ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Enhanced meristem development, tolerance to oxidative stress and hyposensitivity to nitric oxide in the hypermorphic vq10‐H mutant in AtVQ10 gene

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Abstract

Nitric oxide (NO) and reactive oxygen are common factors in multiple plant responses to stress, and their involvement in hypoxia‐triggered responses is key to ensure growth under adverse environmental conditions. Here, we analyse the regulatory functions exerted by hypoxia‐, NO‐ and oxidative stress‐inducible Arabidopsis gene coding for the VQ motif-containing protein 10 (VQ10). A hypermorphic vq10‐H mutant allowed identifying VQ10‐exerted regulation on root and shoot development as well as its role in regulating responses to NO and oxidative stress. Enhanced VQ10 expression in vq10‐H plants led to enhanced elongation of the primary root, and increased root cell division and meristem size during early postgermination development. In shoots, VQ10 activation of cell division was counteracted by WRKY33‐exerted repression, thus leading to a dwarf bushy phenotype in plants with enhanced VQ10 expression in a wrky33 knock‐out background. Low number of differentially expressed genes were identified when vq10‐H versus Col‐0 plants were compared either under normoxia or hypoxia. vq10‐H and VQ10ox plants displayed less tolerance to submergence but, in turn, were more tolerant to oxidative stress and less sensitive to NO than wild‐type plants. VQ10 could be a node integrating redox-related regulation on development and stress responses.

KEYWORDS

Arabidopsis thaliana, hypermorphic mutant, root and shoot development, VQ protein

1 | INTRODUCTION

VQ proteins, defined as those containing a sequence motif with a core five conserved amino acids FxxhVQxhTG, were initially considered as plant‐specific transcriptional regulators (Jing & Lin, [2015](#page-17-0)). However, it has been recently reported that VQ proteins are an ancient nonplant‐specific family with varying numbers of VQs identified in moss, gymnosperm and angiosperm plants as well as in some of fungi, nematodes and bacteria (Jiang et al., [2018\)](#page-17-1). The genome of model organisms for monocots (rice) and dicots (Arabidopsis) contained 40 and 34 VQ protein‐encoding genes, respectively (Cheng et al., [2012;](#page-16-0) Kim et al., [2013;](#page-17-2) Xie et al., [2010\)](#page-18-0). VQ proteins play diverse regulatory roles on developmental and stress‐ related responses. Among different stresses, VQ proteins regulate

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the responses to high (Ding et al., [2019](#page-16-1)) and low (Ye et al., [2016](#page-18-1)) temperatures; defense against pathogens (Le Berre et al., [2017](#page-16-2); Jiang & Yu, [2016](#page-17-3); Kim et al., [2013](#page-17-2)) and against generalist herbivores (Ali et al., [2019](#page-16-3)) and salt and drought stress (Hu et al., [2013](#page-17-4); Kim et al., [2013;](#page-17-2) Song et al., [2016](#page-17-5)). Developmental traits such as pollen development, germination and tube growth (Lei et al., [2017,](#page-17-6) [2018](#page-17-7)); seed development (Garcia et al., [2003\)](#page-17-8), germination (Pan et al., [2018](#page-17-9)) and size (Wang et al., [2010\)](#page-18-2); seedling deetiolation (Li, Jing, et al., [2014](#page-17-10)) and vegetative growth and flowering time (Gargul et al., [2015](#page-17-11)) are all regulated by VQ proteins. However, the function of most of the members of the Arabidopsis family remains poorly known.

Although is widely established that VQ proteins behave as regulatory elements in gene expression, it is not so clear whether they act as transcriptional regulators or just as interactors/modulators of true transcription factors such as those of the WRKY family (Cheng et al., [2012\)](#page-16-0). Most of the Arabidopsis VQ proteins have transcriptional regulatory activity, some displaying activating functions, while some others act as transcriptional repressors (Jing & Lin, [2015](#page-17-0)). In addition, for some of these proteins, such as VQ4/MVQ1 and VQ29, which function as transcriptional repressors, it has been shown that their regulatory activity requires the integrity of the VQ domain (Li, Li, et al., [2014](#page-17-12); Weyhe et al., [2014\)](#page-18-3). Among the few Arabidopsis VQ proteins that did not display regulation on transcriptional activity (Jing & Lin, [2015](#page-17-0)), VQ10 has been just characterised as a regulator of Arabidopsis defense against the necrotrophic fungus Botrytis cinerea (Chen et al., [2018](#page-16-4)), and as one of the five Arabidopsis VQ genes coregulated by hypoxia, nitric oxide (NO) and oxidative stress (León et al., [2021](#page-17-13)), conditions that coexist during plants responses to limited oxygen availability. Plants usually grow and thrive in a normoxic environment containing about 21% O₂. However, sometimes plants experience hypoxic environments and they do not have a system allowing $O₂$ to be distributed throughout the body, as animals do through haemoglobin in the blood. In turn, it diffuses from tissue to tissue or is transported through tissues through the vascular system in plants (Armstrong et al., [2006](#page-16-5)). Hypoxic conditions can be imposed to plants by environmental factors, such as torrential rains and subsequent flooding that keep plants submerged for variable periods of time (Voesenek & Bailey‐ Serres, [2015\)](#page-18-4), or by endogenous factors, such as high metabolic rates demanding high O_2 consumption (Considine et al., [2017\)](#page-16-6). To improve tolerance to limiting $O₂$ conditions, plants have developed enormous plasticity adopting changes in their physiology and metabolism (Bailey-Serres & Voesenek, [2008](#page-16-7); Voesenek & Bailey-Serres, [2013\)](#page-18-5), or even involving morphological changes or creating new organs such as the aerenchyma (Takahashi et al., [2015](#page-17-14)). The transition from a normoxic to a hypoxic condition involves multiple responses that include physiological, molecular and metabolic changes in plant cells. Many of the alterations in gene expression experienced by hypoxic plants are regulated by the function of group VII transcription factors of the ERF/AP2 family (ERFVIIs), which stability is controlled through an N-terminal sequencedependent proteolytic process, the Cys/Arg N‐degron pathway that is strictly dependent on NO and O_2 (Gibbs et al., [2014\)](#page-17-15), thus

representing an important node in O_{2} - and NO-mediated signalling and a key process in plant responses to hypoxia.

Here we address the functional and molecular characterisation of the hypoxia‐, NO‐ and oxidative stress‐inducible VQ10 gene, and the regulatory role exerted by the encoded protein on meristem development as well as on the sensitivity to hypoxia, NO and oxidative stress.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Plant growth conditions and materials

Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) seeds were surface sterilised with chlorine gas before sowing in murashige skoog (MS) (Duchefa Biochemie) medium plates containing 1% (w/v) sucrose. Seeds from wild-type Col-0 and vq10-H (SAIL_23_A10C1) and glb1 (SAIL_100_F11) genotypes were obtained from Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Center (NASC). wrky33 seeds (GK_324G011) were kindly supplied by Prof. Imre Somssich (Max Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research). Reporter cycB1;1:GUS line in Col‐0 background (Colon‐Carmona et al., [1999\)](#page-16-8) were used to generate reporter lines in vq10-H and wrky33 backgrounds by genetic crosses of the corresponding genotypes followed by selection with kanamycin and the subsequent genotyping by PCR with specific oligonucleotides (Supporting Information: Table S1). Plants confirmed to be double homozygous for the transgene and mutation were used for subsequent β‐glucuronidase (GUS) staining according to previously reported protocol (Weigel & Glazebrook, [2002](#page-18-6)). vq10‐H and wrky33 mutant plants were also genetically crossed and the progeny genotyped by PCR with specific primers (Supporting Information: Table S1). Plants overexpressing N-terminal 3×HA-tagged versions of VQ10 and GLB1 were generated by Gateway subcloning of the full‐ length complementary DNAs (cDNAs) cloned in pCR8 TOPO vector, in pAlligator2 binary vector that allows selection of transformed plants by screening fluorescent seeds (Bensmihen et al., [2004](#page-16-9)). After transformation of Agrobacterium tumefaciens C58 with the corresponding constructs, Col‐0 plants were genetically transformed by dipping floral organs in a suspension of transformed Agrobacterium (Clough & Bent, [1998\)](#page-16-10), and selected for homozygous plants.

To test the tolerance to oxidative stress, seeds of the same age of the different genotypes were sown in water in 24‐well plates and maintained under photoperiodic conditions (16 h light:8 h darkness; 100 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) at 21°C and supplemented with paraquat/methyl viologen (0.1 or 0.2 mM) or without paraquat/methyl viologen as control. Seed germination rates were calculated at the indicated times as the mean of three independent experiments with around 50 seeds per genotype and condition.

Experiments under hypoxic conditions were performed by incubation in a box containing an inlet for N_2 gas and an O_2 sensor connected to a ProOx Model 110 controller that allows tight control of the O_2 concentration inside the box (BioSpherix). In vitro 12‐day‐old plants grown under long‐day photoperiodic conditions in Murashige Skoog medium supplemented with 1% (w/v) sucrose were exposed to hypoxia treatment under low light intensity (20 μ mol m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$) or darkness, as indicated, at 1% (v/v) O₂ for the indicated time. Samples were collected right after finishing the hypoxia treatment and frozen in liquid nitrogen for RNA extraction. Submergence experiments were performed with 4‐week‐old plants completely submerged (plants were 15 cm below water surface) in water-filled tanks pre-equilibrated at 21°C in darkness. After 3 days under submergence, plants were removed from the water and recovered under standard growing conditions for 15 days.

NO sensitivity was analysed by a hypocotyl shortening assay with etiolated plants as previously described (Castillo et al., [2018](#page-16-11)). Briefly, seeds of the different genotypes were sown in mass spectrometry (MS)‐2‐(N‐morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid plates, stratified at 4°C under darkness for 4 days, then activated for germination by exposure to light for 6 h, and then incubated inside tightly sealed chambers injected with 300 ppm NO for 4 days under darkness. After that, etiolated seedlings were scanned to quantify the hypocotyl length using ImageJ. Values were compared to control etiolated seedlings not exposed to NO.

2.2 | RNA isolation, qRT-PCR and RNA-Seq analysis

RNA was extracted and purified with Nucleospin RNA Plant kit (Macherey‐Nagel), reverse‐transcribed with M‐MuLV Reverse transcriptase (RNase H minus from Nzytech) and oligo‐dT, and the resulting cDNA was quantified by real‐time PCR with an Applied Biosystems QuantStudioTM 3 PCR system by using specific primer pairs (Supporting Information: Table S1) for VQ10 (AT1G78410), WRKY33 (AT2G38470), PDC1 (AT4G33070), LBD41 (AT3G02550), GLB1 (AT2G16060) and the reference genes TIP41L (AT4G34270) and ACTIN2 (At3g18780) as reported before (Castillo et al., [2008](#page-16-12); Czechowski et al., [2005\)](#page-16-13).

A genome‐wide transcriptome analysis of 12‐day‐old wild‐type (Col‐0) and vq10‐H mutant plants, either grown under normoxic (21% $O₂$) conditions or grown under normoxia and then submitted to hypoxia (1% O_2) for 4 h, was performed by RNA-Seq (BGI Tech Solutions). Libraries were prepared from oligo-dT enriched mRNAs obtained from total RNAs with RNA integrity number > 8.0 as analysed by a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies Inc.). RNA was fragmented, then first-strand cDNA was generated using random N6-primed reverse transcription, followed by second-strand cDNA synthesis with dUTP instead of dTTP. The synthesised cDNAs were subjected to end-repair and then was 3' adenylated. Adaptors were ligated to the ends of these 3′ adenylated cDNA fragments, and before PCR amplification, the dUTP‐marked strand is selectively degraded by Uracil‐DNA‐Glycosylase (UDG). The remaining strand is amplified to generate a cDNA library suitable for sequencing. After denaturing the PCR product by heat, the single stranded DNA is cyclized by splint oligo and DNA ligase, the DNA nanoball synthesis was performed and finally, sequencing was performed with DNBSEQ

VQ10 REGULATES DEVELOPMENT AND STRESS $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline & P\text{,} & Q\text{,} & P\text{,} & \end{array}$

Technology platform. Raw data were filtered with SOAPnuke (v.1.5.2) software (with -l 15 -q 0.2 -n 0.05 parameters) developed by BGI. The filtered clean reads were saved in FASTQ format. Reference genome alignment was performed by Hierarchical Indexing for Spliced Alignment of Transcripts (HISTAT) software (v.2.0.4; Parameters: ‐‐sensitive ‐‐no‐ discordant ‐‐no‐mixed ‐I 1 ‐X 1000 ‐p 8 ‐‐rna‐strandness RF).

2.3 | Analysis of root growth, cell division and meristem size

The root length was calculated by using Image J2/Fiji from images of vertically grown plants. The size of root meristems was calculated from images of propidium iodide‐stained roots of 4‐day‐old plants obtained by confocal microscopy with AxioObserver Zeiss LSM 780 confocal microscope (with excitation at 561 nm and emission at 578–670 nm range with a peak at 625 nm). The number of cells from the quiescent centre (QC) to the first cell duplicating the size of the previous one was assigned as meristem size as previously reported (Perilli & Sabatini, [2010\)](#page-17-16). Values are the mean ± standard error of five to eight roots per genotype. Cell division in the root meristem zone was monitored by using the cycB1;1:GUS reporter line that has been extensively used before for this purpose (Colon‐Carmona et al., [1999](#page-16-8)).

2.4 | Analysis of the starch content

Starch content was visualised by the staining of 6‐day‐old plants with Lugol's iodine reagent (Sigma‐Merck). After washings, stained plants were visualised and photographed with a Nikon Eclipse E600 microscope.

2.5 | In silico analyses and predictions

Gene Ontology (GO) Consortium tools [\(http://www.geneontology.org](http://www.geneontology.org)) and PANTHER [\(http://go.pantherdb.org/](http://go.pantherdb.org/)) were used to analyse the enrichment of functional categories, and AtCAST3.1 ([http://atpbasmd.](http://atpbasmd.yokohama-cu.ac.jp/cgi/atcast/search_input.cgi) [yokohama-cu.ac.jp/cgi/atcast/search_input.cgi\)](http://atpbasmd.yokohama-cu.ac.jp/cgi/atcast/search_input.cgi) and Arabidopsis RNA‐ Seq Database ([http://ipf.sustech.edu.cn/pub/athrna/\)](http://ipf.sustech.edu.cn/pub/athrna/) were used to compare available transcriptome datasets. Gene lists overlapping was analysed by Venny 2.1.0 ([https://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny/](https://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny/index.html) [index.html\)](https://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny/index.html).

2.6 | Statistical analyses

The values of transcript levels, root lengths, meristem size and seed germination rates are presented as the mean of at least three independent biological replicates ± SE. Statistical significance was analysed as indicated in the figure legends by unpaired Student's t test comparing any mutant genotype to the wild‐type Col‐0 values 4 | WILEY PO Plant, Cell & CAYUBAS ET AL.

or any condition to the control untreated set. When comparisons involved two variables, a two‐way analysis of variance was used as indicated. Statistical significance with $p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.005^{**}$ and $p < 0.001***$ are shown.

2.7 | Quantification of endogenous ATP levels

ATP levels were quantified by the fluorometric ATP Assay Kit (Sigma‐ Aldrich Merck) from 14‐day‐old Arabidopsis seedlings that were homogenised to fine powder in liquid nitrogen. Three biological independent replicates with two technical replicates each were analysed.

2.8 | Analysis of protein-bound and free 3‐nitrotyrosine

Protein‐bound 3‐nitrotyrosine was analysed by Western blot with anti‐3‐nitrotyrosine antibodies (Cayman Chemicals) at 1:1000 dilution in tween‐tris buffered saline. Total protein was extracted from 14‐day‐old Arabidopsis seedlings exposed to 300 ppm NO for 10 min and recovered for 6 h or untreated as control. Equal loading of lanes was assessed by Ponceau S-staining of nitrocellulose membranes. For free 3-nitrotyrosine quantification by ultra performance liquid chromatography (UPLC)‐MS/MS, samples (100 mg of 14‐day‐old whole seedlings), either treated or untreated as mentioned above, were homogenised with liquid nitrogen and extracted in 600 µL 100% methanol, supplemented with 1 ppm genistein as internal standard, for 15 min at 70°C. After extraction and centrifugation for 10 min at 14 000 rpms, 500 µL of the supernatant were transferred to a new vial. Then $250 \mu L$ of CHCl₃ and $500 \mu L$ of water supplemented with 1 ppm Genistein were added. The mixture was vortexed for 15 s and centrifuged for 15 min at 14 000 rpms. The aqueous phase was filtered with a 0.2 μM filter and 5 μL were injected. Three replicates of each genotype and treatment were analysed. The analysis was performed using an Orbitrap Exploris 120 mass spectrometer coupled with a Vanquish UHPLC System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). LC was carried out by reverse-phase ultraperformance liquid chromatography using an Acquity PREMIER BEH C18 UPLC column $(1.7 \mu M)$ particle size, dimensions $2.1 \times 150 \text{ mm}$) (Waters Corp.). Mobile phases were 0.1% formic acid in water (phase A), and 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile (phase B). The gradient programme was conditioned as follows: 0.5% solvent B over the first 2 min, 0.5%–30% solvent B over 25 min, 30%–100% solvent B over 13 min, 2 min at 100% B, return to the initial 0.5% solvent B over 1 min and conditioning at 0.5% B for 2 min. The flow rate was 0.4 mL/ min and the column temperature was set at 40°C. Ionisation was performed with heated electrospray ionisation (H‐ESI) in positive mode. Samples were acquired in full scan mode (resolution set at 120 000 measured at full width at half maximum). To identify 3‐nitrotyrosine an authentic standard was used (Merck). Free 3‐nitrotyrosine analysis was performed at the IBMCP Metabolomics Platform (UPV‐CSIC).

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Identification and molecular characterisation of a hypermorphic mutant for VQ10 gene

Arabidopsis VQ10 gene (At1g78410) was identified through in silico search as a target of coregulation by hypoxia, NO and oxidative stress (León et al., [2021](#page-17-13)). A search in public transcriptome databases suggested that VQ10 gene was regulated by multiple environmental, developmental and nutritional factors (Figure [1a](#page-4-0)). Among them, VQ10 expression was maximum in 40‐day‐old leaves when senescence is already set up, and also in 2‐week‐old younger seedlings upon oxidative stress triggered by exposure to ozone (Figure [1a\)](#page-4-0). We confirmed that VQ10 gene was transiently upregulated peaking at 30 min after hypoxia or NO treatment (Figure [1b](#page-4-0)).

The public seed banks of Arabidopsis insertional mutants were browsed to identify a knock‐out mutant for this gene. The insertional mutant SAIL_23_A10C1, originally annotated in the T‐DNA express SIGnAL website [\(http://signal.salk.edu/\)](http://signal.salk.edu/) as a T‐DNA insertion in the VQ10 exon (Figure [2a\)](#page-5-0), was instead inserted in the 3'-untranslated region (UTR) region, as demonstrated by PCR with gDNA from wild type and mutant plants and with specific primers of the coding sequence and the 3'-UTR region (Figure [2b\)](#page-5-0). T-DNA insertion did not lead to reduced levels of VQ10 transcripts, but instead to 3.5‐ and 1.8‐fold increase in transcript levels when compared homozygous and heterozygous mutant, respectively, to wild-type plants (Figure [2c\)](#page-5-0), thus indicating this mutant allele, which we named vq10‐H, is a hypermorphic mutant. No obvious developmental phenotype was observed either in heterozygous or homozygous mutant plants.

3.2 | Differentially expressed transcriptomes in vq10‐H plants under normoxia and hypoxia

Since VQ10 gene was rapidly induced by hypoxia (Figure [1b](#page-4-0)), we decided to analyse the genome‐wide effect of the hypermorphic vq10-H mutation on the transcriptome of plants under normoxic and hypoxic conditions. RNA‐Seq analyses were performed (Supporting Information: Table S2) for Col-0 and vq10-H plants either grown under normoxia or in normoxic‐grown plants submitted to a 4 h period of 1% O₂, when transient hypoxia-induced expression of VQ10 gene had already occurred (Figure [1b](#page-4-0)). A comparison of the mutant genotype with wild-type Col-0 background allowed identifying differentially expressed genes (DEGs) under normoxia (Table [1](#page-6-0)) or hypoxia (Table [2\)](#page-7-0). The impact on differential gene expression of $vq10-H$ mutation (Figure $3a$) was significantly shorter than the effect of hypoxia (Figure [3b\)](#page-8-0). Just 26 and 24 DEGs were identified when comparing vq10‐H versus Col‐0 under normoxia or hypoxia, respectively (Tables [1](#page-6-0) and [2](#page-7-0)). Correlating with the increased VQ10 transcript levels, we identified several loci close to At1g78410 (VQ10 gene) in chromosome 1 that were strongly downregulated in vq10‐H plants either in normoxia or hypoxia (Tables [1](#page-6-0) and [2\)](#page-7-0). This gene

FIGURE 1 Developmental and stress factors upregulating VQ10 expression. (a) In silico search for conditions where VQ10 expression was upregulated in public RNA‐Seq data was performed with Arabidopsis RNA‐Seq Database. (b) Relative VQ10 transcript levels were analysed by RT-qPCR from three independent RNAs isolated at the indicated times after plants were exposed to 1% $O₂$ under darkness (hypoxia, left panel) or after application of a 300 ppm nitric oxide pulse (NO, right panel). Values are the mean ± standard error and the statistical significance assessed by t test comparing each condition with untreated control at 0 time. γp < 0.05 and γp < 0.005.

cluster included At1g78430, At1g78450 and At1g78490. A closer look of the RNA‐Seq data allowed identifying that these repressed clusters comprised nine loci between At1g78420 and At1g78500 with very few, but some reads (Supporting Information: Figure S1a), thus indicating these loci are not affected by a deletion caused by the T‐DNA insertion but downregulated by an unknown regulatory factor which may be related to VQ10. We have confirmed that the two more closely genes located downstream VQ10, DA2 and RIP2, which code for an E3 ubiquitin ligase and a Rho protein effector, respectively, were expressed though downregulated in vq10‐H compared to wild-type plants (Supporting Information: Figure S1b). Among the most downregulated genes in vq10‐H plants we found MRD1 (Mto 1 responding down 1) gene, which was downregulated in

the mto1‐1 mutant that overaccumulates soluble methionine and that is involved in promoting salicylic acid-mediated defense (Singh et al., [2022](#page-17-17)); HEI10 (homologue of Human Enhancer of cell Invasion no.10), which codes for a ZMM protein required for class I crossover formation (Morgan et al., [2021](#page-17-18)) and Qua‐Quine Starch (QQS), which codes for a relevant regulator of starch content that is presumably involved in modulating carbon/nitrogen allocation in Arabidopsis (Li et al., [2015\)](#page-17-19) through a process where phytochrome interaction factors (PIF) transcription factors play a relevant role (Lee et al., [2023](#page-17-20)). We confirmed by qRT-PCR from independent replicate samples that both QQS and HEI10 genes were strongly downregulated in vq10‐H compared to wild‐type plants (Supporting Information: Figure S2a). We also confirmed that the reduced QQS

FIGURE 2 Molecular characterisation of vq10-H hypermorphic mutant. (a) Annotation of T‐DNA insertion SAIL_A23_A10C1 in the SIGnAL T‐DNA Express site ([http://signal.salk.edu/cgi-bin/](http://signal.salk.edu/cgi-bin/tdnaexpress) [tdnaexpress](http://signal.salk.edu/cgi-bin/tdnaexpress)). (b) PCR‐based genotyping of the T‐DNA insertion in the 3'-UTR region of the At1g78410 locus was performed by using specific oligonucleotides 1–5 and a (Supporting Information: Table S1). Ethidium bromide-stained DNA in agarose gels is shown for each genotype and primer combinations with DNA molecular mass marker positions in the left side. (c) VQ10 transcript was analysed by RT‐qPCR from three independent RNAs isolated from plants of the indicated genotypes. Values are the mean ± standard error and the statistical significance assessed by t test comparing each condition with untreated control at 0 time. $p < 0.05$.

expression correlated with slightly higher endogenous levels of starch in vq10-H plants compared to wild-type plants (Supporting Information: Figure S2b). ICME-like 2 (ICMEL2), which is also downregulated in vq10-H plants, codes for isoprenylcysteine methylesterases (ICME) that demethylate prenylated proteins that seems to be involved in regulating ABA sensitivity and signalling (Lan et al., [2010\)](#page-17-21). It is also worth mentioning that PER15, PER44 and PER49 genes coding for peroxidases presumably involved in oxidative stress-related responses, are also downregulated in normoxic vq10‐H plants. Only few genes, PCR1, PRA1F4 and PI4KG3, are upregulated in normoxic vq[1](#page-6-0)0-H plants (Table 1). These genes code for proteins related to cadmium resistance, prenylated Ras‐associated binding (RAB) acceptor involved in endomembrane protein trafficking (Lee et al., [2017\)](#page-17-22), and phosphoinositide 4‐kinase involved in abiotic stress responses and floral transition (Akhter et al., [2016\)](#page-16-14), respectively. PI4KG3 is also upregulated and QQS, RIP4 and MRD1 downregulated in vq10‐H compared to Col‐0 plants under hypoxia (Table [2\)](#page-7-0), thus suggesting these genes are regulated by VQ10 independently of the oxygen availability conditions. In turn, PRA1F4, which was strongly upregulated under normoxia in vq10‐H plants, was the most downregulated gene under hypoxia (Table [2\)](#page-7-0). PRA1F4 seems to be involved in the exit of many post-Golgi proteins from the Golgi apparatus (Lee et al., [2017\)](#page-17-22). thus suggesting VQ10 might play a role in regulating endomembrane protein trafficking in opposite ways depending on the $O₂$ availability.

In contrast to the limited impact of vq10-H mutation on gene expression, the comparison of hypoxia versus normoxia in Col‐0 and vq10-H plants showed around 1000 DEGs upregulated and another 1000 DEGs downregulated (Figure [3c](#page-8-0)). It is worth mentioning that around 60% of the upregulated and 40% of the downregulated DEGs in response to hypoxia were common in Col-0 and vq10-H plants (Figure $3c$), thus pointing to a central core of invariant genes regulated by hypoxia in both genotypes and therefore not presumably regulated by VQ10. Nevertheless, several hundred genes were specifically upregulated or downregulated by hypoxia in Col-0 or vq10-H plants, these representing potential targets of regulation by VQ10. Among the 267 genes that were upregulated by hypoxia in Col‐0 plants but not in vq10‐H plants, GO analysis pointed to a significant overrepresentation of genes belonging to the functional categories related to responses to light intensity, drought and ABA (Supporting Information: Table $\frac{53}{1}$). Among the 418 genes that were downregulated by hypoxia in Col‐0 plants but not in vq10‐H plants, the glucosinolate biosynthesis and response to insects as well as DNA‐templated DNA replication, cell differentiation, plant epidermis development and root morphogenesis were significantly overrepresented (Supporting Information: Table S3). Genes involved in these functional categories would be potentially repressed by hypoxia but activated by VQ10. Regarding the 267 and 354 genes that were upregulated or downregulated, respectively, by hypoxia in vq10H but not in Col‐0 plants, meaning hypoxia‐regulated genes with responses TABLE 1 Differentially expressed genes in vq10‐H versus wild‐type Col‐0 plants in normoxia.

Gene ID

log2

(H_vq10/H_Col)

827011 0.688209597 7.86E-04 824247 −0.812677938 9.31E-0

822807 -3.506653821 5.04E−2 844185 -3.561238151 1.69E−0 844179 -3.593109435 5.86E-0 841783 −6.820621928 4.72E−3 820580 −6.936168591 2.20E-0

Ovalue (H_vq10

TABLE 2 Differentially expressed genes

that would be potentiated or repressed statistical overrepresentation of proton motive force‐driven ATP synthesis, flavonoid metabolic process as well as responses to wounding, lipid, oxygen‐containing compound and hormones among upregulated genes (Supporting Information: Table S3). Cellular metal ion homoeostasis, root morphogenesis and plant epidermis development were overrepresented among downregulated genes (Supporting Information: Table S3).

3.3 | Nontranscriptional regulatory functions of VQ10 protein

The limited transcriptional regulatory impact of the enhanced VQ10 expression in the hypermorphic vq10-H mutant over wild-type plants suggest that the regulation exerted by this protein might be preferentially exerted at nontranscriptional level. In fact, it was

previously reported that VQ10 was one of the few proteins of the Arabidopsis VQ protein family that did not bind DNA and was unable to activate or represses a transcriptional reporter (Jing & Lin, [2015\)](#page-17-0). An in silico analysis of VQ10 protein based on the predictive algorithms PPRInt [\(https://webs.iiitd.edu.in/raghava/pprint/submit.](https://webs.iiitd.edu.in/raghava/pprint/submit.html) [html](https://webs.iiitd.edu.in/raghava/pprint/submit.html)) and DRNApred (<http://biomine.cs.vcu.edu/servers/DRNApred/>) point to VQ10 as a potential RNA‐binding protein (Supporting Information: Figure S3). It has been extensively reported that RNAbinding proteins act frequently by regulating alternative splicing (AS) in plants (Meyer et al., [2015](#page-17-23)) as well as protein translation (Wang et al., [2023](#page-18-7)). VQ10 functional activities might then be related to the regulation of RNA stability, location or metabolic processing. To check whether VQ10 affect AS, RNA‐Seq data were interrogated for alternative spliced transcripts. Data were analysed to identify skipped exons (SE), retained introns (RI), mutually exclusive exons (MXE) and alternative 5′ or 3′splice site (A5SS or A3SS). Figure [4](#page-9-0) summarises the AS events found in vq10-H and Col-O genotypes comparisons under

FIGURE 3 Genome-wide transcriptome analysis by RNA-Seq comparing wild type versus vq10-H mutant plants. Volcano plots showing: (a) differentially expressed genes (DEGs) upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) identified when compared vq10‐H to Col‐0 plants under normoxia (N; left panel) or hypoxia (H; right panel). (b) Upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) DEGs identified when hypoxic versus normoxic Col-0 (left panel) and vq10-H plants (right panel). (c) Venn diagrams showing the intersection between hypoxia upregulated (left plot) and downregulated (right plot) genes in Col-0 (blue) and vq10-H (yellow) plants.

 $(32.5%)$

 $(40%)$

 $(27.5%)$

normoxia or hypoxia. Gene targets of the significantly differential AS events and the corresponding statistics are included in Supporting Information: Table S4. Under normoxia, single significant differential A5SS, A3SS and SE events in PTP1, AGL42 and AT5G41690, and seven RI in magnesium transporter 7 (MGT7), Agamous‐Like42 (AGL42), O‐ fucosyltransferase 4 (OFUT4), Guanylate kinase 1 (GK1), ABC transporter A family member 8 (ABCA8), FTSH protease 8 (FTSH8) and AT1G56520

 (19.9%)

 $(60.2%)$

 (19.9%)

genes were identified (Supporting Information: Table S4). Under hypoxia, more differential AS events with statistical significance were identified when Col-0 versus vq10-H plants were compared. Two A3SS in sister chromatid cohesion 1 protein 2 (SYN2) and cytochrome c oxidase subunit 5C (AT5G61310) and seven A5SS, three of them in cyclin‐dependent kinase‐activating kinase assembly factor‐related (AT4G30820) and the other four in type I inositol polyphosphate

FIGURE 4 Identification of differential alternative splicing events occurring when comparing Col‐0 and vq10‐H plants under normoxia or hypoxia as well as normoxia versus hypoxia in Col‐0 plants. Skipped exons (SE), retained introns (RI), mutually exclusive exons (MXE) and alternative 5′or 3′ splice site (A5SS or A3SS) were analysed. Top panel shows the percentage of each alternative splicing type,and the total number of events are indicated in the box below.

5‐phosphatase 10 (IP5P10), serine/threonine‐protein phosphatase 5 (PAPP5), ADP‐ribosylation factor 2‐B (ARF‐2A) and TMPIT‐like protein (AT4G10430) as well as two SE events in AT5G44565 and AT4G30820 genes were identified under hypoxia (Supporting Information: Table S4). The largest number of AS events under hypoxia corresponded to RI events, which were identified in 20 different target genes (Supporting Information: Table S4). Some of them targeted genes coding for proteins with relevant regulatory functions such as the transcription factors NFYB10 and bHLH23 or the regulatory protein RAPTOR2, and a couple of cell cycle-related genes coding for SHUGOSIN2 and a cyclin‐dependent kinase‐activating kinase assembly factor (Supporting Information: Table S4). The analysis of AS in wild-type Col-0 plants in hypoxic versus normoxic plants showed that 70 differential AS events were identified (Figure [4\)](#page-9-0), further supporting the relevance of AS in regulating gene expression under hypoxia. Remarkably, AGL42 and MGT7 genes were the only loci undergoing differential AS when compared normoxic Col‐0 versus vq10‐H plants and normoxic versus hypoxic Col‐0 plants (Supporting Information: Table S4). Among genes showing differential AS when compared hypoxic Col‐0 versus vq10‐H plants, AT4G30820 coding for a cyclin‐dependent kinase‐activating kinase assembly factor‐related

protein, NFYB10 and BHLH23 coding for transcription factors, and AT3G54510, AT2G43465, AT3G65685 and AT4G02550 coding for hyperosmolarity-gated Ca^{2+} channel 2.5, an RNA-binding ASCH domain protein, a UDP‐glucosyltransferase, and an unknown protein, respectively, were also differentially spliced in hypoxic versus normoxic wild-type plants (Supporting Information: Table S4).

3.4 | Developmental and stress-related phenotypes of vq10‐H plants

To assess whether the potential developmental phenotypes of vq10-H plants were associated to the enhanced VQ10 expression, we generated transgenic VQ10ox plants overexpressing VQ10 gene under the 35S promoter leading to high overexpression around two orders of magnitude above that detected in vq10‐H plants (Supporting Information: Figure S4a), which we used together with the hypermorphic mutant. We checked that the strong downregulation of DA2 and RIP2 gene expression detected in vq10‐H plants (Supporting Information: Figure S1) was also detected in VQ10ox plants (Supporting Information: Figure S4b), thus suggesting the regulatory effects detected on the hypermorphic mutant was dependent on the enhanced VQ10 expression. The phenotypic characterisation of vq10‐H and VQ10ox plants allowed identifying root growth‐related alterations. Figure [5a](#page-10-0) shows that the enhanced VQ10 expression either in the hypermorphic vq10-H mutant or in overexpressing transgenic plants correlated with increased growth of the primary root during the first 3 days after germination. The increased growth was accompanied by enlarged root meristem in vq10-H plants but not in the VQ10ox plants, which instead developed shorter meristems (Figure [5b\)](#page-10-0). The measurement of cell length in the first cells in the root elongation zone, showed that vq10‐H and VQ10ox roots displayed enhanced cell elongation (Figure [5c\)](#page-10-0), thus likely responsible for the overall longer root phenotype. Nevertheless, in the hypermorphic mutant plants, the enlarged root meristem was likely due to the augmented cell division rate in the meristem as demonstrated by the more intense and wider β‐glucuronidase staining in cycB1:GUS cell division reporter plants in the roots of vq10-H compared to Col-O background (Figure [5d\)](#page-10-0). In turn, the cell division rate was not altered in vq10‐H shoots (Figure [5e](#page-10-0)). Given the described functional interaction between VQ10 and WRKY33 (Cheng et al., [2012\)](#page-16-0), we checked the GUS staining pattern in roots and shoots of cycB1:GUS in the wrky33 background. Enhanced GUS staining was detected both in roots and shoots (Figure [5e,f\)](#page-10-0), thus indicating WRKY33 negatively regulated cell division in both meristematic regions while VQ10 is a positive regulator in roots (Figure [5g\)](#page-10-0). It may also happen that in shoots the enhanced VQ10 expression was not enough to overcome the strong repression exerted by WRKY33 (Figure [5g](#page-10-0)), thus allowing strong cell division rates when WRKY33 is absent such as in the wrky33 mutant plants. Work on VQ proteins in plants during the last decade allowed proposing that these proteins act as regulatory factors of gene

FIGURE 5 Primary root elongation, size of root meristem and cell division rate in Col-0, vq10-H, VQ10ox overexpressing transgenic lines, and wrky33 plants. (a) The length of the primary roots of the indicated genotypes was measured in vertically grown plants by 3 days after seed germination. Box plots represent values from around 20 roots per genotype with the median value indicated by x. (b) The size of the root meristem was calculated from propidium iodide‐stained roots from 4‐day‐old plants that were visualised by confocal microscopy and photographed. Box plots represent values from three independent experiment with 8–15 individuals per genotype and experiment. Statistical significance in (a, b) was analysed by t test comparing each genotype to Col-0. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.005, and ***p < 0.001. (c) Size of the first elongated cells in the root elongation zone of the indicated genotypes. Values are the mean ± SEM of four to eight replicates with *corresponding to p < 0.05. (d) Cell division was monitored by β‐glucuronidase (GUS) staining in roots of cycB1:GUS plants in Col‐0 and vq10‐H backgrounds. Three representative images per genotype are shown. Cell division in shoots (e) or roots (f) of the indicated genotypes was monitored by GUS staining. Dotted lines represent the limits of GUS staining in root meristem in (c, e). (g) Schematic diagram showing the opposite regulation on cell division in meristems exerted by VQ10 and WRKY33. Arrows and blunt‐ended lines represent activation and repression, respectively. The thickness of the lines is proportional to the effect caused.

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expression in tight coordination with WRKY transcription factors (Cheng et al., [2012;](#page-16-0) Weyhe et al., [2014\)](#page-18-3). Particularly, it was previously reported that the simultaneous overexpression of VQ10 and WRKY33 genes led to severe reduction in the rosette size of double overexpressing transgenic plants, while single VQ10 or WRKY33 overexpressing plants had largely normal sizes at mature stages (Cheng et al., [2012](#page-16-0)). To analyse whether the cell divisionrelated phenotypes associated to the enhanced VQ10 expression in vq10-H plants were dependent or not on WRKY33 function, vq10-H

plants were crossed to wrky33 mutant plants. The characterisation of the progeny yielded two important results, no double homozygous plants could be identified after genotyping the F2, F3 and F4 progenies; and a strong shoot phenotype of dwarf chlorotic plants with curly and small leaves segregated in each population, correlating with genotypes combining homozygous wrky33/wrky33 mutant with heterozygous VQ10/vq10‐H or homozygous vq10‐H/vq10‐H and heterozygous WRKY33/wrky33 (Figure [6a](#page-11-0)). No such phenotypes were observed for any of the single homozygous parental plants. We

selected and grown F3 individuals of both genotypes (Figure [6a\)](#page-11-0) to produce F4 seeds that were sown and grown. Many plants developed the altered phenotype with homozygous/heterozygous genotypes (Figure [6b\)](#page-11-0) similar to that of F3 plants, and again none of them was double homozygous plants. These data point to VQ10 as a relevant regulator of shoot growth in tight functional interaction with WRKY33 acting on cell division in meristems.

Transcriptome data revealed several DEGs coding for peroxidases that were downregulated in normoxic vq[1](#page-6-0)0-H plants (Table 1). We tested the sensitivity of vq10‐H seeds to the oxidative stress triggered by treatment with methyl viologen (paraquat). Figure [7a](#page-12-0) shows that vq10‐H seeds were significantly more resistant to oxidative stress than wild-type seeds, with around 50% of vq10-H seeds germinating at 0.1 mM paraquat while only 5% of the Col-0 seeds germinated by 96 h

FIGURE 7 Tolerance to oxidative stress of Col-0, vq10-H and VQ10ox seed germination. Seed germination of the indicated genotypes either treated with 0.1 mM methyl viologen (MV) or untreated (MV 0) as control. Seed germination, as indicated by radicle protrusion, was calculated at Day 5 after sowing from three independent experiments each with 10–30 seeds per genotype and condition. The statistical significance was assessed by t test comparing each treated genotype with treated Col-0. $p < 0.05$ and $*^{*}p < 0.005$.

under this oxidative condition. By 96 h at 0.2 mM paraquat very few Col‐0 seeds (less than 3%) but more than 30% of the vq10‐H seeds germinated (Figure [7](#page-12-0)). The enhanced tolerance of seeds to oxidative stress seems to be due to the upregulation of VQ10 gene as similar enhanced tolerance as detected for vq10-H seeds was also detected in seeds of transgenic overexpressing VQ10ox lines (Figure [7\)](#page-12-0).

In addition to the enhanced tolerance to oxidative stress of vq10‐ H and VQ10ox seeds, we also tested the sensitivity of wild type, hypermorphic mutant and overexpressing plants to exogenous NO. By performing hypocotyl elongation assays under darkness for 4 days in the presence of exogenously supplied NO compared to untreated controls, around 15% hypocotyl shortening was detected in vq10‐H and 25% in VQ10ox plants, which was significantly less than the 45% shortening detected in NO-treated Col-0 hypocotyls (Figure [8\)](#page-12-1), thus suggesting vq10-H and VQ10ox plants tolerated better the nitrooxidative stress caused by NO maybe because VQ10 represses NO sensing or perhaps because it helps in dealing with reactive oxygen and nitrogen species.

As VQ10 was upregulated at short times after hypoxia (Figure [1b\)](#page-4-0), we tested whether the hypoxia‐triggered upregulation of hypoxia marker genes such as lateral boundaries 41 (LBD41), (pyruvate decarboxylase 1 (PDC1), alcohol dehydrogenase 1 (ADH1) and L-lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) were altered in vq10-H and transgenic overexpressing VQ10ox plants. Significant upregulation of LBD41, PDC1 and ADH1 genes was detected upon hypoxia in Col‐0, vq10‐H and VQ10ox plants with no significant differences between hypoxic genotypes (Figure [9](#page-13-0)). The hypoxia‐induced expression of LDH in vq10-H mutant plants was like wild-type plants but lower in VQ10ox plants (Figure [9](#page-13-0)). Moreover, the levels of basal but not hypoxiainduced expression of LBD41 and PDC1 were significantly different in vq10-H and VQ10ox compared to Col-0 plants (Figure [9\)](#page-13-0). In turn, no significant differences were detected in ADH1 and LDH transcript levels in vq10‐H and VQ10ox compared to Col‐0 plants under

FIGURE 8 Sensitivity of wild type, vq10-H and VQ10ox hypocotyls to nitric oxide (NO). Sensitivity to NO was tested in hypocotyl shortening assays using etiolated seedlings incubated under darkness for 4 days in tight‐sealed chambers containing 300 ppm +NO (dark grey) or without supplemented nitric oxide as control (−NO, light grey) as previously reported (Castillo et al., [2018\)](#page-16-11). Represented values are the mean ± SE of around 25 individuals per genotype and condition. Statistical significance was assessed by unpaired t test comparing the NO‐treated to the untreated values of the same genotype. $^{**}p < 0.005$.

FIGURE 9 Hypoxia-triggered upregulation of marker genes in Col-0, va10-H and transgenic overexpressing VQ10ox plants. The indicated transcripts were analysed by RT‐qPCR from three independent RNAs isolated from plants of the indicated genotype and condition (N, normoxia; H, hypoxia caused by exposure to 1% O₂ for 24 h). Values are the mean ± SE and the statistical significance assessed by t test comparing data from genotypes in the same treatment, or different treatments for the same genotype. $\gamma p < 0.05$, $\gamma p < 0.005$, and $\gamma p < 0.001$.

normoxia (Figure [9\)](#page-13-0), thus pointing to VQ10 as an activator of only LBD41 and PDC1 expression under normoxia but not under hypoxia. We tested whether vq10-H and overexpressing VQ10ox plants showed altered tolerance to submergence under darkness followed by reoxygenation recovery under light. The damage detected in plants after submergence/reoxygenation was quantified for any condition and genotype (Supporting Information: Figure S5). All genotypes with enhanced VQ10 expression displayed lower tolerance to submergence and the subsequent reoxygenation recovery with increased percentage of damaged plants compared to Col‐0 (Supporting Information: Figure S5). To check whether the altered tolerance to hypoxia of plants with enhanced VQ10 expression was related to changes in the energy status of the plants, the endogenous ATP levels were quantified. No significant differences in the ATP levels were detected when compared wild type with the hypermorphic mutant or overexpressing plants either under nonstressed or NO-triggered nitroxidative stress (Supporting Information: Figure S6). We also tested whether changes in the tolerance to hypoxia/ reoxygenation, oxidative stress in seeds and hyposensitivity to NO in hypocotyl elongation assays of plants with enhanced

VQ10 expression correlated with changes in the pattern of 3‐nitrotyrosine modification that is an indicator of the sensitivity to nitroxidative stress. We found that the pattern of 3‐nitrotyrosine containing proteins, which was strongly promoted by the exposure to NO, were not significantly different in wild type, vq10‐H mutant or VQ10ox overexpressing plants (Supporting Information: Figure S7a). Moreover, although the use of free 3-nitrotyrosine is not a commonly used marker for nitroxidative stress in plants as it is for mammals, we have developed an analytical method based on UPLC‐MS/MS to determine the levels of free 3-nitrotyrosine. Our results point again to a large increase in the free 3‐nitrotyrosine levels upon exposure to NO, but no significant differences among genotypes either in non‐ stressed or NO-exposed plants (Supporting Information: Figure S7b). Between 30‐ and 40‐fold increases in free 3‐nitrotyrosine levels were detected in all NO‐treated plants compared to untreated controls (Supporting Information: Figure S7b).

Since VQ10 gene was upregulated by NO (Figure [1b](#page-4-0)) and plants with enhanced constitutive expression were less sensitive to NO than wild-type plants (Figure [8\)](#page-12-1), we analysed whether the VQ10 exerted regulation might work through the function of phytoglobins, which

have been characterised as important regulators of endogenous NO levels either through direct NO scavenging or through the function of phytoglobin-NO cycle (Gupta et al., [2018\)](#page-17-24). Moreover, class I phytoglobins also play a relevant regulatory role on root meristem growth (Mira et al., [2020](#page-17-25), [2023](#page-17-26)), a phenotype we found altered in roots from plants with enhanced VQ10 expression (Figure [5](#page-10-0)). We have tested whether enhanced VQ10 expression affect the normoxic or hypoxia‐triggered upregulation of GLB1 gene coding for an Arabidopsis class I phytoglobin. Despite GLB1 was strongly and similarly induced by hypoxia in our RNA‐seq data of Col‐0 and vq10-H plants (21- and 26-fold, respectively; Supporting Information: Table S2), we checked GLB1 transcript levels by qRT-PCR from independent RNAs isolated not only from wild type and vq10‐H plants but also from overexpressing transgenic VQ10ox plants, either under normoxia or hypoxia. Supporting Information: Figure S8a shows that no significant differences were found when compared the different genotypes to Col‐0 under normoxia, and also that GLB1 was strongly upregulated upon hypoxia to similar extent in all genotypes. Besides, we also checked whether altered GLB1 expression in mutant (glb1) and overexpressing (GLB1ox) transgenic plants could alter the expression of VQ10 gene when compared to Col‐0 plants. Supporting Information: Figure S8b shows that neither under normoxia or hypoxia the levels of VQ10 transcript in mutant glb1 or overexpressing GLB1ox were significantly different to that detected in Col‐0 plants.

4 | DISCUSSION

Despite VQ proteins have emerged as relevant regulators of plant responses to biotic and abiotic stresses and plant growth and development (Jiang et al., [2018](#page-17-1)), very little is known about the function of most of the Arabidopsis VQ proteins. Arabidopsis VQ10, beyond the well-characterised interaction with WRKY8 to modulate defense against Botrytis (Chen et al., [2018](#page-16-4)), and their responsiveness to NO (Castillo et al., [2018](#page-16-11)) and to hypoxia and oxidative stress (León et al., [2021](#page-17-13)), remains poorly characterised. Here we report the identification and characterisation of phenotypes associated to the enhanced VQ10 expression in the hypermorphic vq10‐H mutant as well as genome-wide transcriptome analysis of mutant versus wildtype plants under normoxia and hypoxia. Neither the hypoxia‐ triggered upregulation of marker genes (Figure [9\)](#page-13-0) nor the tolerance to submergence-triggered hypoxia (Supporting Information: Figure S5) was significantly altered in vq10-H plants, thus suggesting a minor or not decisive involvement of VQ10 in hypoxia responses. These data would be consistent with the large group of genes that were coregulated by hypoxia in wild-type and vq10-H plants (Figure $3c$) suggesting the existence of a core of hypoxia‐responsive genes that were not modulated by VQ10. On the other hand, given the limited impact of altered VQ10 expression on the differentially expressed transcriptome of vq10‐H compared to Col‐0 plants both under normoxia or hypoxia (Tables [1](#page-6-0) and [2](#page-7-0); Figure $3a,b$) together with the previously reported inability of VQ10 protein to bind DNA and

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regulate transcription (Jing $\&$ Lin, [2015](#page-17-0)), the regulatory functions exerted by VQ10 protein should rely on other features. VQ10 protein is predicted to bind RNA (Supporting Information: Figure S3), suggesting that part of the regulatory roles exerted by VQ10 protein could be related to posttranscriptional regulation that often involve the AS of target genes (Meyer et al., [2015](#page-17-23)). A set of differentially occurring AS events were identified in the RNA‐Seq analysis of vq10-H versus Col-O plants (Figure [4](#page-9-0), Supporting Information: Table S4). Among the less than 10 targets of differential AS identified in normoxic plants, different AS events were detected in AGL42 gene that encodes a MADS box transcription factor whose expression is enriched in the QC and the stele of roots, mediated the brassinosteroid perception in the epidermis and controlled root meristem size (Hacham et al., [2011](#page-17-27); Nawy et al., [2005](#page-17-28)). Moreover, AGL42 together with other MADS‐box transcription factors promote flowering at the shoot apical and axillary meristems through a gibberellin-dependent pathway (Dorca-Fornell et al., [2011\)](#page-16-15). We found that the root of vq10-H plants grew more actively during the early primary root elongation stage (Figure [5a](#page-10-0)) correlating with enlarged root meristem size (Figure [5b](#page-10-0)) and increased root cell division rate (Figure [5c\)](#page-10-0). On the other hand, the cell division rate in the shoot of cycB1:GUS plants in vq10-H background did not differ from that detected in cycB1:GUS plants in Col‐0 background, but it was strongly enhanced both in shoots and roots of the reporter plants in the wrky33 knock‐out background (Figure [5d,e](#page-10-0)). These findings suggest that cell division is oppositely regulated by VQ10 and WRKY33 acting as activator and repressor, respectively. In roots, the activation by VQ10 is preponderant on the repression by WRKY33 (Figure [5e](#page-10-0)). In turn, the repressor function of WRKY33 would prevail in shoots (Figure [5e\)](#page-10-0), thus explaining the strong GUS staining detected in the shoot apical meristem of cycB1:GUS plants in wrky33 background. However, in VQ10ox plants with very high levels of VQ10 expression, the size of the root apical meristem was not larger like in vq10‐H roots but, in turn, shorter than in wild-type roots (Figure [5b](#page-10-0)), thus suggesting a lack of WRKY33 repressing function in controlling cell division in VQ10ox roots. AGL42 was not differentially expressed in vq10-H plants (Supporting Information: Table S2) but it cannot be ruled out that the occurrence of differential AS events in AGL42 locus in vq10‐H plants may be somehow involved. Interestingly, the genetic cross between vq10‐H and wrky33 plants led to double homozygous/ heterozygous mutant plants with simultaneous enhanced VQ10 expression due to the hypermorphic double vq10‐H mutation and downregulated WRKY33 expression because the wrky33 knock‐out mutation. These plants developed dwarf shoots with many curly chlorotic leaves and delayed bolting (Figure 6), a phenotype that suggest a high cell proliferation in shoot meristem and that is consistent with a potential reduced AGL42 function due to the formation of alternative spliced inactive forms in vq10‐H plants (Supporting Information: Table S4). In addition, it is worth mentioning that we identified several differential AS events in hypoxic vq10‐H plants, including alternative 5′ spliced sites, RI and SE, that target At4g30820 gene (Supporting Information: Table S4) coding for a cyclin‐dependent kinase‐activating kinase assembly factor‐related

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protein for which 19 different spliced forms have been identified and that is involved in the control of cell division and transcription (Umeda et al., [2005\)](#page-18-8). It is tempting to propose that the VQ10-related effects on cell division in root and shoot apical meristems, described above under normoxic conditions, may be somehow potentiated under hypoxia through AS‐mediated mechanisms involving phosphorylation events in different substrates.

Germination of vq10‐H and VQ10ox seeds was significantly higher than wild-type seeds under oxidative stress (Figure [7\)](#page-12-0), thus suggesting VQ10 may play a role in either activating antioxidant processes or in minimising the deleterious effects of reactive oxygen. However, the upregulated differential transcriptome in vq10-H plants did not include any gene coding for an antioxidant enzyme. The second most upregulated gene codes for the Prenylated Rab GTPase Receptor PRA1.F4 that is involved in the exit of some types of post‐ Golgi proteins from the Golgi apparatus (Lee et al., [2017](#page-17-22)). Interestingly, the ICME encoding gene ICMEL2 was downregulated in vq[1](#page-6-0)0-H plants (Table 1). This enzyme demethylates prenylated proteins that seem to be involved in regulating ABA sensitivity and signalling (Lan et al., [2010](#page-17-21)) and it may thus be also relevant to regulate the function of the prenylated PRA1.F4 protein. An Arabidopsis chloroplast localised Rab GTPase protein CPRabA5e seems to be involved in regulating vesicle transport and in promoting seed germination and growth during oxidative stress (Karim et al., [2014](#page-17-29)), and another Rab GTPase AtRabG3e, which has a role in vesicle transport between the Golgi and the plasma membrane, has been shown to be induced under oxidative stress (Mazel et al., [2004](#page-17-30)). These data suggest that the VQ10 involvement in the protection against oxidative stress would not be related to the function of antioxidant enzyme encoding genes, but to the regulation of signalling pathways, such as Rab protein modulation of vesicle trafficking between intracellular compartments. Regarding this, vq10-H plants displayed a strong downregulation of ICR4/RIP4 gene coding for Interactor of Constitutive active Rho GTPase of Plants (ROPs) 4 (Table [1\)](#page-6-0), thus supporting the involvement of GTP‐related signalling in VQ10‐exerted regulation. It has been recently reported that the ROP2 GTPase participates in NO‐Induced Root Shortening in Arabidopsis (Kenesi et al., [2023](#page-17-31)). We found that NO strongly upregulated VQ10 gene (Figure $1b$) and also that vq10-H plants were less sensitive to NO than Col‐0 in shortening hypocotyl assays with etiolated plants (Figure 8), a phenotype that could also involve the participation of Rho GTPase‐related signalling. It is worth mentioning that normoxic vq10‐H plants displayed significant downregulation of three peroxidase-encoding genes (Table [1](#page-6-0)). It has been reported that mutations in rice that led to the accumulation of reactive oxygen species caused the strong downregulation of eight peroxidase‐ encoding genes (Li et al., [2021](#page-17-32)), and in Arabidopsis the peroxidase downregulation seems to be a signature of oxidative stress responses (Choi et al., 2019), thus suggesting vq10-H plants may undergo constitutive oxidative stress under normoxia. A constitutively high oxidative state of vq10‐H plants may be the reason why vq10‐H seeds better tolerate the application of an exogenous generator of oxidative stress such as methyl viologen (Figure [7\)](#page-12-0). It is known that

the QC of roots remains under hypoxic conditions, but it requires of oxidising conditions to ensure its establishment and maintenance (Jiang et al., [2003\)](#page-17-33). This oxidised state may compromise mitochondrial function, the generation of energy, and some energy‐consuming processes such as cell division (Jiang et al., [2006](#page-17-34)). In vq10‐H plants the enhanced VQ10 expression correlated with enhanced cell division in the root apical meristem (Figure [5d](#page-10-0)), but no significant differences were detected in the ATP levels when plants with enhanced VQ10 expression were compared to wild‐type plants (Supporting Information: Figure S6), thus suggesting the regulation exerted by VQ10 is uncoupled from altered mitochondria‐related energy effects. Despite QC is always under hypoxia, roots still respond to imposing exogenous hypoxia and it has been reported that maize class‐I phytoglobins play an essential role in protecting the QC from shifting from oxidative to reduced state under stress (Mira et al., [2020](#page-17-25), [2023\)](#page-17-26). This role is exerted through NO-mediated processes (Mira et al., [2020](#page-17-25)). In Arabidopsis, the class-I phytoglobin encoding gene GLB1 is strongly upregulated by hypoxia and exposure to NO, and we found that it was strongly and similarly upregulated by hypoxia in vq10‐H and Col-0 plants (Supporting Information: Table S₂ and Figure S_{8a}) and not significantly different in mutant and wild‐type plants under normoxia (Supporting Information: Table S2 and Figure S8a), thus pointing to no involvement of GLB1 in VQ10‐exerted regulation of cell division in roots. Alternatively, the altered expression of GLB1 gene in mutant or overexpressing plants could act on VQ10 expression. However, by using glb1 mutant and GLB1ox overexpressing plants we found no significant alterations in VQ10 expression compared to wild-type plants either under normoxia or hypoxia, thus suggesting GLB1 is not relevant to regulate VQ10 expression and action under the tested conditions in this work.

Another potential mechanism of action for VQ10 could be related to mitochondria‐related alterations not in energy generation but in primary C metabolism. QQS gene coding for a key protein regulating starch metabolism was strongly downregulated in vq10‐H plants either in normoxia or hypoxia (Tables [1](#page-6-0) and [2](#page-7-0); Supporting Information: Figure S2a). It has been reported that the expression of QQS and other starch-related genes was altered under oxidative stress conditions (Jones et al., [2016\)](#page-17-35). Accordingly, vq10‐H mutant plants contained higher levels of starch than wild‐type plants (Supporting Information: Figure S2b). Noteworthy, VQ10 transcript levels were increased around 2.0‐2.5‐fold in Arabidopsis sex1‐3 and sex4‐3 mutants that accumulated starch (GEO accession GSE19260). Future work will be needed to determine whether the changes in the endogenous levels of starch may be linked to altered VQ10 gene expression and to phenotypes such as altered root growth or sensitivity to nitroxidative stress described in this article. However, starch that is stored in seeds, is the main source of energy for germination and it was documented that the starch content affect seed germination through alterations in the starch-sugars balance due to altered starch metabolism (Zhang et al., [2022\)](#page-18-9). We checked whether the energy status of plants with enhanced VQ10 expression was significantly different from wild-type plants either under

non‐stressed conditions or upon nitroxidative stress caused by application of exogenous NO. No significant changes in the endogenous levels of ATP were found when compared vq10‐H or VQ10ox plants to Col‐0 plants under both conditions (Supporting Information: Figure S6), thus suggesting the altered tolerance to nitroxidative stress seems to be not related to the energy status of the plant. Like ATP, the levels of free and protein‐bound 3‐nitrotyrosine, which is a marker of nitroxidative stress, were largely increased upon exposure to NO in all the genotypes tested with no significant differences between genotypes, thus suggesting changes in tolerance to stress were not related to massive posttranslational modifications of proteins by nitration of tyrosine residues.

Findings presented here point out that VQ10 proteins is a potential integrator of developmental and stress-related cues acting as a regulatory protein through non‐DNA‐binding mechanisms. It is likely, though still to be demonstrated, that VQ10 regulatory actions reside mainly in the interaction with RNAs and other proteins, a hypothesis that we are already exploring. We have found that VQ10 and its close homologue VQ1 protein interact with many proteins with diverse subcellular localisation. Among these VQ10-interacting proteins, we found a significant enrichment of chloroplast proteins involved in the assembly, function and maintenance of photosystems as well as diverse enzymes participating in C, N and S metabolism. Moreover, the altered VQ10 expression in overexpressing and amiRNA‐targeted transgenic plants correlated with changes in the efficiency of photosynthesis as well as in de‐etiolation and greening (manuscript in preparation). Whether regulation exerted by VQ10 protein on chloroplast function, or any other identified VQ10‐ interacting protein are functionally linked to the phenotypes of enhanced tolerance to oxidative stress and reduced sensitivity to NO observed in this work for vq10‐H plants will require further experimental support, but protein–protein interaction is likely very relevant for VQ10 exerted regulation on multiple processes.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data supporting the findings of this study are openly available, and the RNA‐Seq data have been deposited in GEO database with accession code GSE214887.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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