PRIMARY CELL WALL METABOLISM DURING FRUIT RIPENING*

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ABSTRACT

Fruit softening is an important part of the ripening process, and involves changes to cell turgor and primary cell wall structure. Most of the polysaccharide components of the cell wall are subjected to some degree of controlled degradation, resulting in a loosening and swelling of the wall structure, a weakening of cell wall strength, and reduced intercellular adhesion. Early ripening changes involve the degradation of the galactan/ arabinan side chains of rhamnogalacturonan-I, demethylesterification of homogalacturonan, and depolymerisation of matrix glycans (hemicelluloses). Solubilisation of pectins increases during ripening, but depolymerisation of pectins is usually most pronounced late in ripening. Considerable variation in the extent of pectin depolymerisation and galactan/arabinan loss exists between species. Transgenic studies have shown that expansin may control cell wall loosening, and β -galactosidase may be important in increasing cell wall porosity. Suppression of either of these enzymes resulted in a retention of fruit firmness. Suppression of endo-polygalacturonase and pectin methylesterase had little effect on fruit firmness during ripening, but influenced fruit shelf life due to alterations in the integrity of the middle lamella, which affected intercellular adhesion. The enzyme(s) responsible for depolymerisation of matrix glycans have not been defined, and the identity of the ripening-related xyloglucanase remains obscure.

Keywords: cell wall disassembly; fruit softening; pectins; matrix glycans; expansin.

INTRODUCTION

Fruit ripening consists of a number of biochemical and physiological changes which help to attract animal vectors that will disperse the seeds. In addition to the accumulation of pigments, sugars, organic acids, and aroma volatiles, a series of

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textural changes occur which improve palatability. Some fleshy fruit (such as tomato, peach, strawberry, and kiwifruit) undergo considerable softening and achieve a smooth melting texture when ripe, which is thought to be due largely to a regulated dismantling of the primary cell wall. However, the accumulation of solutes in the cell wall space reduces turgor pressure, and this also contributes to textural changes (Shackel *et al.* 1991). Ripening changes occurring within the wall lead to a softening and weakening of the primary cell wall, some degree of cell wall swelling in most species (Redgwell, MacRae, Hallett, Fischer, Perry, & Harker 1997), and a weakening of the pectin-rich middle lamella, which is largely responsible for maintaining intercellular adhesion (Jarvis *et al.* 2003).

During ripening, the principal theme is a dismantling of the primary cell wall structure, and a degradation of the polysaccharides of which it is composed. In most fruit species there is a depolymerisation of matrix glycans (formerly called hemicelluloses, *see below*) and usually of polyuronides, a loss of pectin side chains, and an increase in pectin solubilisation. Softening, and the extent of cell wall changes, are less in fruit that attain a crisp fracturable texture when ripe, such as apple, bell pepper, and watermelon. However, even within the melting-flesh fruit that soften extensively during ripening there are substantial differences in the type and extent of cell walls modifications occurring in different species. Weakening of both primary cell walls and middle lamellae is necessary to achieve softness, but primary cell walls must weaken considerably in order for cells to split open when tissue is bitten or chewed, releasing the intracellular juice (Harker *et al.* 1997). The ultimate result of cell wall changes is to produce a soft or crisp fruit with a juicy texture, although there may be some differences between species in the mechanism by which this result is achieved.

There have been many studies of fruit softening during ripening because of the importance of fruit in the human diet and the limitations caused to shelf life by the softening process. This brief review will cover the major cell wall changes that occur in most species, and discuss the role of various cell wall modifying enzymes in the softening process.

CELL WALL CHANGES DURING SOFTENING

Other than in specialised cells or in vascular tissues, the cells of fruit flesh possess primary walls. Primary cell walls are unlignified and consist of cellulose microfibrils held together by a diverse array of matrix glycans (xyloglucan, substituted and unsubstituted xylans, and glucomannan) and pectins (homogalacturonan, xylogalacturonan, and two types of rhamnogalacturonan), together with some structural glycoprotein and phenolics (Carpita & Gibeaut 1993).

Matrix glycans (formerly known as hemicelluloses) are composed principally of neutral sugar residues, have a backbone consisting entirely of neutral sugar residues, and lack GalA. Xyloglucan has a 1,4- β -D-glucan backbone, regularly substituted with Xyl on three consecutive Glc residues out of four, plus occasional further decoration with Gal and/or Gal-Fuc. Xylan has a backbone of 1,4- β -D-xylan, and can be largely unsubstituted, or possess occasional single residue side chains of Ara and GlcA (glucuronoarabinoxylan). Glucomannan is present in lower amounts, and consists of 1,4- β -D-Glc and 1,4- β -D-Man as alternating residues or in short alternating regions. All of these glycan molecules have a linear backbone, which may both hydrogen bond to cellulose and be interwoven into the outer layers of 1,4- β -D-glucan chains of cellulose microfibrils. Xyloglucan in particular may span between cellulose microfibrils, tethering them together, and, as such, polysaccharides of this class are also known as cross-linking glycans.

Pectins are characterised by their high content of GalA. Homogalacturonan (HGA) is a large polymer of 1,4- α -D-GalA, and is initially secreted into the wall with most residues methylesterified. Xylogalacturonan has the same backbone as HGA, but about half of the GalA residues are substituted with single α -D-Xyl residues. Rhamnogalacturonan-II (RG-II) has the same backbone as HGA, but has four complex, highly conserved, side chains consisting of at least 12 different sugars. Side chains of different RG-II molecules are linked together by borate diesters. Rhamnogalacturonan-I (RG-I) has a backbone of alternating 1,2- α -D-Rha and 1,4- α -D-GalA residues. These side chains are linear galactans, branched arabinogalactans. RG-I pectin side chains may be covalently attached to xyloglucan (Popper & Fry 2005), and are strongly associated with cellulose (Redgwell, Fischer, Kendal, & MacRae 1997), potentially cross-linking cellulose microfibrils or interlocking the xyloglucan-cellulose and pectin networks together (Vincken *et al.* 2003; Zykwinska *et al.* 2005).

During ripening, modifications occur to cell wall polysaccharides, and this affects the structure and properties of the wall. One of the earliest changes to be initiated is the loss of galactan side chains from RG-I. In tomato, cell wall Gal declined by almost half during green fruit maturation, prior to the breaker stage which is the beginning of ripening, and declined by another two-thirds during ripening (Kim *et al.* 1991). A substantial loss of Gal from the wall during ripening has been observed in most fruit species (Gross & Sams 1984). Loss of arabinan side chains from RG-I also occurs in most species (Gross & Sams 1984), either coincident with or immediately prior to softening (Brummell *et al.* 2004; Peña & Carpita 2004). RG-I arabinan/galactan is very firmly associated with cellulose, and requires extensive extraction in concentrated alkali for its solubilisation (Redgwell, Fischer, Kendal, & MacRae 1997). It is thought that the pectin network determines the porosity of the wall (Baron-Epel *et al.* 1988), and degradation of RG-I side chains is likely to increase porosity and enhance the diffusion of enzymes within the apoplast.

Demethylesterification of HGA also began prior to ripening in grape and peach (Barnavon et al. 2001; Brummell et al. 2004), and declined substantially during ripening in these species and in tomato and avocado (Koch & Nevins 1989; Wakabayashi et al. 2000). Removal of the methylester group by pectin methylesterase (PME) leaves a charged carboxylic acid group, which has profound consequences for the properties of HGA and cell wall structure. In the absence of Ca²⁺, demethylesterified negatively-charged HGA may become more loosely attached to the wall due to electrostatic repulsion by other unesterified HGA, increasing pectin solubilisation and possibly contributing to wall swelling. In the presence of Ca²⁺, unesterified regions of HGA aggregate together in localised regions of calciumpectate gel, which can stiffen the wall (Jarvis 1984). Calcium-pectate cross-links between HGA molecules in the middle lamellae eventually form most of the links between adjacent cells in ripe fruit, since treatment with chelating agents such as CDTA can cause almost complete cell separation (Peña & Carpita 2004). Furthermore, methylesterified HGA cannot be depolymerised by endopolygalacturonase (endo-PG), a common ripening-related enzyme. A requirement for at least partial demethylesterification of HGA by the prior action of PME may provide a limitation to the action of endo-PG in vivo, thus restricting HGA depolymerisation in the wall (Wakabayashi et al. 2000). Pectate lyase (PL), which depolymerises HGA by a different biochemical mechanism, may also require a demethylesterified substrate.

Depolymerisation of matrix glycans has been observed in all fruit species studied, where it has been shown to begin early in ripening and usually is closely correlated with softening. Depolymerisation of xyloglucan, which can be specifically detected using an iodine binding assay, was slow but progressive, resulting in a loss of molecules with the highest molecular weight and an accumulation of mid-sized molecules (O'Donoghue & Huber 1992; Cutillas-Iturralde et al. 1994; Maclachlan & Brady 1994; Brummell, Harpster, Civello, Palys, Bennett, & Dunsmuir 1999; Harpster, Brummell, & Dunsmuir 2002). However, a downshift in molecular weight of the total matrix glycans implies that depolymerisation of other polysaccharides in this extract, such as arabinans/galactans originating as RG-I side chains and xylans, also occurred (O'Donoghue & Huber 1992; Brummell, Harpster, Civello, Palys, Bennett, & Dunsmuir 1999; Harpster, Brummell, & Dunsmuir 2002). Changes to matrix glycan molecular weight were relatively limited, with moderately-sized molecules remaining even at the over-ripe stage and no accumulation of small molecules, suggesting that loosening of the matrix glycancellulose network is controlled and that the cross-linking glycans are not extensively degraded. Loosening of the matrix glycan-cellulose network by expansin and the depolymerisation of glycans by hydrolases or transglycosylases may be an important part of cell wall swelling and may increase the access of depolymerases to their substrates later in ripening.

Although the depolymerisation of matrix glycans appears to occur similarly in most species, this is not so for the depolymerisation of chelator-soluble pectins (predominantly HGA). Polyuronide depolymerisation varied strikingly between species, being extensive in avocado, moderate in peach and tomato, slight in melon, and virtually undetectable in strawberry and banana (Huber 1984; Wade et al. 1992; Huber & O'Donoghue 1993; Rose et al. 1998; Brummell et al. 2004). In fruit which ripen to a melting texture, polyuronide depolymerisation generally either began slowly during ripening followed by a dramatic loss of large molecules late in ripening (e.g., tomato, avocado, and papaya — Huber & O'Donoghue 1993; Brummell & Labavitch 1997; Paull et al. 1999), or was essentially absent during the early ripening stages and occurred dramatically late in ripening (e.g., pepino and melting-flesh peach - O'Donoghue et al. 1997; Brummell et al. 2004). Softening did not correlate with polyuronide depolymerisation early in ripening, although the pronounced depolymerisation occurring late in ripening was usually accompanied by a substantial loss of firmness. Polyuronide depolymerisation was very slight in fruit that ripen to a crisp fracturable texture, such as apple and bell pepper (Yoshioka et al. 1992; Harpster, Brummell, & Dunsmuir 2002). Degradation of HGA, which is the major component of the middle lamella, causes a reduction in cell-to-cell contacts. Weakened intercellular adhesion is a normal part of the softening process, and contributes to the textural alterations occurring in ripe fruit.

Cellulose microfibrils do not appear to be degraded during ripening in most fruit (e.g., Maclachlan & Brady 1994), with the exception of avocado (Platt-Aloia *et al.* 1980).

CELL WALL-MODIFYING ENZYMES

The changes to cell wall polysaccharides that bring about altered wall properties are believed to be due largely to the actions of a variety of ripening-related enzymes which are secreted into the cell wall space as ripening progresses. These enzymes modify both pectins and matrix glycans. Particular changes include removal of polymeric or single-sugar side chains, removal of methylester or acetyl groups from HGA, cleavage of polymeric backbones, and loosening of hydrogen bonding between cellulose microfibrils and glycans. Some examples of enzymes with ripening-related expression patterns and their probable functions and major substrates are shown below (Pharr *et al.* 1976; Domínguez-Puigjaner *et al.* 1997; Medina-Escobar *et al.* 1997; Bewley *et al.* 2000; Brummell & Harpster 2001; Chen & Paull 2003; Schröder *et al.* 2004).

- (1) Endo-polygalacturonase (endo-PG): cleavage of HGA backbone at internal sites by hydrolysis.
- (2) Exo-polygalacturonase (exo-PG): step-wise removal of single GalA residues from non-reducing end of HGA backbone.

- (3) Pectin methylesterase (PME): removal of methylester groups from HGA, leaving charged carboxylic acid groups.
- (4) Pectate lyase (PL): cleavage of HGA backbone at internal sites by β -elimination.
- (5) β -Galactosidase: exo-acting enzymes removing galactan side chain of RG-I.
- (6) α -Arabinosidase: exo-acting enzymes removing arabinan side chain of RG-I.
- (7) Endo-1,4-β-glucanase (EGase): cleavage of glucan backbone of xyloglucan or non-crystalline cellulose chains at internal sites. Sometimes imprecisely referred to as cellulase.
- (8) Endo-1,4-β-xylanase (EXase): cleavage of xylan backbone of glucuronarabinoxylan or unsubstituted xylan at internal sites.
- (9) Endo-1,4-β-mannanase (EMase): cleavage of mannan backbone of mannan, galactomannan, or glucomannan at internal sites by hydrolysis.
- (10) Mannan transglycosylase (MTase): joining together of (galacto)glucomannan or mannan polysaccharides by transglycosylation. May be a reaction carried out by the EMase activity described above.
- (11) Xyloglucan endotransglycosylase (XET): internal cleavage of glucan backbone of xyloglucan and rejoining the end to another xyloglucan molecule.
- (12) Expansin: loosening of hydrogen bonding between cellulose microfibrils and matrix glycans.
- (13) Various other glycosidases may also be present in ripening fruit from some species, including α -galactosidase, α -glucosidase, β -glucosidase, α -mannosidase, β -mannosidase, α -xylosidase, and β -xylosidase.

The type and relative abundance of the enzymes that accumulate during ripening vary considerably between species; for example, tomato shows unusually high levels of endo-PG activity, and avocado unusually high levels of EGase activity. In some species, endo-PG activity is very low, but PL activity is present, which also acts to cleave HGA backbones but via β -elimination rather than hydrolysis (Marín-Rodríguez *et al.* 2002). Plant cell wall-modifying enzymes are usually composed of large gene families, several of which are expressed in maturing unripe or in ripening fruit. The presence of multiple isoforms of particular enzymes may confound attempts to investigate function by transgenic manipulation, since an unaffected gene product may be able to compensate for the one that is suppressed, preventing observation of a phenotype. Owing to the commercial importance of fruit softening as the major determinant of shelf life, investigation of the role of particular enzymes has been an attractive target for biotechnology. A summary of transgenic manipulations to determine the roles of candidate genes in the fruit softening process is shown in Table 1.

Gene*†	KD or	Species	Fruit phenotype	Reference
	OE‡			
SlPG	KD	Tomato	Softening slightly reduced Shelf life increased	Kramer <i>et al.</i> (1992) Langley <i>et al.</i> (1994)
SlPG	OE	Tomato	Softening not affected	Giovannoni et al. (1989)
SIPME	KD	Tomato	Softening not affected Shelf life reduced	Hall <i>et al.</i> (1993) Tieman & Handa (1994)
SlCel1	KD	Tomato	Softening not affected	Lashbrook et al. (1998)
SlCel2	KD	Tomato	Softening not affected	Brummell, Hall, & Bennett (1999)
FaCell	KD	Strawberry	Softening not affected	Woolley et al. (2001)
CaCel1	KD	Pepper	None reported	Harpster, Brummell, & Dunsmuir (2002)
CaCel1	OE	Tomato	Softening not affected	Harpster, Dawson, Nevins, Dunsmuir, & Brummell (2002)
SlEXPA1	KD	Tomato	Softening reduced	Brummell, Harpster, Civello, Palys, Bennett, & Dunsmuir (1999)
SlEXPA1	OE	Tomato	Softening increased	Brummell, Harpster, Civello, Palys, Bennett, & Dunsmuir (1999)
Slβsub	KD	Tomato	Softening increased	Chun & Huber (2000)
SlTBG1	KD	Tomato	None reported	Carey et al. (2001)
SlTBG4	KD	Tomato	Softening reduced	Smith et al. (2002)
SlTBG6	KD	Tomato	Fruit cracking increased	Moctezuma et al. (2003)
FaPL-C	KD	Strawberry	Softening reduced	Jiménez-Bermúdez et al. (2002)

TABLE 1–Effect on fruit softening and shelf life of genetic manipulation of ripeningrelated cell wall-modifying enzymes.

* Species abbreviations: *Ca*, *Capsicum annuum* (pepper); *Fa*, *Fragaria* × *ananassa* (strawberry); *Sl*, *Solanum lycopersicum* (tomato).

[†] Enzyme abbreviations: Cel, cellulase (more accurately endo-1,4-β-glucanase); EXP, expansin; PG, endo-polygalacturonase; PL, pectate lyase; PME, pectin methylesterase; βsub, β-subunit protein of endo-polygalacturonase; TBG, tomato β-galactosidase.

[‡] Knock-down (post-transcriptional gene silencing) or over-expression.

Early work in tomato showed that endo-PG was only a minor contributor to fruit softening during ripening, although transgenic endo-PG-suppressed fruit showed an extended shelf life due to improved integrity of the middle lamella and consequent enhanced intercellular adhesion (Kramer *et al.* 1992; Langley *et al.*

1994). Reduced HGA demethylesterification by transgenic suppression of PME activity prevented the formation of calcium-pectate cross-links and weakened middle lamella integrity in over-ripe fruit, resulting in fruit almost falling apart as they entered the senescent phase (Tieman & Handa 1994). This confirms the importance of intercellular adhesion to extended fruit shelf life. Neither of these genes appeared to play a major role in fruit softening during normal ripening, although phenotypes were evident in long-term storage trials. However, enhanced mobility of endo-PG in the cell wall space caused by transgenic suppression of the endo-PG β-subunit (a tomato cell wall protein that binds strongly to endo-PG and may restrict its movement in the wall) resulted in softer fruit, showing that endo-PG does make some contribution to the softening process (Chun & Huber 2000). Correspondingly, in strawberry the post-transcriptional gene silencing of PL (which, like endo-PG, depolymerises HGA), resulted in firmer fruit (Jiménez-Bermúdez et al. 2002). Both of these observations suggest that depolymerisation of HGA, whether by endo-PG or PL, makes at least some contribution to fruit softening.

The roles of three different β -galactosidases have been investigated in tomato fruit ripening. Suppression of TBG1 (tomato β -galactosidase 1) had no measurable effect on galactose loss during ripening (Carey *et al.* 2001), but suppression of TBG4 early in ripening reduced galactose loss and transgenic fruit retained firmness later in ripening (Smith *et al.* 2002). It is possible that this is due to the retention of RG-I side chains that are normally degraded, which could both directly strengthen the wall and prevent the access of degradative enzymes to their substrate by diminishing the usual increase in wall porosity. Silencing of TBG6 would not be expected to affect firmness during ripening, since it is expressed in maturing fruit prior to ripening, but its suppression caused thickening of the cuticle and increased fruit cracking (Moctezuma *et al.* 2003). These experiments suggest that the widely observed degradation of RG-I galactan side chains plays an important role in the softening process.

Loosening of the xyloglucan-cellulose network by expansin may be required for normal fruit softening. Suppression of a tomato ripening-related expansin resulted in firmer fruit throughout ripening, while a three-fold over-expression of the protein caused a striking increase in softening (Brummell, Harpster, Civello, Palys, Bennett, & Dunsmuir 1999). This latter effect was correlated with an enhanced depolymerisation of matrix glycans in the overexpressing line. Since expansins do not themselves have hydrolytic or transglycosylation activity, this must have been due to increased wall loosening, allowing enzymes resident in the cell wall space access to substrates that were normally unavailable.

The identity of the enzymes that bring about depolymerisation of matrix glycans, particularly xyloglucan, is unknown. Suppression of ripening-related EGases in

tomato and strawberry had no effect on fruit firmness (Lashbrook *et al.* 1998; Brummell, Hall, & Bennett 1999; Woolley *et al.* 2001), although more than one gene family member is expressed during ripening in both these species, which may have obscured any phenotype. In bell pepper a single EGase gene (*CaCel1*) provides ripening-related EGase activity, yet silencing of this gene did not prevent depolymerisation of xyloglucan during ripening (Harpster, Brummell, & Dunsmuir 2002). This is consistent with biochemical data from avocado, in which EGase activity and xyloglucanase activity could be separated (O'Donoghue & Huber 1992). Furthermore, over-expression of the pepper gene in tomato increased EGase activity by up to 20-fold, yet no increase in the rate of depolymerisation of total matrix glycans or xyloglucan was observed (Harpster, Dawson, Nevins, Dunsmuir, & Brummell 2002). All of these observations indicate that EGase is not the enzyme that brings about xyloglucan depolymerisation during ripening, and the xyloglucanase responsible has yet to be discovered.

CONCLUSIONS

Fruit softening is caused by a controlled degradation of cell wall polysaccharides and a loosening of the polymer networks of the wall, resulting in a swelling of the primary cell wall to become a softened, more hydrated, open structure. Some cell wall modifications begin before ripening is initiated, notably the loss of galactan side chains from RG-I. Early in ripening, cell wall galactan and arabinan are rapidly degraded, and a depolymerisation of matrix glycans begins, which is correlated with declining fruit firmness. Also during this time there is continued demethylesterification of HGA, and an increase in pectin solubilisation, both of which may be related to cell wall swelling. A depolymerisation of polyuronides can begin during early or mid ripening, but usually is most pronounced later in ripening, particularly in some melting-flesh fruit. However polyuronide depolymerisation may be very low or absent in some species, particularly in crisp fruit such as apple and bell pepper, but also in some melting-flesh fruit such as banana and strawberry. Different species appear to have evolved different ways of bringing about apparently similar changes to cell wall physical properties.

Cell wall changes are brought about by the ripening-related expression of many genes encoding cell wall-modifying proteins. Fruit softening is thus the result of the concerted action of numerous cell wall-modifying enzymes, and each one has its role to play. The sum of these small effects can be extensive softening and, eventually, tissue disintegration. It seems likely that there is considerable interaction between the enzymes bringing about cell wall disassembly. The dependence of endo-PG on the prior action of PME is well known, but wall loosening (and possibly swelling) mediated by expansin and pectin side chain removal by β -galactosidase and α -arabinosidase may be important for increasing cell wall porosity and

allowing the enhanced access of degradative enzymes to their substrates. The effects of enzymes acting early on the wall may thus be both direct, disassembling the wall structure, and indirect, increasing the accessibility of other enzymes to substrates. Removal of limitations to the action of resident degradative enzymes later in ripening allows the accelerating deterioration of the tissue, which will release the seeds.

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