

## RESEARCH PAPER

# Changes in DNA and microtubules during loss and re-establishment of desiccation tolerance in germinating *Medicago truncatula* seeds

José M. R. Faria<sup>1,4</sup>, Julia Buitink<sup>2</sup>, André A. M. van Lammeren<sup>3</sup> and Henk W. M. Hilhorst<sup>1,\*</sup>

- <sup>1</sup> Laboratory of Plant Physiology, Wageningen University, Arboretumlaan 4, 6703 BD Wageningen, The Netherlands
- <sup>2</sup> UMR 1191 Physiologie Moléculaire des Semences, INRA/INH/Université d'Angers, 16 bd Lavoisier, 49045 Angers, France
- <sup>3</sup> Laboratory of Plant Cell Biology, Wageningen University, Arboretumlaan 4, 6703 BD Wageningen, The Netherlands
- <sup>4</sup> Departamento de Ciências Florestais, Universidade Federal de Lavras, CP 37, CEP 37200–000, Lavras, MG, Brazil

Received 15 September 2004; Accepted 27 April 2005

#### **Abstract**

Desiccation tolerance (DT) in orthodox seeds is acquired during seed development and lost upon imbibition/germination, purportedly upon the resumption of DNA synthesis in the radicle cells. In the present study, flow cytometric analyses and visualization of microtubules (MTs) in radicle cells of seedlings of Medicago truncatula showed that up to a radicle length of 2 mm, there is neither DNA synthesis nor cell division, which were first detected in radicles with a length of 3 mm. However, DT started to be lost well before the resumption of DNA synthesis, when germinating seeds were dried back. By applying an osmotic treatment with polyethylene glycol (PEG) before dehydration, it was possible to re-establish DT in seedlings with a radicle up to 2 mm long. Dehydration of seedlings with a 2 mm radicle, with or without PEG treatment, caused disassembly of MTs and appearance of tubulin granules. Subsequent pre-humidification led to an almost complete disappearance of both MTs and tubulin granules. Upon rehydration, neither MTs nor tubulin granules were detected in radicle cells of untreated seedlings, while PEG-treated seedlings were able to reconstitute the microtubular cytoskeleton and continue their normal development. Dehydration of untreated seedlings also led to an apoptotic-like DNA fragmentation in radicle cells, while in PEG- treated seedlingss DNA integrity was maintained. The results showed that for different cellular components, desiccation-tolerant seedlings may apply distinct strategies to survive dehydration, either by avoidance or further repair of the damages.

Key words: Cell cycle, desiccation tolerance, DNA content, DNA integrity, *Medicago truncatula*, microtubules.

## Introduction

Desiccation tolerance (DT) in plants can be considered as the ability to rehydrate successfully after the removal of 80–90% of protoplasmic water, leading to moisture content (MC) below 0.3 g g<sup>-1</sup> (or 23% on a wet basis), when the hydration shell of molecules is lost (Oliver *et al.*, 2000; Hoekstra *et al.*, 2001). There are three criteria that a plant or plant structure must meet in order to survive such severe loss of protoplasmic water: (i) limitation of the damage suffered by the cells during desiccation to a repairable level; (ii) maintenance of its physiological integrity in the dry state; and (iii) mobilization of repair mechanisms upon rehydration aiming to revert the damages caused by desiccation and/or rehydration (Bewley, 1979).

In orthodox seeds, DT is acquired during seed development, enabling them to withstand maturation drying, when

<sup>\*</sup> To whom correspondence should be addressed. Fax: +31 317 484740. E-mail: henk.hilhorst@wur.nl

more than 90% of the water may be lost (Adams and Rinne, 1980). DT is maintained after shedding, allowing further drying of seeds, when MC may be diminished to c. 0.05 g g<sup>-1</sup>, without loss of viability. When dried seeds are imbibed, DT remains unchanged for some time, so they can be dried back to their original MC without irreversible damage. However, if seeds are allowed to imbibe longer, DT is gradually lost. The point at which DT starts to be lost varies among species if analysed in terms of imbibition time (Senaratna and McKersie, 1983, 1986; Hong and Ellis, 1992; Reisdorph and Koster, 1999; Koster et al., 2003; Ren and Tao, 2003) or protruded radicle length (Lin et al., 1998; Leprince et al., 2000; Pukacka, 2001; Buitink et al., 2003). However, if germination is assessed regarding the activation of the cell cycle, loss of DT coincides, irrespective of species, with the resumption of cell division (Berrie and Drennan, 1971; Osborne et al., 2002) or, more frequently, DNA synthesis (Sargent et al., 1981; Dasgupta et al., 1982; Deltour, 1985; Osborne and Boubriak, 1994; Osborne, 2000; Boubriak *et al.*, 2000). It has been shown that cells in the G<sub>2</sub> phase of the cell cycle, with duplicated DNA, are more sensitive to stress than cells that are still in the G<sub>1</sub>, pre-synthetic phase (Deltour, 1985; Sliwinska, 2003). It has been suggested, however, that although DNA replication is a suggestive developmental marker for the loss of DT in germinating seeds, it is not necessarily the reason (Sargent et al., 1981).

Another component of the cell cycle that may be involved in the loss of DT during germination is the microtubular cytoskeleton, which is markedly sensitive to desiccation stress (Sargent *et al.*, 1981). Microtubules (MTs) are elongated tubular structures, made of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ -tubulin, which in plant cells play an important part in cell elongation, determination of the division site, chromosome separation, and cytokinesis (Alberts *et al.*, 2002; Wasteneys and Galway, 2003). In desiccation-sensitive seeds MTs can be irreversibly deranged by dehydration (Berjak and Pammenter, 2000). Microtubule reassembly is among the cellular repair processes that have been linked to DT (Oliver, 1996; Mycock *et al.*, 2000).

The maintenance of the genetic information carried by the DNA is essential to cell survival upon dehydration and rehydration (Osborne *et al.*, 2002). The stability of the DNA on dehydration and the ability for its repair on rehydration is a prominent feature displayed by desiccation-tolerant seeds (Boubriak *et al.*, 1997). Seeds that are allowed to germinate until (or beyond) the point where they become desiccation-sensitive, can experience irreversible DNA degradation when subjected to dehydration. When cells are confronted with environmental stresses, they can either die passively (accidental cell death) or can self-destruct (programmed cell death), depending on the stress type and intensity (Danon *et al.*, 2000). Self-destruction is orchestrated by an active mechanism known as apoptosis, the biochemical hallmark of which is the cleavage of the DNA

at internucleosomal sites by endonucleases, generating oligonucleosomal fragments. This DNA fragmentation can be detected by the formation of DNA ladders on agarose gels (Stein and Hansen, 1999). For cell death processes other then apoptosis, a smear of broken DNA, instead of a clear fragmentation pattern is seen (Wang *et al.*, 1998).

The genetic information for DT is certainly present in the genome of plants that bear orthodox seeds. In those plants, the restriction of DT to specific stages of seed development is due to differences in the control of gene expression (Bartels and Salamini, 2001). The cellular protection system exhibited by those seeds may be induced in vegetative tissues by environmental cues related to drying (Oliver et al., 2000). The feasibility of the re-establishment of DT in seedlings originated from orthodox seeds by applying an osmotic stress, as shown by Bruggink and van der Toorn (1995) and Buitink et al. (2003), has appeared as an outstanding tool for studies on the mechanisms of desiccation tolerance and sensitivity in seeds. By using such an approach, the present study aimed to investigate the relationship of the DNA (relative content and integrity) and microtubule configurations with the loss and reestablishment of desiccation tolerance in germinating seeds of *Medicago truncatula* Gaertn. cv. Jemalong A17.

## Materials and methods

#### Plant material

*Medicago truncatula* Gaertn. cv. Jemalong A17 plants were routinely grown in an environmentally controlled growth chamber (16/8 h photoperiod; 170  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>; 25 °C; 60% RH). Mature pods were collected at shedding, around 30 d after flowering, stored at 20 °C (Journet *et al.*, 2001) and seeds were extracted manually when needed.

#### Dormancy release and seed germination

Medicago truncatula seeds exhibit a combination of physical (coatimposed) and physiological dormancy, with the latter lasting for 3-4 months following pod abscission (Journet et al., 2001). In order to overcome these dormancies, seeds were chemically scarified by immersing them in concentrated sulphuric acid for 5-10 min and subjected to cold imbibition (36 h at 4 °C), in the dark, in Petri dishes (9 cm diameter; 250 seeds per dish) with two filter papers (No. 595, Schleicher & Schuell, Germany) moistened with 9 ml distilled water. During cold imbibition Petri dishes were kept shaking on a benchtop shaker (70 rpm). Seeds were transferred to new Petri dishes (9 cm diameter; 50 seeds per dish) with two filter papers moistened with 2.5 ml of distilled water and kept in the dark at 20 °C (modified from Sieberer et al., 2002). Seeds that showed radicle protrusion were considered germinated. To characterize the dormancy release better, the germination of 2-month-old seeds treated with sulphuric acid plus cold imbibition was compared with seeds subjected to only one treatment (acid scarification or cold imbibition) as well as to untreated (control) seeds, in three replications of 50 seeds.

# Moisture content (MC) determination

MC was assessed in four replications of 10 seeds (or radicles), by oven-drying at 103 °C for 17 h, according to the International Seed

Testing Association (ISTA, 1996). MC is expressed on a dry weight basis, i.e. in g H<sub>2</sub>O g<sup>-1</sup> dry matter or simply g g<sup>-</sup>

#### DNA content assessment

Relative DNA content assessment was done by flow cytometry, using suspensions of intact nuclei prepared from radicles excised from dry seeds or seedlings with increasing protruded radicle length (1, 2, 3, and 4 mm). Only the tip (1 mm) of the radicles, which includes the root cap and the meristematic region, was used in the analyses. Each treatment consisted of five replications of 10 radicle tips. Sample preparation was done according to Arumuganthan and Earle (1991) and analyses were performed with a flow cytometer (EPICS XL-MCL, Beckman-Coulter, Miami, FL, USA) equipped with an argon ion laser at 488 nm. Histograms were processed using ModFit LT (Verity Software House, Topsham, ME, USA) for data analysis and correction of the background noise. In each replication 10 000 nuclei were analysed. Statistical analyses were performed with the software SPSS 11.0.1.

# Assessment of the loss of desiccation tolerance during germination

Seeds were germinated as described previously, germination was scored at various times and then seeds/seedlings were dehydrated. Dehydration was done over a saturated solution of K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (43% RH) in a closed box with circulating air at 23 °C for 3 d, based on Buitink et al. (2003). After dehydration, seeds were pre-humidified in humid air (100% RH) for 24 h at 20 °C to avoid imbibitional damage and then rehydrated (2.5 ml H<sub>2</sub>O/Petri dish 9 cm; two filter papers; 20 °C; in the dark). Seeds that germinated and seedlings that continued their normal development were considered desiccation-tolerant. The data of DT (%) were normalized to the maximum germination attained (%) in the germination test. The experiment was replicated three times with 50 seeds being used each time that germination and DT were evaluated.

#### Re-establishment of desiccation tolerance

To assess the re-establishment of DT in seedlings, they were selected by their radicle length (1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 mm) using a dissection microscope and a metallic ruler with 0.5 mm scale divisions and either dried directly or after 3 d of incubation in a polyethylene glycol (PEG) 6000 solution (355 g PEG dissolved in 1.0 l H<sub>2</sub>O). Incubation was done in the dark, in 9 cm Petri dishes containing two filter papers wetted with 7 ml of PEG solution. The incubation temperature of  $10~^{\circ}\text{C}$  which gives a water potential of -1.7~MPa, used by Buitink et al. (2003) for the re-establishment of DT in seedlings of M. truncatula cv. Paraggio, was not suitable for cv. Jemalong A17 used in the present study because it could not inhibit protruding radicles from continuing growth during incubation. The problem was solved by carrying out the incubation at 5 °C. By decreasing the temperature, the water potential of the PEG solution was slightly lowered to -1.8 MPa. After incubation, seedlings were rinsed thoroughly in distilled water and then dehydrated, pre-humidified, and rehydrated as described before. Seedlings that resumed normal growth after rehydration were considered desiccation-tolerant. Four independent experiments with 50 seedlings each were carried out.

#### Viability test (tetrazolium test)

Seedlings with a radicle length of 2 mm were dehydrated (with or without previous PEG treatment), pre-humidified, and incubated in a 1% (w/v) solution of 2,3,5-triphenyl tetrazolium chloride (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), at 20 °C for 18 h in the dark. Stained tissues were considered viable, and unstained white tissues were considered dead (ISTA, 1996). The test was done using three replications of 50 seedlings per treatment.

# DNA isolation and electrophoresis to assess DNA fragmentation

Chromosomal DNA was extracted from 2 mm long radicles of seedlings (control and dehydrated with and without PEG treatment) and isolated following a protocol modified from Liu et al. (1995). Approximately 40 mg of radicles from hydrated (control) and 20 mg from dehydrated (PEG-treated and untreated) seedlings were ground to a fine powder with a mortar and pestle in liquid nitrogen and mixed with the extraction buffer (0.6 ml NaCl, 100 mM TRIS-HCl pH 7.5, 40 mM EDTA, 4% sarkosyl, and 1% SDS) previously diluted with urea and phenol. Phenol:chloroform was added, the mixture was centrifuged and the aqueous phase collected and mixed with isopropanol. DNA was precipitated by inverting the tubes a few times. After incubation for 10 min at room temperature and centrifugation, the pellet was washed with 80% ethanol and dissolved in TRIS-EDTA (TE) pH 8.0 containing RNase A. Samples (5 μg lane<sup>-1</sup>) of DNA were loaded on a 1% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide.

# Immunohistochemical detection of the microtubular cvtoskeleton

Radicles were excised from seeds/seedlings, both before imbibition (dry seeds) and after germination, with lengths of 1, 2, 3, and 4 mm. Radicles (2 mm long) were also excised from seedlings after each of the following steps, with or without PEG treatment: dehydration, prehumidification, and rehydration. The type of fixation used depended on the moisture content of the tissue. Radicles excised from dry seeds/seedlings (both before imbibition and after germination followed by dehydration) were chemically fixed in water-free methanol+0.1% glutaraldehyde for 4 h, at 20 °C. Radicles excised from undried seedlings were plunged into liquid propane (cooled down in liquid nitrogen) and transferred to cryo-tubes containing frozen freeze-substitution medium (water-free methanol+0.1% glutaraldehyde), also cooled down in liquid nitrogen. The cryo-tubes were put in a freeze substitution unit (FreasySub, Cryotech Benelux, Schagen, The Netherlands) for 78 h. The next steps were similar for both chemically and cryo-fixed samples. The fixative medium was replaced by ethanol (series of increasing concentrations), followed by embedding in butylmethylmethacrylate (BMM) and UV polymerization at -20 °C for 48 h, according to Baskin *et al.* (1992). Five roots were analysed for each treatment. Longitudinal sections (3 µm thick) were placed on slides and BMM was removed by washing in acetone. The slides were then rinsed in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and sections were blocked in 100 mM hydroxyl tetra ammonium chloride (HAC) and in 26 mM bovine serum albumin (BSA). Next, they were incubated with the primary antibody (mouse anti-α-tubulin [Sigma, Zwijndrecht, The Netherlands], diluted 1:200 v/v), followed by the secondary antibody (goat anti-mouse IgG conjugated with fluorescein-5-isothiocyanate – FITC [Molecular Probes, Leiden, The Netherlands], diluted 1:200 v/v). As a control, slides without the first antibody were used for every treatment. A confocal laser scanning microscope (Biorad MRC-600) and an epifluorescence microscope (Nikon Labophot) were used for the visualization of microtubules.

# Results

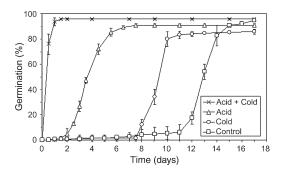
# Medicago truncatula seed germination: dormancy release and imbibition

Germination of seeds without pre-germination treatment (control) remained around 5% until 11 d, increasing afterwards and reaching its maximum (95%) at 17 d of

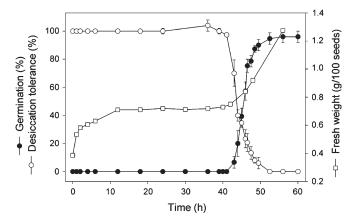
#### 2122 Faria et al.

imbibition. Seeds subjected to chemical scarification or cold imbibition germinated faster than the control, with a better performance by acid-treated seeds, suggesting that in the combined dormancy present in *M. truncatula* seeds, the physical (seed coat) dormancy is stronger than the physiological (embryo) dormancy. The most efficient treatment was achieved by the combination of acid scarification and cold imbibition that allowed the start of germination after a few hours of imbibition at 20 °C, reaching the maximum (96%) within 1 d (Fig. 1).

The imbibition curve of seeds chemically scarified and subjected to cold imbibition is shown in Fig. 2. Phase 1 of imbibition, characterized by a rapid increase in fresh weight, occurred in the first 9 h. Between 9 h and 40 h of imbibition, the gain in fresh weight was very small, characterizing the plateau or phase 2 of imbibition. Visible germination (radicle protrusion) started after 42 h of



**Fig. 1.** Germination of *Medicago truncatula* seeds at 20 °C after various treatments for dormancy release: chemical scarification with sulphuric acid; cold imbibition (4 °C) for 36 h; chemical scarification plus cold imbibition; and control. Each data point is the mean of three replications of 50 seeds. Bars represent standard deviation.



**Fig. 2.** Imbibition curve, germination, and loss of desiccation tolerance of chemically scarified *Medicago truncatula* seeds. Seeds were imbibed for 36 h at 4 °C and then transferred to 20 °C. Desiccation tolerance was determined after drying of the imbibed/germinated seeds, followed by pre-humidification and rehydration. Seeds that germinated or seedlings that resumed radicle growth and normal development were considered desiccation-tolerant. Each data point is the average of three independent experiments of 50 seeds/seedlings. Bars represent standard deviation.

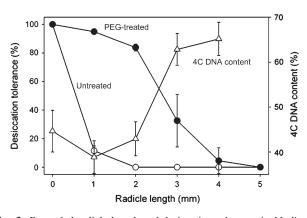
imbibition (or 6 h after transfer to 20 °C). After this point, germinated seeds (seedlings) entered phase 3, resuming the increase in fresh weight (Fig. 2). Although seeds germinated only after transfer to 20 °C, they were also able to do so at 4 °C, when kept at this temperature for 4 d (not shown).

#### DNA content

Flow cytometric analyses of nuclear DNA contents in radicles of mature dry seeds of *M. truncatula* revealed a high 4C DNA content (45%), which remained unchanged during germination and radicle growth until 2 mm. With further growth the relative content of 4C nuclei increased significantly, reaching 63% in 3 mm long radicles, levelling off afterwards, with 65% of 4C DNA in 4 mm long radicles (Fig. 3). The 4C DNA content in 2 mm long radicles remained unchanged during incubation in PEG for 3 d (not shown).

# The relation between the progress of germination and loss of desiccation tolerance

In order to relate the course of germination with the loss of DT, seeds were chemically scarified, imbibed (cold imbibition followed by imbibition at 20 °C) and, at various times, germination and DT evaluated. Germination, as assessed by radicle protrusion, did not occur during the 36 h of cold imbibition, but was observed after 7 h of imbibition at 20 °C (43 h of total imbibition time). From this point germination raised sharply until its maximum (96%) by 56 h of total imbibition time (Fig. 2). Before the start of the germination, i.e. until 43 h of imbibition, DT remained



**Fig. 3.** Protruded radicle length and desiccation tolerance in *Medicago truncatula* seedlings with (closed symbols) and without (open symbols) previous incubation in PEG, and 4C DNA content of radicle cells from dry seeds and seedlings. DT was determined after drying the seedlings with or without PEG treatment, followed by pre-humidification and rehydration. Seedlings that resumed radicle growth and normal development upon rehydration were considered desiccation-tolerant. Each data point is the average of four independent experiments of 50 seedlings. Bars represent standard deviation. For flow cytometry each data point is the average of five replications of 10 radicle tips. Bars represent standard deviation.

unchanged, at 100%, dropping fast afterwards, inversely related to the progress of germination (Fig. 2).

Typically, even for a homogeneous batch of seeds, germination did not occur uniformly. Consequently, at any given time-point of the course of germination after 43 h (Fig. 2), the population of seeds is comprised of germinated (at different stages) and non-germinated seeds. Thus, to characterize the loss of DT to the progress of the germination in a more accurate way, seeds were put to germinate, selected by their protruded radicle length, and tested again for DT. The results show that right after visible germination, when the protruded radicle length was 1 mm, only 12% of the seedlings was still desiccation tolerant, i.e. able to resume normal growth after being dehydrated and rehydrated. Seedlings with a radicle length of 2 mm or longer lost DT completely (Fig. 3). Seedlings that did not resume radicle growth, frequently showed growth of the cotyledons and, to a lesser extent, also of the hypocotyl. However, the longer the radicle before dehydration, the less frequent the growth of cotyledons and hypocotyl (not shown).

# Re-establishment of desiccation tolerance in seedlings by incubation in PEG

In order to relate re-establishment of DT to the progress of germination, seedlings of M. truncatula with radicle lengths ranging from 1 mm to 5 mm were incubated in PEG solution, dehydrated, pre-humidified, and rehydrated. Seedlings that resumed radicle growth after dehydration and rehydration and showed normal development were considered desiccation tolerant. The results in Fig. 3 show that DT could be substantially re-induced (84%) in seedlings with a radicle length of up to 2 mm. From 2 mm onwards there was an abrupt drop in DT, decreasing in value to 33% at 3 mm and to near zero at 4 mm (Fig. 3). As had already been observed for untreated seedlings, PEGtreated seedlings that did not resume radicle growth frequently showed elongation of the cotyledons and, to a lesser extent, also of the hypocotyl (up to 3 cm). This was mainly observed when the protruded radicle before dehydration was short, i.e. 1-2 mm (not shown). Thus, the radicle appeared to be the more desiccation-sensitive part of the seedling, followed by the hypocotyl and cotyledons.

# Seed viability

Although seedlings with a radicle of 2 mm did not resume radicle growth after dehydration (without PEG), prehumidification, and rehydration (Fig. 3), their radicles were turgid and apparently healthy during the first days following rehydration. Therefore, a tetrazolium test was performed in order to assess biochemically the viability of both untreated and PEG-treated seedlings (2 mm long radicles) after dehydration and pre-humidification. All untreated seedlings showed dark-red stained cotyledons and unstained radicles (Fig. 4A), indicating that cotyledon cells survived dehydration whereas radicle cells did not. Nevertheless 10% of these seedlings showed a dark-red stained hypocotyl, indicating that cells in that region were still alive. In 100% of the PEG-treated seedlings the cotyledons were also dark-red stained, while different situations were observed in the radicle and hypocotyl. In 33% of them, both radicle and hypocotyl were dark-red stained (Fig. 4B); in 36% a dark-red staining of the hypocotyl occurred and a partial staining (dark- or lightred) of the radicle, normally in the tip (Fig. 4C); 12% showed dark-red stained hypocotyls and light-red stained radicles (Fig. 4D); 8% remained with white, unstained radicles and hypocotyls (Fig. 4E); and 11% showed unstained radicle and dark-red stained hypocotyl (Fig. 4F).

# Changes in moisture content (MC) of the radicles during incubation in PEG, dehydration, pre-humidification, and rehydration

During incubation in PEG, MC of 2 mm long radicles decreased steadily in the first 9 h, from 3.74 g g<sup>-1</sup> to 2.35 g  $g^{-1}$ , and then slowly until 72 h (2.24 g  $g^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 5A). In terms of percentage, 37% of the water was removed in the first 9 h and, by the end (72 h), 40% of the water had been lost. During dehydration the rate and extent of the water loss were similar in radicles of both PEG-treated and







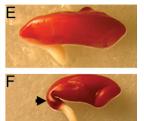
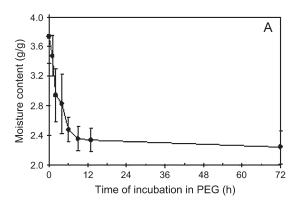
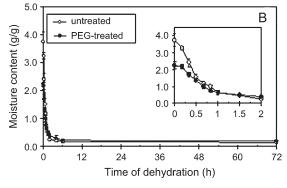


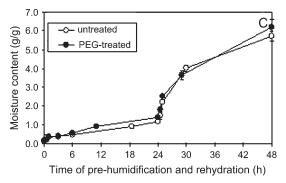
Fig. 4. Tetrazolium test performed on seedlings (2 mm long radicles) of Medicago truncatula following dehydration (with or without previous PEG treatment) and pre-humidification. (A) Untreated seedlings showing unstained radicles and dark-red stained cotyledons. (B-F) PEG-treated seedlings. Cotyledons of all seedlings stained dark-red. (B) Radicle and hypocotyl totally dark-red stained; (C) radicle partially stained (arrow) and hypocotyl (arrowhead) stained; (D) radicle light-red stained and hypocotyl (arrowhead) stained; (E) radicle and hypocotyl unstained; (F) radicle unstained and hypocotyl (arrowhead) stained.

#### 2124 Faria et al.

untreated seedlings, which rapidly lost, respectively, 82% and 93% of the water in the first 2 h of drying (Fig. 5B, inset). By the end (72 h) the radicle MCs of PEG-treated and untreated seedlings were 0.20 g and 0.15 g g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Fig. 5B), showing no statistical difference between them and with the original (dry seed) radicle MC (0.19 g g<sup>-1</sup>). During pre-humidification (for 24 h) and the first 24 h of rehydration, changes in MC were again similar in radicles from both PEG-treated and untreated seedlings. During pre-humidification MC increased at a constant and low rate to around 1.3 g g<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 5C, 0–24 h) and rehydration quickly increased MC, with the highest rates occurring in the first hour. After 24 h of rehydration, the radicle MCs of PEG-treated and untreated seedlings were 6.21 and 5.72 g g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Fig. 5C).







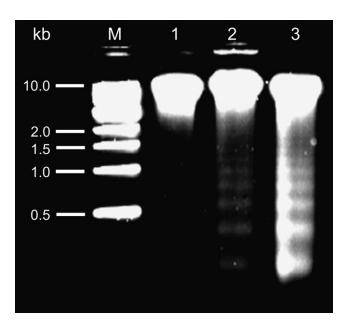
**Fig. 5.** Changes in the moisture content (g H<sub>2</sub>O g<sup>-1</sup> dry matter) of the radicles (2 mm long) of seedlings during (A) incubation in PEG; (B) dehydration, and (C) pre-humidification (for 24 h) followed by rehydration.

# Detection of DNA fragmentation in seedlings subjected to dehydration

Analysis of DNA integrity in 2 mm long protruded radicles revealed DNA degradation in radicles excised from seed-lings subjected to dehydration (Fig. 6; lanes 2 and 3), while control seedlings (not dehydrated) showed intact DNA. DNA fragmentation was much stronger in untreated than in PEG-treated seedlings, with the laddering pattern composed of multimers of about 200 bp.

# Microtubular cytoskeleton in radicles before and after germination

Radicles of dry seeds and of seedlings were analysed for microtubular cytoskeleton configurations in order to characterize their changes during radicle growth and to relate them to the loss of DT. In dry seeds a high level of fluorescence was detected in the form of granules, indicating that, at that stage, tubulin was present in granules in the cytoplasm, instead of being assembled into MTs (Fig. 7A). In seedlings with a radicle length of 1 mm (Fig. 7B) and 2 mm (Fig. 7C) abundant cortical microtubular arrays were observed with MTs transversely oriented to the direction of cell elongation. In 3 mm long radicles cortical MTs (Fig. 7D) and the first mitotic MTs were detected (Fig. 7E), indicating the start of cell division. In 4 mm long radicles the number of cells entering the M phase of the cell cycle was much higher than in 3 mm long radicles, with all the mitotic MT configurations (preprophase band,



**Fig. 6.** Agarose gel of genomic DNA extracted from 2 mm long radicles of seedlings of *Medicago truncatula*. (M) Marker with the band lengths shown in the left; (1) control (not subjected to dehydration); (2) PEG-treated seedlings (dehydrated after incubation in PEG); and (3) untreated seedlings (dehydrated without previous incubation in PEG). DNA samples (5  $\mu$ g) were loaded on a 1% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide.

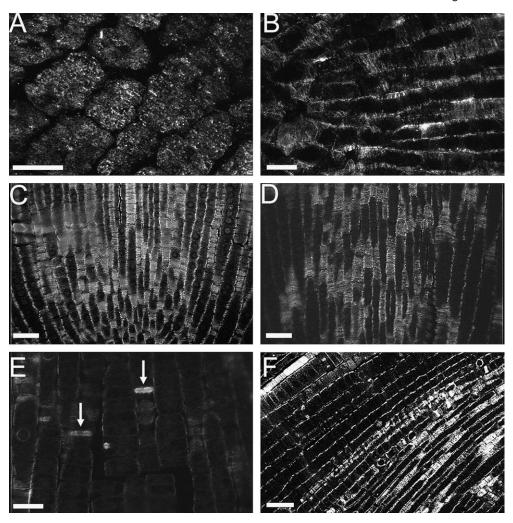


Fig. 7. Fluorescence micrographs of radicle cells of dry seeds and seedlings of Medicago truncatula, labelled with α-tubulin antibody and with a fluorescent secondary antibody. (A) Dry seed showing abundant fluorescent granules; (B) 1 mm protruded radicle with well-established cortical microtubular cytoskeleton arrays oriented perpendicularly to cell (and radicle) elongation; (C) 2 mm protruded radicle showing the same situation as the previous figure; (D, E) 3 mm protruded radicle: presence of cortical microtubules (D) and first appearance of mitotic configurations (E, arrows pointing to phragmoplast arrays), indicating the presence of cell division; and (F) 4 mm protruded radicle, with abundant cortical and mitotic microtubules. Bars (A–E) 25 μm, (F) 100 μm.

spindle, and phragmoplast) displayed. As for the shorter radicles (1-3 mm), cells with cortical microtubular cytoskeleton were also abundantly present (Fig. 7F).

Effects of dehydration, pre-humidification, rehydration, and PEG-treatment of M. truncatula seedlings on the microtubular cytoskeleton

PEG-treated and untreated seedlings with a 2 mm radicle were used to study the effect of dehydration, prehumidification and rehydration on the microtubular cytoskeleton in radicle cells. Incubation in PEG for 3 d caused no changes in the microtubular cytoskeleton (compare Fig. 8A and B). Dehydration of both untreated and PEGtreated seedlings dismantled partially the well-established microtubular cytoskeleton and led to the appearance of tubulin granules (Fig. 8C, D). Pre-humidification worsened the situation, with no MTs and only a few granules of tubulin being detected in both untreated (Fig. 8E) and PEGtreated (Fig. 8F) seedlings. Further, when pre-humidified untreated seedlings were rehydrated for 24 h, some tubulin granules could still be detected, but this was rather a rare event and the prevalent situation was that of a total absence of MTs and tubulin granules (Fig. 8G). However, a different situation occurred in PEG-treated seedlings, which exhibited, after 24 h of rehydration, a rebuilt, functional microtubular cytoskeleton in the radicle cells, with both interphase and mitotic configurations (Fig. 8H).

#### Discussion

The radicle length at which seedlings from orthodox seeds lose DT varies among species, with 2 mm being reported for

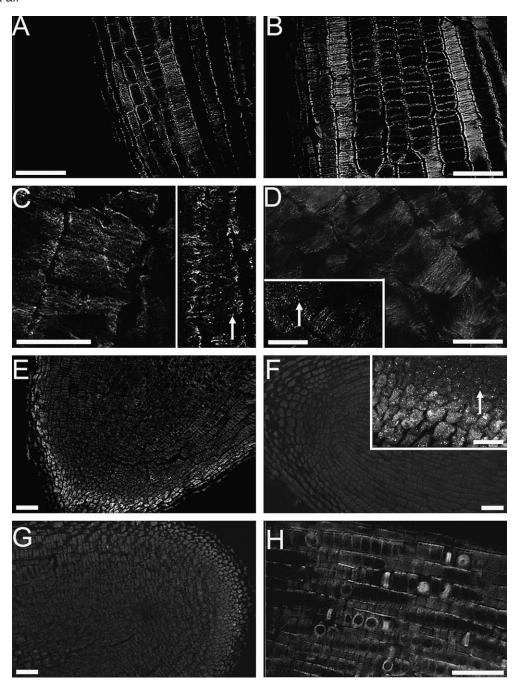


Fig. 8. Fluorescence micrographs of radicle cells of seedlings of *Medicago truncatula*, with a radicle length of 2 mm, subjected to dehydration (with or without PEG-treatment), pre-humidification and rehydration. Sections were labelled with α-tubulin antibody and with fluorescent secondary antibody. (A) Control (before dehydration) showing abundant cortical MTs; (C, E, G) untreated seedlings. (C) Dehydration led to a decrease in the abundance of MTs and appearance of tubulin granules (arrow); (E) after dehydration and pre-humidification, MTs disappeared totally and tubulin granules could hardly be detected; (G) after dehydration, pre-humidification, and 24 h of rehydration, the total absence of MTs and tubulin granules. (B, D, F, H) PEG-treated seedlings. (B) After incubation in PEG, the situation of the microtubular cytoskeleton remained unchanged, compared with the control; (D) after dehydration, a decrease in the abundance of MTs and appearance of tubulin granules (arrow) was detected; (F) after dehydration and pre-humidification, although some cells still exhibited tubulin granules (inset, arrow), the general picture was of total absence of MTs and tubulin granules; (H) after dehydration, pre-humidification, and 24 h of rehydration, the normal situation was restored, with cortical MTs being seen throughout the radicle cells. In addition, mitotic MTs were also observed. Bars (A, B, E, F, G, H) 50 μm; (C) (both pictures), (D, F) (inset) 25 μm.

tomato (Lin *et al.*, 1998) and *M. truncatula* cv. Paraggio (Buitink *et al.*, 2003), 1 mm for okra and mung bean (Lin *et al.*, 1998), and 0.5 mm for snow pea and cucumber (Lin *et al.*, 1998). Besides the expected variation among species,

the different experimental procedures adopted, especially the drying rate, are certainly another cause for the differences found. Decrease in DT before radicle protrusion appears to be a relatively rare event. It has been reported for

coffee seeds (Ellis et al., 1991) and was found in the present study. For instance, at 44 h of imbibition, 20% of the seeds had germinated (Fig. 2), suggesting that at least the 80% that had not germinated could still tolerate desiccation. However, only 40% were still desiccation tolerant. The drying condition used to assess DT (43% RH; corresponding to a water potential of -115 MPa) which led to a very fast dehydration of the seeds certainly diminished the chances of de novo synthesis of protective components. It has been shown that slow water loss may allow protective changes to occur, not only in germinating (Sun, 1999) but also in developing orthodox seeds (Kermode and Finch-Savage, 2002), in somatic embryos (Senaratna et al., 1989) and in the whole plant (Oliver et al., 1998), enabling them to withstand subsequent severe dehydration. In the present study such a slow (and limited) water loss was achieved by subjecting the seedlings to a mild osmotic stress through incubation in PEG solution (-1.8 MPa), resulting in reestablishment of DT at high rates in seedlings with a protruded radicle length of up to 2 mm. In a study with M. truncatula cv. Paraggio, Buitink et al. (2003) showed that during incubation in PEG, synthesis of possibly protective substances, such as sucrose and a dehydrin, occurred cumulatively until 24 h, although water was lost only in the first 6 h.

Radicles of untreated dried seedlings (2 mm long radicles) had lost their viability, confirming the absence of DT. In PEG-treated seedlings (also with 2 mm long radicles) 45% of the radicles were totally stained, and 36% only partially. The sum of these values (81%) is very close to the 84% of DT shown by these seedlings, suggesting that the partially stained radicles should also be considered viable.

Radicles of dry mature M. truncatula seeds contained relatively high 4C DNA content (45%). This suggests that, by the end of seed maturation, there are two blocks acting in the cell cycle: one at the G<sub>2</sub>/M boundary, excluding those cells with 4C nuclei progress to mitosis, and another at G<sub>1</sub>/S keeping the cells with 2C nuclei at the pre-synthetic phase. However, this is not the prevalent situation in orthodox seeds, in which the quiescent embryo normally exhibits most (or all) cells with a 2C DNA content, reflecting a stringent arrest of the cell cycle at the pre-synthetic G<sub>1</sub> phase (Deltour, 1985; Bino et al., 1993).

The relationship between the progress of the cell cycle and stress sensitivity in plants has not yet been clarified, although it has been known for a long time that cells in G<sub>2</sub> are more stress-sensitive than cells in  $G_1$  (Sybenga, 1972). Several studies relating cell cycle and stress resistance in seeds have shown that cells in G<sub>1</sub> are more resistant to desiccation, cold- or heat-shock, storage, and radiation (reviewed by Deltour, 1985; Saracco et al., 1995; Sliwinska, 2003). Deltour (1985) hypothesized that nuclei with a 2C content might be more stress-resistant by offering a smaller target for mutation-inducing factors than those with a 4C content. However, very high 2C nuclei contents have also

been found in mature embryos of intermediate and recalcitrant seeds, such as coffee (da Silva, 2002), neem (Azadirachta indica) (Sacandé, 2000), Castanea sativa (Bino et al., 1993), and Inga vera (Faria et al., 2004). Furthermore, seeds of the related tree species Acer platanoides (desiccation-tolerant) and A. pseudoplatanus (desiccation-sensitive) are shed with a similar 4C DNA content in the radicles (38% and 37%, respectively) (Finch-Savage et al., 1998). Thus, it appears that, in mature seeds, DT is not correlated with the arrest of the cell cycle at any particular DNA content.

In seedlings from orthodox seeds, DNA content and DT normally show a high correlation (Sargent et al., 1981; Dasgupta et al., 1982; Deltour, 1985; Osborne and Boubriak, 1994; Osborne, 2000; Boubriak et al., 2000), although the resumption of DNA synthesis is unlikely to be the only effective agent in inducing the change from the tolerant to the intolerant state (Dasgupta et al., 1982). As DNA replication is, in general, a late event during germination, other processes may be more tightly linked to the loss of DT, with DNA content playing only an additive role in the increasing stress sensitivity upon germination (Saracco et al., 1995; Boubriak et al., 1997). In PEG-treated seedlings the greatest drop in DT occurred simultaneously with the increase in 4C DNA content.

A second significant decrease in DT of PEG-treated seedlings (from 33% to 5%) was observed between radicle lengths of 3 mm and 4 mm. The DNA content remained unaltered but a great number of cells had entered the M phase of the cell cycle. Dividing cells are less tolerant to desiccation than those that are elongating (Dasgupta et al., 1982).

Programmed cell death has been shown to occur in different plant organs and tissues during normal development (e.g. senescence of leaves and post-germinative megagametophyte cell death) or induced by pathogens and stress (Danon et al., 2000; He and Kermode, 2003). Dehydration of desiccation-sensitive seeds (both recalcitrant and germinating orthodox seeds) may lead to the fractionation of DNA (Osborne and Boubriak, 1994; Boubriak et al., 2000). In the present study, directly dried seedlings with 2 mm long radicles displayed degradation of nuclear DNA, which was visualized by the formation of DNA ladders. The fragment lengths were multiples of approximately 200 bp. These multimers, with lengths of 170 to 200 bp, are generated by the cleavage of the chromatin by endonucleases at internucleosomal sites (Stein and Hansen, 1999). In desiccation-tolerant seeds some DNA damage that occurs during dehydration or dry storage may be repaired when water is again available (Osborne, 2000). However, DNA laddering is an indicator of the endpoint of the apoptotic process and cannot be reversed (Boubriak et al., 2000). It appears thus that the weak signal of laddering shown by PEG-treated seedlings possibly comes from the 16% that did not survive dehydration. To our knowledge this is the first time that

DNA laddering is shown to occur during drying of intolerant plant tissue.

It has been suggested that compounds such as sugars and LEA proteins may act as protecting factors, stabilizing cellular structures during drying (Crowe and Crowe, 1986; Dure, 1997). It is also known that mild stresses can trigger the synthesis of protective substances in plant tissues (Farnsworth, 2000) and seedlings (Buitink et al., 2003). It can thus be speculated that PEG incubation induced the synthesis of nuclear proteins with a protective role of the DNA. It is thought that nuclear desiccation-induced proteins, such as QP47, isolated from Pisum sativum seeds, protect DNA during desiccation (Chiatante et al., 1995). Besides the synthesis of protectants, loss of water may also cause reversible conformational changes in the DNA, altering the recognition of specific base-sequence domains by enzymes (Osborne and Boubriak, 1994; Osborne et al., 2002), thereby hindering the action of the nucleases, although this is yet to be proven in plant cells.

There were no MTs in radicle cells of dry *M. truncatula* seeds. Only granules of tubulin were detected, as in seeds of tomato (de Castro, 1998) and coffee (da Silva, 2002). Upon germination free tubulin assembled into a cortical microtubular cytoskeleton in cells of protruded radicles with a length of 1 mm and 2 mm and, afterwards, together with mitotic MTs. Hence, cell elongation alone was sufficient for radicle protrusion and early radicle growth, with cell division being additionally required later.

When desiccation-sensitive tissues are exposed to water potentials below -2 MPa, dehydration may lead to the loss of membrane organization, cellular integrity, and degradation of macromolecules (Osborne and Boubriak, 1994). Around -5 MPa there is a general trend towards contraction or dismantling of organelles (Walters et al., 2002). In the present study, seedlings were exposed to much more severe dehydration conditions (43% RH; -115 MPa) and the consequence in both untreated and PEG-treated seedlings was a decrease in abundance of MTs and appearance of tubulin granules. The dismantling of the cytoskeleton in seeds caused by dehydration has also been reported for recalcitrant (desiccation-sensitive) seeds, such as Quercus robur (Mycock et al., 2000), Trichilia dregeana (Gumede et al., 2003) and Inga vera (Faria et al., 2004). The subsequent pre-humidification of the dried seedlings resulted in the total disappearance of the MTs and a great reduction of tubulin granules. Again, the decay of the microtubular cytoskeleton was comparable in both untreated and PEG-treated seedlings. The difference between untreated and PEG-treated seedlings only appeared when the pre-humidified seedlings were rehydrated: PEG-treated seedlings were able to reconstruct a functional microtubular cytoskeleton and continue normal development, while untreated seedlings showed a total absence of MTs and tubulin granules, and, consequently, the ability to resume normal growth. It is clear that the ability of PEG-treated seedlings to survive dehydration, as far as the microtubular cytoskeleton is concerned, did not rest on its protection during dehydration, but on its reconstruction upon rehydration.

Desiccation-tolerant organisms must rely on one or both of the following strategies: avoidance of the accumulation of desiccation-induced damage, and the activation of repair mechanisms upon rehydration (Buitink *et al.*, 2002). The present study showed that both strategies were distinctly applied by seedlings in which DT was re-established by PEG treatment. Nuclear DNA was kept intact during dehydration, whilst MTs were dismantled and later rebuilt upon rehydration.

## **Acknowledgements**

We thank Olivier Leprince (Anjou Recherche Semences, Angers, France) for showing us how to re-establish DT in germinated *M. truncatula* seeds. Jan Bergervoet (Plant Research International, Wageningen) is acknowledged for his assistance with the flow cytometry analysis. We thank CNPq (National Council for Scientific and Technological Development, from the Ministry of Science and Technology, Brazil) for financial support of the studies of JMR Faria.

#### References

- Adams CA, Rinne RW. 1980. Moisture content as a controlling factor in seed development and germination. *International Review* of Cytology 68, 1–8.
- Alberts B, Johnson A, Lewis J, Raff M, Roberts K, Walter P. 2002. Essential cell biology: an introduction to the molecular biology of the cell. New York, USA: Garland Publishing, Inc.
- **Arumuganthan K, Earle ED.** 1991. Estimation of nuclear DNA content of plants by flow cytometry. *Plant Molecular Biology Report* **9**, 229–233.
- **Bartels D, Salamini F.** 2001. Desiccation tolerance in the resurrection plant *Craterostigma plantagineum*. A contribution to the study of drought tolerance at the molecular level. *Plant Physiology* **127**, 1346–1353.
- Baskin TI, Busby CH, Fowke LC, Sammut M, Gubler F. 1992. Improvements on immunostaining samples embedded in methacrylate: localization of microtubules and other antigens throughout developing organs in plants of diverse taxa. *Planta* 187, 405–413.
- Berjak P, Pammenter NW. 2000. What ultrastructure has told us about recalcitrant seeds. *Revista Brasileira de Fisiologia Vegetal* 12, 22–55.
- **Berrie AMM, Drennan DSH.** 1971. The effect of hydration–dehydration on seed germination. *New Phytologist* **70,** 135–142.
- **Bewley JD.** 1979. Physiological aspects of desiccation tolerance. Annual Review of Plant Physiology **30**, 195–238.
- Bino RJ, Lanteri S, Verhoeven HA, Kraak HL. 1993. Flow cytometric determination of nuclear replication stage in seed tissues. *Annals of Botany* 72, 181–187.
- **Boubriak I, Kargiolaki H, Lyne L, Osborne DJ.** 1997. The requirement for DNA repair in desiccation tolerance of germinating embryos. *Seed Science Research* **7**, 97–105.
- **Boubriak I, Dini M, Berjak P, Osborne DJ.** 2000. Desiccation and survival in the recalcitrant seeds of *Avicennia marina*: DNA

- replication, DNA repair and protein synthesis. Seed Science Research 10, 307–315.
- Bruggink T, van der Toorn P. 1995. Induction of desiccation tolerance in germinated seeds. Seed Science Research 5, 1-4.
- Buitink J, Hoekstra FA, Leprince O. 2002. Biochemistry and biophysics of tolerance systems. In: Black M, Pritchard HW, eds. Desiccation and survival in plants: drying without dying. Wallingford, Oxon, UK: CABI Publishing, 293-318.
- Buitink J, Vu BL, Satour P, Leprince O. 2003. The re-establishment of desiccation tolerance in germinated radicles of Medicago truncatula Gaertn. seeds. Seed Science Research 13, 273-286.
- Chiatante D, Onelli E, Patrignani G, Scippa G. 1995. Localization of a nuclear protein (QP47) in embryonic meristems during seed maturation and germination and its distribution among crop plants. Journal of Experimental Botany 46, 815–821.
- Crowe JH, Crowe LM. 1986. Stabilization of membranes in anhydrobiotic organisms. In: Leopold AC, ed. Membranes, metabolism and dry organisms. Ithaca, USA: Comstock Publishing Association, 188-209.
- da Silva EAA. 2002. Coffee seed (Coffea arabica cv. Rubi) germination: mechanism and regulation. PhD thesis, Wageningen University, Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- Danon A, Delorme V, Mailhac N, Gallois P. 2000. Plant programmed cell death: a common way to die. Plant Physiology and Biochemistry 38, 647–655.
- Dasgupta J, Bewley JD, Yeung EC. 1982. Desiccation-tolerant and desiccation-intolerant stages during the development and germination of Phaseolus vulgaris seeds. Journal of Experimental Botany 33, 1045–1057.
- de Castro RD. 1998. A functional analysis of cell cycle events in developing and germinating tomato seeds. PhD thesis, Wageningen Agricultural University, Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- Deltour R. 1985. Nuclear activiation during early germination of the higher plant embryo. Journal of Cell Science 75, 43-83.
- Dure L. 1997. LEA proteins and the desiccation tolerance of seeds. In: Larkins BA, Vasil IK, eds. Cellular and molecular biology of plant seed development. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 525-543.
- Ellis RH, Hong TD, Roberts EH. 1991. An intermediate category of seed storage behaviour? II. Effects of provenance, immaturity and imbibition on desiccation-tolerance in coffee. Journal of Experimental Botany 42, 653-667.
- Faria JMR, van Lammeren AAM, Hilhorst HWM. 2004. Desiccation sensitivity and cell cycle aspects in seeds of *Inga vera* subsp. affinis. Seed Science Research 14, 165-178.
- Farnsworth E. 2000. The ecology and physiology of viviparous and recalcitrant seeds. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics **31,** 107–138.
- Finch-Savage WE, Bergervoet JHW, Bino RJ, Clay HA, Groot SPC. 1998. Nuclear replication activity during seed development, dormancy breakage and germination in three tree species: Norway maple (Acer platanoides L.), sycamore (Acer pseudoplatanus L.), and cherry (Prunus avium L.). Annals of Botany 81, 519-526.
- Gumede Z, Merhar V, Berjak P. 2003. Effect of desiccation on the microfilament component of the cytoskeleton in zygotic embryonic axes of Trichilia dregeana Sond. In: 4th International workshop on desiccation tolerance and sensitivity of seeds and vegetative plant tissues. Blouwaterbaai, South Africa, p. 22.
- He X, Kermode AR. 2003. Nuclease activities and DNA fragmentation during programmed cell death of megagametophyte cells of white spruce (Picea glauca) seeds. Plant Molecular Biology 51,
- Hoekstra FA, Golovina EA, Buitink J. 2001. Mechanisms of plant desiccation tolerance. Trends in Plant Science 6, 431–438.

- Hong TD, Ellis RH. 1992. The survival of germinating orthodox seeds after desiccation and hermetic storage. Journal of Experimental Botany 43, 239-247.
- ISTA (International Seed Testing Association). 1996. International rules for seed testing. Seed Science and Technology 24 (Supplement).
- Journet EP, Barker D, Harrison M, Kondorosi E. 2001. Medicago truncatula as biological material (Module 1). In: EMBO practical course on the new plant model system Medicago truncatula, 1–29.
- Kermode AR, Finch-Savage BE. 2002. Desiccation sensitivity in orthodox and recalcitrant seeds in relation to development. In: Black M, Pritchard HW, eds. Desiccation and survival in plants: drying without dying. Wallingford, Oxon, UK: CABI Publishing, 149-184.
- Koster KL, Reisdorph N, Ramsay JL. 2003. Changing desiccation tolerance of pea embryo protoplasts during germination. Journal of Experimental Botany 54, 1607-1614.
- Leprince O, Harren FJM, Buitink J, Alberda M, Hoekstra FA. 2000. Metabolic dysfunction and unabated respiration precede the loss of membrane integrity during rehydration of germinating radicles. Plant Physiology 122, 597-608.
- Lin TP, Yen WL, Chien CT. 1998. Disappearance of desiccation tolerance of imbibed crop seeds is not associated with the decline of oligosaccharides. Journal of Experimental Botany 49, 1203-1212.
- Liu YG, Norihiro M, Teruko O, Whittier RF. 1995. Efficient isolation and mapping of Arabidopsis thaliana T-DNA insert junctions by thermal asymmetric interlaced PCR. The Plant Journal 8, 457-463.
- Mycock DJ, Berjak P, Finch-Savage WE. 2000. Effects of desiccation on the subcellular matrix of the embryonic axes of Quercus robur. In: Black M, Bradford KJ, Vazquez-Ramos J, eds. Seed biology: advances and applications. Wallingford, Oxon, UK: CABI Publishing, 197-203.
- Oliver MJ. 1996. Desiccation tolerance in vegetative plant cells. Physiologia Plantarum 97, 779–787.
- Oliver MJ, Wood AJ, O'Mahony P. 1998. 'To dryness and beyond': preparation for the dried state and rehydration in vegetative desiccation-tolerant plants. Plant Growth Regulation **24,** 193–201.
- Oliver MJ, Tuba Z, Mishler BD. 2000. The evolution of vegetative desiccation tolerance in land plants. Plant Ecology 151, 85–100.
- Osborne DJ. 2000. Hazards of a germinating seed: available water and the maintenance of genomic integrity. Israel Journal of Plant Sciences 48, 173-179.
- Osborne D.J. Boubriak I. 1994. DNA and desiccation tolerance. Seed Science Research 4, 175-185.
- Osborne DJ, Boubriak I, Leprince O. 2002. Rehydration of dried systems: membranes and the nuclear genome. In: Black M, Pritchard HW, eds. Desiccation and survival in plants: drying without dying. Wallingford, Oxon, UK: CABI Publishing, 343–364.
- Pukacka S. 2001. Loss of tolerance to desiccation in germinated Norway maple (Acer platanoides L.) seeds. Changes in carbohydrate content. Dendrobiology 46, 43-48.
- Reisdorph NA, Koster KL. 1999. Progressive loss of desiccation tolerance in germinating pea (Pisum sativum) seeds. Physiologia Plantarum 105, 266–271.
- Ren J, Tao L. 2003. Effect of hydration-dehydration cycles on germination of seven Calligonum species. Journal of Arid Environments **55**, 111–122.
- Sacandé M. 2000. Stress, storage and survival of neem seed. PhD thesis, Wageningen Agricultural University, Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- Saracco F, Bino RJ, Bergervoet JHW, Lanteri S. 1995. Influence of priming-induced nuclear replication activity on storability of pepper (Capsicum annuum L.) seed. Seed Science Research 5, 25–29.

- Sargent JA, Mandi SS, Osborne DJ. 1981. The loss of desiccation tolerance during germination: an ultrastructural and biochemical approach. *Protoplasma* 105, 225–239.
- Senaratna T, McKersie BD. 1983. Dehydration injury in germinating soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merr.) seeds. *Plant Physiology* 72, 620–624.
- Senaratna T, McKersie BD. 1986. Loss of desiccation tolerance during seed germination: a free radical mechanism of injury. In: Leopold AC, ed. *Membranes, metabolism and dry organisms*. Ithaca, USA: Comstock Publ. Assoc., 85–101.
- Senaratna T, McKersie BD, Bowley SR. 1989. Desiccation tolerance of alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) somatic embryos. Influence of abscisic acid, stress pretreatments and drying rates. *Plant Science* **65**, 253–259.
- Sieberer BJ, Timmers ACJ, Lhuissier FGP, Emons AMC. 2002. Endoplasmic microtubules configure the subapical cytoplasm and are required for fast growth of *Medicago truncatula* root hairs. *Plant Physiology* 130, 977–988.
- Sliwinska E. 2003. Cell cycle and germination of fresh, dried and deteriorated sugarbeet seeds as indicators of optimal harvest time. *Seed Science Research* **13**, 131–138.

- **Stein JC, Hansen G.** 1999. Mannose induces an endonuclease responsible for DNA laddering in plant cells. *Plant Physiology* **121,** 71–79.
- **Sun WQ.** 1999. Desiccation sensitivity of recalcitrant seeds and germinated orthodox seeds: can germinated orthodox seeds serve as a model system for studies of recalcitrance? In: *Proceedings of IUFRO Seed Symposium 1998: Recalcitrant Seeds*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: FRIM, Malaysia, 29–42.
- Sybenga J. 1972. General cyogenetics. New York, USA: Elsevier.
  Walters C, Farrant JM, Pammenter NW, Berjak P. 2002.
  Desiccation stress and damage. In: Black M, Pritchard HW, eds.
  Desiccation and survival in plants: drying without dying.
  Wallingford, Oxon, UK: CABI Publishing, 263–291.
- Wang M, Oppedijk BJ, Caspers MPM, Lamers GEM, Boot MJ, Geerlings DNG, Bakhuizen B, Meijer AH, van Duijn B. 1998. Spatial and temporal regulation of DNA fragmentation in the aleurone of germinating barley. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **49**, 1293–1301.
- Wasteneys GO, Galway ME. 2003. Remodeling the cytoskeleton for growth and form. *Annual Review of Plant Biology* **54**, 691–722