A Carrot Somatic Embryo Mutant Is Rescued by Chitinase

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At the nonpermissive temperature, somatic embryogenesis of the temperature-sensitive (ts) carrot cell mutant ts11 does not proceed beyond the globular stage. This developmental arrest can be lifted by the addition of proteins secreted by wild-type cells to the culture medium. From this mixture of secreted proteins, a 32-kD glycoprotein, designated extracellular protein 3 (EP3), that allows completion of somatic embryo development in ts11 at the nonpermissive temperature was purified. On the basis of peptide sequences and biochemical characterization, EP3 was identified as a glycosylated acidic endochitinase. The addition of the 32-kD endochitinase to ts11 embryo cultures at the nonpermissive temperature appeared to promote the formation of a correctly formed embryo protoderm. These results imply that a glycosylated acidic endochitinase has an important function in early plant somatic embryo development.

INTRODUCTION

In carrot cell cultures, somatic embryos develop from single embryogenic cells or from small clusters of embryogenic cells designated proembryogenic masses (Halperin, 1966; Nomura and Komamine, 1985). Several reports have indicated that proteins secreted into the medium of carrot cell cultures accompany the formation of embryogenic cells and somatic embryos. In one instance, an extracellular protein (EP1) that is only secreted by nonembryogenic cells has been identified (Van Engelen et al., 1991). Sterk et al. (1991) reported that another extracellular protein (EP2), identified as a lipid transfer protein, was only synthesized by embryogenic cells and somatic embryos. From these and other extracellular proteins described (Satoh and Fujii, 1988), it emerges that the developmental stage of carrot suspension cells is reflected in the type of secreted proteins synthesized by these cells.

To answer whether these and other secreted proteins are directly involved in somatic embryo development, two different assay systems have been developed. The first of these made use of the fungal antibiotic tunicamycin, which prevents N-glycosylation of proteins. Tunicamycin was found to inhibit somatic embryo development at an early, preglobular stage. This inhibition could be overcome by the simultaneous addition of correctly glycosylated proteins to the culture medium (De Vries et al., 1988a). The responsible glycoprotein was purified and identified as a cationic peroxidase (Cordewener et al., 1991). Based on the observed expansion of small embryogenic cells in the presence of tunicamycin and the identification of a peroxidase activity that prevents this expansion, a model has been presented that identifies the peroxidase-mediated restriction of cell size as an important prerequisite for successful somatic embryogenesis to occur (Van Engelen and De Vries, 1992). A second assay system was based on the observation that the phenocritical period in temperature-sensitive (ts) arrest at globular stage in the carrot cell mutant ts11 coincided with the period of sensitivity to replacement of the conditioned medium by fresh growth medium. When medium conditioned by a wild-type cell line was added to the ts11 culture medium, arrest at the globular stage under nonpermissive temperatures was lifted and embryo development in ts11 was completed up to torpedo stage, resulting in the formation of plantlets. This effect was found to be protease sensitive, suggesting that secreted proteins were the causative component of the conditioned medium (Lo Schiavo et al., 1990).

In this study, we present the purification of the secreted protein that is responsible for the observed rescue of ts11 embryos arrested at the globular stage. Partial protein sequences obtained from the purified protein, as well as biochemical characterization, identified this extracellular protein, designated EP3, as a 32-kD glycosylated acidic endochitinase. These results indicate that, apart from their postulated role in the plant defense response, at least one member of the family of plant proteins with chitinase activity has a function in somatic embryo development.
RESULTS

Arrested ts11 Embryos Exhibit Aberrant Protoderm Formation and Are Rescued by a Single Secreted Glycoprotein of 32 kD

Cell-free conditioned medium obtained from a 10-day-old embryo culture of the wild-type line A+ was reported to enable completion of ts11 embryo development (Lo Schiavo et al., 1990). This effect was observed when globular ts11 embryos, developed at 24°C, were transferred to the nonpermissive temperature of 32°C in medium conditioned by an A+ embryo culture. Prior treatment with trypsin abolished the effect of medium conditioned by an A+ embryo culture. To confirm this observation, ts11 embryo cultures were grown at 24°C and globular embryos were manually isolated from the embryo culture. Thirty individual ts11 embryos were collected and incubated at 32°C in 2 mL of fresh basal medium alone or in the presence of concentrated medium proteins isolated from the medium of a 10-day-old embryo culture of another wild-type line, 10 (De Vries et al., 1988b). This preparation of secreted proteins allowed 21 of the 30 individual ts11 globular embryos to develop into torpedo stage embryos at 32°C, resulting in an embryonic progression coefficient of 0.7 as shown in Figure 1A, lane 1. This value is ~75% of the value observed with medium conditioned by an A+ embryo culture (Lo Schiavo et al., 1990). No development of ts11 embryos beyond the globular stage was observed with unsupplemented basal medium (Figure 1A, lane 2).

Concentrated medium proteins from a 10-day-old embryo culture of line 10 were applied to a cation exchange column. The bound fraction contained 30% of the amount of protein applied and could be completely eluted with a linear gradient of 0 to 0.1 M KCl. None of the eluted fractions, including those that contained peroxidase activity (Cordewener et al., 1991), had a positive effect on ts11 embryo development. The embryonic rescue activity remained present in the protein fraction not bound to the cation exchange column (data not shown). These proteins were then applied to a DEAE anion exchange column. Elution of the bound proteins with a linear gradient of 0 to 0.25 M KCl yielded seven major A280 peaks. All of the seven anion exchange column peak fractions were tested for ts11 embryo rescue activity. Only one protein fraction eluting at ~0.12 M KCl exhibited a rescue effect comparable to the effect of unfracionated medium proteins. This peak fraction contained several proteins (Figure 1A, lane 3). Separation of these proteins by Mono Q anion exchange chromatography yielded eight different fractions (Figure 1A, lanes 4 to 11), each of which was analyzed for ts11 embryo rescue activity. Only one fraction, eluting at 0.145 M KCl, promoted the transition of globular into torpedo-shaped embryos with an efficiency comparable to the unfracionated mixture (Figure 1A, lane 11). SDS-PAGE of this fraction showed two protein bands with apparent molecular masses of 32 and 35 kD. The adjacent fraction (Figure 1A, lane 8) contained predominantly the 35-kD protein and only a low amount of the 32-kD protein. The latter fraction had a marginal effect on ts11 embryo progression, which suggested that the 32-kD protein is mainly responsible for the embryonic rescue effect. This was further supported by the fact that, whereas both the 32- and 35-kD proteins reacted with the glucose- and mannose-specific lectin concanavalin A, only the 32-kD protein reacted with a fucose-specific lectin (Figure 1B). The involvement of the 32-kD protein in the ts11 embryo rescue would therefore be in line with the interpretation that this protein may play a role in the sequential development of embryonic tissues.
with the observation of Lo Schiavo et al. (1990) that, whereas core glycosylation of secreted proteins in ts11 is not affected, glycoprotein processing steps that result in the addition of fucose are affected in ts11 at 32°C. Media supplemented only with the appropriate amounts of column buffer did not have an effect on ts11 embryo development.

So far we had only looked at the effect of the protein fractions upon the transition from globular to heart stage embryos. When the 32-kD glycoprotein-containing fractions were added directly to a newly initiated ts11 embryo culture, a quite dramatic effect on the development of globular ts11 embryos was observed as shown in Figure 2. In a ts11 embryo culture grown at 24°C, normal globular stage embryos developed, whereas at 32°C irregular shaped globular embryos developed (Figure 2A). But when the 32-kD glycoprotein-containing fractions were added, normal globular embryos that were able to develop into heart (Figure 2B) and later into torpedo stage embryos were formed. This result indicated that the rescue activity of the added proteins may also be necessary before the late globular embryo stage.

To confirm that the same proteins able to rescue ts11 embryos are also present in the embryogenic carrot cell line A+, we have fractionated and tested secreted proteins from this line. Presumably due to the presence in reduced amounts of the 35-kD glycoprotein in media of the line A+, we could use the basic purification scheme as described above to obtain a protein fraction that contained only the 32-kD glycoprotein as seen on a silver-stained SDS-polyacrylamide gel (data not shown). The purity of this 32-kD glycoprotein preparation was further analyzed by two-dimensional PAGE and showed the presence of two protein spots (Figure 1C). V8-protease digestion of the individual protein spots cut from a two-dimensional gel showed identical digestion profiles, which indicated that both glycoproteins share the same protein core and represent two closely related variants that only differ in their isoelectric points. Both glycoproteins were fucosylated as revealed by appropriate lectin staining (data not shown).

Both the 32- and the 35-kD glycoproteins were added separately to newly initiated ts11 embryo cultures at day 0. The results, as presented in Figures 2C and 2D, clearly showed that only in the presence of the 32-kD glycoprotein correctly formed ts11 globular embryos developed. These globular embryos were subsequently able to develop into the heart and torpedo stages. This result confirmed the previous assumption (cf. Figure 1A, lane 7) that only the 32-kD glycoprotein is required for embryo rescue. Optimal rescue activity of the 32-kD glycoprotein was observed as a concentration-dependent optimum in a broad range between 0.035 and 0.25 μg/mL or from 1 to 9 nM. Heat treatment (10 min at 80°C) abolished the rescue activity. The addition of neither the 32- nor the 35-kD glycoprotein to manually isolated globular embryos from wild-type lines had any visible effect on embryo development in this line.

The main morphological effect of the 32-kD glycoprotein on the ts11 globular embryo appeared to be a restoration of the embryo protoderm, as opposed to the lack of proper protoderm formation in ts11 cultures supplemented with only the 35-kD glycoprotein (cf. Figure 2C). Apart from the aberrant protoderm, accumulation and oxidation of probably phenolic compounds are also features of arrested ts11 embryos. This phenomenon, visible as dark brown ts11 embryos, did not occur in ts11 embryos supplemented with the pure 32-kD glycoprotein and might be a secondary effect of the lack of a proper protoderm.

We conclude from these results that rescue of ts11 embryos at the nonpermissive temperature of 32°C can be achieved by the addition of a single 32-kD glycoprotein secreted into the culture medium. Because the rescued embryos are able to develop into the heart stage, we propose that the lack of correct protoderm formation at the preglobular stage is the cause of the inability of ts11 embryos to develop beyond the globular stage.

The Secreted 32-kD Glycoprotein Is an Acidic Endochitinase

To identify the 32-kD glycoprotein, we tried to determine its amino acid sequence. Because it was blocked at the N terminus, the protein was blotted onto a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane after two-dimensional PAGE. Both spots (cf. Figure 1C) were cut together from the membrane, pooled from several two-dimensional gels, and digested with trypsin. The resulting tryptic fragments were eluted from the membranes, separated by HPLC, and subjected to N-terminal sequencing according to Bau et al. (1987). No evidence was found for more than one protein core, which supports the results after V8-protease digestion of the individual spots. The amino acid sequences of the two 32-kD peptides analyzed were found to share homology with several plant endochitinases as shown in Figure 3.

To determine whether the 32-kD glycoprotein exhibits chitinase activity, two different enzyme assays were performed. After electrophoresis of the purified 32-kD glycoprotein in a native polyacrylamide gel, the gel was overlaid with a glycol chitin gel. Clearing of the glycol chitin substrate coincided with the single silver-stained band of the 32-kD glycoprotein, which indicates that the 32-kD glycoprotein indeed has chitinase activity as shown in Figure 4A, lanes 1 and 2. The second assay, employing 3H-labeled chitin, showed the release of 3H-N-acetylglucosamine with a specific activity of 60 nkat/mg for the 32-kD chitinase (Figure 4B). Analysis by thin-layer chromatography of the soluble products, which were derived from the 3H-labeled, high-molecular mass chitin after prolonged incubation with the 32-kD chitinase, showed the presence of dimers, trimers, and tetramers but no monomers of 3H-N-acetylglucosamine (Figure 4C). This indicates that the 32-kD glycoprotein only has endochitinase activity. Isoelectric focusing of the purified 32-kD endochitinase revealed a pI of 3.6; therefore, it belongs to the secreted acidic endochitinases. The 32-kD endochitinase had the ability to bind high molecular weight chitin, but a lysozyme-like activity could not be detected (A. J. De Jong, K. M. Kragh, and S. C. De Vries, Chitinase Rescues Arrested Somatic Embryos 427
Figure 2. Effect of Secreted Proteins Purified from Wild-Type Embryo Culture Medium on the Development of ts11 Embryos at the Nonpermissive Temperature of 32°C.

(A) Aberrant globular embryo in a 4-week-old ts11 embryo culture. Bar = 180 μm.
(B) Globular and heart stage embryos in a 4-week-old embryo culture to which 0.1 μg each of the 32- and 35-kD glycoproteins had been added per milliliter of culture medium. Bar = 200 μm.
(C) Globular embryo in a 14-day-old embryo culture to which 0.1 μg of pure 35-kD glycoprotein had been added per milliliter of culture medium. Bar = 180 μm.
(D) Globular embryo in a 14-day-old embryo culture to which 0.1 μg of pure 32-kD glycoprotein had been added per milliliter of culture medium. Bar = 180 μm.
unpublished results). An unusual feature of the 32-kD endo-
chitinase is the presence of complex glycans, as indicated by
staining with several lectins (cf. Figure 1B). All chitinases
thus far described are devoid of complex-type N-linked carbo-
hydrates.

Comparison of the unfraccionated mixture of secreted gly-
coproteins in the medium conditioned by an A+ wild-type
embryo culture with the purified 32-kD endochitinase showed the presence of at least five other acidic chitinases (Figure 4A, lanes 3 and 4). In that the 32-kD endochitinase activity was not visible in the unfraccionated protein preparation, it was evident that the 32-kD endochitinase activity is only minor compared with the total chitinase activity in the conditioned medium. None of these other carrot chitinases has been found to have rescue activity when added to arrested ts11 embryos. In addition, a bacterial exochitinase from Streptomyces griseus, a 36-kD basic endochitinase from barley suspension cultures (Kragh et al., 1991), a 28-kD basic endochitinase from sugar beet (Mikkelsen et al., 1992), and a 26-kD acidic endochitinase from tomato leaves (Joosten and De Wit, 1989) were tested, but no effect was observed on the development of ts11 embryos comparable to the effect of the 32-kD carrot endochitinase (data not shown). Taken together, we conclude that the 32-kD endochitinase has a specific function in carrot somatic embryo development that cannot be substituted by other members of the plant endochitinase family.

DISCUSSION

Previously, it was shown that the temperature-sensitive arrest in the carrot cell mutant ts11 can be overcome by the addition to the culture medium of a mixture of proteins secreted by wild-
type embryo cultures (Lo Schiavo et al., 1990). In this study, we have shown that a single secreted glycoprotein is responsible for this effect. This protein was then identified as an acidic endochitinase of 32 kD, bearing complex-type carbohydrate side chains.

In many studies, it has been reported that plant-produced hydrolases like chitinases and β-1,3-glucanases are part of a defense mechanism against attack by pathogenic organisms (Schlumbaum et al., 1986; Mauch et al., 1988). Chitinase activity is increased upon wounding and by fungal elicitors (Hedrick et al., 1988; Kurosaki et al., 1990) and is part of the hypersensitive response to pathogen attack (Metraux and Boller, 1986). The biochemical basis of this function is believed to reside in the ability of some plant-produced chitinases and β-1,3-glucanases to partially degrade fungal cell walls (Broekaert et al., 1988). However, several of the isolated plant chitinases do not possess antifungal activity in vitro (Wo|oshuk et al., 1991). Chitinase genes were also shown to be expressed in the absence of pathogens (Shinshi et al., 1987; Lotan et al., 1989; Kragh et al., 1990), a finding that is usually explained by assuming that they are part of a continuously present defense mechanism. Some of the chitinase genes appear to be expressed in a tissue-specific manner. A basic chitinase gene is expressed in the epidermis cells of healthy tobacco leaves (Keefe et al., 1990), whereas another basic chitinase gene is expressed in transmitting tissue of the style in tomato flowers (Harikrishna et al., 1991). In addition, chitinase genes are among the first genes whose expression is enhanced after treatment of tobacco epidermal peels with auxin and cytokinin (Meeks-Wagner et al., 1989; Neale et al., 1990). Therefore, it appears reasonable to assume that plant-produced chitinases

![Graph](https://example.com/graph.png)

**Figure 4.** Chitinase Activity of the 32-kD Glycoprotein. 

(A) Chitinase activity in a gel containing 0.01% (w/v) glycol chitin as substrate. Open arrowheads indicate degradation of high molecular mass chitin visualized by the reduction of calcofluor white fluorescence. Lanes 1 and 2 each contain 0.1 μg of the purified 32-kD glycoprotein; lanes 3 and 4 each contain 10 μg of concentrated secreted medium proteins of a wild-type embryo culture. Lanes 1 and 3 are silver-stained gel lanes, and lanes 2 and 4 show glycol chitin patterns. 

(B) Formation of 3H-N-acetylglucosamine residues after incubation of 3H-labeled chitin with 0.3 μg of carrot 32-kD glycoprotein (●) or with 0.2 μg of exochitinase from Seratia marcescens (○) as a function of time. 3H-N-acetylglucosamine residues released in controls with no protein added were <1% of the input of 3H-labeled chitin and have been subtracted.

(C) Separation by thin-layer chromatography of water-soluble 3H-N-acetylglucosamine residues released after prolonged incubation of 3H-labeled chitin with the carrot 32-kD endochitinase. Lane 1, monomer 3H-N-acetylglucosamine; lane 2, released products after incubation of 3H-labeled chitin with 2 μg of the carrot 32-kD endochitinase for 4 hr at 30°C.
may have other functions apart from their role in a defense mechanism.

In this study, we have not been able to demonstrate directly that the catalytic properties of the 32-kD endochitinase are required for the observed positive effect on the development of tsll embryos. If this is indeed the case, then what is the possible substrate for this enzyme in the plant cell wall? The presumed natural substrate for chitinases, high molecular mass chitin, is not considered to be a constituent of higher plant cell walls. Employing cytochemical labeling, Benhamou and Asselin (1989) were able to show binding of chitinases and wheat germ agglutinin, a plant lectin that is specific for oligomers of N-acetylglucosamine, to secondary cell walls. Employing cytochemical labeling, Benhamou and Asselin (1989) were able to show binding of chitinases and wheat germ agglutinin, a plant lectin that is specific for oligomers of N-acetylglucosamine, to secondary cell walls of a variety of Solanaceae in the absence of pathogens. Although no biochemical identification of this material was performed, their results imply that in plant secondary cell walls, oligomers of N-acetylglucosamine are present. If oligomers of at least three N-acetylglucosamines are present, they might be putative substrates for plant endochitinases because three residues are the minimum sugar chain length required to serve as a substrate for endochitinases (Molano et al., 1979; Usui et al., 1990). Despite the fact that the substrate specificity of a wheat germ endochitinase is restricted to β-(1,4)-linked N-acetylglucosamines (Molano et al., 1979), it cannot be excluded that other β-(1,4)-linked sugars or combinations of different sugars might serve as substrate for other members of the chitinase family. If for instance the two N-acetylglucosamines, flanked by asparagine and mannose, which are present in all the inner cores of N-linked carbohydrate chains of glycoproteins, could be cleaved, then this would considerably broaden the range of potential substrates for the 32-kD endochitinase described in this work.

Our morphological observations indicate that tsll globular embryos that developed after the addition of the 32-kD endochitinase have a properly formed protoderm, whereas tsll globular embryos that developed in the absence of the 32-kD endochitinase have an aberrantly formed protoderm. This implies that the putative substrate of the 32-kD endochitinase in the plant cell wall has to be accessible, which points to a location at the cell walls of the peripheral cells of the embryo, and that this substrate is required for the formation of a proper protoderm. As was previously noted for the ability of a 38-kD peroxidase to restore somatic embryogenesis in tunicamycin-inhibited cultures (Cordewener et al., 1991), a concentration-dependent optimum of the rescue activity was found. Although, at present, we lack a clear explanation for these findings, it may point to a dual activity of these proteins, either in terms of their substrate specificity or in their temporal requirement during embryo development. Further evidence for the disturbed protoderm formation in tsll globular embryos was obtained when the presence of glycoproteins reacting with concanavalin A was analyzed in sections of arrested tsll embryos (Lo Schiavo et al., 1990). In that work, it was argued that concanavalin A–stainable glycoproteins were distributed in a diffuse manner throughout the arrested tsll globular embryo, instead of being restricted to the protoderm, as was found in wild-type globular embryos. A similar result was obtained by in situ localization of the epidermis-specific EP2 mRNA. In wild-type embryos, the EP2 mRNA was restricted to the embryo protoderm, but appeared more diffuse in several subprotodermal cell layers in arrested tsll globular embryos (Sterk et al., 1991). Taken together, we conclude that protoderm formation is an essential step in the formation of globular somatic embryos and a prerequisite for development to subsequent embryonic stages.

METHODS

Plant Material and Culture Conditions

The embryogenic wild-type carrot suspension cultures 10 and A+ as well as the temperature-sensitive mutant tsll were maintained as described previously (Giuliano et al., 1984; De Vries et al., 1988a).

tsll Embryo Rescue Assays

Rescue assays were performed with tsll globular embryos or with newly initiated tsll embryo cultures. tsll embryo cultures were initiated by resuspending the 70- to 170-μm fraction, enriched for proembryogenic masses, of a 6-day-old tsll suspension culture. Globular embryos were manually isolated from tsll embryo cultures grown at 24°C. Unfractionated (50 to 100 μg/mL) and fractionated (1 to 10 μg/mL) extracellular proteins were mixed in three different amounts (10, 20, and 40 μL) with 1 mL of basal B5 medium (Gamborg, 1970), filter sterilized (0.2 μm, type FF0303; Schleicher & Schuell), and added to 35-mm-diameter Petri dishes (tissue culture quality; Greiner, Alphen a/d Rijn, The Netherlands) in duplicate. Subsequently, 1 mL of basal B5 medium with 30 isolated tsll globular embryos or 1 mL of a diluted proembryogenic mass-enriched fraction at 6000 cell clusters per mL (Lo Schiavo et al., 1990) was added. Each series of experiments included negative controls of unsupplemented basal B5 medium and basal B5 medium to which an appropriate column buffer had been added. In assays with Streptomyces griseus exochitinase (Sigma) and heterologous chitinases, the proteins were added to tsll embryo cultures in the same concentration range as the 32-kD carrot endochitinase. All assays were then incubated at the nonpermissive temperature of 32°C. Positive control cultures consisted of tsll globular embryos in unsupplemented basal B5 medium or unsupplemented newly initiated tsll embryo cultures incubated at 24°C. The newly initiated tsll embryo cultures were examined under a microscope after 14 days for the formation of proper globular embryos. All cultures were followed at regular intervals for up to 2 months after initiation. Only the results obtained from at least three independent experiments with a protein concentration that gave optimal rescue activity are presented here.

Protein Purification

Conditioned medium was obtained from a 9-day-old embryo culture by filtration through Whatman 1 MM paper followed by a 0.2-μm Durapore (polyvinylidene difluoride [PVDF]) filter using a Minitan pressure filtrator (Millipore, Etten-Leur, The Netherlands). The resulting cell-free
conditioned medium was concentrated ~200 times by pressure dialysis employing a YM5 filter (5-kD cutoff; Amicon, Oosterhout, The Netherlands) and equilibrated with the appropriate starting buffer for column fractionation. The extracellular proteins were then applied to a cation exchange column (S-Sepharose FF; Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology Inc., Uppsala, Sweden) and equilibrated in 50 mM Mes buffer, pH 5.8, and the absorbed proteins were eluted with a continuous linear salt gradient from 0 to 0.1 M KCl (total volume, 100 mL; flow rate, 40 mL/hr). Fractions of 4 mL were collected and monitored at 280 nm. Unabsorbed proteins were applied to a DEAE-Sepharose FF (Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology Inc.) anion exchange column equilibrated in 25 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.5, and eluted with a linear salt gradient from 0 to 0.25 M KCl with a total volume of 100 mL. Fractions of 4 mL were collected at a flow rate of 40 mL/hr. Final purification was performed by fast-protein liquid chromatography (Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology Inc.) employing anion exchange chromatography with a Mono Q column (Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology Inc.) equilibrated in the same buffer as was used for the DEAE-Sepharose column. For large-scale purification of the 32-kD endochitinase, batch-wise absorption to DEAE-Sepharose FF resin was used. The cell-free conditioned medium was filtered as described above and then adjusted to pH 6.6 with solid Tris. Fifty milliliters of DEAE-Sepharose FF suspension, equilibrated in 25 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.5, was added to 3 L of cell-free conditioned medium and incubated for 1 hr at 4°C on a rotary shaker. The DEAE-Sepharose FF resin was separated from the medium by filtration through a 10-μm mesh filter and incubated for 15 min in 30 mL of 25 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.5, 0.2 M KCl. The eluate was then diluted with 3 volumes of 25 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.5, and loaded on a DEAE-Sepharose FF column. Further purification was then performed as described above.

Amino Acid Sequence Determination

The 32-kD glycoprotein containing fast-protein liquid chromatography fractions was concentrated by centrifugation using Centricron tubes (10-kD cutoff; Amicon). Concentrated proteins were subsequently separated on two-dimensional polyacrylamide gels as described by De Vries et al. (1982). Isoelectric focusing was performed within the pH range of 3 to 6. Two-dimensional gels were blotted overnight at 4°C on PVDF membranes with 25 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.5, was added to 3 L of cell-free conditioned medium and incubated for 1 hr at 4°C on a rotary shaker. The DEAE-Sepharose FF resin was separated from the medium by filtration through a 10-μm mesh filter and incubated for 15 min in 30 mL of 25 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.5, 0.2 M KCl. The eluate was then diluted with 3 volumes of 25 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.5, and loaded on a DEAE-Sepharose FF column. Further purification was then performed as described above.

Biochemical Characterization

SDS-PAGE was carried out according to Laemmli (1970). After electrophoresis, the gels were silver stained according to Blum et al. (1987). Protein determination was done by comparing the intensity of the Coomassie Brilliant Blue R 250-stained protein band in a polyacrylamide gel with a concentration range of bovine serum albumin in the same gel.

Lectin staining of the proteins on blots was performed according to Clegg (1982). Biotinylated lectins (concanavalin A, specific for glucose and mannose, and Ulex europaeus agglutinin I, specific for fucose; both from Sigma) were used in a concentration of 5 μg/mL in PBS followed by an incubation with 1 μg/mL avidin-labeled peroxidase (Sigma) in PBS. The blots were subsequently stained for peroxidase activity using 0.2 mg/mL 3-aminophenyl-5-phenyl tetrazolium chloride in 50 mM NaAc, pH 5.0, 0.01% H2O2.

To detect chitinase activity of the 32-kD glycoprotein in the gel, the protein was run on a native polyacrylamide gel (Laemmli, 1970, without SDS and β-mercaptoethanol). A glycol chitin gel was overlaid on the native gel and incubated at 30°C for 2 hr. The glycol chitin was stained with calcofluor white M2R, and chitinase activity was visible as a nonfluorescent dark band in contrast to the fluorescent intact glycol chitin (Trudel and Asselin, 1989).

The radiometric chitinase activity assay employed regenerated 3H-labeled chitin as a substrate (Molano et al., 1977). The specific radioactivity of the 3H-labeled chitin used was 338 cpmmol N-acetylglucosamine equivalents or 1.7 x 10⁶ cpmmg 3H-labeled chitin. The reaction mixture consisted of 50 μL of 3H-labeled chitin suspension containing 200,000 cpm, 50 mM potassium phosphate, pH 6.3, and protein in a final volume of 300 μL. After incubation at 30°C for 0.5 to 2 hr, 300 μL of 10% trichloroacetic acid was added. After centrifugation for 10 min at 16,000g, the radioactivity of 300 μL of the supernatant was used for scintillation counting. The exocellulase from Serratia marcescens (Sigma) was used as a control. The products of the chitinase reaction were analyzed by thin-layer chromatography according to Bolier et al. (1983).

Chitin binding activity was determined by using a column of regenerated chitin according to Molano et al. (1979). To detect possible lysozyme activity of the 32-kD endochitinase, a native polyacrylamide gel was overlaid with a polyacrylamide gel containing lyophilized Micrococcus luteus cells. Lysozyme activity was then visible as clear or opalescent bands within the opaque greyish substrate (Audy et al., 1989).

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