

RESEARCH PAPER

Molecular characterization and functional analysis of the β -galactosidase gene during *Coffea arabica* (L.) fruit development

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Abstract

β-D-Galactosidase (EC 3.2.1.23) has been detected in several plant species, and is characterized in different organs and tissues by its ability to hydrolyse terminal non-reducing β-D-galactosyl residues from β-D-galactoside polymers. In the present paper the cloning and the biochemical and molecular characterization of *Coffea arabica* β-galactosidase expressed in the pericarp and the endosperm of coffee fruits in all phases of ripeness are described. It was found that coffee β-galactosidase is not evenly transcribed throughout fruit ripening, oscillating with two distinct peaks: the first peak when immature fruits are at the active growing stage and the second when fully developed coffee fruits are completely ripe. Both *in vitro* enzymatic activity of coffee fruit protein extracts and *in vivo* histochemical assay of freshly harvested coffee fruits confirmed the uneven transcription of β-galactosidase as fruit maturation advanced. Partial genomic DNA sequencing indicated a complex arrangement of nine putative exons. *In silico* translation of the cloned coding sequences clearly revealed the cloned gene as β-galactosidase, with the presence of a signal peptide directing the enzyme to the apoplast. Two isoforms were distinguished by sequencing reverse transcription-PCR transcripts, one expressed in young and adult leaves and another in stems, petals, and coffee fruit endosperm and pericarp. Southern blot analysis indicates that there are at least two copies of this gene in the *C. arabica* genome that could explain the presence of two β-galactosidase isoforms.

Key words: Cell wall, *Coffea arabica*, coffee, fruit ripening, β -galactosidase.

Introduction

Tissue softening during fruit ripening is a consequence of cell wall structural weakening due to the activity of several cell wall-degrading enzymes (Fischer and Bennett, 1991). The application of analytical biochemistry and molecular techniques revealed that this physiological process is more complex than previously expected. The cell wall structure is a matrix composed of several different polysaccharides, and an increase has been reported in the solubility of both hemicellulosic and pectic fractions, with the release of

carbohydrate residues from the side chains of the polysaccharide matrix during fruit maturation (Sakurai and Nevins, 1997; Brummell and Harpster, 2001).

Despite the well characterized activity of polygalacturonases on the depolymerization of the cell wall pectic polymers, it appears that polygalacturonase activity alone is not sufficient to induce fruit softening (Giovannoni *et al.*, 1989). The release of arabinosyl and galactosyl residues from pectic side chains is also an important event involved

in fruit softening (Gross, 1984; Gross and Sams, 1984; Redgwell et al., 1992), which is related to the activity of β-galactosidases (EC 3.2.1.23). This class of cell walldegrading enzymes belongs to the glycosyl hydrolase enzymatic group, which is characterized by its ability to hydrolyse β-D-galactosyl residues from the non-reducing terminals of β-D-galactosides (Esteban et al., 2003). In higher plants, β-galactosidase is known to be the only enzyme able to hydrolyse galactosyl residues from cell wall polysaccharides by an endo-cleavage of β-1,4-galactan (Smith et al., 1998). Its ability to release galactose from carbohydrates, galactolipids, and glycoproteins, and from cell wall components during cell expansion, senescence, and fruit ripening has been identified in the literature (De Veau et al., 1993; Buckeridge and Reid, 1994; Ross et al., 1994).

β-Galacosidase enzymatic activity and gene expression have been measured in different plant tissues undergoing developmental changes, such as pollen (Rogers et al., 2001), seeds (Sekimata et al., 1989; Buckeridge and Reid, 1994), and seedlings (Li et al., 2001; Esteban et al., 2005). In fruits, β-galactosidase activity was reported during fruit development and ripening for several species including tomato (Smith et al., 1998, 2002; Smith and Gross, 2000), carambola (Balasubramaniam et al., 2005), chick-pea (Esteban et al., 2005), pear (Tateishi et al., 2001), pepper (Biles et al., 1997; Ogasawara et al., 2007), mango (Prasanna et al., 2005), apple (Ross et al., 1994), rice (Chantarangsee et al., 2007), Arabidopsis (Dean et al., 2007), strawberry (Trainotti et al., 2001), and orange (Wu and Burns, 2004), among others. In coffee species, β-galactosidase enzymatic activity was first described by Golden et al. (1993). These authors reported that Coffea β-galactosidase was not able to release galactose from pectins, but did so from arabinogalactans and galactans, which are two distinct side chains on the pectin backbone. They evaluated β-galactosidase enzymatic activity during coffee fruit ripening and verified that immature fruits presented low activity; however, as coffee fruits went into the ripening stage, β-galactosidase presented a peak with a 6-fold activity increase, followed by a slight decrease in completely ripe coffee fruits. These authors also compared β-galactosidase activity with four other glycosidases and verified that during coffee fruit ripening, β-galactosidase presented the highest enzymatic activity among all four cell wall-degrading enzymes analysed. However, they did not mention whether β-galactosidase was expressed in the pericarp or in the endosperm.

Although coffee is an important commodity, few studies related to Coffea fruit development have been published (De Castro and Marraccini, 2006; Geromel et al., 2006, 2008; Maluf et al., 2009). However, it should be noted that efforts have been directed towards understanding the complex integrated transcription network involved in coffee seed development (Salmona et al., 2008; Joët et al., 2009). Apart from the biochemical characterization of coffee cell wall components (Bradbury and Halliday, 1990; Rogers et al., 1999; Redgwell and Fischer, 2006), only a few genes related to coffee fruit cell wall-degrading enzymes have been cloned and biochemically characterized, such as α-galactosidase (Marraccini et al., 2005) and endo-β-mannanases (Marraccini et al., 2001). Molecular approaches are also being used to expand the knowledge related to coffee bean grain composition and biochemical aspects involved in coffee beverage quality. In this context, Salmona et al. (2008) investigated transcription networks specific to C. arabica seed development, combining cDNA arrays and real-time reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR). Even though these authors identified the presence of a β -galactosidase transcript (gathered with several other genes in cluster-IV1), it was only mentioned without any further exploration. As far as is known, there are no reports specifically on the molecular analysis of coffee β-galactosidases.

In this work, the isolation, molecular characterization, and functional analysis of the β-galactosidase gene of C. arabica $(Ca\beta Gal)$ during coffee fruit development are presented, distinguishing both temporal and spatial β-galactosidase expression.

Materials and methods

Plant material

Field-grown C. arabica cv Icatu Vermelho fruits were manually harvested from October to February at Centro de Pesquisa Agropecuária dos Cerrados/EMBRAPA, Planaltina, DF, Brazil (15°35'35"S, 47°42'30"W, 1007 m asl), with a lowest and a highest mean annual temperature of 12.6 °C and 30.1 °C, respectively. Coffee fruits at different ripening phases were classified based on their phenological stages from 1 to 8, according to fruit size and pericarp colouration (Fig. 1). In the first four stages, the immature fruits were visually classified by the increment in both volume and length and, from stage 5 to 8, the fully grown coffee fruits were classified by pericarp colour changes. Once fruits were harvested and classified, the pericarps and endosperms were separated, identified, independently weighed, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C.

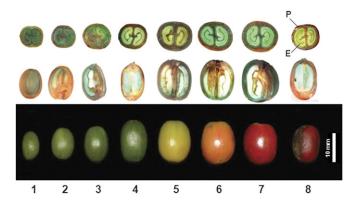


Fig. 1. Classification of field-grown C. arabica fruits at eight developmental stages based on fruit size (immature coffee fruits, stages 1-4) and on pericarp colouration (ripening coffee fruits, stages 5-8) is presented in the lower panel. Transversal and longitudinal coffee fruit sections are presented, respectively, in the upper panel, presenting blue coloured regions that correspond to in vivo β-galactosidase histochemical activity. P. pericarp; E. endosperm.

RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, and RT-PCR

Total RNAs were extracted from ~100 mg of both pericarps and endosperms of C. arabica fruits, previously stored at -80 °C, using Micro-to-midi Total RNA Purification System (Invitrogen, USA). cDNAs were prepared from these RNAs with SuperScript™ III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, USA) using oligo(dT)₂₀ according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Semi-quantitative β-galactosidase transcription expression was carried out by RT-PCR, which was optimized in order to allow this analysis from coffee fruit pericarp and endosperm at different ripening stages, using the elongation factor 1α gene (EF- 1α) as an internal control. Three biological replicates of coffee fruit endosperm and pericarp at each developmental stage were used in this analysis. For β -galactosidase transcription analysis, β GALPLF (AGAAGCACTCCCGAGATGTGG) and BGALPLR (TGGCA-CATAACCCATGG) were used as primers, amplifying a single fragment of 504 bp. The PCRs were carried out using 1 µl of cDNA, Invitrogen 10× PCR buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM of each dNTP, 10 µM of each gene-specific primer, and 1 U of Taq polymerase (Invitrogen, USA) in a final volume of 25 μl. The PCR amplification program was optimized, and consisted of one cycle at 94 °C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 50 °C for 1min, and 72 °C for 1min, after which the reactions were kept at 72 °C for another 10 min on PTC-100® Peltier Thermal Cycler equipment (MJ Research, USA). For EF-1α gene expression, identical reactions were prepared in parallel, except that EF-1F (TGTTGCTGTTAAGGATTTGAAGCG) and (AACAGTTTGACGCATGTCCCTAAC) were used as primers, amplifying a fragment of 358 bp. The PCR amplification cycle was the same as that used for β -galactosidase.

The RT-PCRs were run on a 1% (w/v) agarose gel by electrophoresis, and the relative intensity of the amplified fragments was determined by analysis of the gel images using the Quantity One® program v4.6.3. Relative quantification was done by comparing the intensities of $Ca\beta Gal$ and $EF-1\alpha$ bands. Three biological replicates were analysed per coffee fruit at each developmental stage.

Genomic DNA extraction and Southern analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted from 200 mg of healthy adult leaves of both C. arabica cv Icatu Vermelho and C. arabica cv Catuai Vermelho using the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method (Doyle and Doyle, 1987) with a modified extraction buffer containing 2% (w/v) CTAB, 2% (w/v) PVP (polyvinylpyrrolidone), 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 25 mM EDTA, and 2 mM sodium chloride. At the moment of extraction, 2% (v/v) β-mercaptoethanol and 2% (w/v) sodium metabisulphite were added.

For Southern blot analysis, 50 µg of genomic DNA was individually digested with DraI, EcoRI, and HindIII, followed by electrophoresis in a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel at 25 V h⁻¹. The digested samples were transferred to a nylon membrane Hybond™-N⁺ (Amersham Biosciences, UK) by the alkaline capillary method (Sambrook and Russell, 2001), followed by pre-hybridization with salmon sperm at 65 °C for 2 h. A 426 bp probe from the original coffee \(\beta\)-galactosidase expressed sequence tag (EST) was PCR amplified with the βGALPLF (AGAAGCACTCCCGA-GATGTGG) and βRACE (TTCTCGTGAAAAGCTCTCTCCG) primers, using the amplification cycle previously described for gene expression analysis. The probe was radioactively labelled using Ready-To-Go™ DNA Labeled Beads (dCTP) (GE Healthcare, UK), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The membrane was hybridized at 55 °C for 16 h, followed by two sequential washes using 2× SSC, 0.1% (w/v) SDS at room temperature, and two washes with 1× SSC, 0.1% (w/v) SDS at 55 °C. The washed membrane was placed in an imaging plate cassette from Bio Imaging Analyzer (Fuji Photo Film Co. Ltd, Japan) for 48 h, and analysed using FUJIFILM Fluorescent Image Analyzer FLA-3000 (FUJIFILM Life Science, USA).

Extraction of β -galactosidase from coffee fruits

β-Galactosidase was extracted independently from coffee fruit pericarp and endosperm at all eight ripening stages. Approximately 1 g of each sample was ground in liquid nitrogen, and extracted in ice-cold extraction buffer containing 0.1 M sodium citrate pH 4.6, 1 M sodium cloride, 13 mM EDTA, 1% (w/v) PVP-10, and 100 μg ml⁻¹ PMSF (phenylmethylsulphonyl fluoride), which was added at the ratio of 5ml of extraction buffer per gram of fresh weight. Samples were kept on ice for 5 min with periodic mixing, followed by centrifugation at 8000 rpm for 20 min at 4 °C. The supernatants containing β-galactosidase were harvested, and stored at -20 °C.

Protein estimation

Protein was estimated from the supernantant extracted for β-galactosidase enzymatic analysis by Bradford's method using bovine serum albumin as standard (Bradford, 1976).

β-Galactosidase enzymatic assay

β-Galactosidase enzymatic assay was performed according to Golden et al. (1993). Fruit extracts from coffee pericarps and endosperms containing β-galactosidase were thawed on ice, and 20 µg of total soluble protein was used per sample. Extracts were incubated with 13 mM PNPG (4-nitrophenyl-β-D-galactopyranoside; Sigma-Aldrich, USA), incubated at 37 °C for 30 min, and the absorbance was measured at 405 nm using iMark™ Microplate Reader (Bio-Rad, USA). Each sample was measured in triplicate. The standard curve was prepared using a 2-fold serial dilution from 50 mM of p-nitrophenol (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) in triplicate.

β-Galactosidase histochemical assay

β-Galactosidase in vivo histochemical assay was performed according to Chantarangsee et al. (2007). Briefly, freshly harvested coffee fruits at all ripening stages were longitudinally and transversally sectioned, and incubated in staining solution containing X-Gal [50 mM sodium phosphate pH 7; 10 mM EDTA; 0.1% (w/v) sarcosyl; 20% (v/v) methanol; 1 mM X-Gal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3indolyl-β-D-galactopyranoside)] for 4 h at room temperature. After this period, the staining solution was discarded, the reaction was stopped, and the samples were decolourized in methanol, and stored at room temperature for visual analysis (Fig. 1).

Cloning β-galactosidase

The partial genomic β-galactosidase sequence was obtained using Genome Walking™ Universal Kit (Clontech, USA) with DraI, FspI, ScaI, SspI, SmaI, NruI, and StuI to digest the genomic DNA according to the manufacturer's instructions.

BAC library screening analysis

A bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) library constructed from the genomic DNA of C. arabica cv IAPAR 59 was used (Noir et al., 2004). High-density colony filters were prepared using a Genetix Q-Bot. BAC clones were double-spotted onto Hybond- N^+ filters (Amersham-Pharmacia) in a 4×4 pattern as described by Tomkins et al. (1999). In total, 27 648 clones of the BAC library were spotted onto a 22.5×22.5 cm filter representing, approximately, 4×equivalent-arabica genomes (equal to eight times basic coffee genome equivalents since two diploid subgenomes, Ca and E^a, are associated in *C. arabica*).

The filters were hybridized with three different PCR-generated probes corresponding to different regions of the 504 bp C. arabica β-galactosidase EST. Single amplified fragments were agarose purified and used as probes. Probes were labelled with [32P]dCTP according to the manufacturer's recommendations (Megaprime DNA labelling systems kit, Amersham). Filter hybridization was carried out as described by Sambrook and Russell (2001). Hit

BAC clones were grown for 48 h at 37 °C in 1.5 ml of 2YT medium containing chloramphenicol (12.5 µg ml⁻¹), and BAC DNA was extracted using an alkaline lysis procedure (Sambrook and Russell, 2001).

DNA sequencing and sequence analysis

Sequencing was carried out by Macrogen Inc. (Maryland, USA) using BigDye ver. 3.1 sequencing chemistry (Applied Biosystems, Inc., USA) with the instrument 3730×1 DNA Analyzer from Life Technologies (Applied Biosystems, Inc., USA). The BLAST program was used for searching homology against nucleotide and amino acid sequence databases at GenBank. The motifs of the deduced amino acid sequence were searched using the PROSITE algorithm (http://ca.expasy.org/prosite/).

Molecular phylogenetic analysis

In order to perform a phylogenetic analysis, partially cloned CaβGal translated coding sequence was compared with 36 plant βgalactosidase proteins available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) GenBank. The following accessions were selected: Arabidopsis thaliana BGAL6 (CAB64742), Arabidopsis lyrata subsp. lyrata BGAL6 (XP_002864867), Asparagus officinalis (CAA54525), Brassica oleracea (CAA59162), Capsicum annuum (AAK40304), Carica papaya (ACP18875), Cicer arientinum (CAA06309), Citrus sinensis (AAK31801), Fragaria×ananassa βGal1 (CAC44500), Fragaria×ananassa βGal2 (CAC44501), Fragaria-×ananassa βGal3 (CAC44502), Glycine max (ACF22882), Gossypium hirsutum (AAS76480), Solanum lycopersicum (formerly Lycopersicon esculentum) TBG2 (AAF70821), S. lycopersicum TBG3 (AAF70822), S. lycopersicum TBG4 (AAC25984), S. lycopersicum TBG6 (AAF70825), S. lycopersicum TBG7 (AAF70823), Malus×domestica (P48981), Mangifera indica SP26 (AAB61470), Nicotiana tabacum TP5 (CAC13966), Oryza sativa Indica group (ACC64531), Oryza sativa Japonica group (AAM34271), Petunia×hybrida BGAL2 (ACC60982), Persea americana PaGAL4 (BAF31234), Pyrus communis (CAH18936), Populus trichocarpa (EEE91791), Prunus persica (ABV32545), Pyrus pyrifolia PpGal5 (BAD91082), Raphanus sativus RsBGAL1 (BAD20774), Ricinus communis (XP_002521778), Sorghum bicolor (XP_002437187), Vigna radiata (AAF67341), Vitis vinifera BG1 (AAK81874), Zea mays (ACG42995). Coffea arabica β-galactosidase (CAI47559) was used as outgroup to root the phylogenetic tree. The β-galactosidase sequences were aligned using BioEdit software (http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/BioEdit) and the phylogenetic analysis was performed using the ClustalW algorithm through the MEGA4 program (Tamura et al., 2007). A bootstrap method (n=1000) was employed to evaluate the reliability of tree topologies (Felsenstein, 1985) and the Maximum Parsimony (MP) algorithm was used to construct a β-galactosidase phylogenetic tree.

Results and Discussion

β-Galactosidase gene isolation and characterization

β-Galactosidase (EC 3.2.1.23) participates actively in fruit maturation in a diverse group of plants and, although β-galactosidase presents the highest activity during coffee fruit maturation among other glycosidases (Golden *et al.*, 1993), to our knowledge no further investigation related to this cell wall-degrading enzyme has been carried out.

As no data related to C. arabica β -galactosidase were available from any public database, initially two primers were designed based on highly conserved nucleotide regions of several aligned β -galactosidase ESTs obtained from the

NCBI GenBank using the MegAlign program (Lasergene, USA), and a PCR was performed with cDNAs extracted from mature coffee fruits (stage 7; Fig. 1). One single band was amplified (data not presented), sequenced, and blasted against the NCBI translated nucleotide database, identifying the sequence as β -galactosidase, which was named $Ca\beta GAL$.

The nucleotide sequence was partially solved by genome walking (Genome Walking™ Universal Kit, Clontech, USA) which basically consists of PCR amplifications of single-digested genomic DNA with blunt-ended restriction enzymes, followed by the ligation of specific adaptors (provided by the manufacturer) to both ends of these DNA fragments. These adaptor-ligated DNA pools ('libraries') are submitted to two PCR amplifications per library: (i) the first PCR uses the outer adaptor primer (AP1) provided in the kit and an outer, gene-specific primer (GSP1) provided by the researcher. The primary PCR mixture is then diluted and used as a template for a nested PCR with a nested adaptor primer (AP2) and a nested gene-specific primer (GSP2). However, blunt-ended restriction enzymes other than those recommended by the manufacturer were used here, because the partial EST sequence presented restriction sites for the restriction enzymes provided with the kit. Several different PCR cloning approaches published in peer-reviewed articles such as iPCR (Ochman et al., 1988), single-site Sda-PCR (MacGregor and Overbeek, 1991), and single oligonucletide nested PCR (Antal et al., 2004), as well as RACE (Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends) using GeneRacer™ (Invitrogen, USA) were also tested without success. In order to sequence the gene of interest, a C. arabica BAC library (Noir et al., 2004) was screened with three Ca\beta Gal probes (data not presented), identifying eight putative C. arabica β-galactosidase BAC clones. Among these, four clones hybridized with all three probes, which were used for sequencing the gene of interest. These putative $Ca\beta Gal$ genes were purified and sequenced by Macrogen Corp. USA (www.macrogen.com) by a primer walking approach. The data analysis sequence confirmed the previous sequences and expanded both upstream and downstream from the known nucleotide sequence.

A partial genomic nucleotide sequence of 3948 bp was obtained based on the assembly of overlapping genomic DNA sequences derived from C. arabica using both genome walking DNA fragments and putative positive BAC clones sequenced by primer walking. The sequence was entered in the NCBI GenBank database with the accession number HQ283330 ($Ca\beta Gal$).

In silico analysis of the cloned $Ca\beta Gal$ nucleotide sequence blasted against the NCBI protein database (blastx) clearly indicated the gene of interest to be β-galactosidase. Nine exons were identified, producing a putative 1005bp β-galactosidase-coding sequence (EST), which translated into 334 amino acid residues (mol. wt=37 651 Da) (Figs 2A, 4B). The presence of several exon regions is not unique to the $Ca\beta Gal$ gene. Ahn *et al.* (2007) reported the highly complex structure of 17 *A. thaliana* β-galactosidase genomic sequences, identifying from 12 to 19 exons among

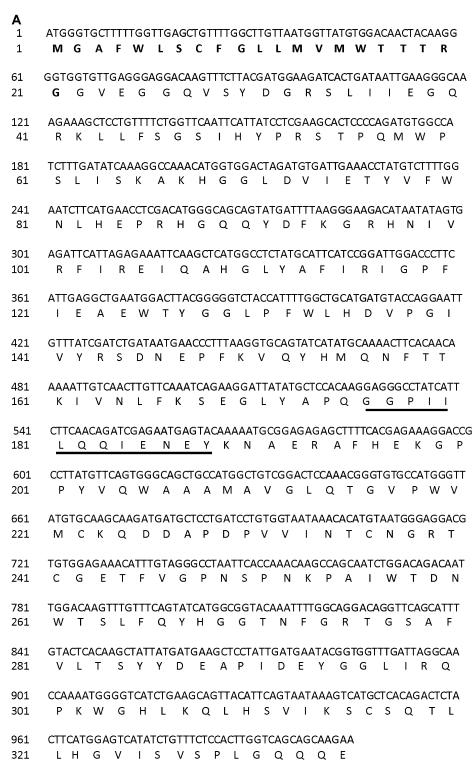


Fig. 2. Partial putative C. arabica β-galactosidase EST. (A) The nucleotide sequence (upper line) and the predicted amino acid sequence (lower line). Deduced amino acids are shown in one-letter code. The predicted signal peptide is in bold. Underlining indicates the predicted glycosyl hydrolase 35 family putative active site. (B) Alignment of the C. arabica β-galactosidase predicted amino acid sequence with the A. thaliana (CAB 64742) β-galactosidase amino acid sequence. The box indicates the predicted glycosyl hydrolase 35 family putative active site.

them. Not all intron sequences were shared by all 17 $At\beta Gal$ genes, suggesting that, during evolution, indel mechanisms might have been present in order to explain the observed genomic organizational physical pattern.

To investigate whether the deduced β-galactosidase protein is targeted to the cell wall, analysis of the deduced amino acid sequence with the SignalP 3.0 Server program (Emanuelsson et al., 2007) predicted a eukaryotic signal

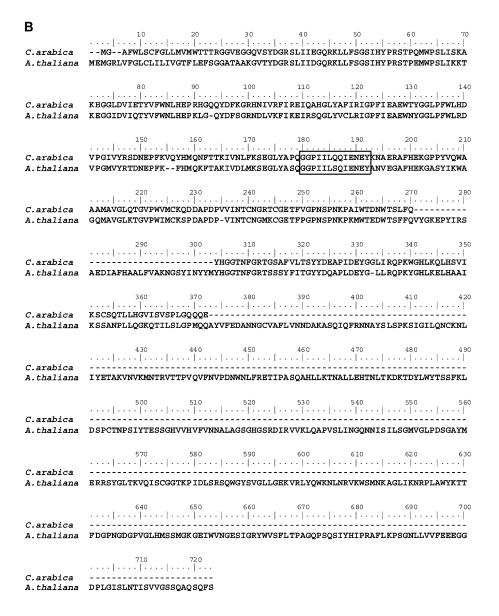


Fig. 2. Continued

peptide at the polypeptide N-terminus (signal peptide probability=1.000) with a maximum cleavage site probability (0.834) between glycine residues at positions 21 and 22 (Fig. 2A). This result was confirmed by the TargetP (Emanuelsson *et al.*, 2000) algorithm, indicating that the mature polypeptide should be targeted to the secretory pathway, where it might be involved in cell wall galactosyl modification. The presence of a signal peptide in the unprocessed form of the Ca β Gal enzyme indicates that it should be transported into the endoplasmic reticulum, and thence to the cell walls, where it is functionally active. However, immunolocalization and cell fractionation experiments will be required to confirm the cellular localization of Ca β Gal in coffee fruits.

Detailed analysis of the deduced $Ca\beta Gal$ translated nucleotide sequence clearly indicated the presence of the glycosyl hydrolase superfamily 42 conserved motif, within

which the glycosyl hydrolase family 35 active site sequence G-G-P-I-I-L-Q-Q-I-E-N-E-Y was identified (http://ca.expasy.org/prosite/) (Fig. 2A). This amino acid sequence is a characteristic motif specific to β-galactosidases; however, slight modifications within this region are also observed (Trainotti et al., 2001; Triantafillidou and Georgatsos, 2001; Ahn et al., 2007).

The alignment of the CaβGal predicted amino acid sequence with a closely related β-galactosidase protein sequence from *A. thaliana* (CAB 64727) available at the NCBI GenBank database indicated that ~45.64% of the *CaβGal* coding sequence has been cloned (Fig. 2B). In this analysis, it could also be observed that the aligned amino acid sequences presented 74.25% homology, and the glycosyl hydrolase family 35 motif G-G-P-I-I-L-[Q/S]-Q-I-E-N-E-Y, characteristic of β-galactosidases, was clearly conserved between these two species.

β-Galactosidase transcription analysis, in vitro enzymatic activity and in vivo histochemical assay

A semi-quantitative β-galactosidase transcription analysis from coffee fruit pericarp and endosperm was performed by RT-PCR, and in vitro enzymatic activity was evaluated based on the enzymatic degradation of the substrate PNPG by β-galactosidase into galactose and p-nitrophenol. Transcription analysis revealed that Ca\beta Gal was not evenly expressed in both tissues during fruit development (pericarp, Fig. 3A; endosperm, Fig. 3B), and both presented a similar pattern with a transcription peak in active growing immature fruits (Fig. 1, stage 2) and another peak in near fully ripe coffee fruits (Fig. 1, stages 6 and 7). Considering $Ca\beta Gal$ expressed in the pericarp, one peak was clearly observed in fast growing coffee fruit (stage 2), followed by an expression decay (stages 4 and 5) and a second peak when fruits were fully ripe (stage 7) (Fig. 3A). However, despite two peaks of $Ca\beta Gal$ expressed in the endosperm also being observed, initially there was a low transcription level in immature fast growing coffee fruit (stage 2), followed by no detectable expression in the next two phases. As fruits went into more advanced ripening stages, the endosperms presented a sharp increase in β-galactosidase

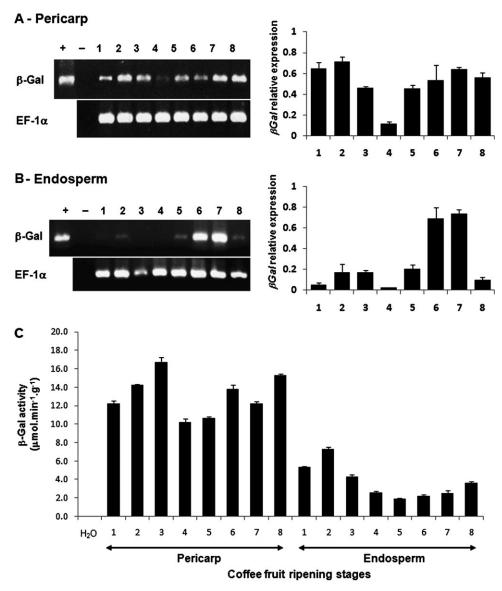


Fig. 3. Expression of β-galactosidase in field-grown C. arabica fruits at different ripening stages. (A) Pericarp CaβGal RT-PCR products are presented in the left upper lane. Constitutively expressed transcripts of the elongation factor 1α gene (EF- 1α) by RT-PCR were used as control and are presented in the left lower lane. A histogram presenting the relative expression of $Ca\beta Gal$ and $EF-1\alpha$ band intensity is presented in the right panel; number of biological replicates=3. (B) Endosperm CaβGal RT-PCR products are presented in the left upper lane. Constitutively expressed transcripts of EF-1\alpha by RT-PCR were used as the control and are presented in the left lower lane. A histogram presenting the relative expression of $Ca\beta Gal$ and $EF-1\alpha$ band intensity is presented in the right panel; number of biological replicates=3; (+) positive control, plasmid carrying β-galactosidase EST; (-) negative control, water. (C) Coffea arabica β-galactosidase enzymatic activity during fruit development is presented for both pericarp and endosperm; number of biological replicates=3.

expression with a transcription peak at nearly full mature stages (stage 6 and 7). A low $Ca\beta Gal$ expression in the endosperm was also observed in the last stage when coffee fruit started to dehydrate (Fig. 3B). Considering β-galactosidase enzymatic activity during coffee fruit development, it could be clearly observed that coffee pericarp also presented two peaks (Fig. 3C), with a similar pattern observed during transcriptional analysis (Fig. 3A). On the other hand, although it could be observed that coffee β-galactosidase enzymatic activity also presented peaks (one during the early endosperm developing stage and another when coffee fruit were fully ripe), the enzymatic activity did not reflect the transcription level observed in the endosperm (Fig. 3B). This unexpected result could be related to some post-transcription regulation mechanism, which needs to be further investigated. It should be noted that in vitro \(\beta\)-galactosidase enzymatic activity in coffee pericarps presented, approximately twice the activity compared with the endosperm. This result suggests that specific hydrolytic events involving this cell wall-degrading enzyme are more intense in the pericarps than in the endosperm, probably related to the composition of the cell wall in these tissues.

In order to evaluate both the spatial and temporal distribution of β -galactosidase enzymatic activity in C. arabica fruits, an in vivo histochemical analysis was performed (Fig. 1). The blue areas indicate β-galactosidase activity due to the enzymatic degradation of X-Gal substrate yielding galactose and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3hydroxyindole, which is further oxidized into 5,5'-dibromo-4,4'-dichloro-indigo, an insoluble blue product (Sambrook and Russell, 2001). Both longitudinal and transversal fresh stained coffee fruit sections revealed areas with similar staining patterns. A strong expression was observed in endosperms at the initial development stages (phases 1–3), decreasing during the transition from fully developed green coffee fruit into the initial ripening stages (phases 4 and 5), followed by another peak activity when fully ripe (phases 6 and 7), and decreasing in the final developmental stage when fruits began dehydration (stage 8) (Fig. 1, upper lanes). In the pericarp, β-galactosidase expression presented a similar pattern with two peaks: the first peak in initial developmental phase 3, and a second peak when coffee fruits were fully ripe (phases 6 and 7), similar to β -galactosidase expression in the endosperm (Fig. 1, upper lanes).

In vivo β-galactosidase histochemical analysis presented a similar pattern to that observed by in vitro β-galactosidase enzymatic activity, confirming that this gene was not uniformly expressed throughout coffee fruit development. Both presented two distinct peaks during coffee fruit development as observed by RT-PCR, indicating that this gene might be involved in specific cell wall events at different moments during coffee fruit development. The inconsistent Ca\beta Gal transcription and enzymatic activity observed mainly in the coffee endosperm suggests that posttranscriptional gene expression regulation might be related to CaβGal enzymatic activity. These results observed in coffee are not unique. Ross et al. (1994) observed similar results in apple fruit maturation, detecting strong β-galactosidase activity without detectable expression by using northern blot analysis. In coffee fruit development, Marraccini et al. (2005) studied the expression of another galactosidase (\alpha-galactosidase) and observed that even though transcription was concomitant with enzymatic activity, the enzymatic activity persisted despite the fact that no transcription was detected in the following phase analysed. On the other hand, Golden et al. (1993) reported an increased β-galactosidase enzymatic activity as coffee fruits matured and ripened. Immature fruits which presented the lowest activity levels and the highest β -galactosidase activities were observed as fruits were at the semi-ripe stage (equivalent to phase 6, Fig. 1), with a 4-fold increase in specific activity compared with the initial phase analysed. These results partially confirmed the present data, but a detailed analysis cannot be performed since their assayed extracts were derived from entire berries. More recently, Joët et al. (2009) analysed several different biochemical pathways during coffee seed development (the pericarps were excluded from these analyses) by real-time RT-PCR assays, including carbohydrate metabolism. Among several enzymes involved in this complex pathway, β-galactosidase expression was evaluated. These authors also reported the presence of two βGal transcription peaks during coffee seed (endosperm) development with a very similar pattern to that observed in the present RT-PCR analysis, confirming the

Southern blot and isoform analysis

The genomic organization of the CaβGal gene was investigated by Southern blot analysis under medium stringency (Fig. 4A). Genomic DNA was single-digested with DraI, EcoRI, and HindIII, none of which presented restriction sites within the 426 bp β-galactosidase cDNA probe used for hybridization (Fig. 4B). Two slight bands were observed with DraI, EcoRI, and HindIII digestions. The same hybridization pattern was observed in both Icatu Vermelho and Catuai Vermelho C. arabica cultivars, suggesting that this gene pattern is conserved in these cultivars. These results indicated that there were at least two copies of β -galactosidase genes in the *C. arabica* genome. However, gene copy number is not a trivial issue in this species, because it is an amphidiploid resulting from a natural cross between diploid species C. eugenoides and C. canephora (Lashermes et al., 1999). Hence it could be interpreted as either the result of two homeologous loci (one in each subgenome) or the presence of two duplicate/paralogous genes rather than two isoforms of the same gene.

Even though the focus here was on β-galactosidase expressed in coffee fruits at different developmental stages, β-galactosidase expression was also observed by PCR amplification of cDNAs derived from young and adult coffee leaves, petals, and stems (data not presented). All tissues amplified a single 501 bp DNA fragment that was sequenced and aligned. The sequence alignment indicated the presence of two distinct groups of PCR-amplified

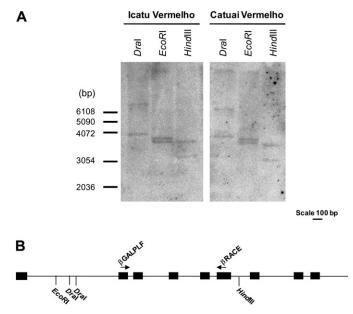


Fig. 4. Genomic DNA analysis. (A) Southern blot of C. arabica Icatu Vermelho and C. arabica Catuai Vermelho genomic DNA digested with Dral, EcoRI, and HindIII restriction enzymes and hybridized with a β-galactosidase gene probe. Molecular markers are indicated. (B) Schematic diagram of the partially cloned CaßGal genomic DNA indicating the exons (boxes) and the introns (lines). A restriction map is also presented, as well as the position of the primers used to amplify the probe from CaBGal EST.

CaβGal: one group composed of coffee fruit pericarps, endosperms, petals, and stems, and the other composed of young and adult coffee leaves. These two groups presented 71.06% homology considering the nucleotide sequence (Fig. 5A), suggesting that there are, at least, two β-galactosidase isoforms present in the C. arabica genome and confirming the Southern blot results (Fig. 4A). Analysis of the predicted amino acid sequence of both isoforms presented 74.25% homology (Fig. 5B). It should be noted that, despite presenting amino acid divergence, both isoforms conserved the glycosyl hydrolase family 35 motif G-G-P-I-I-(L/M)-Q-Q-I-E-N-E-Y which is characteristic of β-galactosidase (http://ca.expasy.org/prosite/) (Trainotti et al., 2001; Triantafillidou and Georgatsos, 2001; Ahn et al., 2007).

The presence of Ca\beta Gal isoforms suggests that this gene might be involved in specific metabolic events which are taking place in different tissues and organs of coffee plants, mainly related to the composition of the cell wall matrix. This appears to be the case for $Ca\beta Gal$, since in silico analysis predicted the presence of a signal peptide sequence. However, it should be noted that not all β-Gals present metabolic pathway signaling (Ahn et al., 2007). In coffee fruits, the sequenced $Ca\beta Gal$ genes expressed in coffee pericarp and endosperm were identical (Fig. 5A), despite showing different transcription levels and enzymatic activity throughout coffee fruit development and ripening (Fig. 3A, B). This preliminary result suggests that gene expression might be regulated in the promoter region, either by tissuespecific promoters or by control by specific transcription factors. These hypotheses should be further investigated by cloning the 5'-untranslated region (UTR) from both tissues. Another point to be considered is regarding CaβGal RT-PCR analysis: RT-PCR fragments amplified at early developmental stages (endosperm at stage 3, Fig. 1) and at late stages (pericarp at stage 7, Fig. 1) were sequenced and both DNA sequences were identical (Fig. 5A), indicating that βGal transcription analysis was mainly related to the isoform expressed in coffee fruits. Nevertheless, the possibility of the coffee leaf isoform being expressed cannot be definitely excluded, since the set of primers used was not specific to the coffee fruit isoform and every single amplified fragment was not sequence. The activity of $Ca\beta Gal$ in coffee leaves, stems, and petals is beyond the scope of this study and should be addressed in the future in order to understand its involvement in these organs. B-Galactosidase isoforms have been identified in several plant species, including by Prasanna et al. (2005) who identified three β-galactosidase isoforms in mango. In tomato, Smith and Gross (2000) identified seven β-galactosidase isoforms, but only isoform TGB4 was active during fruit ripening; and, in avocado (Persea americana), Tateishi et al. (2001) identified not only three β-galactosidase isoforms, but also their unique expression pattern during fruit ripening. In strawberry fruit maturation. Trainotti et al. (2001) identified three β -galactosidase isoforms, but only isoform $Fa\beta Gal1$ increased expression during fruit maturation. These results suggest that β -galactosidase isoforms are not unique to C. arabica. They appear to be ubiquitously present in several plant species under the control of a multigene family, but not all isoforms appear to be related to ripening.

Molecular phylogenetic analysis

A β-galactosidase hypothetical evolutionary cladrogram was constructed based on the comparison of CaβGal translated coding sequences with another 36 β-galactosidase amino acid sequences from different plant species obtained by Blastx search using the NCBI database. Sequences were aligned, manually edited, and phylogenetic analysis was performed using the MP algorithm with a 50% cut-off limit (Fig. 6).

The aligned amino acid sequences were 90.80% variable and 63.22% were parsimonious informative. Analysis of the β-galactosidase phylogenetic tree clearly indicated a similarity between coffee (C. arabica), rice (O. sativa subspecies Japonica), castor bean (R. communis), and A. thaliana, placing them genetically apart from other species. However, the high level of heterogeneity observed in the database analysis separated isoforms from the same species, such as in strawberry (Fa\beta Gal1, Fa\beta Gal2, and Fa\beta Gal3), and tomato (several TBGs) into different phylogenetic groups. A clear organizational pattern could not be identifed, because it was not possible to correlate this hypothetical evolutionary tree either with species or with family. Similar results were also observed by Ahn et al. (2007), where β-galactosidase isoforms from A. thaliana, S. lycopersicon,

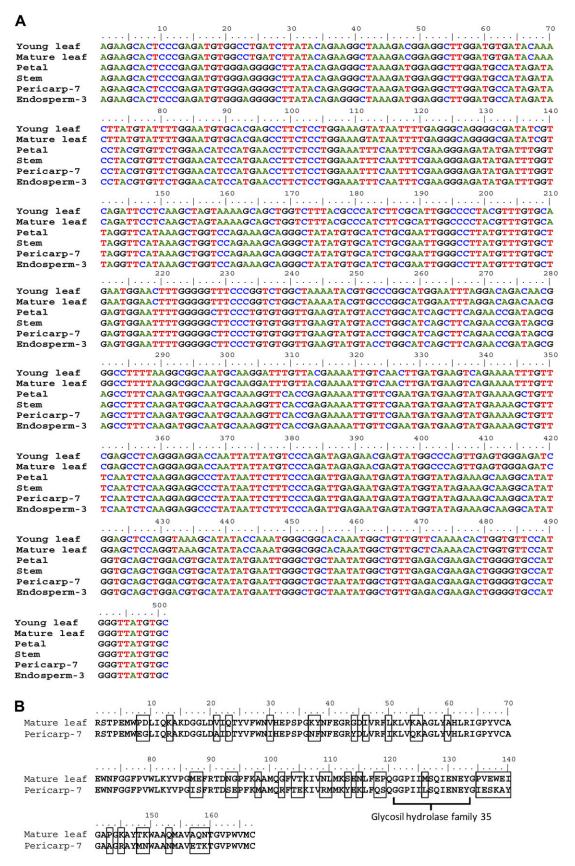


Fig. 5. β-Galactosidase isoforms from young and adult *C. arabica* leaves, stems, petals, endosperms, and pericarps. (A) Coffee β -galactosidase EST isoform alignment. (B) Predicted amino acid sequence alignment from the two *C. arabica* isoforms. Open boxes highlight the differences in the amino acid sequences.

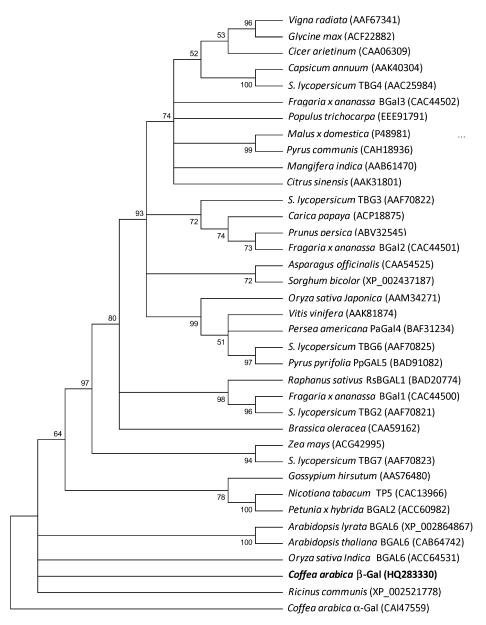


Fig. 6. Consensus β-galactosidase phylogenetic hypothesis based on the C. arabica β-galactosidase deduced amino acid sequence with 36 other plant β-galactosidase proteins using the MP algorithm. The phylogenetic tree was drawn using MEGA4 with a 50% cut-off limit. Bootstrap percentage appears on each branch.

and O. sativa were spread throughout their proposed phylogenetic β-galactosidase tree. β-Galactosidases are classified based on their similar enzymatic activities; however, because the composition of plant cell walls is highly variable and dynamic throughout plant growth and development (Campbell and Braam, 1999), the results suggest that β -galactosidases might have evolved in distinct patterns in order to cope with specific biochemical cell wall modification requirements. Despite the observed high variability in amino acid sequence, the biochemically active motifs were conserved, allowing them to perform as β-galactosidases.

This preliminary evolutionary hypothesis should be considered with caution since it was built on a partially sequenced $Ca\beta Gal$ translated coding nucleotide sequence.

A more robust analysis must be carried out when C. arabica β-galactosidase sequencing is completed, to obtain a better understanding of β-galactosidase gene evolution within plants.

The knowledge acquired with the current molecular and biochemical characterization of CaBGal revealed a more complex expression pattern than previously expected, which now should be put into context with other coffee cell walldegrading enzymes expressed during fruit development in order to fully understand coffee ripening. The participation of the $Ca\beta Gal$ gene and its impact on coffee fruit ripening should be further investigated by gene silencing through genetic engineering, producing biotech coffee plants with reduced Ca\beta Gal expression, followed by analysis of coffee fruit ripening. Due to the fact that $Ca\beta Gal$ gene expression

was observed in both vegetative and reproductive tissues, it would be interesting to investigate further its influence on plant growth and development. Furthermore, biochemical characterization of carbohydrate metabolism during coffee fruit ripening should also be exploited, correlating the polysaccharide profiles with all known coffee cell wall-degrading enzymes. This information could lead to important biotechnological inputs not only for plant breeding, but also for the coffee industry.

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