise the *Rubus* Agilent 60 K microarray developed at the James Hutton Institute, UK and designed from a unigene set derived from RNAseq datasets. In total 16 samples were processed: 4 cultivars; 2 temperatures (27 and 37°C); 2 biological replicates, in a two-colour microarray design (27°C vs 37°C for each sample, including dye-swaps). RNA was labelled using standard recommended procedures (Agilent Low-Input QuickAmp RNA Labelling Kit) with 100 ng total RNA per sample. Labelling efficiencies were checked following purification on the NanoDrop® ND-1000. Hybridisation of samples to the *Rubus* array was performed overnight as recommended using the Two-Color Microarray-Based Gene Expression Analysis protocol (Agilent v 6.5). Microarrays were scanned for data acquisition at two wavelengths (each for Cyanine3 and Cyanine5 dye) using the Agilent Microarray scanner G2505B, resulting in single tiff images for each array.

Raw data were extracted from each array using Agilent Feature Extraction (v 10.7.3.1) software. Data were imported into Agilent GeneSpring software (v 7.3.1; Agilent Technologies) for subsequent quality control (QC) filtering and analysis. Data were normalised using the LOWESS (Locally Weighted polynomial regression) algorithm to balance for dye and signal intensity within and between arrays. Data were reimported into

GeneSpring as single-colour data to allow more flexible analysis. From the total dataset (55,708 probes), consistently low expressed genes were filtered out, leaving 39,049 probes with signal (>50) in at least one replicate. Comparisons were subsequently made between temperature treatments (27 and 37°C) for each cultivar by using volcano plots with threshold of a two-fold change and a Student's *t*-test (two-fold differences in expression level with a *P* value less than 0.05). Probes from the volcano filtering were clustered using a gene tree and Pearson correlation to generate a heat map. Unique and overlapping genes between the lists were selected using a Venn diagram. Sequences related to the array probes were obtained by a BLASTn search of the non-redundant nucleotide (nr/nt) databases against the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI; <http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>).

Real-time quantitative RT-PCR

Reverse transcription of a standard amount (1000 ng) of RNA per sample was performed using the QuantiTect® Reverse Transcription kit (Qiagen) including oligo d(T) and random hexamers as primers according to the manufacturer's instructions. The cDNA synthesised was diluted to a volume of 100 µL with sterile distilled water (10 ng µL⁻¹). Four candidate genes (plasma membrane protein, aquaporin, cysteine protein, and a major latex like protein; Table I) were selected for further study on the basis of showing a significant difference in expression levels between cultivars from the array experiment. Several reference genes for transcript normalization in *Rubus* were also selected from the literature (Czechowski *et al.*, 2005) and the stability of the expression profiles of the equivalent genes was examined from the array, and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) was selected as an appropriate internal control. Several sets of primers/probes were designed for both conventional PCR and real-time qRT-PCR using either Primer3 (Rozen and Skaletsky, 2000) or the UPL (Universal Probe Library) Assay Design Centre and recommended

parameters from Roche Diagnostics Ltd., UK (www.roche-applied-science.com/shop/CategoryDisplay?catalogId=10001&tab=&identifier=Universal+Probe+Library&langId=-1).

Conventional PCR reactions were performed initially to confirm that each primer set amplified a single product of the correct size and 1 μL cDNA (10 ng μL^{-1}) was added to a 24 μL master mix consisting of: 1 x Go Taq® Reaction Buffer (Promega, UK), 0.2 mM each dNTP (Promega, UK), 0.3 μM each primer (Eurogentec Ltd., UK) and 1.0 Unit Go Taq® DNA Polymerase (Promega, UK). The PCR amplification was based on an initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 s, annealing at 60°C for 30 s, extension at 72°C for 30 s, and a final elongation at 72°C for 3 min using a Veriti™ 96-Well Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems Ltd., Warrington, UK). PCR products (10 μL) were analysed on 2.0% agarose gels containing 0.5 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ethidium bromide in 0.5x TBE (45 mM Tris, 45 mM boric acid, 1 mM EDTA) buffer.

In an effort to produce consistent and high quality ('gold standard') data from qPCR studies, the minimum information for publication of quantitative real-time PCR experiments (MIQE) guidelines recently published (Bustin *et al.*, 2009) were followed. qRT-PCR reactions were performed with 2 μL cDNA (at 10 ng μL^{-1}) added to 23 μL FastStart TaqMan®Probe Master mix (with Rox reference dye) and run on the automated ABI 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, UK) using a standard 7500 run mode and three-step cycle: 95°C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, 60°C for 1 min. Primers were included at an optimal final concentration of 900 nM per reaction, and UPL probes used at 100 nM. In cases where UPL probes could not be used, the same volumes/concentrations and cycle conditions were used with the Power SYBR® Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, UK) including melt curve analysis to detect any

nonspecific amplification. The PCR reactions were repeated in triplicate with independent cDNAs.

Relative gene expression levels were calculated by the method of Pfaffl (2001) to determine the relative quantification of a target gene in comparison to the reference gene (GAPDH). This method was necessary since the relative efficiencies of all assays were not equal, and the model incorporated the reaction efficiencies of both the candidate gene and reference gene assays. Real-time qRT-PCR efficiencies were calculated from the given slope value for each assay standard curve (C_T values vs log [cDNA]) (Vaerman *et al.*, 2004) by testing a pooled cDNA mixture ($10 \text{ ng } \mu\text{L}^{-1}$) comprising of 'Autumn Bliss' and 'Erika' samples (exposed at 27 and 37°C) over a five-fold dilution series (20, 4, 0.8, 0.16, 0.032, and 0.0064 ng) under the PCR conditions described above. The corresponding PCR efficiency (E) was calculated according to the equation: $E = 10^{[-1/s]} - 1$; efficiencies between 80% and 110% are considered acceptable. All PCR assays subsequently used produced a standard curve within the dilution range with a high linearity (Pearson correlation coefficient, r values > 0.99). The amplification of single PCR products was also verified for a random selection of samples after each real-time qRT-PCR run by agarose gel electrophoresis. All relative gene expression levels were compared to the samples collected from 'Autumn Bliss' at 27°C and statistical analysis using General Analysis of Variance was performed by GeneStat 15.1 (GenStat V10 VSNi, Hemel Hempstead, UK).

Genomic DNA extraction, PCR and sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted from fresh leaf material by the following optimized manual protocol for raspberry for eight raspberry cultivars ('Autumn Bliss', 'Autumn Treasure', 'Erika', 'Glen Ample', 'Glen Fyne', 'Octavia', 'Polka' and 'Tulameen') for DNA

sequencing. The DNA extraction buffer was prepared by dissolving 2 g CTAB (2%), 1.2 g 100 mM Tris-HCL (pH 8.0), 8.2 g 1.4 M NaCl and 0.74 g 20 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) in 100 mL water and autoclaved. Dithiothreitol (DTT; Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., UK) (0.1%) was immediately added to the buffer before commencing DNA extractions. Fresh leaf (1 g) was ground with a mortar and pestle in liquid nitrogen and transferred to a 15 mL sterile tube. A spatula tip of PVP (polyvinylpyrrolidone; Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., UK) followed by 5 mL of extraction buffer were added and mixed on a vortex before incubation at 65°C for 30 min. A 7.5 mL volume of chloroform/IAA (24:1) (Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., UK) was added and samples were shaken for 15 min at room temperature followed by centrifugation for 15 min at 2300 x g (4°C). The aqueous layer was filtered through muslin cloth and an equal volume of ice cooled isopropanol was added before incubation for 15 min at room temperature followed by 30 min at 0°C. DNA was pelleted by centrifuging for 15 min at 2300 x g (4°C) and re-suspended in 0.75 mL sterile water.

Various primer combinations (Table I) for candidate genes (i.e., plasma membrane protein and aquaporin (TIP2)) were initially tested on DNA samples extracted from the eight raspberry cultivars in order to generate products for sequencing for the identification of sequence polymorphisms and associated markers for heat stress. Conventional PCRs were performed with 100-150 ng μL^{-1} of gDNA as described previously and PCR products were separated on a 2% agarose. Single PCR products were treated with ExoSAP-IT (USB® Products Affymetrix, Inc., Ohio, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions and sequenced in both directions by Sanger sequencing. The primer sets successfully used for generating products for sequencing were the combinations of PMPF1 and PMPR1 (product size 475 bp) and Aqua1F1 and Aqua1R2 (product size 663 bp) for the plasma membrane protein and aquaporin genes, respectively (Table I). Sequences were analyzed and edited manually using Sequencher 4.9 (DNA Codes Corp., Ann Arbor, MI, USA) and aligned using

the ClustalW2 multiple sequence alignment program (www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalw2/) to identify any sequence polymorphisms.

Linkage map construction of the aquaporin candidate genes (PIP1) and (TIP2)

An updated marker map was produced to include both the aquaporin genes (PIP1 and TIP2) using Join Map 3.0 (Van Ooijen and Voorrips, 2001) after PCR amplification (primers Aqua1F1/Aqua1R1 and Aqua1F2/Aqua1R2, respectively; Table I) and scoring in the 188 individuals of the 'Latham' x 'Glen Moy' mapping population. Details of the map construction are given in Graham *et al.* (2009).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Expression of microarray probe sets responsive to heat stress

Gene expression variation in the harvested leaves of four annual-fruited raspberry cultivars in response to high temperatures was assessed using an Agilent *Rubus* 60 K microarray with 55,708 probes. Initial quality control steps left 39,049 probes with signal (>50) in at least one replicate for each sample. Statistical analyses (Student's *t*-test) using volcano plots to combine strict selection criteria (two-fold change in expression level with a *P* value < 0.05) was carried out between temperature treatments (27°C vs 37°C) for 'Autumn Bliss' and 'Erika' due to the significant differences in chlorophyll fluorescence and chlorophyll content between these cultivars when grown at 27 and 37°C (Gotame *et al.*, 2013). Since 'Autumn Treasure' and 'Erika' showed a similar physiological response to heat stress which differed from the response in 'Autumn Bliss' and 'Polka', 'Autumn Treasure' and 'Polka' were removed from further gene expression analysis. Moreover, 'Erika' and 'Autumn Bliss' were selected as they are genetically related; 'Erika' being a selection from open-pollinated 'Autumn Bliss' (Nikki Jennings, personal communication). Pairwise *t*-tests

using volcano plots identified 427 differentially expressed genes for ‘Autumn Bliss’ and 229 genes for ‘Erika’, and revealed 12 candidate genes were common and down-regulated at 37°C compared with 27°C (Figure 1). This shared expression response may indicate that these two cultivars can have repression of the same set of genes, probably via common signalling pathways. This gene down-regulation seems to be a common adaptive response that enables plants to cope with new environmental conditions, possibly in order to conserve energy and used to activate heat tolerance responses.

Array probes from the volcano filtering step were clustered using a gene tree and Pearson correlation to generate a heat map to aid in the selection of differentially expressed candidate genes amongst the cultivars during heat treatment (Figure 2). From the heat map, a total of 644 genes were significantly differentially expressed between temperatures in at least one cultivar, and ‘Erika’ and ‘Autumn Treasure’ showed elevated expression of 38 genes compared to ‘Autumn Bliss’ and ‘Polka’ (Figure 3). Potential candidate genes were selected on the basis of specific gene expression patterns in the gene tree in a region of significantly changing profiles (Figure 2), and using the volcano filtering criteria, a total of 40 genes were significantly affected by high temperature exposure for 24 h and a graphical view of these expression profiles for each cultivar are represented in Figures 3 and 4. Among these probe sets showing differential expression during heat treatment, 38 were down-regulated in all cultivars and two genes (PIP1 and TIP2) were up-regulated in ‘Polka’, ‘Autumn Treasure’ and ‘Erika’ but not in ‘Autumn Bliss’ and there were significant differences in expression levels between treatments (supplementary file S1).

A BLASTn search of sequences closely related to the array probes indicated that the list of potential candidate genes belonged to different functional categories and included several examples each of major latex-like proteins (MLPs), plasma membrane proteins (PMPs), aquaporins and other stress related proteins (supplementary file S1). The list of

283 down-regulated genes contained many of the genes known to encode for metal binding
284 (metallothionein-like proteins), ubiquinone reduction (electron transfer flavoprotein-
285 ubiquinone oxido-reductase), flower development (latex-like proteins), solute transport
286 (PMPs) and Rubisco turn over in leaves (cysteine proteins). Moreover, based on current
287 knowledge, the 12 genes that were down-regulated in both cultivars (as identified by array
288 annotation) encode the same function, for example, major latex-like proteins (MLPs). The
289 MLPs are implicated specifically with fruit and flower development and in a pathogen
290 defence response (Lytle *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, genes encoding electron transfer
291 flavoprotein-ubiquinone oxidoreductase were also down-regulated. Electron transfer
292 flavoprotein-ubiquinone oxidoreductase links the oxidation of fatty acids and some amino
293 acids to oxidative phosphorylation in the mitochondria (Ishizaki *et al.*, 2005). It has been
294 reported that electron transfer flavoprotein-ubiquinone oxidoreductase catalyses the transfer
295 of electrons from electron transferring flavoprotein (ETF) to ubiquinone, reducing it to
296 ubiquinol. Oxidative phosphorylation involves the reduction of O₂ to H₂O with electrons
297 donated by NADH (i.e. transfers electrons from NADH to oxygen) and FADH₂ which
298 releases free energy and synthesises ATPs that finally completes the oxidation of sucrose
299 (Taiz and Zeiger, 2006). Metallothionein-like genes are metal binding, cysteine rich metal
300 binding proteins involved in metal ion detoxification (Cobbett and Goldsbrough, 2002) and
301 have also been implicated in the regulation of ATP production to reduce metal-induced
302 oxidative stress (Thomas *et al.*, 2005). Down-regulation of a zinc finger (C₃HC₄-type ring
303 finger) family protein gene was also observed at 37°C and also reported by Liu *et al.* (2012)
304 in grapevine with a B-box type zinc finger-containing protein and was also down regulated
305 during high temperature conditions. Moreover, a BLASTn search also showed five of the
306 genes responsive to the heat stress did not match any genes of known functions.

Interestingly, two aquaporin genes (PIP1 and TIP2) from the volcano list were down-regulated in 'Autumn Bliss' but up-regulated in 'Autumn Treasure', 'Polka' and 'Erika'. The plasma membrane aquaporin and aquaporin homologs are termed PIPs (plasma membrane intrinsic proteins), whereas tonoplast aquaporin and aquaporin homologs are named TIPs (tonoplast intrinsic proteins) (Johanson *et al.*, 2000; Johansson *et al.*, 2001). It was reported that five aquaporin subfamilies were identified in plants based on DNA similarities. Aquaporins facilitate the efficient transport of water molecules across membranes, play a role in controlling intercellular water movement and facilitate passive exchange of water, compatible solute distribution and gas transfer across membranes (Johanson *et al.*, 2001). A few PIPs have also been reported to be involved in CO₂ permeability of cells. The plasma membrane determines the internal mesophyll CO₂ conductance (g_m) due to the mesophyll cells imposing resistance to CO₂ diffusion (as reviewed by Katsuhara *et al.*, 2008). Aharon *et al.* (2003) also observed an increase in photosynthetic rate of transgenic tobacco plants up-regulating *Arabidopsis* PIP1.

Expression of aquaporin isoforms are known to be affected by environmental stresses (as reviewed by Jang *et al.*, 2007). Stress may either increase the transcription of aquaporin genes or it may increase the activity of existing aquaporins. Studies have reported the expression of aquaporin genes under a wide range of biotic and abiotic stresses including heat and drought stresses (Hewezi *et al.*, 2008). For example, PIPs are involved in the regulation of g_m as a rapid response in drought conditions (Flexas *et al.*, 2002). Jang *et al.* (2007) reported that overexpression of PIP1;4 or PIP2;5 isoforms suppressed plant growth under drought stress but no effect was reported under normal conditions. Aharon *et al.* (2003) also showed a negative role of an aquaporin during drought stress. Under heat stress at day time, there is an increase in transpiration which induces water deficit in plants and causes a decrease in leaf water potential (Tsukaguchi *et al.*, 2003). Changes in aquaporin expression

may also be related to the need to control water movement between storage tissues and rapidly growing and expanding tissues. Mazzitelli *et al.* (2007) observed a down-regulation of expressed sequence tags with similarity to an aquaporin gene in raspberry buds during the transition from endo- to para-dormancy. An influence of aquaporin expression on photosynthetic performance of plants was also reported (Aharon *et al.*, 2003; Flexas *et al.*, 2006). Aharon *et al.* (2003) performed chlorophyll measurement in tobacco plants overexpressing an *Arabidopsis* PIP1b gene and reported a positive correlation with expression of PIP1b and maximum quantum efficiency of dark adapted leaves. Flexas *et al.* (2006) also reported that *Nicotiana tabacum* L. aquaporin (NtAQP1) contributes to CO₂ conductivity of mesophyll cells (g_m) in tobacco. The effects of drought and heat stress on cereals are also interlinked and suggesting a common mechanism for heat, drought and other osmotic stress (Barnabas *et al.*, 2008). Up- or down-regulation of aquaporins was reported to affect the leaf cell water permeability, water loss rate, stomatal conductance and overall leaf function (Heinen *et al.*, 2009). TIPs are a major component of the tonoplast and provide a quick equivalence of osmotic balance between cytosol and vacuolar lumen to prevent plasmolysis under hypertonic conditions (Katsuhara *et al.*, 2008). Down-regulation of TIPs may be related to storage of water in vacuoles in drought tolerant cultivars or to low water stress conditions and vice versa.

Real-time quantitative RT-PCR validation

In order to validate results obtained from the microarray experiment, specific qRT-PCR assays were designed for selected candidate genes representing different biological functions (Table I) and showing a relatively higher-fold change in expression. These assays were initially tested in the more genetically related but contrasting cultivars, 'Autumn Bliss' and 'Erika'. From the 40 selected array probe sets, the four candidate genes selected were:

plasma membrane protein, aquaporin (TIP2), cysteine protein and major latex like protein.

UPL Design Centre software (Roche) was used to design UPL probe-based assays for real time qRT-PCR and ensure common thermal cycling parameters. Although all primer sets successfully amplified a single product for all four candidate genes during conventional PCR (Figure 5), the assays designed for the plasma membrane protein, cysteine protein and major latex-like protein gene sequences all failed to produce a signal in the real-time qRT-PCR format. Further investigation using outer primer sets (Table I) and sequencing of products for each assay and cultivar revealed sequence variation in the region of the UPL probe design that explain the absence of a signal (data not shown). Moreover, the microarray probes were designed to a single *Rubus* cultivar ‘Glen Moy’ and since distantly related genotypes were used in this study, this explains the absence of an amplification signal. This was not the case for the aquaporin or the GAPDH reference gene assays which worked successfully with a UPL probe in the real-time qRT-PCR format. Additional optimisation with the SYBR Green master mix (see materials and methods) was subsequently tested in order to use the same primer sequences and this was successful for the plasma membrane protein gene, but not for the cysteine and major latex-like protein genes; the latter two assays failed to operate efficiently (E value < 65%) and were removed from the validation procedure.

This highlighted the need to be aware that the occurrence of small sequence variation amongst different raspberry genotypes can result in failure to detect signals in the real-time qRT-PCR format. The occurrence of SNPs or indels in annealing regions of primers or probes may hamper efficient annealing of the primer/probe or prevent amplification of a variant allele.

Normalized gene expression levels of aquaporin (TIP2) and the plasma membrane protein in ‘Autumn Bliss’ and ‘Erika’ grown at 27 and 37°C from real-time qRT-PCR were calculated by the method of Pfaffl, (2001). This determined the relative quantity of the

candidate gene in comparison to the GAPDH reference gene for normalization of the data. The normalized expression levels of the aquaporin (TIP2) increased by 1.3-fold in 'Autumn Bliss' and three-fold in 'Erika' grown at 37°C compared to 27°C. However, in contrast, the expression levels of the plasma membrane protein gene decreased by two-fold in 'Autumn Bliss' and three-fold in 'Erika' grown at 37°C compared to 27°C (Figure 6). Analysis of variance of the data of qRT-PCR analysis revealed that 'Autumn Bliss' and 'Erika' were significantly different in expression of the two genes ($p < 0.05$) and the interaction between candidate genes and temperature was significant.

These aquaporin (TIP2) and plasma membrane protein candidate genes were initially studied due to a significant differential expression in 'Autumn Bliss' and 'Erika' detected from the array analysis. This microarray assessment of differential gene expression was subsequently compared and validated with the alternative technique of real time qRT-PCR, and there was agreement by both procedures apart from the expression signals of aquaporin (TIP2) in 'Autumn Bliss' at 27 and 37°C (Figure 6). This slight discrepancy may be explained by the different normalization procedures and/or the measurement of different but related aquaporin genes in 'Autumn Bliss' by both methods. Although the magnitude of fold-change differed in both 'Autumn Bliss' and 'Erika', the direction of fold-change (down-regulated) was similar in PMPs (Figure 6). The differences in heat tolerance in 'Autumn Bliss' and 'Erika' may be associated with multiple processes and mechanisms involving heat response proteins, transcription factors and other stress related genes.

Candidate gene mapping and sequencing to identify heat stress markers

An updated linkage group map was produced to include both the aquaporin genes (PIP1 and TIP2) after scoring in the 188 individuals of the 'Latham' x 'Glen Moy' mapping population (Figure 7). Both aquaporin genes mapped at almost identical positions on linkage

407 group 3 of the 7 *Rubus idaeus* groups, indicating that these related genes in terms of sequence
408 homology (60%) may also be members of the same gene family. Linkage group 3 contains
409 many genes associated with fruit quality traits such as flavour, colour, softening and ripening
410 (Graham *et al.*, 2009), and we can speculate that the aquaporin genes may play an additional
411 role in fruit quality as well as for a heat stress response.

412 Sequences generated from the PCR products of two heat stress candidate genes (i.e.,
413 plasma membrane protein and aquaporin (TIP2)) were successfully obtained from the eight
414 raspberry cultivars for the identification of sequence polymorphisms and potential markers for
415 heat stress. However, although sequence polymorphisms (indels or SNPs) were observed in
416 the portion of both gene sequences examined after alignment (data not shown), none were
417 associated on this occasion with either the heat tolerant or susceptible groupings for the eight
418 raspberry cultivars. It is clear that an additional portion of both candidate gene sequences will
419 need to be examined in order to identify potential heat stress polymorphic markers and further
420 validation in additional germplasm, which was outside the scope of this study.

421 Overall, we report the first use of a *Rubus* array to analyse high-throughput gene expression to
422 determine relative abundance of nucleic acid sequences expressed among heat stressed
423 raspberry cultivars. The microarray revealed that a major response of raspberry genes to high
424 temperature for a short period involved down-regulation of many defence related genes and
425 up-regulation of aquaporin related genes. This research used the latest generation of molecular
426 tools to increase the understanding and identify potential candidate genes involved in the heat
427 stress response in annual-fruited raspberries which merits further research.

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