

# Changes in the 2-DE protein profile during zygotic embryogenesis in the Brazilian Pine (Araucaria angustifolia)

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#### ABSTRACT

Araucaria angustifolia is the only native conifer of economic importance in the Brazilian Atlantic Rainforest. Due to a clear-cutting form of exploitation this species has received the status of vulnerable. The aim of this work was to investigate and characterize changes in protein expression profile during seed development of this endangered species. For this, the proteome of developing seeds was characterized by 2-DE and LC-MS/MS. Ninety six proteins were confidently identified and classified according to their biological function and expression profile. Overaccumulated proteins in early seed development indicated a higher control on oxidative stress metabolism during this phase. In contrast, highly expressed proteins in late stages revealed an active metabolism, leading to carbon assimilation and storage compounds accumulation. Comprehensive protein expression profiles and identification of overaccumulated proteins provide new insights into the process of embryogenesis in this recalcitrant species. Considerations on the improvement and control of somatic embryogenesis through medium manipulation and protein markers screening using data generated are also discussed.

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## 1. Introduction

Araucaria angustifolia (Bert) O. Ktze is the only native conifer of economic importance in the Brazilian Atlantic Rainforest. Originally, the forests of A. angustifolia covered an area of 20 million hectares in Brazil [1,2]. A clear-cutting form of exploitation and the spread of agriculture reduced their original area to 1–2% and drove this species to the status of vulnerable [2]. Seeds of A. angustifolia are recalcitrant, desiccation-sensitive, and non-dormant which currently hampers their storage and utilization in large-scale conservation programs [3,4]. Seed development is one the major subjects in plant physiological research. Increasing numbers of data are now retrievable from large-scale analyses of gene expression during this process. In the context of proteomics, however, most of available information is derived from studies of model or grain species, which presents a desiccation phase at the end of seed filling and a quiescent state at maturation [5–7]. The only attempt to study seed proteome in a recalcitrant tree species was carried out in *Fagus sylvatica*, a Fagaceae species, during dormancy breaking [8].

To date there have been few studies concerning to proteome analysis in conifers. Costa et al. [9] and Gion et al. [10] carried out

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comparative analyses in wood forming tissue. Lippert et al. [11] and Wang et al. [12] studied plant host interactions in *Picea* sitchensis and *Pinus nigra*, while Fernando [13] and Wagner et al. [14] identified several proteins related to conifer sexual reproduction aspects. Dong et al. [15], studying the somatic embryogenesis of *Picea glauca*, reported the appearance of several new proteins in response to removal of phytohormones from the culture medium prior to abscisic acid stimulation during the maturation process in somatic embryos.

The only attempts to understand the changes in protein expression during the zygotic embryogenesis in conifer species were carried out in *P. glauca* [16], *Cupressus sempervirens* [17] and *A. angustifolia*, in which protein expression between the early and late stages of embryogenesis using 2-DE and PMF for protein identification was carried out [18] and patterns of chitinases and arabinogalactan proteins expression during seed development were also investigated [19]. As for protein changes on the whole level, there are no reports.

In the present study we conducted a proteomic analysis of *A. angustifolia* seed development and aimed to investigate and characterize changes in the protein expression patterns throughout the process studied. Protein expression profiling provided new insights into the process of embryogenesis in this and other recalcitrant seeds, and a background for future improvement and control of somatic embryogenesis for in vitro scale up propagation, through medium manipulation and protein markers screening.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Plant material

Seeds of A. angustifolia were harvested in the Santa Catarina State, Brazil (27°47′S, 49°29′W), from December 2006 to May 2007 and embryos at the stages of proembryo (1), globular (2), torpedo (3), early-cotyledonary (4), late-cotyledonary (5) and mature (6) were morphologically determined according to Astarita et al. [20]. Due to the small size and the low protein recovery of proembryo, globular and torpedo embryos, these were together extracted with megagametophyte tissues. Megagametophytes and the zygotic embryos from stages 4, 5 and 6 were individualized under a dissecting microscope (Fig. 1). All materials were stored at –80 °C prior to analysis.

#### 2.2. Protein extraction

Protein extracts were prepared in biological triplicates for each time point. Due to the changes in seed tissues fresh weight (FW) throughout seed development (Table 1S), each biological sample was prepared from a bulk of, at least, 15 seeds and grounded to a fine powder under liquid nitrogen. For protein extraction 300 mg of each grounded and mixed sample powders were transferred into clear 2 mL microtubes containing 1.5 mL of extraction buffer (7 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 1% DTT, 2% triton X-100, 0.5% pharmalyte (GE Healthcare, Freiburg, Germany), 1 mM PMSF, 5  $\mu$ M pepstatin). All extracts were briefly vortexed and kept in the extraction buffer, standing on ice, for 30 min followed by centrifugation at 12,000 g for 5 min at

#### EARLY EMBRYOGENESIS

#### LATE EMBRYOGENESIS



Fig. 1 – The development of Araucaria angustifolia tissues during zygotic embryogenesis. Proembryo (A), globular (B), torpedo (C), early-cotyledonary (D, E), late-cotyledonary (F, G) and mature (H, I) stages. Bars: 0.7 cm.

4 °C. The supernatants were transferred to clear microtubes and proteins were precipitated in ice, for 30 min, in trichloroacetic acid (10%) and washed three times with cold acetone. Finally, proteins were re-suspended and concentrated in 0.5 mL of the same extraction buffer, with addition of 0.5% immobilized pH gradient (IPG) buffer (pH 4–7) (GE Healthcare) instead of pharmalyte. Protein concentration was estimated by 2-D Quant Kit (GE Healthcare) and samples were stored at – 20 °C until 2-DE.

#### 2.3. Two dimensional gel electrophoresis

Two 2D gels were performed to each biological sample. Sample aliquots containing 180  $\mu$ g of proteins were used to 2-DE. Prior to this assay protein extracts were separated across a broad-range pH 3–10 IPG strip and resulted in low resolution gels, especially those from early seed development stages (Fig. 1S), containing spots preferentially distributed in the range of pH 4–7. Aiming a better 2-DE spot resolution for comparative analysis and gel excision for mass spectrometer analysis the use of IPGs with a linear separation range of pH 4–7 was chosen. Prior to loading in 18 cm IPG strips, small volumes of rehydration buffer (7 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 2% CHAPS, 0.5% IPG buffer (pH 4–7), 1% DTT, 0.002%

bromophenol blue) were added to the sample aliquots in order to achieve a final volume of 375 µL. After 12 h in gel rehydration, isoelectric focusing was performed on an IPGphor II apparatus (GE Healthcare) for a total of 35 kVh at 20 °C. IPG strips were then subjected to reduction, alkylation by 2×15 min incubations with buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 6 M urea, 30% glycerol, 2% SDS, 0.002% bromophenol blue) containing 125 mM DTT for the first incubation and 125 mM iodoacetamide for the second. Then, strips were applied to the top of a 12% polyacrylamide gel. Second dimension electrophoresis was carried out at 25 mA per gel in a Protean II apparatus (Bio-Rad, Hercules, US) and gels were silver-stained, according to Shevchenko et al. [21].

#### 2.4. Spot matching

Duplicated silver-stained 2D gels from each of the three biological samples were analyzed using the Image Master Platinum v. 6 software (GE Healthcare). The spot detection parameters were optimized by checking different protein spots in certain regions of the gel and then automatically detected, followed by visual inspection for removal or addition of undetected spots. For 2-DE characterization representative in silico images were obtained, containing only spots that were detected in all six repetitions. For this, the processed gels were automatically matched in order to attribute a common spot identity for the same spot derived from different gels and visually inspected for improper spot matches. In silico images were then used for all 2-DE gels characterization.

#### 2.5. In gel digestion of proteins

In-gel protein digestion was performed as described in Shevchenko et al. [22]. Individual protein spots were excised from a gel slab using a clean scalpel, cut into ca. 1×1 mm pieces and placed into 600 µL microtubes. Gel pieces were dehydrated in 500  $\mu$ L acetonitrile for 10 min and then reduced in 50  $\mu$ L of a DTT solution (10 mM DTT in 100 mM ammonium bicarbonate) for 30 min at 56 °C, followed by a dehydration step in acetonitrile for 10 min. For alkylation, 50  $\mu L$  of 55 mM iodoacetamide in 100 mM ammonium bicarbonate was added and gel pieces incubated at room temperature in the dark. Prior to addition of sequencing grade porcine trypsin (Promega, Madison, USA) at 16 ng  $\mu$ L<sup>-1</sup>, gel pieces were dehydrated by acetonitrile. After 120 min, samples were placed into an air circulation thermostat and incubated overnight at 37 °C. Upon in-gel digestion, gel pieces were saturated with 100 µL of extraction buffer 5% formic acid (FA): acetonitrile (1:2, v/v) and incubated for 15 min at 37 °C in shaker. Supernatants were then collected, pooled together and ... dried down in a vacuum centrifuge. For LC-MS/MS analyses 0.05% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) (10 µL) was added into the dried tubes, incubated for 2 min and vortexed for 10 min at 7 g.

#### 2.6. LC-MS/MS

LC-MS/MS was performed on an Ultimate 3000 nanoLC system (Dionex, Sunnyvale, USA), which was interfaced to a LTQ Orbitrap hybrid mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) via a robotic nanoflow ion source TriVersa (Advion BioSciences, NY, USA). Ionization voltage was set to 1.7 kV and the capillary transfer temperature was set at 180 °C.

For each round of analysis 4 µL of the tryptic peptides were loaded onto 5 mm  $\times$  300  $\mu$ m id trapping column packed with C18 PepMAP100 5 µm particles (Dionex) in 0.05% TFA at the flow rate of 20  $\mu$ L min<sup>-1</sup>. After 6 min peptides were eluted into 15 cm  $\times$  75  $\mu$ m id nanocolumn packed with C18 PepMAP100 3  $\mu$ m particles (Dionex) at the flow rate of 200 nL min<sup>-1</sup> and separated using the following mobile phase gradient: from 5 to 20% of solvent B in 20 min, 20 to 50% B in 16 min, 50 to 100% B in 5 min, 100% B during 10 min, and back to 5% B in 10 min. Solvent A was 95:5 water: acetonitrile (v/v) containing 0.1% FA; solvent B was 20:80 water: acetonitrile (v/v) containing 0.1% FA. MS data were acquired in data-dependent acquisition (DDA) mode controlled by Xcalibur 2.0 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The automated gain control (AGC) was set to  $5 \times 10^5$ charges for survey scan on the Orbitrap and  $5 \times 10^4$  charges for MS/MS on the ion trap analyzers. Typical data-dependent acquisition (DDA) cycle consisted of a survey scan within m/z300 to 1600 performed at the Orbitrap analyzer under the target mass resolution of 60,000 (FWHM, full width at half maximum) followed by MS/MS fragmentation of the four most abundant precursor ions under the normalized collision energy of 35% in the linear trap. Singly charged ions were excluded from MS/MS experiments, and m/z of fragmented precursor ions were dynamically excluded for further 90 s. MS/ MS spectra were exported as .dta files, using BioWorks 3.1 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

#### 2.7. MS data analysis

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MS/MS spectra queries were filtered against a library of more than 15,000 non-annotated background spectra using Eagle-Eye software as described in Junqueira et al. [23]. Background spectra recognized by EagleEye were removed, while the remaining genuine spectra were merged into a single .mgf (MASCOT generic format) file and searched against a MSDB database (2.344.227 sequence entries; updated April, 2006) by MASCOT v. 2.1 software (Matrix Science Ltd., London, UK) installed on a local 2 CPU server. Tolerances for precursor and



embryo and megagametophyte tissues, respectively.

fragment masses were set at 10 parts per million (ppm) and 0.6 Da, respectively. Up to 2 missed cleavages were allowed and the following parameters were used for database searches: instrument profile: ESI-Trap; fixed modification: carbamidomethyl (cysteine); variable modification: oxidation (methionine) and acetylation of the N-terminal peptide of protein sequence entry were set as variable modifications. MASCOT identifications of proteins were considered confident if hits were produced by matching of at least three MS/MS spectra with peptide ions scores above 20. For hits matched by one or two spectra it was required that at least one spectrum should be matched with score of 50 or better [24].

In parallel to stringent database search, de novo sequencing was performed as described by Waridel et al. [25]. After EagleEye spectra filtering the remaining MS/MS spectra (represented by .dta files) obtained in each LC-MS/MS experiment were interpreted de novo by a modified version of PepNovo software [26]. For each spectrum, PepNovo reported the expected confidence of produced sequence candidates by assigning a quality score, which stands for the expected number of confidently called amino acid residues. Unless specified otherwise, in de novo sequencing experiments, we only considered sequence candidates having the score of 6.0 or above [27]. For MS BLAST searches, all selected peptide sequence candidates obtained by PepNovo sequencing of all peptide precursors, were merged into a single MS BLAST query string and searches were performed against nr database at the web-accessible server at http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/ msblast, applying LC-MS/MS presets as described by Junqueira et al. [28].

#### 2.8. Protein expression profiling

To access information on similarities among protein expression profiles, we used the hierarchical clustering software EPCLUST, available at URL: http://www.bioinf.ebc.ee/EP/EP/ EPCLUST/. For this, normalized spot volumes from representative in silico images from the same protein accession within



Fig. 3 – In silico 2-DE images of proteins extracted during Araucaria angustifolia seed development. Images represent the expression of protein profiles in proembryo (A), globular (B), torpedo (C), early-cotyledonary (D, E), late-cotyledonary (F, G), mature (H, I) stages. The pH gradient and position of Mr are indicated at the top and sides of gel images, respectively.

## Table 1 – Number of common spots detected in different stage gels during zygotic embryogenesis in Araucaria angustifolia.

Stage of development <sup>a, b, c</sup>	Co	Common spots <sup>b</sup>							
	EM	E	М						
Early embryogenesis									
1 (EM: 426)–2 (EM: 425)	203	-	-						
2 (EM: 425)–3 (EM: 353)	179	-	-						
Late embryogenesis									
4 (E: 955, M: 545)–5 (E: 773, M: 473)	-	414	167						
5 (E: 773, M: 473)–6 (E: 496, M: 427)	-	235	175						

Spots presented in each in silico images were detected in all six gels repetitions.

<sup>a</sup> 1=proembryo, 2=globular, 3=torpedo, 4=early-cotyledonary,

5=late-cotyledonary, 6=mature.

<sup>b</sup> Number of detected spots in each in silico image is presented in parenthesis.

<sup>c</sup> EM = embryo and megagametophyte, E = embryo,

M = megagametophyte.

and between embryo and megagametophyte tissues were summed and converted to log<sub>2</sub> transformed data. The Euclidian distances and UPGMA algorithm were used for the analysis.

### 3. Results and discussion

## 3.1. Protein content and two-dimensional gels characterization

Measurements of extracted protein content during A. angustifolia seed development revealed an increase of almost 17-fold in protein content (Fig. 2). The highest amount of protein was detected during seed filling, when embryos reached the latecotyledonary stage (19  $\mu$ g mg<sup>-1</sup> FW). Although this species produce starchy seeds, Panza et al. [3] demonstrated the presence of protein storage vacuoles in A. angustifolia mature cotyledons and embryo axis, suggesting that embryos accumulate storage proteins. Due to this feature and the absence of a quiescence stage in this species [4] a plateau in protein content was expected after seed filling; however, protein profile showed a decrease in protein levels in mature seeds, indicating that the protein burst observed in late-cotyledonary stage may be mostly due to an increase in translational processes, and possible of metabolic activity, that takes place during seed filling. In accordance with this result, total protein spot detection analysis of representative in silico images (Fig. 3) showed that spot number increased almost three folds between torpedo tissues (353 spots) and early-cotyledonary stage embryo (955 spots) gels (Table 1).

## 3.2. Protein identification using combined MASCOT and MS BLAST searches

To ensure a good overview, in terms of pH and molecular weight, and to assess changes in metabolic protein profiles during *A. angustifolia* seed development, the 155 most abundant spots from globular and mature 2-DE gels were excised and in gel digested using trypsin (Fig. 4). For protein identification, MASCOT stringent database search and MS BLAST driven sequence similarity database search were used in a combined approach [28]. This combined strategy of peptide sequence analysis resulted in the identification of 56 spots in globular stage and 81 mature stage gels, from which 15 and 40 spots were exclusively detected in globular and mature gel stages, respectively (Table 2). This represents a



Fig. 4 – Reference 2-DE maps for globular (embryo+megagametophyte) and mature (embryo) tissues of Araucaria angustifolia seed development (pH 4–7 linear gradient). Proteins that were identified are marked with arrows and numbered in following Table 2.

Table 2 - List of identified proteins during seed development in Araucaria angustifolia via combined MASCOT stringent search and MS BLAST sequence-similarity search.																
Spot <sup>a</sup> Stage <sup>b</sup>		b	MASCOT search						MS BLAS	AST search				W (kDa)		pI
		Protein name	Accession number <sup>c</sup>	o Organism	Score <sup>d</sup>	Unique peptides <sup>e</sup>	Coverage (%)	Protein name	Accession number <sup>c</sup>	Organism	Matched queries <sup>g</sup>	Coverage <sup>h</sup> (%)	Theory	Observation	Theoretical	Experimental
Protein	fate															
16	G, M	Heat shock protein 17.0	Q40851	P. glauca	94	2	11	Heat shock protein 17.0	Q40851	P. glauca	3	23	17	17	5.8	5.7
36	М	Chloroplast chaperonin 21	Q6B4V3	V. vinifera	70	1	11	Putative chaperonin 21	Q6Y679	P. vittata	1	17	13	27	4.6	5.84
37	М	Peptidyl-prolyl cis–trans isomerase	P21568	S. lycopersicum	74	1	8	Peptidyl-prolyl cis–trans isomerase CYP20-2	Q9ASS6	A. thaliana	3	15	18	29	8.8	5.8
63	М	Putative elongation	Q6H4L2	O. sativa	164	3	3	OSJNBa0020P07.3	Q7XTK1	O. sativa	4	6	94	41	5.9	5.5
75	М	Protein disulfide	Q5EUD6	Z. mays	146	3	4	Putative disulfide-	Q75M08	O. sativa	3	9	40	47	6.3	5.6
88	G, M	Putative rubisco subunit binding- protein alpha subunit	Q8L5U4	A. thaliana	236	4	7	RuBisCO large subunit-binding protein subunit alpha	P21238	A. thaliana	10	19	62	63	5.1	4.7
89	G, M	Putative rubisco subunit binding- protein alpha subunit	Q8L5U4	A. thaliana	391	5	9	RuBisCO large subunit-binding protein subunit alpha	P21238	A. thaliana	21	43	62	61	5.1	4.7
91	G, M	Hsc70	Q40151	L. esculentum	454	8	20	Heat shock protein 70	Q40693	O. sativa	6	11	72	70	5.2	5.0
92	G, M	Hsc70	Q40151	L. esculentum	318	6	14	Heat shock protein 70	Q40693	O. sativa	4	8	72	70	5.2	4.9
93	G, M	Heat shock protein 60	Q8H6U4	P. dulcis	485	7	13	Heat shock	Q8H6U4	P. dulcis	16	33	58	61	5.3	5.6
95	G, M	Molecular chaperone Hsp90-1	Q6UJX6	N. benthamiana	975	20	22	Heat shock protein 83	P51819	I. nil	19	30	80	80	4.9	4.9
96	G, M	Heat shock	Q71EE1	H. brasiliensis	913	18	19	Heat shock protein 81-1	Q0J4P2	O. sativa	19	30	80	80	5.0	4.9
115	G	Protein disulfide isomerase	Q5EUD6	Z. mays	65	2	6	Probable protein disulfide- isomerase	P38661	M. sativa	3	8	40	52	6.3	5.6
133	G, M	Leucine aminopentidase 1	P30184	A. thaliana	245	5	10	Leucine aminopeptidase 1	P30184	A. thaliana	9	20	55	56	5.7	5.3
134	G	Heat shock protein 60	O8H6U4	P. dulcis	116	3	4	Heat shock protein 60	O8H6U4	P. dulcis	5	10	58	70	5.3	5.4
137	G, M	Putative TCP-1	Q6AV23	O. sativa	432	8	17	Putative TCP-1	Q6AV23	O. sativa	16	34	58	61	5.6	5.7
159	G, M	Putative elongation	Q6H4L2	O. sativa	164	3	3	OSJNBa0020P07.3	Q7XTK1	O. sativa	4	6	94	38	5.9	5.3
161	G	NI	-	-	-	-	-	70 kDa peptidyl-	Q38931	A. thaliana	3	5	62	82	5.2	5.2
188	М	NI	-	-	-	-	-	40S ribosomal	Q9XHS0	H. vulgare	5	41	15	16	5.4	5.1
189	М	Heat shock	Q40851	P. glauca	122	3	15	Heat shock	Q40851	P. glauca	4	32	17	17	5.8	4.8
192	М	20 kDa chaperonin	O65282	A. thaliana	110	3	6	Chloroplast	Q6B4V4	V. vinifera	8	36	27	26	8.9	5.1
195	G, M	Putative 60S acidic	Q8LNX8	Z. elegans	241	5	36	60S acidic	P50345	L. luteus	12	39	22	39	9.6	4.9
196	G, M	Putative 60S acidic ribosomal	Q8LNX8	Z. elegans	255	6	38	60S acidic ribosomal protein	O24573	Z. mays	12	44	22	39	9.6	5.2
210	G, M	protein P0 Translational elongation factor Tu	Q851Y8	O. sativa	503	9	22	P0 Translational elongation factor Tu	Q8W2C4	O. sativa	12	27	48	41	6.0	6.5

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Metabol	ism															
47	G, M	Putative uncharacterized protein	O04428	C. paradisi	291	5	17	Putative uncharacterized protein	O04428	C. paradisi	10	34	33	34	5.5	4.8
60	G. M	Cysteine synthase	P32260	S. oleracea	131	4	8	Cysteine synthase	O9XEA6	O. sativa	7	7	41	38	6.8	5.9
64	M	Glutamine synthetase	Q9AXD8	A. marina	498	10	17	Glutamine	Q9AXD8	A. marina	12	36	39	44	6.2	5.4
72	М	GDP-mannose-3,	Q93VR3	A. thaliana	143	3	7	GDP-mannose 3,	Q93VR3	A. thaliana	1	4	43	47	5.9	5.9
73	М	GDP-mannose-3,	Q93VR3	A. thaliana	395	7	20	GDP-mannose-3,	Q93VR3	A. thaliana	4	14	43	47	5.9	5.8
	<b>C</b> 14	5-epimerase	04114.04	Developerie	014	-	10	5-epimerase	DODOFO	16	0	c	54		5.0	5.0
//	G, M	Adenosylnomocysteinase	Q4HIGI	B. Vulgaris	211	5	13	Adenosylnomocysteinase	P93253	M. crystallinum	3	6	54	55	5.8	5.9
83	IVI	(Starch) cumthaga	Qarada	A.	213	4	6	(Starch) aunthoso	Qazada	A.	õ	10	67	20	7.6	5.3
84	М	Granule-bound starch	Q00775	S. tuberosum	60	1	3	Granule-bound starch	Q43092	P. sativum	2	4	67	58	6.9	5.2
94	G, M	Cytosolic	Q6S3D6	P. tomentosa	459	6	14	Phosphoglucomutase	P93804	Z. mays	15	27	63	66	5.5	5.5
112	G	phosphoglucomutase Type IIIa membrane	O24548	V. unguiculata	124	3	8	Type IIIa membrane	O24548	V. unguiculata	3	10	39	46	6.2	5.9
113	G	protein cp-wap13 Type IIIa membrane	O24548	V. unguiculata	358	8	30	protein cp-wap13 Type IIIa membrane	O24548	V. unguiculata	4	14	39	46	6.2	5.7
114	G	protein cp-wap13 Type IIIa membrane	024548	V unquiculata	323	8	28	protein cp-wap13 Putative reversibly	095890	A thaliana	3	10	39	46	62	5.6
	G	protein cp-wap13	021510	v. anguteutata	525	0	20	glycosylatable polypeptide	0,000	11. Unununu	5	10	55	10	0.2	5.0
123	G, M	Adenosylhomocysteinase	Q4H1G1	B. vulgaris	508	11	18	Adenosylhomocysteinase 1	023255	A. thaliana	8	16	54	55	5.8	5.7
138	G, M	Betaine-aldehyde dehydrogenase	Q6DQ92	M. acuminata	66	1	5	Betaine-aldehyde dehydrogenase	Q6DQ92	M. acuminata	6	26	29	59	6.3	5.6
140	G	NI	-	-	-	-	-	Putative alpha-	Q8VWV9	P. pinaster	2	31	101	104	6.3	5.6
141	G	Alpha-glucosidase 1	022444	A thaliana	59	1	1	Alpha-glucosidase 1	022444	A thaliana	1	1	101	105	5.6	57
142	G	Alpha glucosidase 1	022444	A thaliana	54	1	1	Alpha-glucosidase 1	022444	A thaliana	2	2	101	105	5.6	5.8
143	G, M	Cobalamin-independent	Q6KCR0	A. thaliana	131	2	3	Cobalamin-independent	Q6KCR0	A. thaliana	2	3	91	76	8.2	5.9
199	G, M	Putative adenosine	Q6SV73	P. tremula	612	9	23	Putative adenosine kinase	Q6SV73	P. alba	8	38	25	42	6.0	5.1
201	G, M	kinase S-adenosylmethionine	Q9FVG7	P. contorta	802	11	39	S-adenosylmethionine	Q9FVG7	P. contorta	14	43	43	47	5.6	5.4
	-,	synthetase						synthetase								
Energy																
41	М	Triosephosphate isomerase	P48496	S. oleracea	293	3	13	Triosephosphate isomerase	P48496	S. oleraceae	12	42	34	28	6.5	5.5
43	Μ	Triosephosphate	P48496	S. oleracea	106	1	4	Triosephosphate isomerase	P46225	S. cereale	2	8	34	29	6.5	5.3
58	G. M	Malate dehvdrogenase	O5OLS8	O. sativa	50	1	3	Malate dehvdrogenase	042972	O. sativa	1	3	42	39	7.6	7.8
59	G, M	Nodule-enhanced	O81278	G. max	440	7	19	Nodule-enhanced malate	081278	G. max	10	23	44	40	6.9	5.8
69	М	NADP specific isocitrate	Q9ZWI1	D. carota	646	10	23	NADP specific isocitrate	Q9ZWI1	D. carota	10	28	46	47	6.5	6.2
70	М	NADP specific isocitrate	Q9ZWI1	D. carota	440	8	18	NADP specific isocitrate	Q9ZWI1	D. carota	11	30	46	47	6.5	6.1
78	GМ	denydrogenase Fnolase	042971	O sativa	88	2	8	aenyarogenase Fnolase 1	091 F10	H brasiliensis	2	6	48	53	5.4	57
79	G M	IITP-glucose-1-phosphate	043772	H wulaare	257	6	15	IITP-glucose-1-phosphate	O9SDX3	M acuminata	9	21	52	56	5.2	5.6
01	с, м	uridylyltransferase	0937557	A frustisons	100	2	7	uridylyltransferase	0011/257	A frustisons	4	0	52	EC	6.1	5.0 E 4
01	G, M	pyrophosphorylase	Q0W33/	A. Jructicosu	102		,	pyrphosphorylase	2010357	A. Jrucucosu	4	9	52	50	0.1	5.4
85	G, M	ATP synthase subunit beta	Q01859	O. sativa	259	5	13	ATP synthase subunit beta	P29685	H. brasiliensis	7	14	59	56	5.9	5.2
87	G, M	ATP synthase subunit beta	Q01859	O. sativa	370	6	17	ATP synthase subunit beta	P19023	Z. mays	8	17	59	56	5.9	5.1
111	G	Enolase	Q6WB92	G. barbadense	36	2	5	Enolase	Q43130	M. crystallinum	2	6	48	45	6.2 E 4	6.1 E 0
122	G, M	Enolase	Q429/1	O. saliva	252	4	12	Enolase	Q429/1	O. sativa	3	10	48	53	5.4	5.8
															(continued	l on next page)

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Table 2	(conti	nued)														
Spot <sup>a</sup>	Spot <sup>a</sup> Stage <sup>b</sup> MASCOT search						MS BLAST search						W (kDa)	pI		
		Protein name	Accession number <sup>c</sup>	n Organism	Score <sup>d</sup>	Unique peptides <sup>e</sup>	Coverage <sup>f</sup> (%)	Protein name	Accession number <sup>c</sup>	Organism	Matched queries <sup>g</sup>	Coverage <sup>h</sup> (%)	Theory	Observation	Theoretical	Experimental
Energy 144	G, M	2,3-bisphosphoglycerate- independent phosphoglycerate mutase	P35493	R. communis	97	3	5	Phosphoglycerate mutase	Q9XE59	S. tuberrosum	2	4	61	63	5.5	5.9
193	G, M	ATP synthase gamma chain	Q59I53	I. nil	152	3	8	ATP synthase subunit	P26360	I. batatas	3	10	36	34	9.0	4.2
198	М	Fructose-bisphosphate aldolase	Q9LLD7	O. sativa	132	3	8	Fructose-bisphosphate aldolase	Q53P96	O. sativa	2	6	42	38	9.0	5.6
Storage	process															
1	M	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	587	10	20	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	9	23	53	13	7.7	4.6
3	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	998	18	22	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	9	24	53	13	7.7	4.8
4	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	552	8	17	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	8	20	53	12	7.7	4.9
5	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	518	9	18	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	10	26	53	13	7.7	5.0
6	М	NI	-	-	-	-	-	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	2	4	53	14	7.7	4.9
7	М	High molecular weight glutenin subunit 18v15	Q4JHY1	T. aestivum	111	2	2	High molecular weight	Q7Y0S9	T. elongatum	1	2	78	14	8.6	4.9
8	м	Vicilin-like storage protein	O8LKI7	A. anaustifolia	508	10	18	Vicilin-like storage protein	08I.KI7	A. anaustifolia	6	14	53	15	7.7	4.8
9	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	O8LKI7	A. anaustifolia	433	8	15	Vicilin-like storage protein	O8LKI7	A. anaustifolia	8	20	53	15	7.7	4.6
18	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	O8LKI7	A. anaustifolia	1035	22	36	Vicilin-like storage protein	O8LKI7	A. anaustifolia	13	31	53	22	7.7	6.5
19	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	1100	24	35	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	11	27	53	22	7.7	6.8
27	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	905	21	32	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	9	24	53	22	7.7	6.4
31	М	NI	_	-	_	-	_	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q40844	P. glauca	3	7	51	24	7.9	5.5
35	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	175	4	8	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	6	13	53	27	7.7	6.0
38	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	566	10	23	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	11	18	53	28	7.7	5.7
39	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	244	7	23	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	10	26	53	29	7.7	5.6
40	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	277	7	15	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	9	23	53	29	7.7	5.6
42	М	Vicilin	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	218	5	12	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	10	26	53	29	7.7	5.4
44	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	167	5	12	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	1	2	53	30	7.7	6.1
45	М	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	304	6	12	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	5	11	53	29	7.7	6.2
61	G, M	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	727	13	27	Vicilin-like storage protein	Q8LKI7	A. angustifolia	7	15	53	41	7.7	6.9
Stress re	sponse	and detoxification														
13	G, M	Peroxiredoxin	Q8S3L0	P. tremula	116	3	16	Peroxiredoxin	Q8S3L0	P. tremula	6	40	17	19	5.6	5.0
62	M	Putative aldose reductase	Q65WW3	O. sativa	107	3	5	Putative aldose reductase	Q8GXW0	A. thaliana	6	22	36	42	6.3	5.7

80	G, M	Putative mitochondrial aldehyde dehydrogenase ALDH2a	Q6YWQ9	O. sativa	57	1	3	Mitochondrial aldehyde dehydrogenase	Q8LST5	S. bicolor	1	2	46	56	5.9	5.5
98	G	Cytosolic ascorbate peroxidase 2	Q76LA6	G. max	55	1	7	Cytosolic ascorbate peroxidase	Q8H1K7	R. raetam	1	6	27	28	5.7	4.8
104	G	Ascorbate peroxidase	Q6RY58	P. pinaster	218	4	17	Ascorbate peroxidase	Q6RY58	P. pinaster	4	19	27	30	5.4	5.5
Cellular	Cellular signaling															
99	Ğ. М	14-3-3-like protein GF14 iota	O8LEN1	A. thaliana	166	3	13	14-3-3-like protein D	096453	G. max	2	8	29	34	4.9	4.7
102	G	14-3-3-like protein GF14 iota	Q8LEN1	A. thaliana	113	2	10	14-3-3 protein	Q944P2	F. cirrhosa	2	12	29	34	4.9	4.8
211	G, M	14-3-3 protein	Q6PWL7	S. chacoense	306	6	22	14-3-3-like protein	Q9SP07	L. longiflorum	4	19	29	32	4.7	4.7
212	G, M	14-3-3-like protein GF14 iota	Q8LEN1	A. thaliana	161	3	13	14-3-3 protein	Q944P2	F. cirrhosa	3	17	29	33	4.9	4.7
Cellular	transni	ort														
163	G	NI	_	_	_	_	_	Patellin-3	056759	A thaliana	2	5	56	113	52	47
164	G	NI	-	_	-	-	_	Patellin-3	Q56Z59	A. thaliana	2	5	56	113	5.2	4.7
									-							
Cell cycl	e and D	NA processing														
194	G, M	Proliferating cell	P17070	O. sativa	376	9	37	Proliferating cell nuclear	Q00265	D. carota	17	49	29	36	4.6	4.3
		nuclear antigen						antigen large form								
Structur	e															
68	G. M	Actin	O9SP17	P. rubens	1288	23	62	Actin	P93485	P. sativum	18	55	83	46	6.0	5.2
197	M	Tubulin beta-2 chain	P18026	Z. mays	291	5	12	Tubulin beta-4 chain	Q41782	Z. mays	3	7	50	37	4.8	5.4
				-												
Unclass	ified															
65	Μ	NI	-	-	-	-	-	F13E7.34 protein	Q9M8R4	A. thaliana	4	11	42	44	5.2	5.6
191	Μ	GTP-binding protein, ras-like	Q9FJH0	A. thaliana	368	7	31	GTP-binding protein, ras-like	Q9FJH0	A. thaliana	7	34	24	26	5.7	5.1

NI: non-identified protein.

<sup>a</sup> Spot numbers correspond to the numbers indicated in Fig. 4.

 $^{\rm b}\,$  Stage of development in which the corresponding spot was detected.

<sup>c</sup> Accession number in Swiss-Prot/TrEMBL.

<sup>d</sup> Probability based MOWSE score of MASCOT software for the hit.

 $^{\rm e}~$  Number of unique peptide sequences identified via MASCOT.

<sup>f</sup> Percentage of predicted protein sequence covered by matched peptides via MASCOT.

<sup>g</sup> Number of unique peptide sequences identified via MSBLAST that had a significant sequence-alignment score superior or equal to 55.

<sup>h</sup> Percentage of predicted protein sequence covered by matched query sequence via MSBLAST according to [ $\Sigma$ positive queries (aa)×100]/predicted protein (aa).

very successful result considering that A. *angustifolia* genome has not been sequenced and, currently, only sequences of 6 unique proteins are available in NCBI database.

Stringent database searches enable precise protein identification relying upon a few fragmented peptide precursors. However, any peptide sequence discrepancy precludes stringent matching and, consequently, makes protein identification impossible. In A. angustifolia seed development, automated de novo sequencing and MS BLAST search protocol has proven its efficiency. This strategy confirmed all A. angustifolia cross species MASCOT identifications. Additionally, it enabled the identification of eight proteins (Table 2: spots 6, 31, 65, 140, 161, 163, 164 and 188) that were not identified by MASCOT.

From the 96 identified proteins, 38 appeared as double or triple spots. Multiple vicilin-like protein (acc. number Q8LKI7) spots were identified in mature stage gels (Table 2). Similarly high spot redundancy was recently found in other conifer species, such as in *Pinus pinaster* [10] and *P. sitchensis* [11]. Multiple spots for a given protein mostly originate from posttranslational modifications, but can also be attributed to differentially spliced forms or allelic variants [11].

#### 3.3. Functional classification of proteins

Biological processes, in which the 96 identified proteins are involved, were defined according to the Gene Ontology Annotation database (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/GOA/). Since no functional classification has been defined in conifers, it was based on the comprehensive catalogue proposed by Ruepp et al. [29] and available at http://mips.gsf.de/projects/funcat.

To assess differences in the protein profile during A. *angustifolia* seed development, proteins were classified into nine and eight categories in globular and mature stages, respectively (Fig. 5). The most representative classes of proteins observed in globular and mature stages were protein fate (folding, modification and protein destination), metabolism, energy and storage proteins (Fig. 5).

Protein fate class, which includes proteins related to the folding, assembly and modification processes, constitutes 17 and 21 spots in globular and mature stages, respectively. Within this group, HSPs are the most abundant as 6 spots were identified in both globular and mature stages. Second most

representative proteins during seed development were the proteins involved in basic metabolic processes, as they accounted for 26 and 17% of identified proteins in globular and mature stage gels, respectively. Energy protein class constitutes of proteins related to the glycolysis, tricarboxylic acid-pathway and energy conversion and although sixteen spots were detected and classified within this group, it comprises only ten unique identifications. Another group containing high levels of redundant identifications was the storage protein class. They showed major percentage of variation between globular and mature stages, representing the most abundant class of proteins identified in mature stage. In globular tissues, this group represented only 2% of total identified proteins, however in mature stage 19 spots matched its sequence with vicilin-like storage proteins, representing 25% of total identified spots.

#### 3.4. Protein expression profiling during seed development

It is well known that a single gene can manifest itself as multiple protein spots on a 2-D gel due to alternative splicing or posttranslational modifications [5]. Although it is possible to detect isoforms in 2-D gels, *A. angustifolia* is a species with unknown genome and protein identification mostly relies on limited sequence coverage. Both of these features hamper revealing the molecular and biological function of different isoforms. Thus, for the analysis of changes in the metabolic processes that take place during seed development, we have only considered changes in protein accessions from all the 96 spots identified.

The 66 unique proteins were clustered within 4 groups (Fig. 6). Cluster A contained 7 unique proteins, most of which highly accumulated throughout seed development, such as actin (Q9SPI7) and the rubisco binding protein (RBP) (Q8L5U4). Cluster B contained 26 proteins showing low accumulation throughout seed development. Cluster C contained 25 proteins overaccumulated in late stages, whereas cluster D contained proteins overaccumulated in early seed development. Aiming a better understanding in changes of the proteome and activation of different metabolic pathways throughout seed development, in the following paragraphs we will discuss some characteristic overaccumulated proteins in early and late stages and their possible function in the process studied. These



Fig. 5 – Functional distribution of the identified spot during Araucaria angustifolia seed development. A: globular stage; B: mature stage.



Fig. 6 – Hierarchical clustering analysis of the 66 unique proteins identified during Araucaria angustifolia seed development. Dataset clustering was carried out through the sum of all normalized spot volumes from the same protein accession within and between embryo and megagametophyte tissues.

proteins may give insights into specific or preferentially metabolic pathways during the studied process and may also be potential candidates for markers of this process.

### 3.4.1. Overaccumulated proteins in early stages Many biological events result in cellular oxidative stress, which is mainly associated with accumulation of reactive

oxygen species (ROS) and/or a ROS-scavenging system, like peroxidases. Ascorbate peroxidase (APX) is one of the most important enzymes involved in the oxidative defense system, controlling and modulating hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) cellular levels [30]. Although H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> has a harmful effect on cells at high concentrations; it is an important molecule at the end of seed development and early germination due to its protecting effect against invasion by parasitic organisms and, although not yet described in Gymnosperms, by oxidizing germination inhibitors presented in the pericarp of Angyosperms [31,32]. Few works have been developed relating the ROS production during seed development, specially in recalcitrant seeds. Contrarily, several studies have documented the production of ROS during seed storage in the dry state [33,34]. Although only one APX accession (Q76LA6) was clustered within cluster D, the other showed higher expression in early stages of seed development and, as predicted, was not found in mature stage (Fig. 6). The identification of APXs overaccumulated in proembryo, globular and torpedo stages indicates a higher oxidative stress metabolism in early stages of seed development and the consequent higher accumulation of cytosolic APX for controlling and maintenance of oxidative stress generated by a high ROS activity, which is in agreement with the higher number of identified proteins classified into the stress response class during early seed development (Fig. 5). Overaccumulation of peroxiredoxin in early seed development contributes to this hypothesis (Table 2S), as in dormant seeds and orthodox seeds it shows to play a part in inhibition of germination under unfavorable conditions [35].

In early stages of conifer zygotic embryogenesis, the zygote undergoes several rounds of nuclear duplication without cytokinesis, followed by a cellularization phase, where high rates of cell divisions are then achieved [36]. Plant cells partition their cytoplasm during cytokinesis by building a cell plate structure from the inside out between the two sets of daughter chromosomes, which is dominated by membranetrafficking events [37]. Patellin (spots 163, 164), which was low expressed and identified especially in globular stage (Fig. 6), is a carrier protein that is recruited from the cytoplasm to the expanding and maturing cell plate. High levels of patellin in globular and torpedo stages also indicate a decrease in the mitotic activity during seed filling and maturation. This is in accordance with the absence of morphological transitions in zygotic embryos from torpedo to mature stage, as observed by Astarita et al. [20], and may also indicate a decrease in cell differentiation and lost of cell competency from torpedo/early cotyledonary stages. To our knowledge, this is the first report on patellin accumulation during seed development.

Proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) plays an important role in DNA duplication and repair [38]. Despite the recalcitrant behavior of A. *angustifolia* seeds, PCNA levels decreased in late embryogenesis, as observed in maize mature seeds [38]. This suggests the necessity of de novo synthesis of this protein during late germination and early seedling development independently of the recalcitrant nature of seeds.

Biological processes with high rates of cell division should also require the expression of cell wall degradation, loosening and biosynthesis proteins, such as alpha-xylosidase (spot 140) and type IIIa membrane protein cp-wap13 (spots 112, 113 and 114) [39–41], which are essential for growth and tissue expansion in fast growth phases, usually observed in young tissues. As expected few proteins related to carbon and storage metabolism were detected in early embryogenesis, such as alpha-glucosidase type I (spots 141, 142), which hydrolyzes preferentially heterogeneous substrates, like sucrose [40]. It is interesting to notice that alpha-glucosidase levels decrease during seed development, whereas starch synthase enzyme levels (spots 83, 84) increase in late stages of seed development (Table 2S, Fig. 6), probably indicating that in early stages sucrose is hydrolyzed by alpha-glucosidase I, releasing alpha-D-glucose that is used as substrate for starch synthesis, the major storage compound in A. angustifolia mature seeds [42].

#### 3.4.2. Overaccumulated proteins in late stages

Chaperonins did not present a preferential accumulation throughout seed developmental stages. However, the 20 kDa accessions (O65282, Q6B4V3) were only identified in late embryogenesis. Chaperonins are proteins that play a vital role in protein folding in eukaryotic and prokariotic cells. They are generally divided into two groups, according to the cellular localization: (a) group I chaperonins are localized in the stroma of chloroplasts, the matrix of mitochondria and eubacteria, and (b) group II chaperonins are found in eukaryotic cytosol and archaebacteria [43]. One of the differences between these groups is that group I work together with co-chaperonins, whereas group II work alone [43].

The chaperonin cpn60 and co-chaperonin cpn10 have been characterized in detail in Escherichia coli [44]. An homologue of co-chaperonin cpn 10 was identified in both pea and spinach as being twice the size of the classic mammalian cpn10 and sequence analysis showed that the protein was composed of two linked cpn10 homologs [45,46]. In vitro studies showed that this cpn20 is capable of assisting chloroplast cpn60 in refolding denatured rubisco [45,47]. Interestingly, in A. angustifolia seed development, although RBP (Q8L5U4) was detected in early and late stages, the co-chaperonin cpn20 was not identified in early stages (Fig. 6). During Daucus carota somatic embryogenesis the expression of photosynthesis-associated mRNAs and differentiation of photosynthetic embryos was observed in late torpedo-shaped embryos [48]. In A. angustifolia seed development, cpn20/21 expression was only observed from torpedo stages indicating that photosynthetic apparatus differentiation may start from this stage on (Fig. 6).

In early stages, due to low levels of O2, mainly converted to superoxide, embryos are ATP limited, responding mainly by fermentation, and during further photosynthetic apparatus differentiation and expression of glycolytic and tricarboxylic acid (TCA) enzymes, ATP levels increase [49]. Although enolase was identified in all stages of seed development and, consequently, clustered within clusters B, C and D, other enzymes involved in the glycolytic and TCA pathway were only identified in late embryogenesis: triosephosphate isomerase, fructose-bisphosphate aldolase and isocitrate dehydrogenase. High expression of these enzymes in late developmental stages indicates a shift in the stress related metabolism, as discussed above, resulting in availability of the molecule O<sub>2</sub> as a final hydrogen acceptor and, thus, increasing respiratory levels in mature seed. D-glucose is the other substrate involved in the respiratory chain and is probably found in abundance during late embryogenesis due to sucrose

hydrolyzation by alpha-glucosidase I activity in early stages. Another evidence of high D-glucose levels in late stages of seed development is the abundant expression of granule-bound starch synthase (Table 2S, Fig. 6), which utilizes D-glucose for starch synthesis.

Final seed development is usually marked by increase in storage compounds and onset of related enzymes, like starch synthase in starchy seeds. Although A. *angustifolia* is one of these seeds, vicilin-like proteins were identified in large amounts in late seed development. Also, multiple spots were correlated to this identification and are probably due to posttranslational modifications or different splice forms derived from single gene or the existence of allelic variants [11]. Alternatively, as a storage protein, it could also correspond to fragments released by specific proteolysis even before germination starts, as also observed in Arabidopsis seeds [50] and, thus, seems to be unrelated to desiccation responses.

Although very little is known about N metabolism in embryogenic tissues of conifers, a balanced N supply and metabolism seem to be critical for plant embryogenesis [51]. A major metabolic event during seed maturation is the accumulation of reserves at late embryogenesis. According to previous works, the major amino acid residues of seed storage proteins in Pinus taeda and P. pinaster are arginine, glutamine and glutamate [51,52]. In the present study the enzyme glutamine synthase (GS) expression was overaccumulated in early-cotyledonary stage (Table 2S, Fig. 6). Changes in GS expression during the maturation process indicate that the biosynthesis and interconversion of glutamine/glutamic acid is active during conifer maturation. Astarita et al. [20] observed that glutamic acid is the major free amino acid accumulated in mature seeds. Moreover, amino acid composition of A. angustifolia vicilin storage protein (Q8LKI7) indicates that more than 10% of its sequence is composed by glutamic acid. Thus, the time-specific expression of GS may be critical for obtaining fully mature embryos and may be considered another important protein marker of embryo maturation in this species.

#### 3.5. Proteomics approach in somatic embryogenesis

Despite the attempts to develop a protocol for inducing somatic embryogenesis in A. angustifolia, only somatic embryos in early developmental stages were obtained [53,54].

Seed development studies have been useful to better understand the molecular and physiological basis of embryogenesis and system manipulation for in vitro multiplication via somatic embryogenesis [18].

Basically, A. angustifolia seed development can be divided into two distinct phases according to its protein expression profile: early and late embryogenesis. The metabolic arrangement that takes place during cotyledon formation seems to be crucial as the protein content and 2-DE maps presented a significant change during cotyledon differentiation and growth. In conifers somatic embryogenesis, immature embryos have been extensively used for embryogenic culture initiation, with the developmental explant stage affecting the induction rates [55–57].

In the somatic embryogenesis of A. angustifolia, the choice of the correct developmental stage of zygotic embryos is a critical factor in the induction of embryogenic cultures, with the best results when pre-cotyledonary zygotic embryos are used as explants [58,59]. This strict requirement of juvenile explants is common in conifer species and indicates that redirection of developmental programs in this plant group is difficult to achieve in culture [60]. Taking into account the results obtained in the present work, it can be inferred that the successful conversion rates of embryogenic cultures when using torpedo/early-cotyledonary zygotic embryos may be mostly due to a boom in the gene expression levels and activation of different biochemical pathways, which lead to the detection of a great number of 2-DE spots and marks the transition from a growth and cell division phase to a highly determined and differentiated phase, the maturation.

Proteins involved in energetic, metabolic and protein fate processes are essential across A. angustifolia seed development. As predicted, metabolic proteins were the most abundant during early seed development as this stage is marked by intensive cell division and growth. In the Araucaria genus, both recalcitrant and orthodox seed species may be found. Due to its elevated moisture content and little desiccation tolerance, A. angustifolia is considered as a recalcitrant species [3]. The high number of energy and metabolic related spots in late zygotic embryogenesis of A. angustifolia indicates an active metabolic state during the late stages of seed development. Contrary to orthodox, the recalcitrant seeds are shed at high water contents and are also metabolically active at shedding [61]. Although dos Santos et al. [19] observed some similarities of protein electrophoretic pattern with orthodox seeds, the high number of identified metabolic and energy proteins in the maturation phase of seed development is in accordance with its recalcitrant nature and indicates a strategy of continuous development without the interposition of a dry and quiescent state, as suggested by Panza et al. [3]. These observations may be of a great value for the establishment of somatic embryogenesis protocols, as little is known about protein patterns during the maturation phase of recalcitrant coniferous species and most of the somatic embryogenesis protocols, including those for A. angustifolia [1,54] are based on the metabolic pattern changes in orthodox type seeds.

Furthermore, in the present work a similar expression profile, especially concerned to the highest abundant proteins, between mature embryos and megagametophyte was observed. This may reflect the mutual conversion of proteins and the signaling events taking place between the embryo and the surrounding tissue. Analysis of late-cotyledonary and mature seeds indicates that storage proteins, which are further used for plantlet growth, are accumulated in both embryo and megagametophyte tissues. Thus, the addition of maturation agents that induce protein expression in the culture medium are expected for successful somatic embryo maturation. Here we also suggest the addition of glutamic acid in maturation culture medium, as amino acid composition of vicilin storage protein indicates a preferential use of this amino acid in its primary structure. Additionally, vicilin-like proteins were far the most abundant identification during embryo maturation, reflecting their importance in late stage of A. angustifolia zygotic embryogenesis and potential use as protein markers for embryo maturation, attending on the development of somatic embryo protocols that may utilize

these and the other suggested spot markers for establishing a correct quality control and maximal plant conversion rates from somatic embryos.

## 4. Concluding remarks

The present work illustrates the robustness of the proteomic approach based on the use of 2-DE gels followed by protein identification via MS/MS analyses for a comprehensive investigation on the metabolic changes during A. angustifolia seed development. Further studies addressing temporal and spatial transcription of vicilin genes are being carried out and constitute a potential target for functional genomics studies. Furthermore, specific identified proteins may be used as markers for embryo maturation through in vivo imaging using fluorescent protein fusions. Therefore, the identified protein list presented in this work gives the foundation for future studies on the genetic, physiology and metabolism of the developmental embryo process in this and other coniferous species. Additionally, the coordination of this knowledge may give insight in future studies addressing the optimization of the somatic embryogenesis protocols for mass propagation and conservation strategies applied to A. angustifolia.

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The authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jprot.2009.01.011.

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