

## INVITED REVIEW

# Functions and regulation of $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases during seed germination, dormancy release and after-ripening

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## Abstract

$\beta$ -1,3-Glucanase ( $\beta$ Glu) expression in seeds plays important roles in the regulation of seed germination, dormancy and in the defence against seed pathogens. A thick  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan layer is typical for the seed envelope of cucurbitaceous species, confers seed semipermeability and is degraded during germination. In many species with coat-imposed dormancy, the seed envelope confers a physical constraint to radicle emergence. In the solanaceous species, the micropylar endosperm and testa have this function, and endosperm weakening appears to be a prerequisite for germination. Class I  $\beta$ Glu is transcriptionally induced in the micropylar endosperm of tobacco, tomato and other solanaceous seeds just prior to radicle emergence.  $\beta$ Glu induction and germination are tightly linked in response to plant hormones and environmental factors, e.g. they are both promoted by gibberellins and inhibited by abscisic acid (ABA). Sense and antisense transformation of tobacco reveals two sites of  $\beta$ Glu action: after-ripening-mediated release of testa-imposed dormancy and endosperm rupture during germination. The use of an ABA-inducible chimeric sense-transgene resulted in overexpression of class I  $\beta$ Glu in seeds and provided direct evidence that  $\beta$ Glu contributes to endosperm rupture. A model integrating  $\beta$ Glu, seed dormancy, after-ripening and germination is presented, and possible mechanisms for  $\beta$ Glu action are discussed. It is proposed that  $\beta$ Glu not only helps defend seeds against pathogens, but is also a key factor in regulating coat-imposed dormancy and germination of seeds in response to environmental and hormonal cues.

**Keywords:** abscisic acid, after-ripening, gibberellin,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, *Nicotiana* seeds, seed dormancy, seed germination

## Introduction

One of the most intriguing innovations during the evolution of vascular plants has been the ability to form seeds as propagation and dispersal units. The genetic, physiological and biochemical properties of seeds are of utmost importance for the survival of a wild plant species in an ecosystem, and are also critical for seed quality and agricultural yield of crop plants. Relatively little is known about the interconnected molecular key processes regulating seed germination and dormancy in response to plant hormones and environmental cues. The process of germination commences with the uptake of water by imbibition of the dry seed, followed by embryo expansion growth, and usually culminates in rupture of the covering layers and emergence of the radicle, generally considered as the completion of germination (reviews: Hilhorst, 1995; Bewley, 1997b; Li and Foley, 1997; Koornneef *et al.*, 2002). Seed dormancy can be 'coat-imposed' and/or determined by the embryo itself, and is a temporary failure or block of a viable seed to complete germination under physical conditions that normally favour the process. Radicle emergence during seed germination depends on embryo expansion, which is a growth process driven by water uptake. DNA synthesis and cell division are not required and regulation of embryo growth potential appears to be mainly by changes in cell-wall extensibility.

In many plant species with coat-imposed dormancy, the seed envelope also imposes a physical constraint to radicle protrusion, which has to be overcome by the growth potential of the embryo. These covering layers may include diploid, entirely maternal tissues, e.g. testa (seed coat) and

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Abbreviations: ABA = abscisic acid; DAP = days after pollination; ERE = ethylene-responsive element; GA = gibberellin;  $\beta$ Glu =  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase;  $\beta$ Glu I = class I  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase; Gus =  $\beta$ -glucuronidase; PR = pathogenesis-related; TMV = tobacco mosaic virus.

perisperm; and the endosperm, which is triploid in angiosperms, with two-thirds of its genome originating from the mother plant. Endosperm rupture is the main germination-limiting process in members of the *Asteraceae* (e.g. lettuce) and *Solanaceae* (e.g. tomato, tobacco, pepper and *Datura* spp.) and endosperm weakening, a decline in the mechanical resistance of the micropylar endosperm, seems to be necessary for germination to be completed. Ikuma and Thimann (1963) proposed for lettuce that 'the final step in the germination control process is the production of an enzyme whose action enables the tip of the radicle to penetrate through the coat'. Experiments to identify this enzyme(s) have been conducted in a variety of species, and included the analyses of numerous cell-wall modifying proteins, e.g. endo- $\beta$ -mannanase,  $\beta$ -mannosidase,  $\alpha$ -galactosidase, cellulase, pectin methylesterase, polygalacturonase, xyloglucan endo-transglycosylase,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, chitinase, peroxidase and expansin (e.g. Bewley, 1997a; Welbaum *et al.*, 1998; Amaya *et al.*, 1999; Chen and Bradford, 2000; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000; Ren and Kermodé, 2000; Mo and Bewley, 2002). Several of these studies provided evidence for the possible contribution of a specific cell-wall hydrolase in a certain species, and unravelled some of the complexity of the hormonal regulation of seed germination and dormancy. However, conclusive evidence for a single 'germination enzyme' has not yet been found. The work on endo- $\beta$ -mannanase has been summarized in an excellent review by Bewley (1997a), and there is strong evidence that this enzyme is involved in endosperm weakening. While endo- $\beta$ -mannanase appears to be necessary for tomato endosperm weakening, it is not sufficient for the completion of germination (e.g. Toorop *et al.*, 1996; Still and Bradford, 1997; Wu *et al.*, 2000). Abscisic acid (ABA) clearly controls the final step of radicle protrusion, but it does not inhibit tomato endosperm weakening caused by endo- $\beta$ -mannanase (e.g. Nonogaki *et al.*, 2000; Toorop *et al.*, 2000; Wu *et al.*, 2000). In the case of tobacco, we proposed that class I  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, which is induced in the micropylar endosperm just prior to its rupture and is tightly linked with altered endosperm rupture in response to light, gibberellins (GA), ABA and ethylene, is involved in the regulation of germination (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999). Taken together, these findings support the view that germination control by the seed-covering layers is achieved by the collaborative or successive action of several cell-wall-modifying proteins. Considerable evidence suggests that  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase substantially contributes to the regulation of germination, dormancy release and after-ripening of dicot seeds, which is the focus of this review.

### Structure, regulation and functions of plant $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases

The  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases ( $\beta$ Glu; EC 3.2.1.39) are abundant, highly regulated enzymes, widely distributed in seed-plant species (reviews: Meins *et al.*, 1992; Simmons, 1994; Høj and Fincher, 1995; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999; Hrmova and Fincher, 2001; <http://www.leubner.ch/>). They are able to catalyse hydrolytic cleavage of the 1,3- $\beta$ -D-glucosidic linkages in  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans, and most of the known plant  $\beta$ Glu are endo-type enzymes. It is suggested that their original role in evolution probably was to promote cell growth and division of unicellular organisms by turning over cell-wall  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans. Overexpression of a plant  $\beta$ Glu in recombinant yeast causes growth inhibition and defects in cell-wall formation (Demolder *et al.*, 1993).  $\beta$ Glu are induced in response to the infection of plants with pathogens and are, therefore, grouped among the pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins as the PR-2 family. Although the major interest in  $\beta$ Glu stems from their role in plant defence against pathogens, there is strong evidence that these enzymes are also implicated in diverse physiological and developmental processes in the uninfected plant, including cell division (Scherp *et al.*, 2001), microsporogenesis (Worrall *et al.*, 1992; Bucciaglia and Smith, 1994), pollen germination and tube growth (Meikle *et al.*, 1991; Doblin *et al.*, 2001), fertilization (Ori *et al.*, 1990), embryogenesis (Helleboed *et al.*, 2000), seed development (Buchner *et al.*, 2002), seed germination (this review), mobilization of storage reserves in the endosperm of cereal grains (Høj and Fincher, 1995; Hrmova and Fincher, 2001), bud dormancy (Krabel *et al.*, 1993; Rinne *et al.*, 2001), and responses to wounding, cold, ozone and ultraviolet light (UVB) (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999). The  $\beta$ Glu exist as a family of multiple isoforms that differ in size, isoelectric point, primary structure, cellular localization and pattern of regulation. The relationships between structure and enzymatic mechanisms of  $\beta$ Glu have been studied in great detail with the cereal isoforms, and are covered by excellent reviews (e.g. Simmons, 1994; Høj and Fincher, 1995; Hrmova and Fincher, 2001).

The major focus of the present review is on  $\beta$ Glu in dicot seeds. The most detailed sequence information for the dicot  $\beta$ Glu is available from cDNA and genomic clones of solanaceous species (for references, see Simmons, 1994; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999). The various  $\beta$ Glu of the genus *Nicotiana* have been classified into four structural classes that differ by a minimum of 40–50% in amino-acid sequence identity of the mature proteins. Similar isoforms have been reported for tomato, pepper, potato and other plant species. The endo-type class I

enzymes ( $\beta$ Glu I) constitute the PR-2e subgroup of the PR-2 family and include the highly homologous 33 kDa basic tobacco isoforms GluA and GluB and the 35 kDa tomato isoform GluB, which shares approximately 90% amino-acid identity with tobacco GluA and GluB. The tobacco and tomato  $\beta$ Glu I proteins are basic intracellular isoforms that contain a characteristic carboxy-terminal extension known to mediate targeting to the vacuole. There is considerable evidence that vacuolar proteins, including class I  $\beta$ Glu and chitinases, can also be secreted (e.g. Kunze *et al.*, 1998; Rinne *et al.*, 2001). In contrast to  $\beta$ Glu I, the class II and III members of the PR-2 family do not contain the carboxy-terminal extension and are secreted into the apoplast. The known tobacco class II and III  $\beta$ Glu are acidic proteins, ranging in apparent size from c. 34 to 36 kDa in denaturing gels. Class II also includes the two 41 kDa stilar  $\beta$ Glu isoforms, Sp41a and Sp41b, which are expressed exclusively in the style of tobacco flowers. Sp41a and Sp41b do not appear to be induced by pathogen infection and, hence, are referred to as 'PR-like proteins'. One apoplastic class II isoform (GluA) and two closely related class III isoforms are known from tomato. The class IV  $\beta$ Glu Tag1 is a 'PR-like' protein that is expressed specifically in tobacco anthers and seems to be secreted to degrade the callose wall of the tetrads during pollen grain development.

The  $\beta$ Glu of the PR-2 family are highly regulated in response to developmental, hormonal, environmental and pathogenesis-related factors (for references, see Simmons, 1994; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999).  $\beta$ Glu I accumulate at high concentrations in the roots and in lower leaves of mature, healthy tobacco plants.  $\beta$ Glu I gene expression is transcriptionally induced by ethylene and down-regulated by ABA. In general, the tobacco class II  $\beta$ Glu do not appear to accumulate in vegetative tissues of mature, healthy tobacco plants. Ethylene does not appreciably affect the expression of class II and class III  $\beta$ Glu in leaves of tobacco and tomato. In general,  $\beta$ Glu and chitinases are co-induced in plants infected with viral, bacterial, and fungal pathogens and in response to elicitors, including fungal glucans, linear  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan, chitosan, *N*-acetylchitoooligosaccharides and glycoprotein.  $\beta$ Glu I is transcriptionally induced in tobacco mosaic virus (TMV)-infected leaves as part of the local lesion response associated with the hypersensitive reaction (HR), and appears not to be induced systemically as part of the systemic acquired resistance (SAR) syndrome. The class II and III  $\beta$ Glu are induced both locally in TMV-infected leaves and systemically in non-infected leaves of the same plant and are markers for SAR. Systemic accumulation of salicylic acid (SA) is associated with SAR, and

treatment of tobacco plants with SA strongly induces the class II and III  $\beta$ Glu, but not, or only weakly, the class I  $\beta$ Glu. Promoter analyses support these findings and detected differences between class I and II  $\beta$ Glu genes concerning responsive regions for ethylene, ABA, SA, TMV and other factors.

### ***Nicotiana* seeds as a model system for the hormonal regulation of dormancy, after-ripening and germination**

Seed development is completed by a period of maturation when water content decreases, ABA and storage proteins accumulate, and desiccation tolerance and primary dormancy are established. In many plants, including *Nicotiana* species, endogenous ABA is involved in the induction and also in the maintenance of the dormant state (Hilhorst, 1995; Bewley, 1997b; Li and Foley, 1997; Grappin *et al.*, 2000; Koornneef *et al.*, 2002). The *Solanaceae* family can be divided into two large subgroups (Judd *et al.*, 1999): (1) The *Cestroideae* subgroup, e.g. *Nicotiana* and *Petunia*, is characterized by straight to slightly bent embryos and prismatic to subglobose seeds and, typically, by capsules; and (2) the *Solanoideae* subgroup, e.g. *Capsicum*, *Lycopersicon* and *Physalis*, is characterized by curved embryos and flattened, discoid seeds, and often by berries. Because tomato as a model system for *Solanoideae*-type seeds has been the main focus of several excellent reviews (e.g. Hilhorst, 1995; Bewley, 1997a; Hilhorst *et al.*, 1998) and because the two types of seeds differ in various aspects, I first want to summarize what is known about tobacco as a model system for *Cestroideae*-type seeds.

The onset of dormancy in *Nicotiana tabacum* is correlated with a peak in ABA content at approximately 15–20 d after pollination (DAP), and ABA declines rapidly during further seed maturation (Yamaguchi-Shinozaki *et al.*, 1990; Jiang *et al.*, 1996; Phillips *et al.*, 1997). Tobacco seeds harvested 25 DAP are dark brown, the embryos are mature and have white cotyledons, the products of maturation-specific genes have accumulated, dormancy has been established, desiccation tolerance has been acquired and the moisture content is low (Kincaid, 1935; Yamaguchi-Shinozaki *et al.*, 1990; Jakobsen *et al.*, 1994; Jiang *et al.*, 1996; Phillips *et al.*, 1997; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000). Seed dormancy is not established in transgenic tobacco expressing an anti-ABA antibody that causes deficiency in free ABA, resulting in precocious germination, embryos with green cotyledons, reduced accumulation of storage proteins and desiccation intolerance (Phillips *et al.*, 1997). The wilty mutants *aba1* and *aba2* of *Nicotiana plumbaginifolia* have reduced ABA contents and

exhibit precocious germination and reduced primary dormancy (Marin *et al.*, 1996; Frey *et al.*, 1999; Grappin *et al.*, 2000). ABA-deficiency of the *aba2* mutant is due to a mutation in the *ABA2* gene, encoding zeaxanthin epoxidase, a key step in ABA biosynthesis. Antisense- and sense-*ABA2* transformation of *N. plumbaginifolia* resulted in decreased and increased ABA biosynthesis and seed dormancy, respectively (Liotenberg *et al.*, 1999). This study also suggested that, as in *Arabidopsis* and tomato (Hilhorst, 1995; Bewley, 1997b; Li and Foley, 1997), in *Nicotiana* species only ABA produced by the embryo itself, but not maternal ABA, is necessary to impose a lasting dormancy.

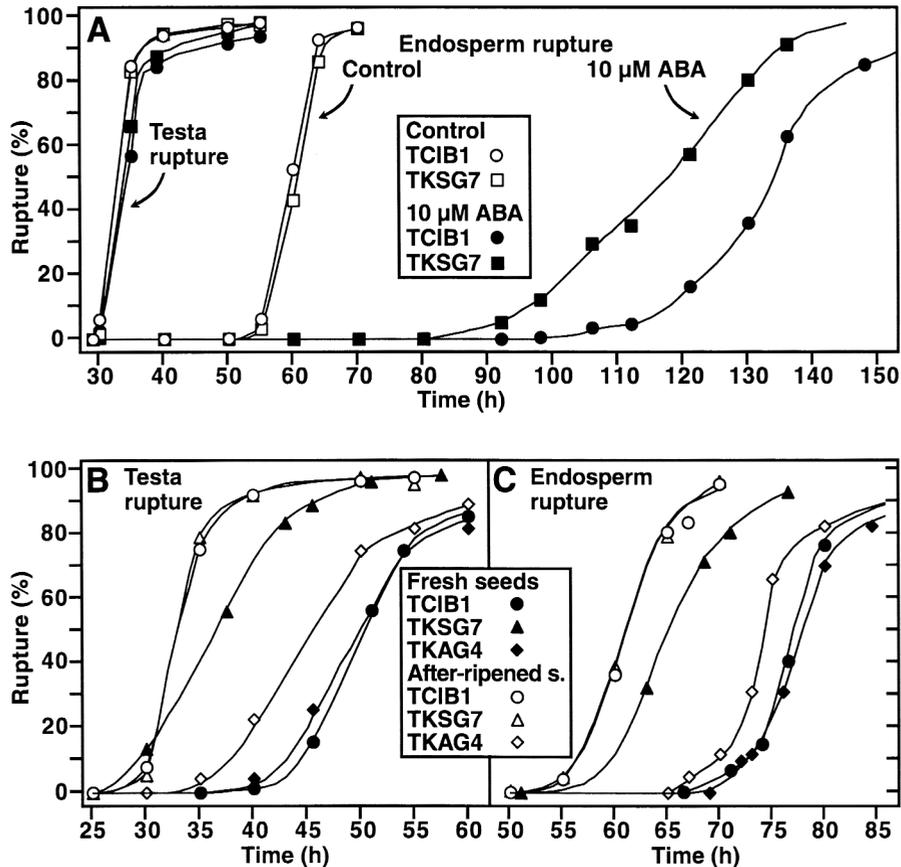
In the case of tobacco, the embryo in the mature seed is surrounded by 3–5 layers of rather thick-walled endosperm cells. The periphery of the endosperm is pressed against the thin testa, which consists of an outer layer of cutinized and lignified dead cells and a living inner parenchyma layer (Avery, 1933; Matzke *et al.*, 1993). The maternal origin of this living cell layer interposed between the endosperm and the dead outer testa is suggested by gene promoter studies and by genetic ablation (Czakó *et al.*, 1992; Matzke *et al.*, 1993; Fobert *et al.*, 1994). In contrast to the micropylar cap, typical for tomato or pepper seeds, the micropylar testa and endosperm of tobacco seeds are not organized in such a morphologically distinct, cap-like structure (Arcila and Mohapatra, 1983; Hilhorst *et al.*, 1998).

Rupture of the testa and of the endosperm are distinct and temporally separate events during the germination of tobacco seeds (Figs 1 and 2; Arcila and Mohapatra, 1983; Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995; <http://www.leubner.ch/>). A visible distinction between testa and endosperm rupture appears to be a general phenomenon of *Cestroidae*-type seeds and is not found in *Solanoideae*-type seeds (Petruzzelli, Müller, Hermann and Leubner-Metzger, unpublished data). Tobacco testa rupture starts near the funiculus and spreads in random directions along the ridges on the testa. Progress of testa rupture is facilitated by channels underlying the ridges. When seeds reach the advanced testa rupture stage, the micropylar endosperm covering the radicle tip is exposed as a dome-shaped structure. Microscopic studies showed that storage reserves are degraded in the micropylar endosperm cells prior to protrusion by the radicle; and that the endospermic hole, which has a smooth outline and is always formed at the micropylar end of germinating tobacco seeds, results from tissue dissolution rather than from the pushing action of the protruding radicle (Arcila and Mohapatra, 1983; Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995). Similar observations are obvious for other endospermic species and are correlated with weakening of the micropylar endosperm covering the radicle tip, e.g. in lettuce (Dutta *et al.*, 1994) and in members of the *Solanaceae*,

including pepper (Watkins *et al.*, 1985), *Datura* (Mella *et al.*, 1994) and tomato (Hilhorst, 1995; Bewley, 1997a; Toorop *et al.*, 2000). Further support for the finding that the seed-covering layers impose a physical constraint to radicle protrusion during the germination of solanaceous species comes from surgical experiments. Removal of the micropylar testa and the endosperm tissues permits radicle growth under conditions that inhibit germination of intact seeds of tobacco (Bihlmeier, 1927; Kincaid, 1935), tomato (Liptay and Schopfer, 1983; Hilhorst, 1995) and potato (Fischnich and Lübbert, 1955).

Dormancy can be released during after-ripening, i.e. a period of dry storage of freshly harvested, mature seeds (Bewley, 1997b; Li and Foley, 1997). A further decline in ABA content, decreased sensitivity to ABA and increased sensitivity to GA are involved in the after-ripening-mediated transition from the dormant to the non-dormant state of many species (Hilhorst, 1995; Li and Foley, 1997; Debeaujon and Koornneef, 2000; Grappin *et al.*, 2000; Koornneef *et al.*, 2002). The work of Grappin *et al.* (2000) demonstrated this for *N. plumbaginifolia* and showed, in addition, *de novo* ABA biosynthesis in imbibed freshly harvested (dormant), but not after-ripened (non-dormant) seeds. The after-ripening-mediated promotion of *N. tabacum* germination is due to the promotion of both testa and subsequent endosperm rupture (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000; Leubner-Metzger, 2002). This result was obtained by comparing the testa and endosperm rupture kinetics during imbibition in continuous light of tobacco seeds in the fresh state, i.e. mature, dormant seeds sampled at approximately 40 DAP, and the after-ripened state, i.e. seeds after storage several months under dry and warm conditions. Addition of ABA to the medium during imbibition resembles maternal ABA during seed development and residual ABA in mature seeds. Imbibition of freshly harvested or after-ripened tobacco seeds in medium with 10  $\mu$ M ABA greatly delays endosperm rupture (Fig. 1A) and results in the formation of a novel structure, consisting of the enlarging radicle with a sheath of greatly elongated endosperm tissue (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000). ABA treatment does not affect the kinetics of testa rupture of fresh or after-ripened tobacco seeds, but the delay in endosperm rupture depends on the ABA concentration.

According to the revised hormone-balance hypothesis for seed dormancy proposed by Karssen and Laçka (Karssen and Laçka, 1986), ABA and GA act at different times and sites during the 'seed life'. ABA induces dormancy during maturation and GA plays a key role in the promotion of germination. Light is required for at least two aspects of tobacco seed germination. First, in photodormant tobacco



**Figure 1.** The effect of abscisic acid (ABA) (A), after-ripening (B, C) and class I  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase ( $\beta$ Glu I) sense and antisense transformation on the kinetics of testa and endosperm rupture during tobacco seed germination. The incidence of testa and endosperm rupture is expressed as the percentage of sense- $\beta$ Glu I (TKSG7), antisense- $\beta$ Glu I (TKAG4) and empty-vector (TCIB1) seeds scored with time after the start of imbibition in continuous light. (A) The effect of ABA on testa and endosperm rupture of after-ripened seeds incubated in medium without (control) and with 10  $\mu$ M ABA. (B, C) The effect of after-ripening on testa rupture (B) and endosperm rupture (C) investigated by comparing freshly harvested and after-ripened TKSG7, TKAG4 and TCIB1 seeds incubated in control medium. Note that  $\beta$ Glu I is overexpressed in TKSG7 seeds, but that TKAG4 seeds express TCIB1-like levels of  $\beta$ Glu I during endosperm rupture. The antisense- $\beta$ Glu I transformation therefore only affects testa rupture of TKAG4 seeds, and the delay in endosperm rupture is attributed to the delay in testa rupture. Means of single-line mean values from several independent lines are presented; the single-line mean values  $\pm$  SE are published in Leubner-Metzger and Meins (2000, 2001) and Leubner-Metzger (2002).

seeds, germination in darkness is blocked at a step before testa rupture, and neither testa nor endosperm rupture occur, even after several weeks of dark-imbibition (Kincaid, 1935; Kasperbauer, 1968; Mohapatra and Johnson, 1978; Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1996). Brief treatment of imbibed photodormant seeds with red light activates the phytochrome signal transduction pathway, resulting in the release of photodormancy and the promotion of germination (e.g. Kretsch *et al.*, 1995; Emmler and Schäfer, 1997). Genetic and physiological experiments suggest that tobacco photodormancy is mainly under maternal control (Bihlmeier, 1927; Honing, 1930; Kincaid, 1935; Kasperbauer, 1968; Leubner-Metzger, 2002). GA can substitute for the red-light trigger required to release

photodormancy and to induce testa rupture and subsequent endosperm rupture of tobacco seeds imbibed in the dark (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1996; Peng and Harberd, 2002). Red light up-regulates the biosynthesis of bioactive GA in germinating seeds of lettuce and *Arabidopsis* (Toyomasu *et al.*, 1998; Kamiya and Garcia-Martinez, 1999; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2001). Far less is known about the role of GA sensitivity during the after-ripening-mediated release of photodormancy. Freshly harvested tobacco seeds are photodormant, and after-ripening contributes to the release of photodormancy (Kasperbauer, 1968; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2001; Leubner-Metzger, 2002). This effect varies greatly for different seed batches, as reported for several tobacco cultivars. The

GA requirements for photodormancy release of fresh and completely photodormant after-ripened seed batches are equal. Non-photodormant tobacco seeds have lost the requirement for exogenous GA for dark germination, which could be due to increased GA sensitivity and/or increased endogenous GA levels (Leubner-Metzger, 2002).

Light is also required for a second aspect of tobacco seed germination: it promotes the speed of endosperm rupture of non-photodormant tobacco seeds. GA is not only involved in inducing dark germination of photodormant tobacco seeds (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1996; Leubner-Metzger, 2002), but it also promotes ABA-delayed endosperm rupture of dark-imbibed non-photodormant seeds (Leubner-Metzger, 2001), and osmoticum-delayed testa and endosperm rupture of light-imbibed seeds (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1996). Promotion of ABA-delayed seed germination of *N. plumbaginifolia* by light or GA involves stimulation of ABA degradation and inhibition of ABA synthesis (Grappin *et al.*, 2000). Finally, endogenous ethylene and brassinosteroids also promote the germination of non-photodormant tobacco seeds and counteract the inhibitory effects of applied ABA on endosperm rupture, but ethylene and brassinosteroids do not release tobacco photodormancy (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1998; Leubner-Metzger, 2001). Taken together, *Nicotiana* seeds provide an excellent model system for the investigation of germination and coat-imposed dormancy. We utilized the advantage that testa rupture and endosperm rupture are separate events to identify target sites for  $\beta$ Glu action.

### $\beta$ Glu I contributes to endosperm rupture

The first hint that  $\beta$ Glu may play a role in tobacco seed germination was our observation that  $\beta$ Glu I is induced during germination (Vögeli-Lange *et al.*, 1994; Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995). Measurements of  $\beta$ Glu activity,  $\beta$ Glu I protein and mRNA content, in combination with reporter-gene experiments with the *Escherichia coli uidA* gene (*Gus* reporter-gene) fused to the promoters of the tobacco  $\beta$ Glu I genes *Gla* and *Glb*, established that most, if not all, of the  $\beta$ Glu activity is due to transcriptional induction of both  $\beta$ Glu I isoforms (Vögeli-Lange *et al.*, 1994; Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995; Livne *et al.*, 1997).  $\beta$ Glu I is induced after testa rupture and just prior to endosperm rupture. This induction is localized exclusively in the micropylar endosperm at the site where the radicle will emerge.  $\beta$ Glu I induction during germination is not a classical defence-type response, since chitinases and the known acidic class II and III  $\beta$ Glu are not induced (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999). The 'PR-like' tobacco class IV  $\beta$ Glu *Tag1* gene is

also not induced (G. Leubner Metzger, unpublished results). ABA inhibits  $\beta$ Glu I induction and endosperm rupture of germinating tobacco seeds in a dose-dependent manner. ABA also inhibits  $\beta$ Glu I induction and endosperm rupture of other *Cestroidae*-type seeds, including three other *Nicotiana* species and *Petunia hybrida* (Petruzzelli, Müller, Hermann and Leubner-Metzger, unpublished data). Class I  $\beta$ Glu mRNA, protein and enzyme activity are also expressed in the micropylar endosperm of tomato seeds prior to radicle protrusion (Wu *et al.*, 2000). As in tobacco, no accumulation of class II and III  $\beta$ Glu occurs, and the transcriptional induction of  $\beta$ Glu I, as well as germination, is inhibited by ABA. The  $\beta$ Glu I induction in the micropylar endosperm of tobacco (unpublished results) and tomato (Wu and Bradford, 2002) is not a wound response. In contrast to tobacco, class I chitinase also accumulates in germinating tomato seeds, but is not down-regulated by ABA and, in contrast to  $\beta$ Glu I, seems to be wound-induced (Wu *et al.*, 2000; Wu and Bradford, 2002). In addition, a different post-germinative tomato  $\beta$ Glu has been reported by Morohashi and Matsushima (2000).  $\beta$ Glu activity is also induced in other *Solanoideae*-type seeds, including *Capsicum annuum* and *Physalis peruvianum* (Petruzzelli, Müller, Hermann and Leubner-Metzger, unpublished data). As in tomato, ABA inhibits endosperm rupture and  $\beta$ Glu activity accumulation of pepper seeds, and ABA-sensitive  $\beta$ Glu accumulated in the micropylar cap prior to endosperm rupture. In contrast to tomato, where  $\beta$ Glu accumulation is confined to the micropylar endosperm,  $\beta$ Glu accumulation in pepper also occurred in other seed tissue. Also in contrast to tomato, chitinase did not accumulate in germinating pepper seeds (Wu *et al.*, 2000; Petruzzelli, Müller, Hermann and Leubner-Metzger, unpublished data). Thus, ABA-sensitive accumulation of  $\beta$ Glu in the micropylar endosperm prior to its rupture by the protruding radicle appears to be a widespread phenomenon during the germination of *Solanoideae*- and *Cestroidae*-type seeds, whereas chitinase accumulation appears to be a species-dependent feature.

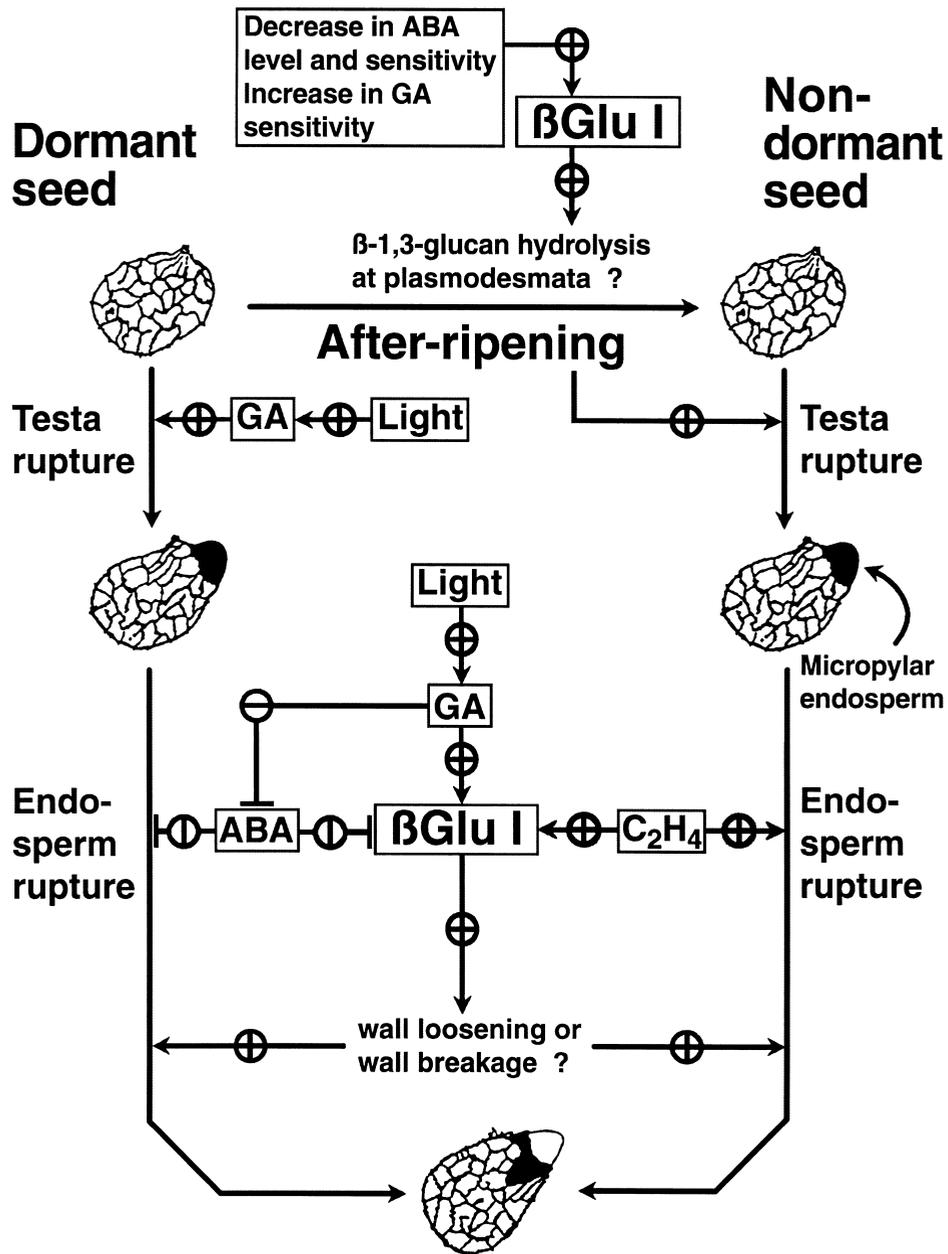
The induction of  $\beta$ Glu I and endosperm rupture are tightly linked in response to physiological factors known to affect the incidence and timing of germination (Fig. 2; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999). Tobacco seed germination is accompanied by ethylene evolution, and endogenous ethylene is required for the promotion of endosperm rupture and high-level  $\beta$ Glu I expression of light-imbibed seeds and of non-photodormant dark-imbibed seeds (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1998). Ethylene does not affect the spatial and temporal pattern of  $\beta$ Glu I expression and does not break photodormancy or affect the kinetics of testa rupture. Regulation of  $\beta$ Glu I and class I chitinase is often tightly coordinated, e.g.

in leaves both accumulate in response to ethylene treatment and infection by pathogens (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999). In contrast, ethylene induces  $\beta$ Glu I, but not class I chitinase, in germinating tobacco seeds, and ABA transcriptionally down-regulates  $\beta$ Glu I, but not class I chitinase in tobacco leaf tissue (Rezzonico *et al.*, 1998). ABA inhibits the induction of the  $\beta$ Glu I genes during tobacco seed germination and specifically delays endosperm rupture, but does not affect the kinetics of testa rupture (Fig. 1A; Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995). While ABA delays the rate of  $\beta$ Glu I accumulation and the timing of endosperm rupture in a concentration-dependent manner, it does not affect the onset of  $\beta$ Glu I induction and does not confer a complete block to  $\beta$ Glu I accumulation or endosperm rupture. Kinetic analysis of the ABA effect in light-imbibed, after-ripened seeds strongly suggests that endosperm rupture depends on a critical threshold concentration of  $\beta$ Glu I. A similar effect has been found for osmoticum-imbibed tomato seeds, in which endo- $\beta$ -mannanase accumulation, endosperm weakening and rupture depend on crossing a threshold water potential (Toorop *et al.*, 1998).  $\beta$ Glu I accumulation and endosperm rupture are also delayed in osmoticum-imbibed tobacco seeds (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1996).

GA treatment can replace light in promoting  $\beta$ Glu I accumulation and endosperm rupture of non-photodormant tobacco seeds imbibed in the dark in medium without and with 10  $\mu$ M ABA (Leubner-Metzger, 2001). Photodormant tobacco seeds imbibed in the dark do not germinate and do not accumulate  $\beta$ Glu I, but GA-mediated release of photodormancy induced  $\beta$ Glu I in the dark in association with endosperm rupture (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1996). Seeds of the GA-deficient *gib-1* mutant of tomato do not accumulate  $\beta$ Glu I and do not germinate, but treatment with GA induces  $\beta$ Glu I gene expression in the micropylar endosperm, followed by germination (Wu *et al.*, 2000). A promoter deletion analysis of the tobacco  $\beta$ Glu I B (*Glb*) gene in germinating tobacco seeds (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1998) suggests that the distal region, which contains the positively acting ethylene-responsive element (ERE), is required for high-level, ethylene-sensitive expression; that the proximal region is necessary and sufficient for low-level micropylar-endosperm specific expression; and that both regions contribute to down-regulation by ABA. These promoter regions contain several highly conserved *cis*-acting elements for the regulation by tissue-specific factors, GA, ABA and ethylene (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999; Leubner-Metzger, 2001). Enhancer activity and ethylene responsiveness of  $\beta$ Glu I depend on the AGCCGCC box present as two copies in the ethylene-responsive element (ERE). They are the binding site of ERE binding proteins

(EREbps), which are transcription factors mediating ethylene responses (Ohta *et al.*, 2000). Transcripts of the EREbps showed a germination- and hormone-specific expression pattern in tobacco seeds (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1998).

The close correlation between  $\beta$ Glu I induction and the onset of endosperm rupture under a variety of physiological conditions supports the hypothesis that  $\beta$ Glu I contributes to endosperm rupture. Direct evidence for a causal role of  $\beta$ Glu I during endosperm rupture comes from sense-transformation with a chimeric ABA-inducible  $\beta$ Glu I transgene (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000). Tobacco plants were transformed with a sense- $\beta$ Glu I construct consisting of the genomic DNA fragment of the tobacco  $\beta$ Glu I B gene regulated by the castor bean *Cat1* gene promoter. The *Cat1* promoter is known to confer ABA-inducible, endosperm-specific transgene expression in germinating tobacco seeds (Suzuki *et al.*, 1995; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000; Leubner-Metzger, 2002). Seeds were obtained from independent sense- $\beta$ Glu I lines (TKSG7) and, for the purpose of proper controls, from independent empty-vector lines (TCIB1). Sense- $\beta$ Glu I transformation results in overexpression of  $\beta$ Glu I mRNA, protein and activity in TKSG7 seeds and promotes endosperm rupture of fresh, mature seeds and ABA-treated after-ripened seeds (Fig. 1A; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000). In contrast to fresh and to ABA-treated after-ripened TKSG7 seeds,  $\beta$ Glu I overexpression does not promote endosperm rupture of after-ripened TKSG7 seeds imbibed in medium without added ABA (Fig. 1A). This result supports our earlier finding that a critical threshold concentration of  $\beta$ Glu I is sufficient for proper germination under optimal conditions (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995). ABA down-regulates the  $\beta$ Glu I host genes in TCIB1 and wild-type seeds, but in the presence of the ABA-inducible  $\beta$ Glu I-transgene, ABA causes high-level  $\beta$ Glu I expression in TKSG7 seeds (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000). ABA treatment delays endosperm rupture of after-ripened TCIB1 and TKSG7 seeds, but, due to  $\beta$ Glu I overexpression, this delay is significantly reduced in TKSG7 seeds (Fig. 1A).  $\beta$ Glu I overexpression reduces the ABA-mediated delay in endosperm rupture of fresh and after-ripened seeds, but ABA treatment does not affect the kinetics of testa rupture (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000; Leubner-Metzger, 2002). In agreement with increased endogenous ABA content and signalling in fresh seeds (Grappin *et al.*, 2000), faster  $\beta$ Glu I accumulation and germination are obvious in fresh TKSG7 seeds imbibed in medium without ABA (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000). Taken together, these results support the view that a threshold  $\beta$ Glu I content is required, but not sufficient, for endosperm rupture. In the presence of ABA,  $\beta$ Glu I becomes a limiting factor for endosperm



**Figure 2.** A speculative model integrating tobacco class I  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase ( $\beta$ Glu I), seed dormancy, after-ripening and germination. According to the model,  $\beta$ Glu I expression is transcriptionally down-regulated by abscisic acid (ABA) in dormant seeds. Expression of  $\beta$ Glu I contributes to the release of coat-imposed dormancy and the promotion of germination, by acting at two sites. First, decrease in ABA level and sensitivity during after-ripening eventually permit  $\beta$ Glu I expression in seeds. Upon sufficient hydration, increased  $\beta$ Glu I action contributes to the release of coat-imposed dormancy and promotes testa rupture in the light. Secondly,  $\beta$ Glu I is induced by the light/gibberellin (GA) pathway in the micropylar endosperm and facilitates endosperm rupture. Endosperm-specific  $\beta$ Glu I expression and endosperm rupture are inhibited by ABA and promoted by light, GA and ethylene (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>). The light/GA pathway also promotes ABA degradation. In addition, photodormancy is manifested as a block prior to testa rupture during dark imbibition. It can either be released during after-ripening or by the light/GA pathway early during imbibition.  $\beta$ Glu I is one of several key factors that regulate dormancy and germination in response to environmental and hormonal conditions. A 'plus' sign designates promotion and a 'minus' sign inhibition of a process.

rupture (Fig. 2), and removal of this block, due to expression of the ABA-inducible  $\beta$ Glu I-transgene in TKSG7 seeds, promotes endosperm rupture until other ABA-sensitive processes become limiting. While these results do not show how  $\beta$ Glu I promotes endosperm rupture, they show directly that  $\beta$ Glu I is causally involved and that it contributes substantially to endosperm rupture.

### Occurrence and functions of $\beta$ -1,3-glucans in seeds

Little is known about the molecular mechanisms underlying the effects of  $\beta$ Glu on seed dormancy and germination. A possible function for  $\beta$ Glu in dicot stem elongation growth has been proposed (Simmons, 1994; Cosgrove, 1999), but this function is unproven. Although this is a possible hypothesis, there is no evidence demonstrating that  $\beta$ Glu expression in the micropylar endosperm acts by promoting the growth potential of the embryo. We proposed as a working hypothesis that  $\beta$ Glu contributes to degradation of cell-wall material, resulting in endosperm weakening and promotion of radicle protrusion, i.e. endosperm rupture (Vögeli-Lange *et al.*, 1994; Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995). One possibility is that  $\beta$ Glu acts by digesting the  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan callose (Simmons, 1994; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999), which is deposited between the plasma membrane and the cell wall of many tissues. Possible functions of callose in plants include: physical and chemical isolation of developing gametes, cell division, bud dormancy, protection from environmental and osmotic stress, regulation of plasmodesmatal trafficking, matrix for deposition of other wall components, pollen tube growth and plant-microbe interactions (e.g. Kelly *et al.*, 1992; Buccigaglia and Smith, 1994; Iglesias and Meins, 2000; Sivaguru *et al.*, 2000; Doblin *et al.*, 2001; Rinne *et al.*, 2001; Scherp *et al.*, 2001). Callose is present in large quantities in the seed-covering layers of several dicot species (e.g. Kelly *et al.*, 1992; Welbaum *et al.*, 1998; Wittich and Graven, 1998; Yim and Bradford, 1998; Nguyen *et al.*, 2002). In legume seeds it has been proposed to be the reason for water impermeability of the coats (Kelly *et al.*, 1992). Semipermeable layers, characterized by allowing water uptake and gas exchange while restricting solute diffusion, have been localized to the seed-covering structures of many species (e.g. Beresniewicz *et al.*, 1995; Yim and Bradford, 1998). In members of the *Cucurbitaceae* family (muskmelon, cucumber, zucchini, watermelon), seed semipermeability correlates with a thick aniline-blue-staining (indicative of callose) layer (Welbaum *et al.*, 1998; Yim and Bradford, 1998). In muskmelon, a single layer of endosperm cells,

covered by a thick deposit of callose and a thin waxy or suberin- and lipid-containing outer layer, encloses the embryo and creates a semipermeable apoplastic envelope. When dead muskmelon seeds are allowed to imbibe, solutes leaking from the embryo are retained within the envelope, resulting in osmotic water uptake and swelling. Acquisition of semipermeability and callose deposition in this layer coincide during seed development and are associated with distinct aniline-blue-staining vesicles in the endosperm envelope cells. Artificial degradation of the callose layer by treatment of decoated muskmelon seeds with exo- $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase from *Helix pomatia* causes loss of semipermeability. The callose layer is rapidly degraded upon imbibition of intact seeds, in correlation with the loss of semipermeability. These results demonstrate that massive deposition of callose in seed-covering layers can serve as a semipermeable 'molecular filter' that readily allows movement of water but not of solutes (Welbaum *et al.*, 1998; Yim and Bradford, 1998). Callose can not only serve as a 'molecular sieve', but also as a wall-strengthening agent, and it is proposed that an, as yet uncharacterized,  $\beta$ -glucanase in the muskmelon endosperm is related to weakening and radicle emergence (Welbaum *et al.*, 1998). As in muskmelon, semipermeability of barley grains also correlates with an aniline-blue-staining layer inside the seed coat (stated in Yim and Bradford, 1998). It is not known whether such a callose layer is a common feature of cereal grains, how the  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases are regulated that might degrade it and whether this is connected to increased ABA leakage and termination of dormancy (e.g. Cordero *et al.*, 1994; Visser *et al.*, 1996; Benech-Arnold *et al.*, 1999).

Massive callose accumulation is not a general feature of semipermeable layers in seed-covering structures. Histochemical staining with aniline blue did not detect callose in seeds of tomato, pepper, lettuce, leek or onion (Beresniewicz *et al.*, 1995; Yim and Bradford, 1998). Purified  $\beta$ Glu I of tobacco and tomato causes no significant release of reducing sugars from crude cell walls, isolated from tomato micropylar endosperm (with the testa removed) (Wu *et al.*, 2000). Thus, there is no evidence for substrates of these endo-type  $\beta$ Glu in tomato micropylar endosperm cell walls. These findings do not exclude the presence of  $\beta$ Glu substrates in tomato seeds *per se*. Micropylar testa cell walls have not been tested for possible  $\beta$ Glu hydrolysis products, and callose is not the only possible substrate.  $\beta$ Glu can also act indirectly by releasing minute amounts of elicitor-active  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan oligosaccharides, and endo-type  $\beta$ Glu can exhibit transglycosylation activity, which is not detectable with this type of assay (Boller, 1995; Sova *et al.*, 1997; Klarzynski *et al.*, 2000). Endosperm weakening appears to be a prerequisite for tomato

germination, and is likely to be achieved by cell-wall hydrolysis by the collaborative or successive action of several phytochrome- and GA-regulated cell-wall hydrolases (Bewley, 1997a). Two phases can be distinguished: (1) The early phase is not inhibited by ABA and includes ABA-insensitive endosperm weakening associated with micropylar-endosperm specific, GA-inducible and ABA-independent expression of endo- $\beta$ -mannanase, expansin and other proteins, but not  $\beta$ Glu I expression (e.g. Bewley, 1997a; Chen and Bradford, 2000; Nonogaki *et al.*, 2000; Toorop *et al.*, 2000; Wu *et al.*, 2000). Endo- $\beta$ -mannanase, which can hydrolyse isolated micropylar endosperm cell walls *in vitro*, appears to be necessary for endosperm weakening, but is not sufficient for the completion of tomato germination. (2) The late phase is critical, since it includes the final ABA-controlled step of radicle emergence associated with ABA-sensitive  $\beta$ Glu I expression in the micropylar endosperm, and  $\beta$ Glu I could therefore contribute to radicle emergence of tomato (Wu *et al.*, 2000). It is proposed that the late phase includes a second, ABA-controlled step of endosperm weakening, which is a biphasic process in tomato (Toorop *et al.*, 2000). Tomato endosperm weakening is usually measured as the force required to puncture micropylar seed halves that include the endosperm plus the testa tissues (Chen and Bradford, 2000; Toorop *et al.*, 2000; Wu *et al.*, 2000). The micropylar endosperm confers the major part of the mechanical resistance (Groot and Karssen, 1987). The testa accounts for approximately 20% of the mechanical resistance during the early phase of seed imbibition, and this declines just prior to radicle protrusion. The importance of the micropylar testa in controlling the completion of tomato germination is also obvious from the experiments with the ABA-deficient *sit<sup>w</sup>* mutant (Hilhorst and Downie, 1996). Thus, testa rupture could be important in the late phase and could be achieved by an ABA-sensitive process that is characterized by wall breakage at preformed breaking points.  $\beta$ Glu I could contribute to this process, but this remains to be demonstrated. Seed germination and coat-imposed dormancy of tobacco are also regulated by the testa and the endosperm (Leubner-Metzger, 2002). Due to its small size, puncture force measurements are not feasible with tobacco, and detection of callose in tobacco seeds is hampered by the high autofluorescence of the covering layers. Thus, as yet, there is no evidence for the presence of callose in solanaceous seeds or for massive amounts of a  $\beta$ Glu substrate in tomato endosperm cell walls.

In contrast to the massive accumulation of callose in some semipermeable seed layers, strategically localized callose deposition in the neck regions of plasmodesmata seems to be sufficient to regulate symplastic trafficking and bud dormancy (Iglesias

and Meins, 2000; Sivaguru *et al.*, 2000; Rinne *et al.*, 2001). Plasmodesmata are intercellular connections that allow direct symplastic movement of water, nutrients, signalling molecules and macromolecules. Increased callose deposition is associated with decreased plasmodesmatal movement of fluorescence-labelled molecules, e.g. dyes of defined size, viruses, proteins and the plant hormone GA.  $\beta$ -1,3-Glucan synthetase and  $\beta$ Glu control the synthesis and degradation of callose, respectively. Increased callose deposition is associated with bud dormancy of trees, and release of bud dormancy by GA or chilling seems to involve callose degradation by  $\beta$ Glu (Krabel *et al.*, 1993; Rinne *et al.*, 2001). Rinne *et al.* (2001) have demonstrated that bud dormancy of birch involves callose deposition in the neck regions of plasmodesmata and, as a result, all symplastic transport of the meristem is shut down. Release of bud dormancy by chilling involves removal of the callose plugs from the plasmodesmata and regaining of the capacity for symplastic transport. Bud dormancy release seems to be mediated by  $\beta$ Glu present in small, spherosome-like vacuoles that arise *de novo* during dormancy induction. Chilling induces a shift of these  $\beta$ Glu-containing vacuoles towards the plasma membrane, which seems to be followed by  $\beta$ Glu release and action on plasmodesmatal callose. Removal of the callose deposits during the release of birch bud dormancy coincides with the production of a 32 kDa  $\beta$ Glu detected by a polyclonal anti-tobacco  $\beta$ Glu antibody that recognizes the class I (vacuolar) and class II (secreted)  $\beta$ Glu isoforms (Rinne *et al.*, 2001). Such a mechanism could also be involved in the release of seed dormancy by  $\beta$ Glu, but this remains to be demonstrated.

$\beta$ Glu may also act by indirect release from cell walls of elicitor-active  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan oligosaccharides that may serve as signalling molecules for the induction or enhancement of processes related to endosperm weakening, cell death of seed layers, dormancy release or pathogen defence (Boller, 1995; Klarzynski *et al.*, 2000; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2001). The soybean elicitor-releasing  $\beta$ Glu are class III isoforms (e.g. Cheong *et al.*, 2000), and it is of particular interest that they share more than 60% amino-acid identity with the class III isoforms of tobacco and tomato. The known acidic class III  $\beta$ Glu of tobacco is not expressed in germinating tobacco seeds (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1995), but the promoter of a soybean class III  $\beta$ Glu encoding a basic isoform is active in the micropylar endosperm of germinating tobacco seeds (Cheong *et al.*, 2000). Branched  $\beta$ -1,3;1,6-glucans and linear  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans (especially  $\beta$ -1,3-pentaglucan) are able to elicit defence-type responses in leaf tissue of tobacco, tomato and other species (Boller, 1995; Klarzynski *et al.*, 2000). These responses include the production of  $H_2O_2$  and the

accumulation of PR proteins, but not the entire set of responses associated with programmed cell death. Minute quantities of  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan elicitors released from the cell walls of plants and/or fungal pathogens are sufficient to induce these responses. Whether  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan oligosaccharide elicitors are released in seeds and affect germination or seed-specific defence responses is not known, but, besides PR protein accumulation, some of the other responses have been reported. Reactive oxygen species (ROS; including  $O_2^{\cdot-}$ ,  $H_2O_2$ ,  $\cdot OH$ ) are released by germinating seeds, and ROS production is under hormonal and developmental control (Schopfer *et al.*, 2001). ROS may cause cell-wall loosening, extension growth and promote germination (Amaya *et al.*, 1999; Schopfer, 2001; Schopfer *et al.*, 2001; Morohashi, 2002). ROS are implicated in endosperm development and in aleurone layer senescence during germination of cereals; and these processes are promoted by GA and ethylene and inhibited by ABA (e.g. Young and Gallie, 2000; Bethke and Jones, 2001). The endosperm of castor bean (Schmid *et al.*, 1999) and tomato (Lehmann *et al.*, 2001) exhibits programmed cell death as part of the post-germinative mobilization of storage reserves. This is a very interesting area for future experiments, but to date there is no direct proof for a role of programmed cell death in the micropylar endosperm of germinating dicot seeds.

In summary, endosperm rupture of seeds with endosperm-limited germination appears to be a complex process. There is strong evidence that major endosperm weakening by the action of endo- $\beta$ -mannanase is necessary for tomato endosperm rupture, and this appears to be achieved by direct digestion of a polymeric  $\beta$ -1,4-mannose substrate located in the cell walls (Groot *et al.*, 1988; Bewley, 1997a; Nonogaki *et al.*, 2000; Toorop *et al.*, 2000; Wu *et al.*, 2000). Direct proof for an *in vivo* role of endo- $\beta$ -mannanase by sense- and antisense-transformation of tomato is still lacking. Although it appears to be necessary, endo- $\beta$ -mannanase-mediated endosperm weakening alone is not sufficient for the completion of tomato germination. ABA clearly controls the final step of endosperm rupture and neither endo- $\beta$ -mannanase accumulation nor the weakening caused by it are inhibited by ABA. A possible second step of ABA-sensitive endosperm weakening has been proposed for tomato (Toorop *et al.*, 2000). ABA-sensitive  $\beta$ Glu might contribute to this second step, but there is yet no evidence for a  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan substrate in the walls of tomato endosperm cells (Wu *et al.*, 2000). The hormonal regulation of  $\beta$ Glu expression by ABA, GA and ethylene is consistent with a role of this enzyme in the endosperm rupture of solanaceous species (Leubner-Metzger *et al.*, 1998; Wu *et al.*, 2000; Petruzzelli, Müller, Hermann and Leubner-Metzger, unpublished data). Direct

evidence obtained by sense- $\beta$ Glu I transformation demonstrates that ABA-inhibitable  $\beta$ Glu I contributes substantially to the endosperm rupture of tobacco (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000). These findings show directly that expression of  $\beta$ Glu I in the endosperm is causally involved in promoting endosperm rupture of tobacco, and are consistent with the hypothesis of Ikuma and Thimann (1963), but a  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan substrate has not yet been found in tobacco seeds. Other cell-wall modifying proteins and modes of action might be involved in endosperm weakening (e.g. Bewley, 1997a; Chen *et al.*, 2001; Morohashi, 2002). Taken together, endosperm weakening appears to be achieved by the concerted action of several proteins, and by the sum of distinct mechanisms affecting the micropylar endosperm cell walls. There appear to be hormonal, environmental and species-specific differences in the regulation of these subprocesses.

#### Effects of $\beta$ Glu I and after-ripening on testa rupture and photodormancy

Sense and antisense transformation provided more indirect evidence for a second, novel site of  $\beta$ Glu I action on the release of dormancy during tobacco seed after-ripening (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000, 2001). Since  $\beta$ Glu I expression is not inhibited in the antisense seeds during endosperm rupture, no conclusion can be drawn from the antisense approach about the effect of  $\beta$ Glu I on endosperm rupture. However, testa rupture of after-ripened antisense- $\beta$ Glu I seeds in the light is delayed compared to that of after-ripened, wild-type, TCIB1 and TKSG7 seeds (Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2000, 2001; Fig. 1B). After-ripening promotes the germination of light-imbibed tobacco wild-type and TCIB1 seeds, and a recent study (Leubner-Metzger, 2002) has shown that after-ripening causes an earlier onset of testa rupture, followed by a similarly earlier onset of endosperm rupture (Fig. 1B, C). In contrast with after-ripened seeds, germination in the light is not affected in fresh antisense- $\beta$ Glu I seeds, but is promoted in fresh sense- $\beta$ Glu I seeds (TKSG7). Thus, not only can the promoting effect of after-ripening on germination be replaced by  $\beta$ Glu I overexpression, but the effect of both factors can be detected at the stage of testa rupture. Reciprocal genetic crosses between wild-type tobacco and homozygous, monogenic TKSG7 lines show that  $\beta$ Glu I is overexpressed in the covering layers and may replace the promoting effect of after-ripening on testa rupture only if the mother plant is a TKSG7 line. Although an effect on testa rupture of high-level  $\beta$ Glu I expression in the endosperm is also possible, it seems more likely that  $\beta$ Glu I expression in the maternal TKSG7-derived testa tissue is

necessary and sufficient for conferring the promoting effects of after-ripening on the onset of testa rupture. Germination of tomato is also controlled by ABA, and both micropylar covering layers contribute to coat-imposed dormancy (Groot and Karssen, 1987; Hilhorst, 1995; Wu *et al.*, 2000). Increased  $\beta$ Glu I expression (Leubner-Metzger, unpublished results) and a thinner micropylar testa are correlated with faster germination of the ABA-deficient *sit<sup>ov</sup>* tomato mutant (Hilhorst and Downie, 1996). These authors conclude from their experiments that both the micropylar testa and the micropylar endosperm are important in controlling the completion of germination, i.e. radicle emergence. Relationships among ABA, testa characteristics, coat-imposed dormancy and its release during after-ripening seem to be common features of endospermic and non-endospermic seeds (e.g. Kelly *et al.*, 1992; Hilhorst and Downie, 1996; Welbaum *et al.*, 1998; Debeaujon and Koornneef, 2000; Debeaujon *et al.*, 2000; Koornneef *et al.*, 2002; Leubner-Metzger, 2002).

Sense- $\beta$ Glu I transformation of tobacco has no detectable effects on photodormancy of fresh seed, on the after-ripening-mediated release of photodormancy, or on the GA requirement for photodormancy release (Kasperbauer, 1968; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 2001; Leubner-Metzger, 2002). The finding that photodormancy release during after-ripening is inhibited in antisense- $\beta$ Glu I seeds suggests that  $\beta$ Glu I is necessary, but not sufficient, for the complete transition to non-photodormancy. In general, modulation of dormancy during after-ripening results in a broadening of the germination responses to environmental conditions (Bewley, 1997b; Li and Foley, 1997; Koornneef *et al.*, 2002).  $\beta$ Glu I is one of the factors regulating the release of tobacco coat-imposed seed dormancy and has at least two target sites (Fig. 2): (1) Testa rupture, which is not affected by ABA during imbibition, but is promoted by after-ripening and by  $\beta$ Glu I overexpression in the covering layers, and (2) endosperm rupture, which is inhibited by ABA during imbibition, and depends on the contribution of ABA-sensitive expression of  $\beta$ Glu I during germination.

### **$\beta$ -1,3-Glucanases during the germination of non-endospermic dicot seeds**

In non-endospermic species, endosperm assimilation occurs during seed development. A developmentally regulated  $\beta$ Glu is expressed during pea seed development in the immature endosperm and testa layers (Buchner *et al.*, 2002). In many mature non-endospermic seeds, the cotyledons are the sole storage organs and the embryo is enclosed by the testa as the sole covering layer (e.g. Schopfer and

Plachy, 1984, 1993; Kretsch *et al.*, 1995). The testa produces a restraint during germination of radish (Schopfer and Plachy, 1993) and *Arabidopsis* (Debeaujon and Koornneef, 2000; Debeaujon *et al.*, 2000), but the testa is no hindrance during germination of rape (Schopfer and Plachy, 1984) and pea (Petruzzelli *et al.*, 2000). Ethylene promotes ethylene biosynthesis during the germination of non-dormant pea seeds by positive feedback regulation of 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid oxidase, and radicle protrusion through the testa is accompanied by an increase in ethylene evolution (Petruzzelli *et al.*, 1999, 2000).  $\beta$ Glu and chitinase show novel tissue-specific patterns of ethylene-dependent and ethylene-independent regulation during pea germination.  $\beta$ Glu activity levels, ethylene-responsiveness and biosynthesis remain low in cotyledon tissue. Ethylene responsiveness and biosynthesis increase in the embryonic axis during the late phase of pea germination. A strong increase in  $\beta$ Glu activity in the embryonic axis just after the completion of radicle emergence depends on ethylene and is due to a 34.5 kDa  $\beta$ Glu. High constitutive levels of chitinase are present in cotyledons and the embryonic axis. Thus, after the completion of radicle emergence, when  $\beta$ Glu is induced in the embryonic axis, antifungal combinations of the enzymes are present and might constitute a pre-emptive strategy to protect germinating pea seeds against microbial attack.  $\beta$ Glu isolated from cowpea seeds are antifungal against seed pathogens *in vitro* (Gomes *et al.*, 1996). In addition, a possible function for  $\beta$ Glu in dicot stem elongation growth has been proposed (Simmons, 1994; Cosgrove, 1999).

### **$\beta$ -1,3-Glucanases during the germination of cereal caryopses**

1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -Glucans are the predominant non-cellulosic polysaccharides in the cell walls of grasses and, as a major component of the matrix hemicelluloses, function in binding cellulose and cross-linking the microfibrils (Høj and Fincher, 1995; Cosgrove, 1999; Hrmova and Fincher, 2001). They are not found in dicots, and xyloglucan may serve a similar cross-linking role in dicot cell walls. 1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -Glucans are especially abundant in the starchy endosperm of cereal grains, where they account for up to 75% of the wall polysaccharides. 1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -Glucanases, which are not known in dicots, have been thoroughly characterized in grasses, and their function in the starchy endosperm of germinated grains is quite clear. They hydrolyse the 1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -glucans and provide access for other hydrolytic enzymes during the post-germination mobilization of storage reserves. Less is known about the function of cereal endo-type  $\beta$ Glu,

which are present in the ungerminated grain and rise markedly during germination (Simmons, 1994; Høj and Fincher, 1995; Hrmova and Fincher, 2001).  $\beta$ Glu transcripts are preferentially expressed in the maternal tissues of developing barley caryopses (Sreenivasulu *et al.*, 2002). Callose, a  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan substrate, is present in the nucellar projection and the vascular tissue of developing cereal grains, and might have a role in regulating plasmodesmatal transport of assimilates and/or protecting the developing endosperm from enzymes that break down the nucellar projection (Asthir *et al.*, 2001). Semipermeability of mature cereal caryopses correlates with a callose layer on the inside of the seed coat (Yim and Bradford, 1998). In addition, callose is detected as small deposits throughout the starchy endosperm and the aleurone layer, where it seems to be associated with plasmodesmata (Meikle *et al.*, 1994; Høj and Fincher, 1995; Brown *et al.*, 1997). The cereal endo-type  $\beta$ Glu and 1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -glucanases differ in substrate specificity, in that 1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -glucanases do not hydrolyse  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans and vice versa. In dry, mature caryopses of barley, endo-type  $\beta$ Glu activity is found to be associated predominantly with the embryo (in particular the scutellum); this activity increases markedly in the aleurone layer and the starchy endosperm during germination, and GA treatment of whole grains or isolated aleurone layers enhances its secretion (Simmons, 1994; Høj and Fincher, 1995; Hrmova and Fincher, 2001). Barley endo-type  $\beta$ Glu constitute a small gene family with seven known members (GI to GVII) encoding intracellular and apoplastic isoforms (Simmons, 1994; Høj and Fincher, 1995). The high levels of  $\beta$ Glu suggest a pre-emptive strategy to protect the grain against microbial attack, which will be discussed later in this review. It has also been proposed that the endo-type  $\beta$ Glu participate in the initial release of  $\beta$ -glucans from endosperm walls (Bathgate *et al.*, 1974), but direct evidence for such a role is not available. The differential regulation of  $\beta$ Glu and chitinases expressed in *Fusarium*-infected maize and wheat kernels suggests that some isoforms have unknown developmental functions during germination (Cordero *et al.*, 1994; Caruso *et al.*, 1999).

In addition to endo-type  $\beta$ Glu and 1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -glucanases, 'broad-specificity' exo- $\beta$ -glucanases have been characterized in grasses (e.g. Kim *et al.*, 2000; Harvey *et al.*, 2001; Hrmova and Fincher, 2001; Hrmova *et al.*, 2002), and a few reports suggest that homologues also exist in dicots. Exo- $\beta$ -glucanases are known to hydrolyse 1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -glucans, 1,3- $\beta$ -glucans, xyloglucans, a range of other  $\beta$ -glucans and  $\beta$ -oligoglucosides with (1,2)-, (1,4)-, and (1,6)- $\beta$ -D-linkages. In addition, transferase activity has been reported (Kim *et al.*, 2000; Hrmova *et al.*, 2002). A role in wall loosening during coleoptile extension growth

has been proposed, but compelling evidence for this hypothesis is still lacking (Kim *et al.*, 2000; Hrmova and Fincher, 2001). *ExoI* and *ExoII* are two barley genes encoding exo- $\beta$ -glucanases (Harvey *et al.*, 2001). Only *ExoI* mRNA is present at low abundance in the GA-treated aleurone layer, both genes are transcribed in the scutellum, but only *ExoII* mRNA is found in germinated grains. It is proposed that exo- $\beta$ -glucanases contribute to 1,3;1,4- $\beta$ -glucan turnover during scutellum senescence. Another proposal is that exo- $\beta$ -glucanases might act in concert with endo-type  $\beta$ Glu to degrade walls of invading fungi (Hrmova and Fincher, 2001).  $\beta$ -Glucosidases, acting on specific oligoglucosides and in some cases also on  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans, are also present in caryopses (e.g. Hasegawa *et al.*, 1994; Fieldes and Gerhardt, 2001). Finally, two thaumatin-like proteins with  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan binding activity have been purified from germinated barley grain (Grenier *et al.*, 1999; Osmond *et al.*, 2001).

### Seed pathogen-related functions of $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase

There is compelling evidence that  $\beta$ Glu and chitinases, acting alone and particularly in combination, can help defend plants against fungal infection (reviews: Simmons, 1994; Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999; Gomez *et al.*, 2002). These glucanohydrolases seem to act in two different ways: directly, by degrading the cell walls of the pathogen and, indirectly, by promoting the release of cell-wall-derived materials that can act as elicitors of defence reactions. The intracellular class I  $\beta$ Glu and chitinase isoforms of tobacco and tomato, but not of the apoplastic class II isoforms, act against some pathogens *in vitro*, but are without effect against others (for references see Leubner-Metzger and Meins, 1999). Similarly, only in some cases did high-level expression of class I or II  $\beta$ Glu and chitinases in transgenic plants result in increased resistance against a particular fungus. Taken together, the general conclusion is that it depends on the particular plant-fungus interaction whether or not a particular  $\beta$ Glu is involved in plant defence. This finding is also of utmost importance for investigating the hypothesis that  $\beta$ Glu and chitinases are part of a pre-emptive strategy to protect a germinating seed against microbial attack. This hypothesis was first proposed for germinating cereal grains (review: Høj and Fincher, 1995) and later for germinating seeds of dicot species (e.g. Gomes *et al.*, 1996; Petruzzelli *et al.*, 1999; Wu *et al.*, 2000). In favour of this hypothesis, several of the  $\beta$ Glu isoforms isolated from germinating cereal grains act *in vitro* against grain pathogens (e.g. Leah *et al.*, 1991; Seetharaman *et al.*, 1997). The distinct regulation of  $\beta$ Glu and chitinase isoforms in

*Fusarium*-infected maize and wheat kernels suggests that some function in pathogen defence, while others have developmental functions during germination (Cordero *et al.*, 1994; Caruso *et al.*, 1999). Simultaneous expression of *in vitro* antifungal  $\beta$ Glu and chitinase in tomato, cowpea and pea also suggests a function in pathogen defence (Gomes *et al.*, 1996; Petruzzelli *et al.*, 1999; Wu *et al.*, 2000). In addition, some thaumatin-like proteins isolated from germinating barley grains bind  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans and inhibit the growth of certain fungal species *in vitro*, but are without effect against others (Grenier *et al.*, 1999; Osmond *et al.*, 2001). Thus, there is strong *in vitro* evidence supporting the view that certain  $\beta$ Glu isoforms are involved in certain seed-pathogen interactions, but *in vivo* evidence is lacking and offers an interesting research area for seed biology. Finally, pathogen-related and developmental roles are not mutually exclusive, and a certain  $\beta$ Glu could serve functions in seed defence as well as in germination.

### A speculative model for tobacco seed dormancy and germination

A speculative model integrating tobacco seed dormancy, after-ripening,  $\beta$ Glu I and germination is presented in Fig. 2. According to the model,  $\beta$ Glu I, which is transcriptionally down-regulated by ABA, contributes to the release of coat-imposed dormancy and the promotion of germination at two sites. The first site of  $\beta$ Glu I action affects the after-ripening-mediated promotion of testa rupture of seeds imbibed in the light. Decreasing ABA content and sensitivity during after-ripening eventually permit  $\beta$ Glu I expression in seeds. Upon imbibition this  $\beta$ Glu I possibly hydrolyses plasmodesmatal  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan deposits and intensifies processes improving germination vigour. This may result in enhanced symplastic communication, e.g. GA signalling, and in enhanced capacity for water imbibition. These are characteristic features associated with the transition from the dormant (fresh) to the non-dormant (after-ripened) state. A major part of this  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan is probably localized at the living inner parenchyma layer of the testa and the endosperm/testa border, and represents a maternal component conferring coat-imposed dormancy. Hydrolysis of this  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan results in the after-ripening-promoted testa rupture. Hydrolysis of plasmodesmatal  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan probably also facilitates symplastic movement of GA (or GA precursors) needed for the release of photodormancy by the GA/light signal transduction pathway. The second site of  $\beta$ Glu I action is during the final ABA-controlled phase of endosperm rupture (Fig. 2). ABA-sensitive expression of  $\beta$ Glu I in the micropylar endosperm contributes to radicle protrusion, and a

threshold content of  $\beta$ Glu I is required and sufficient for this step.  $\beta$ Glu I could act directly by hydrolysis of endosperm wall components, resulting in the promotion of endosperm weakening and its rupture by the protruding radicle.  $\beta$ Glu I could also act indirectly by releasing elicitor-active oligo- $\beta$ -1,3-glucans from plant wall components that act as signalling molecules to mediate loosening or breakage of the micropylar endosperm, e.g. by reactive oxygen species and/or programmed cell death. These processes, as well as  $\beta$ Glu I expression and endosperm rupture, are promoted by GA and ethylene and are inhibited by ABA. Therefore,  $\beta$ Glu I appears to be a key factor in regulating dormancy and germination in response to environmental and hormonal conditions.

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