

A fungal-responsive MAPK cascade regulates phytoalexin biosynthesis in *Arabidopsis*

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Plant recognition of pathogens leads to rapid activation of MPK3 and MPK6, two *Arabidopsis* mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), and their orthologs in other species. Here, we report that synthesis of camalexin, the major phytoalexin in *Arabidopsis*, is regulated by the MPK3/MPK6 cascade. Activation of MPK3/MPK6 by expression of active upstream MAPK kinase (MAPKK) or MAPKK kinase (MAPKKK) was sufficient to induce camalexin synthesis in the absence of pathogen attack. Induction of camalexin by *Botrytis cinerea* was preceded by MPK3/MPK6 activation, and compromised in *mpk3* and *mpk6* mutants. Genetic analysis placed the MPK3/MPK6 cascade upstream of PHYTOALEXIN DEFICIENT 2 (PAD2) and PAD3, but independent or downstream of PAD1 and PAD4. Camalexin induction after MPK3/MPK6 activation was preceded by rapid and coordinated up-regulation of multiple genes encoding enzymes in the tryptophan (Trp) biosynthetic pathway, in the conversion of Trp to indole-3-acetaldoxime (IAOx, a branch point between primary and secondary metabolism), and in the camalexin biosynthetic pathway downstream of IAOx. These results indicate that the MPK3/MPK6 cascade regulates camalexin synthesis through transcriptional regulation of the biosynthetic genes after pathogen infection.

defense signaling | fungal resistance | camalexin biosynthesis | *Botrytis cinerea*

Plant active defense is initiated by host recognition of pathogen effectors or by the binding of non-host-specific pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) to host receptors (1–4). Mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascades are conserved eukaryotic signaling modules that function downstream of sensors/receptors (5). Studies from a number of laboratories demonstrated that the tobacco MAPKs SIPK and WIPK and their orthologs in other species including *Arabidopsis* MPK6 and MPK3 are activated after PAMP treatment or pathogen infection (reviewed in refs. 6–10). In tobacco, SIPK and WIPK share a common upstream MAPK kinase (MAPKK), NtMEK2 (11). There are two NtMEK2 orthologs in *Arabidopsis*, MKK4 and MKK5 (10, 12, 13). The MAPKK kinases (MAPKKKs) upstream of NtMEK2/MKK4/MKK5 include MEKK1 and MAPKKK α (13, 14).

Phytoalexins are defined as low-molecular-weight antimicrobial compounds produced by plants after exposure to pathogens (15, 16). Phytoalexins are an integral part of induced plant disease resistance. Disruption of pathogen genes that encode enzymes known to detoxify phytoalexins can lead to loss of pathogenicity, and the virulence of a pathogen on a specific host sometimes coevolves with the generation of enzymes that are capable of degrading phytoalexins (17). Mutations that cause reduced phytoalexin can lead to increased susceptibility of plants to pathogens including *Botrytis cinerea* (18–20). Engineering-enhanced phytoalexin production can lead to increased disease resistance (15). Phytoalexin induction is associated with the activation of genes encoding biosynthetic enzymes (15, 16, 21, 22). However, the signaling pathway(s) leading to activation of these genes are poorly understood.

In this article, we demonstrate that a pathogen-responsive MAPK cascade, MAPKKK α /MEKK1-MKK4/MKK5-MPK3/MPK6, plays a positive role in regulating the biosynthesis of camalexin [3-thiazol-2'-yl-indole (23)] in *Arabidopsis*. Previous mutant screens identified *PAD1* (PHYTOALEXIN DEFICIENT 1), *PAD2*, *PAD3*, and *PAD4* as components of the biosynthetic or regulatory pathways that lead to pathogen-induced camalexin production (24, 25). Genetic analysis placed this MAPK cascade upstream of *PAD2* and *PAD3* but independent or downstream of *PAD1* and *PAD4*. Activation of the MPK3/MPK6 cascade leads to rapid and coordinated up-regulation of multiple genes encoding enzymes in the camalexin biosynthetic pathway. Mutations in *MPK3* and *MPK6* compromise *B. cinerea*-induced camalexin accumulation, which is associated with reduced resistance, providing loss-of-function evidence supporting a positive role of this MAPK cascade in signaling camalexin biosynthesis in plants challenged by pathogens.

Results

Plant recognition of pathogens leads to the activation of multiple signaling pathways. To identify the defense responses regulated by the MPK3/MPK6 cascade, we used a conditional gain-of-function transgenic system, in which constitutively active mutants of the upstream MAPKKs (tobacco NtMEK2^{DD} and *Arabidopsis* MKK4^{DD} or MKK5^{DD}) were expressed under the control of a steroid-inducible promoter (11, 12, 26). Upon treatment with the steroid dexamethasone (DEX), induction of the active MAPKKs activates the endogenous MAPKs, which in turn induce the responses further downstream. Extracts from DEX-treated *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD} Arabidopsis* seedlings, prepared by using an established camalexin extraction procedure (21, 23, 24), showed excitation and emission spectra characteristic of camalexin. Comparison of this compound with camalexin standard by using thin-layer chromatography confirmed its identity [supporting information (SI) Fig. S1]. Induction of camalexin was detectable in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD} Arabidopsis* 6 h after DEX treatment, preceded by MPK3/MPK6 activation (Fig. 1). DEX treatment of *GVG-MKK4^{DD}* or *GVG-MKK5^{DD} Arabidopsis* plants also led to camalexin induction (Fig. S2). However, the levels of camalexin accumulation were lower and variable, because of transgene silencing in some of the T4 seedlings. For this reason, we used the *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD} Arabidopsis* line, which did not show transgene silencing, for further analyses. Express-

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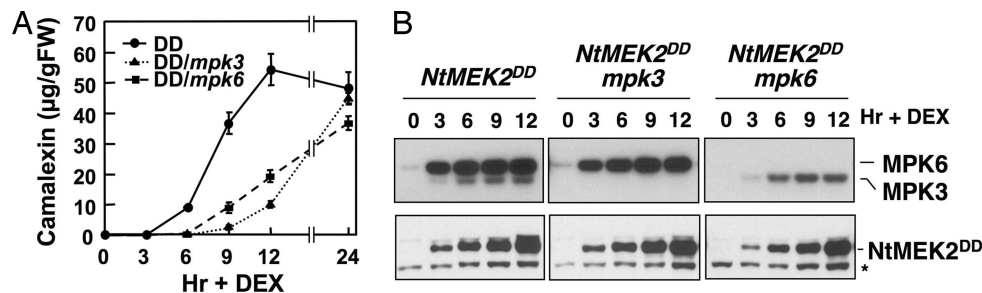


Fig. 1. Activation of MPK3 and MPK6 induces camalexin in conditional gain-of-function *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* transgenic plants. (A) Endogenous MPK3 and MPK6 are required for the full induction of camalexin in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* plants. Two-week-old *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}*, *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/mpk3*, and *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/mpk6* seedlings were treated with 1 μ M DEX. Camalexin was quantitated by fluorospectrometry at the indicated times. Error bars indicate standard deviations ($n = 3$). (B) MPK3 and/or MPK6 activation (Upper), as determined by the in-gel kinase assay, and NtMEK2^{DD} induction (Lower), as determined by immunoblot analysis using anti-Flag antibody. The asterisk indicates a nonspecific band that is recognized by the secondary antibody.

sion of wild-type NtMEK2, MKK4, MKK5, or kinase-inactive NtMEK2^{KR}, MKK4^{KR}, MKK5^{KR} did not activate MPK3/MPK6 or induce camalexin (12) (Fig. S2).

Loss of either MPK3 or MPK6 partially compromised camalexin induction, as indicated by delayed and reduced camalexin induction in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/mpk3* and *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/mpk6* double mutants (Fig. 1A). At 24 h, camalexin accumulation in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* seedlings declined, and that in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/mpk3* and *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/mpk6* caught up, perhaps a result of earlier cell death in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* seedlings. NtMEK2^{DD} protein induction was comparable in all three genotypes (Fig. 1B Lower). In *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/mpk3* plants, only MPK6 activation was detected, and in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/mpk6* plants, only MPK3 activation was detected (Fig. 1B Upper). These results suggest that MPK3 and MPK6 have overlapping functions, and both are required for full induction of camalexin biosynthesis.

MEKK1 and LeMAPKKK α were implicated in PAMPs and gene-for-gene-mediated defense responses, respectively (13, 14). To determine whether either or both MAPKKKs act upstream of the MKK4/MKK5-MPK3/MPK6 module in regulating camalexin biosynthesis, we generated transgenic plants expressing the constitutively active forms of *Arabidopsis* MAPKKK α and MEKK1 (Δ MAPKKK α and Δ MEKK1) under the control of the DEX-inducible promoter. Camalexin production was examined in five independent T2 lines that showed transgene induction in the T1 generation. High levels of MPK3 and MPK6 activities and camalexin production were detected only after DEX treatment (Fig. 2). The identities of these two MAPKs were determined by using an immune-complex kinase assay using member-specific antibodies (data not shown). Δ MEKK1 also activated another MAPK (Fig. 2A), possibly MPK4 based on its size and the fact that MEKK1 functions upstream of MPK4 (27). Taken together, our results show that, in the conditional gain-of-function MAPKK and MAPKKK plants, the activation of endogenous downstream MPK3/MPK6 is sufficient to induce camalexin biosynthesis.

To test for a role of this MAPK cascade in pathogen-induced camalexin biosynthesis, we measured camalexin accumulation in *mpk3* and *mpk6* mutants infected with *B. cinerea*. Activation of MPK3 and MPK6 was observed in *Arabidopsis* seedlings concurrently with *B. cinerea* spore germination (Fig. S3), followed by accumulation of camalexin (Fig. 3). Neither response was induced by inoculation of boiled spores (data not shown). Camalexin accumulation was reduced by $\approx 50\%$ in *mpk3* plants and delayed in *mpk6* plants. Importantly, in partially rescued double *mpk3/mpk6* mutant (28), induction of camalexin was almost abolished, demonstrating that both MPK3 and MPK6 are involved in fungus-induced camalexin production. Consistent with reports that camalexin is required for resistance to *B. cinerea*

(19), compromised camalexin induction in *mpk3* was associated with increased susceptibility (Fig. 3C). In addition to MPK3 and MPK6, *B. cinerea* infection also activated a smaller MAPK, possibly MPK4. Activation of this MAPK was elevated in *mpk3/mpk6* plants, possibly a result of overabundant stomata, where MPK4 is highly expressed (28, 29) and/or loss of cross-talk between the two MAPK cascades. Camalexin induction by *B. cinerea* was not compromised in *mpk4* plants (data not shown). These data demonstrate that MPK3 and MPK6 are required for *B. cinerea*-induced camalexin synthesis and the consequent limitation of fungal growth.

Genetic screens identified several important components in the camalexin biosynthetic and regulatory pathways. Mutations

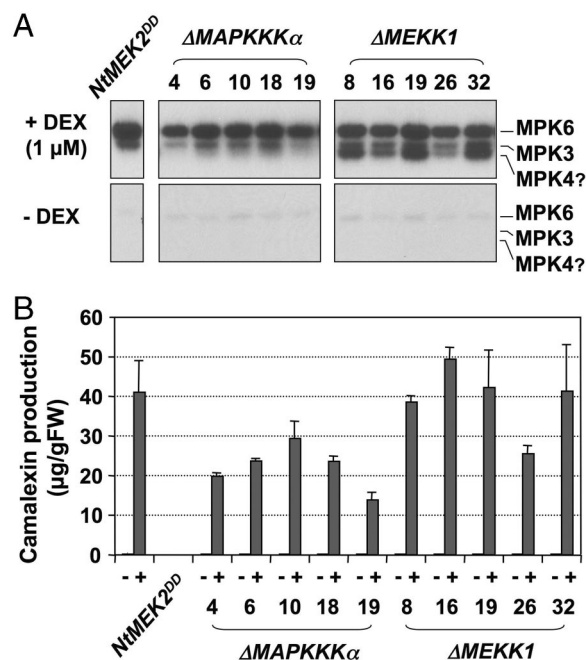


Fig. 2. Camalexin induction after MPK3/MPK6 activation in conditional gain-of-function MAPKKK transgenic plants. (A) Activation of endogenous MAPKs by constitutively active Δ MEKK1 and Δ MAPKKK α . Five-day-old hygromycin-resistant T2 seedlings were transferred to GC vials. When the seedlings were 2 weeks old, three vials were treated with 1 μ M DEX, and three were treated with an equal volume of ethanol as controls (–DEX). Seedlings were collected 24 h later, and MAPK activation was determined by the in-gel kinase assay. (B) Activation of MPK3/MPK6 by Δ MEKK1 and Δ MAPKKK α leads to camalexin accumulation. After the seedlings were collected, camalexin accumulation in the medium was quantitated by fluorospectrometry. Bars represent means and standard deviations ($n = 3$).

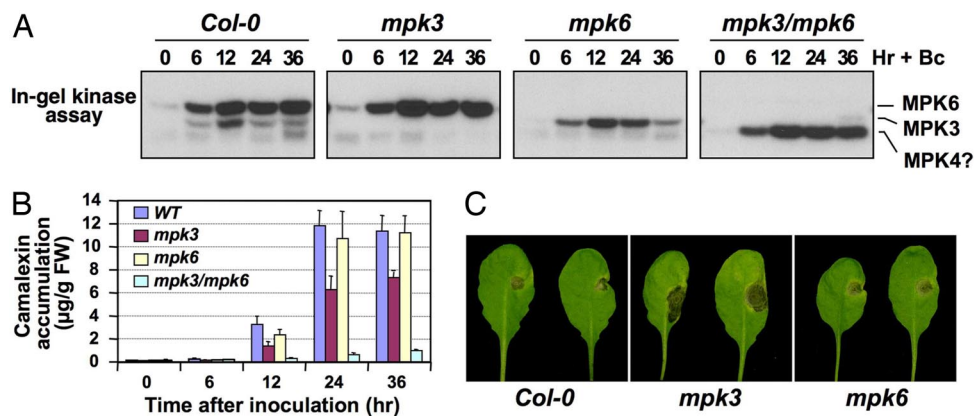


Fig. 3. Function of MPK3 and MPK6 in pathogen-induced camalexin biosynthesis and resistance against *B. cinerea*. (A) MAPK activation in *Arabidopsis* after *B. cinerea* inoculation. Two-week-old WT (Col-0), *mpk3*, *mpk6*, and rescued *mpk3/mpk6* double-mutant seedlings were inoculated with *Botrytis* spores. At the indicated times, seedlings were collected for in-gel kinase assay. (B) Camalexin in the medium was quantitated by fluorospectrometry. Error bars indicate standard deviations ($n = 3$). (C) Five-week-old soil-grown *Arabidopsis* plants were inoculated with $10 \mu\text{l}$ of spore suspension (1×10^5 spores per milliliter). Disease symptoms were scored 3 days later. More than 20 plants per genotype were assayed in each of three independent experiments. Representative images are shown.

in *PAD1*, *PAD2*, *PAD3*, or *PAD4* abolish or reduce camalexin accumulation in *Arabidopsis* after bacterial infection (24, 25). However, *PAD1* and *PAD4* are not required for camalexin induction by fungal pathogens (18, 20). *PAD4* encodes a protein with sequence similarity to lipases, and is required for induced expression of many genes after *Psm* ES4326 infection (30, 31). *PAD3* encodes cytochrome P450 monooxygenase CYP71B15 that catalyzes the last step of camalexin biosynthesis (22, 32). *PAD2* encodes γ -glutamylcysteine synthetase (GSH1), one of the two enzymes in the glutathione biosynthesis pathway (33). *PAD1* remains to be identified.

To determine the genetic relationships between the MPK3/MPK6 cascade and *PAD* genes, we crossed *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* into *pad1*, *pad2*, *pad3*, and *pad4* backgrounds. Double-homozygous plants were analyzed for the production of camalexin after DEX treatment. As shown in Fig. 4A, *PAD2* and *PAD3* were required for MPK3/MPK6-induced camalexin production, whereas *PAD1* and *PAD4* were not. In DEX-treated double mutants, *NtMEK2^{DD}* induction and the activation of downstream MPK3/MPK6 were comparable to those in the *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* plants (Fig. S4). Consistent with previous reports (18, 20), we found that *PAD2* and *PAD3*, but not *PAD1*

and *PAD4*, were required for *Botrytis*-induced camalexin biosynthesis (Fig. S5). These results suggest that *PAD2* and *PAD3* act downstream of the MPK3/MPK6 cascade in *B. cinerea* induction of camalexin, whereas *PAD1* and *PAD4* function in a pathway that leads to camalexin induction by other pathogens.

PAD3 expression was highly induced in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* plants after DEX treatment. In *mpk3* and *mpk6* plants, *PAD3* induction was reduced and delayed, correlating with the reduced and delayed induction of camalexin (Fig. 1A and Fig. S6). In *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/pad3* seedlings, the accumulation of *pad3* mutant transcript was drastically reduced (Fig. 4B), consistent with previous analysis of *pad3* plants (19, 22). In *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/pad1* and *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/pad4* seedlings, *PAD3* mRNA levels were similar to *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* (Fig. 4B), consistent with the conclusion that these two genes function either upstream or independent of the MPK3/MPK6 cascade. In *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/pad2* seedlings, which only synthesized trace amounts of camalexin (Fig. 4A), induced expression of *PAD3* was ≈ 3 -fold lower than in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* seedlings. Also, *PAD3* expression peaked at 3 h and then decreased in contrast to the peak at 6 h in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* seedlings. These results suggest that *PAD2* might play a regulatory role downstream of the MPK3/MPK6 cascade.

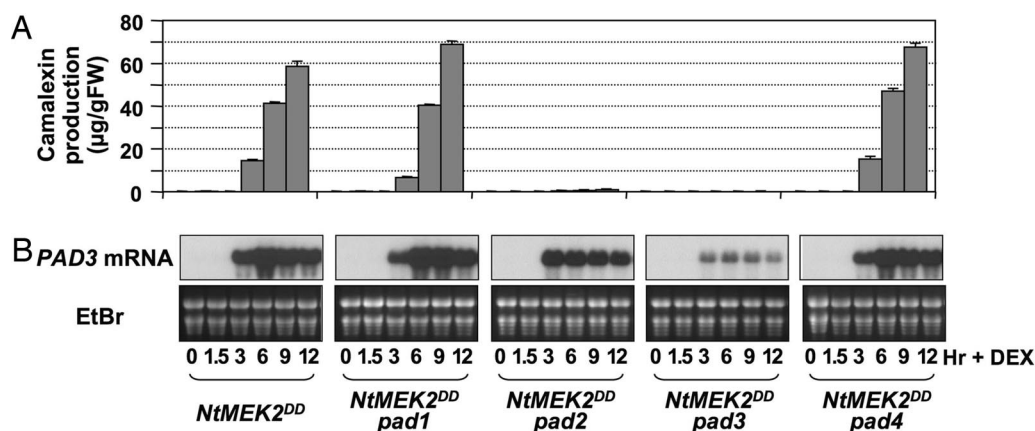


Fig. 4. *PAD2* and *PAD3*, but not *PAD1* and *PAD4*, are required for camalexin induction in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* plants. (A) Two-week-old seedlings homozygous for the *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* transgene and *pad1*, *pad2*, *pad3*, or *pad4* were treated with $1 \mu\text{M}$ DEX, samples were taken at the indicated times, and camalexin levels in the culture medium were determined by fluorospectrometry. Bars represent means and standard deviations ($n = 3$). (B) Induction of *PAD3* expression in *pad* mutants after MPK3/MPK6 activation, as determined by RNA blot analysis (Upper). Equal loading was confirmed by ethidium bromide (EtBr)-staining of the gel (Lower).

activation of an unidentified transcription factor(s), which may be a substrate(s) of MPK3/MPK6. In animal and yeast systems, stress-responsive MAPKs regulate gene expression by direct phosphorylation of transcription factors (5). We could not identify a simple shared *cis*-element motif in the promoters of these biosynthetic genes, suggesting the involvement of multiple *cis*- and *trans*-acting factors, which is consistent with the current knowledge that most gene regulation is mediated by composite elements.

The effectors and PAMPs in *B. cinerea* and the host receptors in *Arabidopsis* involved in triggering MPK3/MPK6 activation and camalexin induction are unknown. Known fungal PAMPs such as chitin, cell wall glucans, and oligogalacturonides activate MPK3/MPK6 only transiently and do not induce camalexin (refs. 36 and 37 and data not shown). The strong and long lasting activation of MPK3/MPK6 after *B. cinerea* infection (Fig. 3A) suggests the involvement of additional effectors and host sensors. It is known that *B. cinerea* produces multiple effectors, and plant resistance is controlled by multiple quantitative trait loci (38).

Based on genetic analysis, we place PAD2 and PAD3 downstream of the MPK3/MPK6 cascade in camalexin regulatory or biosynthetic pathways (Fig. 6). PAD3 is an essential enzyme in the camalexin biosynthetic pathway (22, 32) (Fig. 4). PAD2 encodes γ -glutamylcysteine synthetase (GSH1) (33). We found that supplementing the *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/pad2* seedlings with glutathione up to 1 mM failed to restore camalexin production (data not shown), suggesting that PAD2/GSH1 has an additional function besides its role in glutathione biosynthesis. It is also possible that the exogenously added glutathione could not mimic the right concentration or location of endogenously produced glutathione. PAD4 is required for bacterial, but not fungal, induction of camalexin (20, 30). We found that PAD4 is not required for camalexin induction in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}* plants, suggesting that PAD4 functions in a pathogen-specific pathway either upstream of the MPK3/MPK6 cascade or in a parallel signaling pathway (Fig. 6). PAD1, which remains to be identified, may act similarly.

Camalexin is essential for resistance to *B. cinerea* in *Arabidopsis* (19). In *mpk3* plants, camalexin accumulation after *B. cinerea* infection was reduced by $\approx 50\%$, which may explain the compromised resistance in *mpk3* plants (Fig. 3). In *mpk6* plants, camalexin levels were reduced only at early time points. In the *mpk3/mpk6* double mutant, camalexin induction was almost abolished. These results suggest that MPK3 and MPK6 play redundant, yet differential, roles in regulating camalexin biosynthesis, with MPK6 being more important early, and MPK3 being more important late. This speculation is consistent with the observations that *mpk6* has a stronger effect on gene expression at early time points and a weaker effect on later camalexin levels. At later times, *mpk3* plants continue to have reduced gene expression, whereas gene expression levels in *mpk6* plants approach wild-type levels (Fig. S6). The partially rescued double *mpk3/mpk6* mutant seedlings are arrested at the cotyledon stage and cannot survive in soil (28), prohibiting testing for *B. cinerea* resistance.

The establishment of MEKK1/MAPKKK α and MKK4/MKK5 as the upstream kinases in the MPK3/MPK6 cascade in regulation of camalexin biosynthesis is based mainly on biochemical and gain-of-function genetic evidence. The gain-of-function MAPKKs used in this study have only two Ser/Thr residues mutated to Asp. Such mutant proteins are likely to maintain their specificity *in vivo* because the kinase-interacting domain, which is involved in recognizing the downstream MAPKs, is still intact (26). The absence of activation of other MAPKs in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}*, *GVG-MKK4^{DD}*, and *GVG-MKK5^{DD}* plants supports this notion (12) (Fig. 1B). The gain-of-function MAPKKs used in this and other reports lack the regulatory domain (13, 14), which may lead to nonspecific activation of downstream

components in other MAPK cascades. Despite this concern, the correlation between MPK3/MPK6 activation and camalexin production in independent transgenic lines is strong (Fig. 2). The fact that MPK4 is activated in *GVG- Δ MEKK1*, but not *GVG- Δ MAPKKK α* , plants suggests that the active MAPKKK mutants maintain some specificity *in vivo*. Recent genetic analysis of *mekk1* mutant demonstrated that MPK4 is indeed downstream of MEKK1 (27). The use of a conditional promoter in this study also reduces the potential secondary nonspecific effects of the gain-of-function mutants. More importantly, loss of MPK3 or/and MPK6 compromised camalexin induction after fungal infection (Fig. 3), providing loss-of-function evidence implicating this MAPK cascade in pathogen-induced camalexin induction.

The MPK3/MPK6 cascade is involved in regulating ethylene biosynthesis in plants under stress (39). Pathogen-induced production of camalexin exhibits no cross-talk with the ethylene pathway (18). In agreement with this, we found that camalexin is still highly induced in *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/etr1-1*, *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/ein2*, and *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/ein3* double mutants (Fig. S7), suggesting that camalexin induction after MPK3/MPK6 activation is independent of ethylene. Conversely, the loss of camalexin induction in the *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/pad* plants does not affect ethylene induction (data not shown). Induction of constitutively active NtMEK2 or MKK4/MKK5 also leads to cell death after 24 h (11, 12, 26). The activation of genes in the Trp and camalexin pathways occurs within 3 h (Figs. 4 and 5), long before cell death occurs. As a result, we conclude that camalexin production is not a secondary effect of cell death. We can also conclude that cell death is independent of camalexin production because cell death was not inhibited in camalexin-deficient *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/pad2* and *GVG-NtMEK2^{DD}/pad3* double mutants (Fig. S8).

Based on these analyses, we conclude that the MPK3/MPK6 cascade is capable of regulating multiple defense responses. In addition to the defense gene induction, ethylene biosynthesis, and HR-like cell death reported previously, we have now provided gain- and loss-of-function evidence supporting the regulatory role of this cascade in phytoalexin induction, another important defense response. The combined effect of these multiple downstream responses ultimately determines the role of this MAPK cascade in disease resistance.

Materials and Methods

Plant Growth and Treatments. *A. thaliana* wild type (Col-0), mutants, and transgenics were maintained at 22°C in a growth chamber with a 14-hr light cycle (100 μ E/m²sec⁻¹). For *B. cinerea* resistance tests, plants were grown under a 12-hr light cycle. Seedlings were grown in 50-ml GC vials with 6 ml of half-strength Murashige and Skoog medium in a growth chamber at 22°C under continuous light (70 μ E/m²sec⁻¹). Unless indicated otherwise, 2-week-old seedlings were used for experiments. Seedlings collected at various times after the addition of DEX (1 μ M) or inoculation of *B. cinerea* spores (4×10^5 spores per vial) were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until use. *B. cinerea* maintenance and spore preparation were as described (20). Detailed procedures for seedling inoculation and visualization of fungal structures are given in [SI Text](#).

At least two independent repetitions were performed for experiments with multiple time points. For single time-point experiments, at least three independent repetitions were done.

Agrobacterium-Mediated Transformation. Constitutively active MEKK1 and MAPKKK α deletion mutants (13, 14) with an NcoI site added to introduce an ATG codon were first cloned in-frame into an intermediate vector with a double HA-epitope tag at the 3' end. The inserts were then moved into binary vector pTA7002. Transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants were generated and selected as described (39).

Generation of Double Mutants. *mpk3* and *mpk6* mutants were described (28, 39). Homozygous F3 or F4 plants from various crosses were used for experiments. Transgenes were followed by hygromycin resistance. CAPS markers were used to follow mutations in *PAD3* (*pad3-1*) and *PAD4* (*pad4-1*) (22, 30).

Homozygous *pad1* (*pad1-1*) was identified by a recessive leaf phenotype associated with the mutation (24). Homozygous *pad2* (*pad2-1*) plants were identified based on reduced camalexin induction after *Pseudomonas syringae* infection (25, 33).

Camalexin Measurement. Camalexin was extracted from *Arabidopsis* seedlings and quantified by using established procedures (23, 24). The excitation and emission spectra were determined by using a Model 8100 spectrofluorometer (SLM-AMINCO Instrument). Camalexin accumulation in the culture medium, which reflects its production and accumulation in the seedlings, was determined by fluorospectrometry with a standard curve established by using known concentrations of camalexin.

Protein Extraction, Immunoblot Analysis, and In-Gel Kinase Assay. Protein was extracted from seedlings as described (39). The concentration of protein extracts was determined by using the Bio-Rad protein assay kit with BSA as the standard. Immunoblot detection of tagged transgene products was performed as described (39). Myelin basic protein (MBP) was used as the substrate for the in-gel kinase assay (39, 40).

RNA Blot and Quantitative (q)RT-PCR Analyses. Total RNA was extracted by using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen). RNA (5 μ g per lane) was separated on 1.2% formaldehyde-agarose gels, transferred to an Immobilon-Ny⁺ membrane (Millipore), and hybridized with random primer-labeled cDNA insert as described (11). Relative abundance of *PAD3* mRNA was determined by using the NIH Image program. Equal sample loading was confirmed by ethidium bromide staining of the gel.

After TURBO DNase treatment, 2 μ g of total RNA were used for reverse transcription. Quantitative PCR analysis was performed by using an Opticon 2 real-time PCR machine (MJ Research) as described (26, 39). After normalization to an *EF1 α* control, the relative levels of gene expression were calculated. Primer pairs are listed in *SI Text*.

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