Characterization and expression analysis of the aspartic protease gene family of Cynara cardunculus L.

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Aspartic proteases (APs) are widely distributed in nature, from simple organisms like the unicellular green algae Chlamydomonas reinhardtii and the moss Physcomitrella patens [1], to the more complex gymnosperm and angiosperm plants [2]. In contrast to those of their animal counterparts, the biological functions of plant APs are far from being deciphered. Nevertheless, plant APs have been implicated in a plethora of biological functions.

Cardosin A and cardosin B are two aspartic proteases mainly found in the pistils of cardoon Cynara cardunculus L., whose flowers are traditionally used in several Mediterranean countries in the manufacture of ewe’s cheese. We have been characterizing cardosins at the biochemical, structural and molecular levels. In this study, we show that the cardoon aspartic proteases are encoded by a multigene family. The genes for cardosin A and cardosin B, as well as those for two new cardoon aspartic proteases, designated cardosin C and cardosin D, were characterized, and their expression in C. cardunculus L. was analyzed by RT-PCR. Together with cardosins, a partial clone of the cyprosin B gene was isolated, revealing that cardosin and cyprosin genes coexist in the genome of the same plant. As a first approach to understanding what dictates the flower-specific pattern of cardosin genes, the respective gene 5' regulatory sequences were fused with the reporter β-glucuronidase and introduced into Arabidopsis thaliana. A subsequent deletion analysis of the promoter region of the cardosin A gene allowed the identification of a region of approximately 500 bp essential for gene expression in transgenic flowers. Additionally, the relevance of the leader intron of the cardosin A and B genes for gene expression was evaluated. Our data showed that the leader intron is essential for cardosin B gene expression in A. thaliana. In silico analysis revealed the presence of potential regulatory motifs that lay within the aforementioned regions and therefore might be important in the regulation of cardosin expression.
functions, including the degradation and/or proteolytic processing that occur during plant senescence, biotic and abiotic stress responses, programmed cell death, and reproduction [2].

Cardosin A and cardosin B are two floral APs, purified from *Cynara cardunculus* L. pistils, that have been broadly studied and characterized [3–9]. To our knowledge, cardosins A and B represent the best characterized floral APs, together with cyprosins [10,11], two other APs present in the pistils of *C. cardunculus* L. Strikingly, cardosins and cyprosins have never been copurified, and their coexistence in the plant remains elusive.

Like many other plant APs, cardosins are synthesized as inactive zymogens and undergo proteolytic processing, leading to the activation of the enzyme [3,5,9]. Cardosins A and B exhibit distinct enzymatic properties [8], and diverge in terms of tissue localization [3,9]. Cardosin A was mainly found in the protein storage vacuoles of the stigmatic papillae [6], whereas cardosin B accumulates in the extracellular matrix of the floral transmitting tissue [9]. Given that both enzymes share a highly similar primary structure (73%), their distinct biochemical behaviors could be due to the slight differences observed between them [9]. Although the biological functions of cardosins in the flowers of *C. cardunculus* are not completely assigned, their pistil-specific detection in all stages of flower development [6,9] has suggested that they may participate in several flower-specific events, such as flower senescence, defensive mechanisms against insects and/or pathogens, and reproduction [3,9].

Despite the large amount of information gathered in the last decade on plant APs, little is known about AP gene regulation. Indeed, all the data so far available on AP gene expression regulation have been obtained essentially from studies on proteases whose genes are induced upon several environmental stimuli [12–15] or specifically expressed in particular stages of the plant life cycle [16–21].

In this study, the genomic sequences of the cardosin A and B genes and of two new cardosin genes (those encoding cardosins C and D) were isolated and characterized. Our results showed that in cardoon as well as in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants, cardosin genes exhibit a differential pattern of expression. To gain further understanding of the mechanisms that dictate the flower-specific expression pattern of cardosins, several 5′-deletions of the cardosin A gene promoter region were fused to the β-glucuronidase (GUS) reporter gene and introduced into *Arabidopsis thaliana* plants. This allowed us to delimit a region of 529 bp crucial for cardosin A expression. We also evaluated the relevance of the leader intron of the cardosin A and B genes on gene expression in *A. thaliana*. Furthermore, the significance of several putative cis elements found within the identified regulatory regions of the genes is discussed. Finally, an evolutionary relationship based on sequence comparison of these proteases is presented.

**Results**

**Isolation and characterization of cardosin genes**

The previously cloned cardosin A full-length cDNA [3] was used to screen a genomic library of *C. cardunculus* Three phages – λ5, λ6, and λ18 – were isolated and subjected to restriction analysis and subcloning. Phage λ5 harbored the cardosin A gene, and the remaining phages contained two new cardosin genes, designated cardosins C (λ6) and D (λ18). An additional screen with a probe comprising a fragment of the cardosin B gene, including its 3′-UTR, yielded two positive phages, λ4.1 and λ4.2. The former harbored the complete sequence of the cardosin B gene, whereas the latter enclosed a partial sequence of the cyprosin gene. Like other plant AP genes, cardosin genes have their coding region interrupted by 12 introns that occur in conserved positions despite their variable sizes (Fig. 1). Both the 5′- and 3′-splice junctions are in good agreement with the exon–intron consensus boundary sequences [22], and the initiation codon is inserted in a well-conserved context (AACATGGG) among plant genes [23].

Comparison of cardosin A, B and D genomic clones with the respective cDNAs (Fig. 2) revealed the presence of an intron in the 5′-UTR of the genes. The nucleotide sequences of the cDNA and genomic clones of cardosins diverge after a perfect match of six bases. At the point of divergence, a consensus splicing acceptor sequence, 5′-AG-3′, was found (Fig. 3). The remaining bases of the leader sequence appear in the upstream region of the genomic clone after an intervening sequence of 966 bp (cardosin A), 953 bp (cardosin B) or 1207 bp (cardosin D), with a consensus donor site 5′-GT-3′ at the 5′-end, suggesting that this region represents an intron (Fig. 2). To map the transcription initiation site of cardosin genes, primer extension analysis with an antisense oligonucleotide located in the untranslated region determined by 5′-RACE was carried out (data not shown). The 5′-end of cardosin genes identified by primer extension analysis was longer than the one observed by 5′-RACE (Fig. 2).

Although a leader intron seems to be a conserved structural feature among AP genes [16,19], it does not appear in the 5′-UTR of the cardosin C gene. This observation is based on the comparison of the genomic
sequences of the cardosin A, C and D gene 5'-flanking regions (Fig. 3). Beyond an initial small match of nucleotides immediately upstream from the initiation codon, the homology among the three genes is interrupted, but it is recovered several nucleotides upstream from the 5'-UTR of the cardosin A and D genes (Fig. 3).

A TATA element [24], TATAAAA, is located 30 bp upstream of the transcription start site of the cardosin B gene, and two ‘CAAT’ box motifs are found at positions −71 bp and −74 bp of the cardosin A and D genes (Fig. 3).

The 5'-flanking regions of the cardosin A, C and D genes share a high degree of similarity (Fig. 3). However, the respective region of the cardosin B gene only exhibits a stretch of 388 bp with significant homology to the cardosin A and D genes (Fig. 3).

Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the structure of the cardosin and cyprosin B genes. Filled boxes represent exons. Open triangles symbolize introns. The size of each intron is indicated under the triangles in bp. The sequence of cyprosin B isolated was incomplete and encompassed the last six exons of the gene.

Fig. 2. Determination of the transcription initiation site of the cardosin A, B and D genes. The alignment of the most extended 5'-RACE products (CardA_cDNA, CardB_cDNA, and CardD_cDNA) against the corresponding genomic sequences (CardA_gDNA, CardB_gDNA, and CardC_gDNA) revealed the presence of an intron within the 5'-UTR of the genes. Primer extension analysis showed that the precise transcription initiation site is located several nucleotides upstream of each gene’s longest 5'-RACE product, at the nucleotide indicated by an open arrow. The initiation codon is shaded in black. The leader intron consensus splicing donor and acceptor sequences are boxed. The size of the intron is indicated in bp.

Predicted structural features of the new cardoon APs

As expected, the deduced amino acid sequences of cardosin C and cardosin D revealed that both enzymes possess the typical structural domain organization of plant APs [2]. Cardosins and cyprosin B share, in terms of primary structure, a high level of similarity, with cardosins A, C and D exhibiting the highest scores. Interestingly, the slight differences motifs are present in positions −71 bp and −74 bp of the cardosin A and D genes, respectively.
among cardosins A, C and D comprise the RGD and KGE motifs, which were demonstrated to be important for the interaction of cardosin A with phospholipase D in Arabidopsis thaliana [7]. As depicted in Fig. 4, the RGD/KGE motifs found in the primary structure of cardosins A and C are replaced in cardosin D by
KGD/EGE motifs. These differences may have relevant functional implications, as cardosin B harbors a RGN/EGE motif and does not interact with phospholipase Dα [7].

**Evolutionary relationships of cardosins and their plant counterparts**

The amino acid sequences of *C. cardunculus* APs were compared with those of several other plant APs, by means of the phylogenetic analysis program MEGA version 3.0 [26], using the neighbor-joining method. On the basis of the resulting phylogenetic tree, three distinct groups within the typical plant AP family can be defined (Fig. 5). Group I comprises the best studied APs, and may further be divided into two smaller groups. Group Ia includes the APs of the Brassicaceae and Fabaceae families, as well as those found in monocotyledonous plants. These APs have been implicated in the proteolytic processing and degradation of storage proteins (*A. thaliana* and *Brassica napus* APs, *orizasin* and *fitepsin*), in leaf senescence (*At4g0446*, *BnU55032*, and *VuAP1*), and in programmed cell death events (SoyAP1 and *fitepsin*) [18,19,21,27–32].

Although the wheat AP (BAE20413) has not yet been biochemically or molecularly characterized, its inclusion in the phylogenetic tree suggests its close evolutionary relationship with other plant APs. The RGD and KGE motifs are boxed. Potential N-linked glycosylation sites are marked.

**Fig. 4.** Amino acid sequence alignment and homology of cardosins A, B, C and D and cyprosin A and B. (A) The amino acid sequences were deduced from the genomic sequences (this work), with the exception of cyprosin A (X69193) and cyprosin B (X81984). Identical sequences are indicated by dots, and deleted amino acids by horizontal lines. The signal peptide and prosequence are indicated by dashed and continuous lines, respectively. The amino acids forming the catalytic triads in the active site (DTG and DSG) are in bold italic. The RGD and KGE motifs are boxed. Potential N-linked glycosylation sites are marked.

(B) Percentage amino acid identity and similarity between *C. cardunculus* APs. The upper and lower parts of the table correspond to similarity and identity percentages, respectively.
in this group suggests that it might be involved in similar biological functions. Within group I, the APs At1g11910 and BnU55032, GmSoyAP1 and VuAP1, as well as fiTEPSIN and BAE20413, form a clade and appear to be potential orthologs (Fig. 5).

Group Ib includes the APs from the Asteraceae family, which have mostly been found in flowers and therefore have been proposed to participate in flower-specific events [3,9,33]. The topology of group Ib suggests that, at some time during the evolution of C. cardunculus, an AP ancestor gene has duplicated and given rise to the branches comprising cyprosins and cardosins. Subsequent duplications within both branches should have occurred originating the group actual configuration (Fig. 5).

The APs of group II have never been studied; however, as they are evolutionarily related, it is possible that they share similar or complementary biological functions. Interestingly no dicotyledonous plants were found within this group (Fig. 5).

Finally, group III contains the tomato (L46681) and potato (StAsp) APs, whose genes are induced upon
biotic stress challenge [14,15]. The group also includes one of the soy Aps (SoyAP2), which is expressed in several tissues and may be involved in seed germination [32], and the sweet potato AP (AF259982).

Cardosin genes exhibit distinct expression patterns in C. cardunculus

Given the overall similarity among the cardosin A, C and D genes, it became evident that our previous work did not allow discrimination of these genes [3,6]. Within this context, we had designed primer pairs specific for each cardosin gene (Fig. 6A) and evaluated gene expression by RT-PCR in three stages of pistil development and in several other organs of C. cardunculus (Fig. 6B). Our results showed that: (a) with the exception of stems, the cardosin A and D genes share a similar pattern of expression, being ubiquitously expressed; (b) cardosin B gene expression is pistil-specific; and (c) cardosin C expression is flower-specific and restricted to the pollen and to the pistils of partially opened capitula (Fig. 6B).

Cardosin promoter regions are functional in A. thaliana

To further investigate the spatial and temporal expression patterns of cardosin genes, each of their 5′-flanking regions (promoter and leader intron) was fused to the GUS reporter gene in order to generate the constructs −2912pA::GUS (cardosin A), −3459pB::GUS (cardosin B), −2040pC::GUS (cardosin C), and −1186 pD::GUS (cardosin D).

The −2912pA::GUS construct drives GUS expression in the pistils, petals and filaments in the early stages of A. thaliana flower development in six of the independent transformed plant lines analyzed (Fig. 7A–C). The expression is mainly restricted to the flowers, although staining can also be observed in young stems. At the initial stages of pistil development, intense staining is observed in the stigma, style and ovary. However, the stigma staining tends to disappear at the later stages of flower development (Fig. 7A–C).

The 5′-flanking region of the cardosin B gene (−3459pB::GUS) induced GUS expression in the anthers, at the initial stages of flower development (Fig. 7M), and in the stigmatic papillae of mature flowers (Fig. 7N,O). Within six independently transformed Arabidopsis lines, GUS activity was not detected in other plant organs, being confined to floral tissues.

In seven of eight plant lines transformed with the cardosin C promoter region (−2040pC::GUS), the transgene expression was confined to undifferentiated flowers and styles (Fig. 7J–L), whereas construct −1186 pD::GUS (containing the cardosin D 5′-flanking region) was not able to drive GUS expression in the eight independent plant lines analyzed (data not shown). In addition, none of the negative controls showed GUS staining (data not shown).

**Fig. 6.** Expression of cardosin genes during flower development and in several organs of C. cardunculus (A) Control analysis of the specificity of the PCR amplification of each cardosin gene. Phage DNA including each cardosin gene – cardosin A (A), cardosin C (C), cardosin D (D), and cardosin B (B) – was used as template in these experiments. The gene-specific primers used were misAF1/misR1117 (cardosin A), misCF1/misCR1 (cardosin C), and misDF1/misDR1 (cardosin D). The primer pairs only amplified the corresponding gene, confirming their specificity. (B) RT-PCR analysis of cardosin genes, using the corresponding gene-specific primer pairs. The actin 2 gene of A. thaliana was used as an amplification positive control. CC, pistils of closed capitulum; POC, pistils of partially open capitulum; OF, pistils of open capitulum; C, negative control.
A 529 bp region is crucial for cardosin A expression in *A. thaliana*

As a first approach to the identification of *cis* regulatory elements involved in the control of cardosin gene expression, we analyzed several 5′-deletions of the cardosin A promoter (Fig. 8) and examined their effect on gene expression in transgenic plants. Our results clearly show that the removal of 1 kb of the cardosin A promoter region (−1792pA::GUS) did not greatly affect the transgene expression (Fig. 7D–F) in eight independent lines tested.

A subsequent 529 bp deletion of the promoter region from position −1792 to position −1263 (Fig. 8) completely abrogated transgene expression in all plant lines (data not shown). As successive 500 bp deletions to position −234 (Fig. 8) did not restore the transgene expression, the presence of a negative regulator was
ruled out, and we assumed that important regulatory elements were present within the 529 bp region from −1792 bp to −1263 bp.

In silico analysis of this region (Fig. 3) revealed the presence of three putative regulatory elements: a long repetition \((n = 10)\) of the dinucleotide A/T, followed by a long repetition \((n = 12)\) of the dinucleotide G/A and an inverted repeat. All of these sequences were also found in the cardosin C promoter region, but were absent from the corresponding region of the cardosin D gene analyzed (Fig. 8).

The cardosin B but not the cardosin A leader intron is essential for gene expression

It is known that introns may participate in gene regulation, by modulating the level of expression and/or determining the specific pattern of expression of a gene [34–39]. To evaluate the relevance of the leader intron in cardosin expression, we deleted it from the 5′-flanking region of the genes (Fig. 8). The deletion of the cardosin A leader intron (construct pAAi::GUS) did not affect the staining pattern of GUS (Fig. 7G–I), which was essentially similar to the one obtained when \(A. thaliana\) plants were transformed with the construct −2913pA::GUS (Fig. 7G–I), in six of the eight lines considered. Conversely, the deletion of the respective region from the cardosin B gene (construct pBAi::GUS; Fig. 8) completely abolished the transgene expression (Fig. 7P–R) in all plant lines, highlighting its important role in the regulation of cardosin B gene expression.

Comparison of the leader intron of the cardosin B gene with pistil-specific genes revealed the presence of putative regulatory elements. A region of SLG13, a gene involved in the prevention of self-pollination in \(Brassica\), encompassing three boxes (I, II, and III), located 400 bp upstream of the initiation codon, is required for pistil-specific gene expression in transgenic tobacco [40]. A sequence sharing 77% similarity with that mentioned above and spanning 34 bp was identified in the leader intron of the cardosin B gene (Fig. 9). In addition, another element (motif III-related) was identified 438 bp downstream of the SLG13-like sequence [50] (Fig. 9). A similar motif is potentially implicated in pistil-specific expression of a pathogenesis-related protein gene from \(Pyrus serotina\) in transgenic tobacco (Fig. 9) [41,42]. Moreover, a motif III-related element also appears in the \(Arabidopsis\) AtSI1 gene (a ‘Brassica-like’ S gene; Fig. 9) that is expressed specifically in papillar cells and may function in pollination [43].

We have made two extra constructs harboring only the leader intron of the cardosin A and B genes. When tested under physiologic conditions, these constructs were not able to drive GUS expression in \(Arabidopsis\) (data not shown), revealing that they cannot act as alternative promoters.
Discussion

Cloning by library screening of four full-length genes encoding cardosins A, B, C and D precursors, together with the cloning of a partial sequence of the cyprosin B gene and the isolation of the cyprosin A cDNA [11], indicates that *C. cardunculus* APs are encoded by a multigene family composed of at least six members, and reveal the coexistence of cardosins and cyprosins within the same plant.

The gene structure of cardosins basically reflects the same genomic organization as that of the few other typical AP genes that have been analyzed [16,19,29,30]. Given that monocotyledon and dicotyledon APs display the same pattern of exon–intron arrangement, the insertion of introns within the coding region possibly occurred before the divergence of both classes of plants [30]. Regarding the introns, the loss or gain of sequences may have taken place after monocotyledon and dicotyledon divergence, a fact that may explain: (a) the variable length of introns among different species and between gene family members of the same plant; and (b) the absence of one intron in the *A. thaliana* genes *AtPaspA2* and *AtPaspA3* [29].

Cardosins and cyprosins share a similar structural domain organization and display a high degree of identity in terms of primary structure. Interestingly, the slight differences among cardosins and between cardosins and cyprosins comprise the motifs RGD and KGE (Fig. 4). These motifs are known to mediate the cardosin A–phospholipase Dα interaction, which may play an important physiologic role [7]. Cardosin B, which harbors an EGE instead of a KGE motif, does not bind to phospholipase Dα [7]. Within *C. cardunculus* APs, only cardosin A and cardosin C possess the RGD and KGE motifs (Fig. 4), and therefore the formation of a complex in planta with phospholipase Dα is possibly restricted to these proteases.

In contrast to cyprosins, cardosins do not contain the residues Lys11 and Tyr13 (phytepsin amino acids numbering) in the N-terminal domain. These residues are well conserved among plant APs, and are involved in the inactivation mechanism of the precursor form of the enzymes [2,44]. Cardosins and the *Cy. humilis* AP are the only plant APs known to date whose Lys11/Tyr13 residues are absent from the primary structure, a feature that may explain the enzymatic activity exhibited by recombinant procardosins (Vieira et al., unpublished results). From the scenario of plant AP evolution, it becomes evident that in *C. cardunculus*, the loss of the inactivation mechanism of the precursor forms occurred after the duplication of an ancestral gene common to cardosins and cyprosins (Fig. 5).

Comparison of protein data [3,9] with the results of gene expression studies (Fig. 6B) clearly indicates that cardosins are specifically expressed in the flowers of cardoon, although minor levels of cardosin A and D transcripts could also be detected in other plant organs (Fig. 6).

To further analyze the expression of cardosins, we fused their promoter region with the reporter gene GUS and assayed its activity in transgenic *A. thaliana* (Fig. 7). *A. thaliana* possesses three AP genes whose promoter regions do not exhibit any significant homology with the corresponding regions of cardosin genes (data not shown), which is in agreement with the different pattern of expression displayed by the APs of both species [6,9,29]. Nevertheless, the lack of sequence data on other plant AP promoter regions, in addition to the evolutionary proximity of groups Ia and Ib (Fig. 5), support our use of the model plant *A. thaliana* in our studies.
In *A. thaliana*, cardosins exhibit a flower-specific pattern of expression (Fig. 7), mirroring what was observed in the cardoon. The tissue-specific pattern, with some overlap of cardosins (cardosins A and C), suggests that they may have specific and/or complementary functions within the flower. The presence of cardosins A and C in the initial stages of flower development is in agreement with the presence of cyprosins in B in flower meristems, as the antibody used in the immunocytochemical study could not discriminate among cardosins and cyprosins [45]. The presence of cardosins in flower meristems, in addition to the lower amount of processed protein detected in immature cardoon flowers [3], led us to hypothesize that at least cardosins A and C may play important physiologic roles in the early stages of flower development, before being processed into the two-chain active enzymes.

We did not detect GUS activity driven by the 5'-flanking region of the cardosin A and C genes in pollen grains. This observation is not in agreement with the detection in pollen of cardosin A and C transcripts in *C. cardunculus* L (Fig. 6). However, the absence of other noncoding regions of the genes (introns and 3'-UTR), as well as the different sensitivities of the techniques (RT-PCR/GUS histochemical detection), as previously observed by others [46], may explain the discrepancies observed.

As a first attempt to determine the molecular basis for the flower-specific pattern of cardosin expression, several 5'-deletions of cardosin A promoter regions were generated, fused to the reporter GUS (Fig. 8), and then analyzed by means of GUS histochemical detection. Therefore, we were able to delimit a region of 529 bp, located between positions −1792 bp and −1263 bp, that is crucial for transgene expression in *A. thaliana*. An *in silico* search of this region against several plant cis element databases revealed the presence of at least three motifs that may also be relevant in cardosin A gene regulation. These motifs comprise an A/T repeat, followed by a G/A repeat, preceded by an inverted repeat (Figs 3 and 8). The A/T repeats enhance gene expression [47–49] in a copy number-dependent way [49]. Regions with five or more A/T repeats are recognized by the high-mobility group protein in several plant species [50]. Repeats of the dinucleotide G/A were reported to bind to the basic pentacysteine protein, and may be involved in the regulation of the expression of a diversity of genes [51]. Moreover, several inverted repeats are known to regulate gene expression [52]. Further studies should be performed to establish whether the 529 bp region is involved in the enhancement of gene expression or in the determination of its flower-specific pattern. Mutational analysis will determine the relevance of the identified motifs.

The high similarity among cardosins A, C and D, which extends beyond the coding region (Fig. 3), and the relevance of the region of 529 bp in cardosin A expression may explain the ineffectiveness of the cardosin D flanking region in driving GUS expression. The cardosin C gene construct (−2040pC::GUS) also contains a highly similar region (Fig. 3). However, the sequence of the cardosin D promoter region included in the analysis does not contain the equivalent 529 bp region of cardosin A (Figs 3 and 8). It is therefore possible that its absence in the cardosin D promoter region could explain the lack of GUS activity in the transgenic *A. thaliana* plants transformed with the construct −1186 pD::GUS.

Although the presence of a leader intron is a well-conserved feature in plant AP genes [16,19], its biological role has not yet been clarified. To address this subject, we deleted the corresponding regions from the cardosin A and B genes (Fig. 8) and assayed GUS activity. The removal of the cardosin A leader intron did not affect GUS histochemical localization (Fig. 7G–I), whereas its deletion from the cardosin B gene completely abrogated gene expression (Fig. 7P–R). However, we cannot rule out the hypothesis that GUS levels varied when we deleted the cardosin A leader intron.

Two mechanisms may explain the lack of GUS expression driven by the cardosin B construct depleted of the leader intron: (a) positive regulatory elements lay within the leader intron; or (b) the leader intron may be increasing the steady state of mRNA levels, without significantly affecting the rate of transcription (intron-mediated enhancement [53]). Nuclear run-on transcription assays, in addition to the design of constructs in which the leader intron is inverted or partially deleted, will give clues to indicate the precise mechanism.

The similarity between the leader introns of cardosins A and B is restricted to the first 182 bp (Fig. 3). If the leader intron of cardosin B harbors important regulatory elements, they should be confined to the remaining sequence. We therefore compared this region of the cardosin B gene with the promoter regions of plant genes that are specifically expressed in pistils, namely genes involved in self-pollination avoidance (Fig. 9). The presence of a motif III-related sequence [41] within the leader intron of the cardosin B gene is particularly interesting, as its removal from a SLG13 promoter::GUS construct abolished reporter expression in pistils of transgenic tobacco [40]. Furthermore, the deletion of an SLR1 gene region harboring one motif III-related sequence also eliminated its expression in the stigma and styles of transgenic
tobacco, and it was shown that as yet unidentified pistil transcription factor binds that region [54]. Therefore, the motif III-related sequence is a good candidate for a positive regulatory element of cardosin B gene pistil expression. Future work on transgene expression driven by a motif III-mutated leader intron of the cardosin B gene fused with a minimal promoter will certainly provide further insights into the relevance of this sequence.

**Experimental procedures**

**Plant material and growth conditions**

*C. cardunculus* tissue samples were collected from field-grown plants, frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen, and kept at –80 °C until use. *A. thaliana* (Columbia ecotype) surface-sterilized seeds were sowed in Murashige and Skoog medium (Duchefa Biochemie, Haarlem, the Netherlands), pH 5.8, containing 0.7% w/v of plant agar (Duchefa Biochemie). After 48 h of 4 °C stratification treatment in the dark, the seeds were germinated at 22 °C under a 16 : 8 h light/dark cycle. Two-week-old seedlings were subsequently transferred to soil until completion of the plant life cycle.

**Construction of a *C. cardunculus* library and cardosin gene isolation**

DNA was extracted from young leaves of *C. cardunculus* subspecies *flavescens*, according to the method of Jofuku & Goldberg [55] and partially digested with *Sau*III (New England Biolabs, Beverley, MA, USA). The resulting fragments, ranging from 15 to 25 kb, were cloned into the λDASH II vector (Stratagene, Beverley, MA, USA). Primary recombinants were amplified to create a stable library. A representative aliquot (380 000 plaque-forming units) of the recombinants was amplified to create a stable library. A fragment ranging from 15 to 25 kb was cloned into the vector. The resulting fragment was isolated with the RNeasy Plant mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and the automatic sequencer CEQ 8000 Genetic Analysis System (Beckman Coulter).

**RACE experiments**

Total RNA from the pistils of *C. cardunculus* flowers buds was isolated with the RNeasy Plant mini kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) and used to generate an adaptorgenerated, double-stranded cDNA RACE library with the Marathon cDNA Amplification kit (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA, USA). The 5'UTR regions of the cardosin genes were amplified by PCR under standard conditions [56], using primer R333 (Table 1) combined with the kit-provided adaptor primers. R333 hybridizes with exon I of cardosin genes (Fig. 8) at a position 333 bp downstream of the ATG. The 3'UTR of the cardosin B gene was amplified by means of a similar strategy, but using the CardBS primer as specific oligonucleotide (Table 1). The PCR products were cloned with the TA cloning kit (Invitrogen) and sequenced by automated DNA sequencing as described above.

**RT-PCR analysis of cardosin gene expression**

Total RNA from *C. cardunculus* was isolated, as described above, from several tissues and from pistils of closed, partially opened and opened capitulum (the globular inflorescence grouped in a common receptacle surrounded by bracts). The RNA integrity and possible nuclear DNA contamination were evaluated in a 1% agarose gel, and equal amounts of RNA (1 μg) were used for cDNA synthesis (1st Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit for RT-PCR; Roche, Basel, Switzerland). Four sets of primers, specific for each of the cardosin genes, were used for RT-PCR amplification (Table 1): misAF1/misR1117 (63 °C, cardosin A); misCF1/misCR1 (65 °C, cardosin C); misDF1/misDR1 (60 °C, cardosin D); CardBS/CardBR (58 °C, cardosin B) [9]. Owing to the high level of similarity among cardosins A, C and D, specific amplification of each gene was only possible after the introduction of an artificial mismatch in the antepenultimate or penultimate base of the specific primers (Table 1). As a negative control, the RNA from seeds was amplified through a RT-PCR reaction, with each set of primers, without the prior addition of avian myeloblastosis virus-reverse transcriptase (AMV-RT).
**Table 1.** Sequences of the oligonucleotides used in this work.

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<th>Name</th>
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<td>Probe CA-5’</td>
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<td>TCAAGCTGCTTCTCGCAATCC</td>
<td>PCR</td>
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<td>5’PextA</td>
<td>CACACCCCTCTTCTAGCTCCATCAAATAACAC</td>
<td>5’ Primer extension</td>
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<td>misAF1</td>
<td>ATGGGACATTTGGCGCTATCCA^</td>
<td>RT-PCR (cardosin A)</td>
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<td>misR1117</td>
<td>GGTGCACATCTCATGTCTG^</td>
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<tr>
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<td>AGACCTTCTGTATTCTTGTG^C</td>
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<tr>
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<td>GGGTGCTCTTCAAAGTGGTA^</td>
<td>RT-PCR (cardosin D)</td>
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<td>misDR1</td>
<td>TGTATGCGACAGAAGCTACTCA^</td>
<td>RT-PCR (cardosin D)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>GATTCGCGGTGGAAGACG</td>
<td>RT-PCR (cardosin B)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CardBR</td>
<td>ATACCATTGCACTCTACTAT</td>
<td>RT-PCR (Atactin 2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>FLCBR</td>
<td>TTTATTGGACCATTATTTCCGG</td>
<td>Probe CB-3’</td>
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<td>RT-PCR (Atactin 2)</td>
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<td>– 2912AF</td>
<td>– 2912pA::GUS and pAA::GUS</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AAAAACAGGCTATGAATTGTGTTATAGTC</td>
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<td></td>
<td>– 1792AF</td>
<td>– 1792pA::GUS</td>
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<td>AAAAACAGGCTTCGGTCTCTAAGGTGACTAGCTGG^</td>
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<td>All chimeric cardosin A constructs except pAA::GUS</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>– 3459BF</td>
<td>– 3459pB::GUS and pBA::GUS</td>
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<td></td>
<td>AAAAACAGGCTCTCACTATGACATCAATGTGAAAGCAATC^</td>
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<tr>
<td>PromBR</td>
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<td>pBA::GUS</td>
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</table>

^ The artificial mismatch introduced in the primer is underlined. * The att sequences are underlined. † The ATG within the reverse primer, mutated to ATC, is in Italic. ‡ The six bases preceding the ATG were introduced in primers and are in Bold.

The artificial mismatch introduced in the primer is underlined. * The att sequences are underlined. † The ATG within the reverse primer, mutated to ATC, is in Italic. ‡ The six bases preceding the ATG were introduced in primers and are in Bold.

**A. thaliana** actin 2 gene (AGI code: AT3G18780) was amplified by RT-PCR with the specific primer pair ActF/ActR (Table 1) and used as a positive control. At least two replicates were carried out for each RT-PCR reaction, and the products were sequenced to further confirm the specificity of the amplification.

**Chimeric plasmid constructs**

The cardosin A, B, C and D 5’-flanking regions were cloned, using GATEWAY BP and LR reactions (Invitrogen), into the binary vector pKGWFS7 [57]. In this vector, an in-frame fusion between the regions coding for **EgfpER** and β-glucu-
ronidase (gus) is cloned downstream of the GATEWAY cassette. The initiation codon is therefore provided by the vector, and is the same for all the constructs. The 5'-flanking region of each cardosin gene was amplified by PCR from the respective genomic clone (λ, 5, 6, 18 or λ, 4, 1), using the Platinum Pfx DNA Polymerase (Invitrogen). At the 5'-end, the primers contained attB sites, allowing subsequent fragment cloning by homologous recombination. The resulting PCR products with terminal attB1 and attB2 sequences were purified, and incubated with pDONR221 vector (Invitrogen) containing the attP1 and attP2 recombination sites, and the BP CLONASE enzyme (Invitrogen). This mixture was used to transform DH5α-competent cells (Invitrogen), and the recombinant clones were selected on kanamycin-containing LB plates (50 μg mL⁻¹; Fluka Biochemika, Buchs, Switzerland). Positive recombinant pDONR plasmids were incubated with the binary vector pKGWFS7 [57] in the presence of LR CLONASE enzyme (Invitrogen). The pKGWFS7 vector has attB1 and attB2 recombination sites positioned upstream of the GUS reporter gene. After kanamycin selection, the resulting constructs were analyzed by restriction enzyme hydrolysis and sequenced as described above. Four plasmids containing the 5'-flanking regions of cardosin A (~ 2912pA::GUS), cardosin B (~ 3459pB::GUS), cardosin C (~ 2040pC::GUS) and cardosin D (~ 1186 pD::GUS) were produced in this way (Fig. 8). As we did not perform an analysis of green fluorescent protein fluorescence, and for simplicity, the constructs were named, for example, 2912pA::GUS and not 2912pA::GFP::GUS. The primer pairs used in all chimeric constructs are listed in Table 1. To avoid the use of cardosin ATG as the initiation codon, all the reverse primers used to construct each GATEWAY cassette harbor a mutation in ATG (mutated to ATC) (Table 1). A similar strategy was used to make the constructs pAii::GUS and pBii::GUS, which enclosed the same 5'-flanking region included in constructs ~ 2912pA::GUS and ~ 3459pB::GUS, respectively, but without the leader intron. The leader intron was deleted by PCR amplification with the primer pairs ~ 2912AF/PromARΔi (cardosin A gene) and ~ 3459BF/PromBRΔi (cardosin B gene) (Table 1, Fig. 8). A nested set of 5'-deletions in the cardosin A gene promoter region was also generated. Fragments differing from 500 bp at their 5'-end were amplified by PCR and cloned into pKGWFS7, generating constructs ~ 1792pA::GUS, ~ 1263pA::GUS, ~ 764pA::GUS and ~ 234pA::GUS (Fig. 8). In addition, a fragment of the 3'-UTR sequence of the rice Os-ACS5 gene (GenBank accession no. X9706) [58,59] was cloned by homologous recombination into vector pKGWFS7 and used as a negative control.

### Plant transformation

Constructs were introduced into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain LBA4404 by electroporation [60]. Bacteria harboring the plasmid with the desired cardosin gene 5'-flanking region were grown to saturation in LB medium, and used to transform wild-type *A. thaliana* plants (T₀ plants) by the floral dip method [61]. Transformants (T₁ plants) were selected on Murashige and Skoog medium containing 50 mg L⁻¹ kanamycin and 0.7% w/v plant agar. Kanamycin-resistant plants were grown to the next generation (T₂) and analyzed for GUS staining. *A. thaliana* infected with untransformed *Ag. tumefaciens* LBA4404 was also used as a negative control.

### Histochemical analysis of GUS activity

Histochemical GUS staining was performed for T₂ vegetative tissues (leaves, roots, stems, siliques, seeds, inflorescences) and pollen with 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indoxyl-β-D-glucuronic acid (X-Gluc; ImmunoSource, Zoersel-Halle, Belgium) as substrate [62]. Samples were stained for 16 or 24 h at 37 °C. The stained organs were washed and incubated with 70% ethanol for 2 h, and clarified by incubation with a CLP solution [50 g of chloral hydrate (Riedel – de Haën, Seelze, Germany)] dissolved in 20 mL of lactic acid (Fluka Biochemika) and 25 mL of melted phenol crystals (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany)]. A stereo microscope (HQ Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) attached to an image acquisition system was used to obtain the photographs. Eight independent *A. thaliana* independently transformed lines were analyzed per construct.

### Sequence analysis

Wise 2 (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Wise2) and Neural Network promotor prediction (http://www.fruitfly.org/seq_tools/promoter.html) were used in gene structure and promoter prediction, respectively. The multiple sequence alignments were constructed using clustalw (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/clustalw), and edited and shaded in the program genedoc version 2.6 (http://www.psc.edu/biomed/genedoc/gddl.htm). Phylogenetic analysis was conducted with MEGA version 3.0 [26], using the neighbor-joining method with Poisson correction.

### Acknowledgements

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