

Molecular Cloning and Expression of Three Polygalacturonase cDNAs from the Tarnished Plant Bug, Lygus lineolaris

Authors: Allen, Margaret L., and Mertens, Jeffrey A.

Source: Journal of Insect Science, 8(27): 1-14

Published By: Entomological Society of America

URL: https://doi.org/10.1673/031.008.2701

BioOne Complete (complete.BioOne.org) is a full-text database of 200 subscribed and open-access titles in the biological, ecological, and environmental sciences published by nonprofit societies, associations, museums, institutions, and presses.

Your use of this PDF, the BioOne Complete website, and all posted and associated content indicates your acceptance of BioOne's Terms of Use, available at www.bioone.org/terms-of-use.

Usage of BioOne Complete content is strictly limited to personal, educational, and non - commercial use. Commercial inquiries or rights and permissions requests should be directed to the individual publisher as copyright holder.

BioOne sees sustainable scholarly publishing as an inherently collaborative enterprise connecting authors, nonprofit publishers, academic institutions, research libraries, and research funders in the common goal of maximizing access to critical research.



Molecular cloning and expression of three polygalacturonase cDNAs from the tarnished plant bug, *Lygus lineolaris*

Margaret L. Allen^{1,a} and Jeffrey A. Mertens^{2,b}

¹ Biological Control of Pests Research Unit, USDA-ARS, Stoneville, MS 38776 USA

Abstract

Three unique cDNAs encoding putative polygalacturonase enzymes were isolated from the tarnished plant bug, *Lygus lineolaris* (Palisot de Beauvois) (Hemiptera: Miridae). The three nucleotide sequences were dissimilar to one another, but the deduced amino acid sequences were similar to each other and to other polygalacturonases from insects, fungi, plants, and bacteria. Four conserved segments characteristic of polygalacturonases were present, but with some notable semiconservative substitutions. Two of four expected disulfide bridge–forming cysteine pairs were present. All three inferred protein translations included predicted signal sequences of 17 to 20 amino acids. Amplification of genomic DNA identified an intron in one of the genes, *Llpg1*, in the 5' untranslated region. Semiquantitative RT-PCR revealed expression in all stages of the insect except the eggs. Expression in adults, male and female, was highly variable, indicating a family of highly inducible and diverse enzymes adapted to the generalist polyphagous nature of this important pest.

Keywords: pectin degrading enzyme, extraoral digestion, plant-insect interaction, saliva, semiquantitative PCR **Abbreviations:** Llpg - *Lygus lineolaris* polygalacturonase; RACE - rapid amplification of cDNA ends; RT-PCR - reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction

Correspondence: ^aMeg.Allen@ars.usda.gov, ^bJeffrey.Mertens@ars.usda.gov Received: 18 May 2007 | Accepted: 2 October 2007 | Published: 1 April 2008

Copyright: This is an open access paper. We use the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 license that permits unrestricted use, provided that the paper is properly attributed.

ISSN: 1536-2442 | Volume 8, Number 27

Cite this paper as:

Allen ML, Mertens JA. 2008. Molecular cloning and expression of three polygalacturonase cDNAs from the tarnished plant bug, *Lygus lineolaris*. 14pp. *Journal of Insect Science* 8:27, available online: insectscience.org/8.27

² Fermentation Biotechnology Research Unit, USDA-ARS, Peoria, IL 61604

Introduction

Phytophagous insects derive nutritional resources by consuming and digesting plant compounds, some of which are complex, such as those found in cell walls. Pectin is a complex carbohydrate and a major component of the plant cell wall. Enzymes that degrade pectin form a large group that includes polygalacturonases (EC 3.2.1.15) that hydrolyze $\alpha(1-4)$ linked D-galacturonic acid units. Although polygalacturonases and other plant cell wall degrading enzymes have been identified and purified from several insects (Agblor et al. 1994; Agusti et al. 2000; Cherqui et al. 2000; Cohen et al. 1998; Doostdar et al. 1997; Frati et al. 2006; Laurema et al. 1961; Ma et al. 1990; Shen et al. 1995), the genes encoding polygalacturonases have been characterized from only two insects, mustard beetle *Phaedon cochleariae* (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) (Girard et al. 1999) and the rice weevil Sitophilus oryzae (Coleoptera: Curculionidae) (Shen et al. 2003; Shen et al. 1995). Both of these beetles feed on living plants, but neither feeds by the piercing-sucking mechanism found in Heteroptera.

The tarnished plant bug, Lygus lineolaris (Palisot de Beauvois) (Hemiptera: Miridae), infests many crops in the eastern United States and Canada and often requires control. Lygus spp. damage cotton, alfalfa, seeds, fruits and vegetable crops by inserting stylets, needle-like mouthparts, into plant tissues and injecting saliva that causes tissue necrosis, abscission, and deformation (Strong 1970). Lygus spp. salivary enzymes contain polygalacturonases that hydrolyze pectic polysaccharides in plant cell walls (Agblor et al. 1994; Strong et al. 1968). More than one polygalacturonase is present in Lygus spp. saliva, and are the primary cause of plant tissue damage (Shackel et al. 2005). Other bugs in the family Miridae also produce polygalacturonases, primarily in salivary glands; interestingly, polygalacturonases have not been detected in other phytophagous heteropteran families (Frati et al. 2006; Laurema et al. 1961).

Molecular genetic characterization of polygalacturonases from agricultural pests, especially those with piercing-sucking feeding mechanisms, will be helpful in formulating and selecting pest resistant crops. Many plants produce polygalacturonase-inhibiting proteins that are being studied for potential use, either through plant selection or genetic manipulation, as defense against fungal and insect damage

(D'Ovidio et al. 2004; Howell et al. 2005; Powell et al. 2000; Shackel et al. 2005). Also, pectin-degrading enzymes can be used for food and fiber processing applications (Agblor et al. 1994; Jayani et al. 2005; Shackel et al. 2005; Solbak et al. 2005). Identification of new genes encoding polygalacturonases from plant-feeding mirids will promote progress in agricultural science and technology.

While analyzing and cataloguing a set of cDNA sequences from tarnished plant bug male nymphs (Allen 2007), three sequences homologous to polygalacturonases were found. These sequences indicated three polygalacturonase-encoding genes that were more similar to fungal polygalacturonase genes than polygalacturonases associated with beetles. The presence and dissimilarity of these genes suggested the existence of a broad family of polygalacturonases in phytophagous mirid bugs. All three genes were amplified in their entirety after identification of both ends by rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE). Several copies of the genes were amplified using both standard and proofreading polymerase. PCR using specific primers and genomic DNA identified an intron in one of the genes. Stage-specific expression of the three genes was examined by seminquantitative RT-PCR. The characteristics of these genes were compared with insect and fungal counterparts.

Material and Methods

Lygus lineolaris

A laboratory colony of *L. lineolaris* was established from specimens supplied by Dr. Eric Villavaso at the USDA ARS Facility in Starkville, MS, and maintained under standard conditions (16:8 L:D at 24°C and 20°C respectively, 70% RH) in Percival (www.percival-scientific.com) incubators at the USDA Stoneville Research Quarantine Facility essentially as described (Allen 2007; Cohen 2000).

Nucleic acid (RNA and DNA) extraction

Total RNA was extracted from whole live specimens using the Ambion (www.ambion.com) Multi-Enzymatic Liquefaction of Tissue (MELT) total nucleic acid isolation system according to instructions supplied by the manufacturer. Samples were prepared using a DNase digestion step. Polyadenylated RNA was prepared from total RNA samples using the Ambion Poly(A) Purist™ MAG magnetic poly(A) RNA purification

kit according to manufacturer instructions. All samples were measured spectrophotometrically to determine concentration and purity. Genomic extracted using the Promega DNA was (www.promega.com) Wizard® SV Genomic DNA Purification System according to manufacturer instructions for preparation of mouse tail and tissue lysates. Samples were crushed in digestion solution containing proteinase K and incubated overnight, then centrifuged and separated from undigested materials prior to column application. Nuclease-free water was heated to 65°C prior to elution for improved yield. Samples were measured spectrophotometrically; if the sample gave low yield or was contaminated with protein (260/230 reading <1.0), the sample was cleaned concentrated using Zymo (www.zymoresearch.com) **DNA** Clean Concentrator-5 column.

Library construction

Total RNA was extracted (described above) from fifth instar nymph males, which were selected by anesthetizing with CO2 and examining the ventral posterior for the absence of a developing ovipositor. Individual males (whole insects) were used for extractions, and total RNA yield varied from 6.3 µg to 24.2 µg per specimen. Six samples with yields >15 µg were combined and used to purify poly(A) RNA. The poly(A) RNA (2.4 µg) was used to prepare a cDNA library as described 2007) using the Invitrogen (Allen (www.invitrogen.com) SuperScript $^{\text{TM}}$ plasmid system with Gateway $^{\text{\tiny \mathbb{R}}}$ Technology for cDNA synthesis and cloning, according to instructions provided, except quantification that of concentration of size fractions was calculated spectrophotometrically. A fraction containing transcripts of about 1 kb in length was ligated into the pSPORT1 vector, and then transformed into One Shot^(R) OmniMAXTM 2 T1 phage-resistant cells.

RACE and full-length cloning

of the cDNA encoding putative polygalacturonases were obtained using $GeneRacer^{\scriptscriptstyle TM}$ Invitrogen kit according instructions provided by the manufacturer. Total RNA samples were treated with both calf intestinal phosphatase and tobacco acid pyrophosphatase to facilitate 5' cloning. All PCR were designed using Primer3 primers (http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/cgi-bin/primer3/ primer3_www.cgi) (Rozen et al. 2000), and PCR performed using Applied Biosystems AmpliTaq Gold[®] polymerase. RACE products were gel purified and cloned into Invitrogen pCR 4-TOPO plasmids, then transformed into One Shot[®] TOP10 chemically competent cells. After were manually assembled full-length genes, first strand cDNA was reamplified with Applied Biosystems GeneAmp[®] high fidelity polymerase using primers designed to amplify the entire open reading frame. To identify possible introns, additional primers were designed and similarly used to amplify genomic DNA. The amplicons were cloned and sequenced, and the resulting sequences were used to reconcile the gene sequences assembled from ESTs and RACE products.

Sequencing and Analysis

Clones were sequenced on an Applied Biosystems ABI3730 at the USDA Genomics Center in Stoneville, MS and compared with nucleotide and translated proteins published in GenBank using the NCBI BLAST analysis programs blastn and tblastx (Altschul et al. 1997). Open reading frames were identified and translated and protein characteristics identified using DNASTAR Lasergene software. Multiple alignments were performed using MEGA 3.0 software (Kumar et al. 2004), or submitted to the CLUSTAL W (version 1.82) online service (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/clustalw) (Higgins et al. 1994). Phylogenetic comparisons were made using the neighbor joining method reconstructed with 1000 replicate bootstrap analysis. Signal peptides were identified using the SignalP 3.0 online server (Bendtsen et al. 2004).

Semiquantitative RT-PCR

RNA samples were diluted to concentration of 100 ng/µl and 500 ng was used in reverse transcription reactions using Ambion M-MLV reverse transcriptase, RNase inhibitor, and Oligo(dT) primers following manufacturer instructions. The number of cycles required to produce visible bands but avoid saturation was determined empirically to analyze developmental stages of insects. Typically, 26 cycles were used for L. lineolaris polygalacturonase. Typical cycling conditions were: 2 min. 94°C initial denaturation step followed by repeated cycles of 94°C for 30s, 58°C for 20s, 68°C for 70s, and final extension for 10 min at 68°C. Primers used to amplify full-length genes were also used for expression evaluations. Experiments with insect stages were performed twice, and because total RNA from adult specimens represented individuals, six

-870	GTTCAAAATCTACTAATCAG
-850	TGTTGCCAAAACTGACTGCTATTCCGTAGATCTACCGTTTTTTCCGTAGAT
-800	CTACCGTTTTTCCGTAGATCTCCCATTTTTCCTCATTTTGACAGCTGTTT
-750	ACTTTCACCTGGGCACTCACATAATTTCAACCTTTCATACGAATTTATgt
-700	tgttttttaaaattctcttcacttgtctgctgatttttacagtaggtaaa
-650	aagggatttaaaagggattaggtaaaagtagggatttttacttagattcc
-600	${\tt tacgtagtcttgttacttttaccatgaaaaccctgactttttcacaaat}$
-550	$\verb tttgactgaatgttatcgggctgtctagttattcaaacaccaccataatta \\$
-500	$\verb tcaacatgagatttattctagatacctccggattgatcgtcgacaatgca $
-450	$\verb caataatgaaatcgtgaataaacaccttaacttcgatataaaaggaggag \\$
-400	$\verb ctcagtaggtaggcgctcctggttcagaccatgcccgaattcaacgcgag $
-350	gagttggaaaattgaacgaattttccctattacgaatttgttctctcaat
-300	ttgaattcactaaatagaaggcctattgcatgagagagag
-250	aacggatttatccaatattcatgttaattttgtccgaaggtattccacca
-200	ctcacactctgatcgattaccagacgatctctgtacgaccttgaaaacga
-150	cctgtgaccttgaacgaacatacggacagagatctagatgttttattgta
-100	cgagtagatttccatagatataagtccccgaaccatgctctcattttgaa
-50	cgaaattcgctatccccatttattctaaacagGACAAACGGGCTGTGAAT
1	ATG TGGAATAACATGAACCCCATCGGAGGCCTCCTCCTAGTCATCGTATC
51	TGCTTACGGTGCCGTAGTCACAAATTACAATCAACTGGGTGCTGCCAAAC
101	AGGGTAACCTCATCACCTTGAAGGACCTTCAGGTACCGGCTGGAGTCACT
151	TTGGACCTGACTAAATTGAAACCTGGAACGACAGTAGAGTTTTCTGGACG
201	CACCACTTTCGGATACCATGAGTGGGCTGGTCCTCTGGTCAAAGTTAGCG
251	GTAAGAACCTGAAGATCGTCGGTCTGCCAGGCAATCTCTTGGATGGTGAA
301	GGGAAACGATGGTGGGACGCAAAGGAGGCAATGGTGGAGTAGCGAAACC
351	CAGGTTCATGGAAGTCAACATTGAAGACTCTACCATTAGCGGTTTGAACA
401	TCAAGAACCCACCTGCATGGTGTTTTGTAGCCAATTATTGTAAAAACATC
451	CACATTTCGAACCTCAACATTGACATCAAAGATGGCGATAAGAAAGCAGG
501	AGGACACACACTGATGGTATTGGCGTCGGTTACAGTAATAATGTGACGA
551	TCCTCAACTGTAAAGTCCATAATCAAGATGATTGTTTCGTTACTGGAGCT
601	GGTAGCGATATCCTGATCGACAACTTGTCCTGTACTGGAGGACACGGAAT
651	TTCAATTGGTTCTTTGGGTCGTGGAGCTGTCGTTGAAAGGGTGACCGTGA
701	AGAATAGTAAAATCATCAAGAATATGGTTGGAGTCAGGATTAAATCCACC
	AGAGGAGACTGGGGCGATTAGGGACATCACTTTTGACAACATCGAACT
	CCAAGGAATCACAAGGTACGGTATCATTGTGGAAGGCAACTACCTCAACT
	CAGGATCTGCAGGTGATGCGACCCCGTTCCCCAtCGAAAATATCGTCTTC
	AACAACGTGCGAGGAAGCGTAGTTCgCAAGGCTACTAACATATATGTGAA
	CATTCATCCCACCAGTGGTAAGAACTGGAGGTGGAGCAACATTAACGTCA
	CTGGAGGTCAGAAAGAGCTCAAATGTATTGGAGTTCCTGCAGGCGTGAAT
	GTCAATTGCGGCAAGAAG TAA TCTTCAAGCCCTTTTTCATTAAAATTAAA
	ATCATTCTCACAACGTGGACAAATACTGAGAGAGCCTTGATTTGTCCCCT
	CTTTATTACAAGAAATTTGGGTGAAAGTCACTGA <u>AATAAA</u> GGACAATTTG
1201	AAGCC

Figure 1. Genomic sequence of *Lygus lineolaris* polygalacturonase1 (PG1). Lowercase letters denote intron in the 5' untranslated region. Start and stop codons are indicated in bold. Putative polyadenylation signal is underscored. GenBank accession number EU136628.

additional male and six additional female adults were used in a follow-up experiment. Expression controls were chosen from several sequences that were expected to be expressed constitutively (at all stages of development) and evaluated while the semiquantitative cycling parameters were empirically determined. *L. lineolaris* cDNA library sequences homologous to cytoplasmic

ribosomal 16S

ribosomal 16S

actin

actin

Gene or EST Primer description Location Sequence (5'-3') Initial RACE, for $\mathbf{5}'$ end and genomic intron CCTGTTTGGCAGCACCCAGTTGA Llpg1 103-81 Llpg1 Nested RACE, for 5' 65-41 ACGGCACCGTAAGCAGATACGATGA Llpg1 Initial RACE, for 3' end 891-915 TATCGTCTTCAACAACGTGCGAGGA GCAACATTAACGTCACTGGAGGTCA Nested RACE, for 3' end 986-1010 Llpg1Llpg1RT-PCR, forward and full-length/proofread (17)-1 GACAAACGGGCTGTGAATA RT-PCR, reverse AGGGGACAAATCAAGGCTCT Llpg1 1150-1131 TTTTTTTTTTGGCTTCAAATTG Llpq1 Full length/proofread 1216-1194 TGCCAAAACTGACTGCTATTCC Llpg1 Genomic intron, forward (847)-(826) Initial RACE, for 5' end 142-118 GGACTTGGAGGTCTCTGATGACGAT Llpg2 Nested RACE, for 5' end CAACCACGAAGAACAAGCACCCAAG Llpq2 46-22 Initial RACE, for 3' end 863-887 ACCCAACTGGTGAGCCAACATTCTT Llpg2 Nested RACE, for 3' end 978-1003 TGCTAGGAACTGGAAGTGGGAAATG Llpq2 RT-PCR, forward and full-length/proofread GTTAGCAGCCCCAGAAGT Llpg2 (27)-(10) CATCGGATTCCAAGATTC Llpg2RT-PCR, reverse 1084-1068 Llpg2 Full-length/proofread 1126-1104 CAATGAATAACATCTGAGTGACG Llpg3 Initial RACE, for 5' end 176-153 GTTCCTGGCTTGACGAATTCAAAA Nested RACE, for 5' end TGCTGCGACGCACATCAAAATTC Llpg3 42-20 Llpg3Initial RACE, for 3' end 650-673 TGGCAGTTGGAGGATACCAAGTGA AGGACGTCACTGATGCTGGACT Llpg3 Nested RACE, for 3' end 800-821 RT-PCR, forward and full-length/proofread AGGTTTCTGAACCCCAAA Llpg3 (24)-(7)RT-PCR, reverse and full-length/proofread TTTTGTCTGCCTGTATGATG Llpg3 1109-1090 ribosomal S2 RT-PCR loading control 256-373 CCGGTCAGAGAACCAGAT RT-PCR loading control ribosomal S2 701-684 GTACGGAGGCTTGGAGAG

717-734

1046-1029

578-597

967-948

Table 1. Primers used to amplify polygalacturonase and loading control (putative identifications based on homology) genes complementary and genomic from *Lygus lineolaris* DNA.

actin (DQ386914), ribosomal S2 (DY470915) and 16S (DY524581) were expressed in all samples. Control samples required 22 PCR cycles. Relative expression levels were estimated and normalized to the controls from gel band density measurements calculated using TotaLab TL100 gel analysis software.

RT-PCR loading control

RT-PCR loading control

RT-PCR loading control

RT-PCR loading control

Results

Expressed sequenced tags from a cDNA library (Allen 2007) were preliminarily identified as polygalacturonase encoding genes based on similarity to known fungal sequences. The three library sequences were compared to one another and found to be highly divergent at the nucleotide level, except for a 65 nt portion of Llpg2 and Llpg3, with 53/65 (81%) identities and no gaps. corresponding translation of these nucleotides (respectively, PG2/PG3 nonidentities) is K-P-G-T-T-V / I-E / V-F-A / R-G-R-I / V-T-F-G-Y-K-E-W-K / R-G-P. All three expressed sequenced tags differed at the nucleotide level from all other sequences in NCBI/GenBank. The low sequence similarity between the three expressed sequenced tags and their moderate translated amino acid similarities several fungus and both insect polygalacturonases indicated that these were probably unique products, so the genes were cloned in their entirety using RACE, followed by amplification of complete coding sequences from

cDNA. Specific primers used for all three genes are shown in Table 1. When the specific primers were used to try to amplify genomic sequences, multiple bands were obtained, suggesting the existence of either introns, multiple isoforms, or pseudogenes within the genome. For *Llpq1* the genomic amplicons were longer than the cDNA sequence, so specific primers (Table 1) were used to amplify a 688 bp intron in the 5' untranslated region. The deduced genomic sequence for *Llpq1* is shown in Figure 1. The three cDNA sequences were submitted to the NCBI/GenBank database as CoreNucleotides under accession numbers DQ399525, DQ399526, and DQ399527.

GAAGGCTGGTATGAATGG

TCGCAAACTTTCTTATCG

CGATCTACGAGGGATACGCT

ACAGGTCCTTACGGATGTCC

The three cDNA's encode putative polygalacturonases of 356, 365, and 351 amino acids for Llpq1, Llpq2 and Llpq3, respectively (Figure 2A). The LlPG1 enzyme was predicted to have a 20 amino acid signal peptide (probability 0.892, cleavage site probability 0.810) (Bendtsen et al. 2004) with the molecular weight of the mature enzyme predicted to be 35.8 kD. The LlPG2 protein is also predicted to have a 20 amino acid signal peptide (probability 1.0, cleavage site probability 0.948) and a molecular weight of 38.1 kD for the mature peptide. LlPG3 is predicted to have a 17 amino acid signal peptide (probability 0.989, cleavage site probability 0.906) leading to a predicted molecular weight of 36.5 kD for the mature peptide. The amino acid sequences of the three putative enzymes as would be expected are



Figure 2. Multiple sequence alignments of the deduced amino acid sequences. (A) *L. lineolaris* polygalacturonase (PG) cDNAs. * marks identities, : marks functionally conservative substitutions, . marks majority (2 of 3 either identical or functionally conserved). Predicted signal peptides are underscored. Conserved functional motifs are boxed, cysteines are shaded and lines connect putative disulfide bridges. Strictly conserved Tyr281 is shaded. [continued on next page]

also highly divergent with LlPG1 having 49% identity to LlPG2 and 44% identity LlPG3, while LlPG2 shares 39% identity with LlPG3 (Figure 2A).

Despite the low degree of sequence identity found among the putative lineolaris L. polygalacturonases, the three enzymes contain the strictly conserved amino acid residues found across all fungal and bacterial polygalacturonases isolated to date (Kester et al. 1996). The three strictly conserved aspartic acid residues involved in catalysis (Armand et al. 2000; Pickersgill et al. 1998; van Santen et al. 1999), the consecutive aspartic acid residues (Asp193 and Asp194, LlPG1 numbering used throughout) along with Asp 172, are conserved in all three putative L. lineolaris polygalacturonases (Figure 2B). The putative enzymes also contain the strictly conserved residues Arg246, Lys248, and Tyr281 (Figure 2B). LlPG1 and LlPG3 possess the strictly conserved histidine residue (His215); however LlPG2 substitutes an asparagine residue at this position (Figure 2A). The impact of this substitution on LlPG2 is unclear, but may lead to an inefficient catalyst as the His215 residue has been implicated in substrate binding of A. niger endo-PG II (van Santen et al. 1999). The L. lineolaris polygalacturonases contain two potential disulfide bridges, a departure from the four disulfide bridges found in fungal endo-polygalacturonases. One potential disulfide bridge involves Cys195 and Cys 211, very near the active site (Figure 2A). This disulfide bridge connects two adjacent β-helical turns in A. niger and A. aculeatus polygalacturonase crystal structures (Cho et al. 2001; van Santen et al. 1999). The second potential disulfide bridge is found at the

```
A. fumigatus 293
                             ----MRSVKLFGLAALGSLGAAAPAPSRVSDLTKRSSTCTFT---AASQA 43
N. fischeri extracellular
                             ----MRSVELLSLAALGSLVAAAPAPSRVSDLTKRSSTCTFT---AASQA 43
                             ----MHSYQLLGLAAVGSLVSAAPAPSRVSEFAKKASTCTFT---SASEA 43
A. niger PG1
                             -----MHFLQNAVVA-ATMGAALAAAAPLEK-RSCTFT---SASAA 36
A. niger endoPGB
Pen. olsonii PG1
                             --MRTSILSMLALGAAAVS-AAPAAAAAPAELVERGSSCTFT---SASAA 44
A. niger endoPGII
                             -----MHSFASLLAYGLVAGATFASASPIEARDSCTFT---TAAAA 38
C. carbonum
                            -----MVAYALTSMLLSAGALVAAAPS-GLDARDGCTFT---DAATA 38
F. graminearum
                             -----MFSSMILLSGLVASAFAHPTVEPRASCTFT---DAASA 35
Pen. griseoroseum
                            MASSLKLGLIALLGATAVNAAPAAEPVLGTSLLTSRASCTFSGSSGAAEA 50
S. oryzae PG
                             -----MNALLYNIIFLVSLALAKPSNNSLGATCTVS---SYDDV 36
Ph. cochleariae PG
                             -----MSIRLIAVLSAASIAVTSATP-VADSSCTIS---SFDQV 35
L. lineolaris PG1
                             ----- 30
L. lineolaris PG2
                             ---- 32
                             ----- MSP---YICGILMCVAAASA--VDVWNLQQLE----- 27
L. lineolaris PG3
A. fumigatus 293
                             TESASGCSEIVLDNIEVPAGETLDLSDVDDGTTIVFEGTTTFGYKEWSGP 93
N. fischeri extracellular
                              TESASGCSEIVLDNIEVPAGETLDLSDVDDGTTIVFEGTTTFGYKEWSGP 93
A. niger PG1
                              SESISSCSDVVLSSIEVPAGETLDLSDAADGSTITFEGTTSFGYKEWKGP 93
A. niger endoPGB
                             KSGKSSCSTITLDNIAVPAGETLDLTGLKKGTTVIFEGETTFGYKEWKGP 86
Pen. olsonii PG1
                             KAGKKSCSSIVLDNIKVPAGETLDLSNLKSGTKVTFKGETTFGYKEWKGP 94
A. niger endoPGII
                             KAGKAKCSTITLNNIEVPAGTTLDLTGLTSGTKVIFEGTTTFOYEEWAGP 88
                             IKNKASCSNIVISGMTVPAGTTLDLTGLKSGATVTFOGTTTFGYKEWEGP 88
C. carbonum
                             IKGKGSCSTIILNNIAVPAGTTLDLTKLKDGTHVIFQGKTTFGYDTWEGP 85
F. graminearum
Pen. griseoroseum
                             IKSKTSCSTITLSNVEVPAGTTLDLTGLKSGTTVIFEGTTTFGYKEWEGP 100
S. oryzae PG
                            ASAISSCTTINLGSFTVPAGTTLALKLKT-GTTVNIQGTIKFGYQEWKGP 85
                             ASVLAECTDIVVSNLEVPAGETLNLETKKKGVTITFEGKTTFAYKEWTGP 85
Ph. cochleariae PG
                             AAKQGN--LITLKDLQVPAGVTLDLTKLKPGTTVEFSGRTTFGYHEWAGP 78
L. lineolaris PG1
L. lineolaris PG2
                             EAKKFQ--KIVIRDLQVPAGVTLDLSNLKPGTTVEFAGRITFGYKEWKGP 80
                            AAKRGNDLTINVRDIFVPAGQTLNFEFVKPGTTIVFRGRVTFGYKEWRGP 77
L. lineolaris PG3
                                      : : .. **** ** :
                                                          * ::* .* * **
A. fumigatus 293
                             LIRFGGKDITIKONSGAVIDGEGSRWWDGEGTNGGKTKPKFMYAHSLEDS 143
N. fischeri extracellular
                             LIRFGGKDITVKQNSGAVIDGEGSRWWDGEGTNGGKTKPKFMYAHSLEDS 143
                             LIRFGGKDLTVTMADGAVIDGDGSRWWDSKGTNGGKTKPKFMYIHDVEDS 143
A. niger PG1
A. niger endoPGB
                             LISMSGTDITVKQASGAKINCDGARWWDGKGSNGGKTKPKFFQAHKLDQS 136
Pen. olsonii PG1
                             LIRFSGKNIEVNGASGHVINGGGASWWDGKGTNGGKTKPKFFYAHSLDDS 144
A. niger endoPGII
                            LISMSGEHITVTGASGHLINCDGARWWDGKGTSG-KKKPKFFYAHGLDSS 137
                            LISVSGTNIKVVGASGHTIDAAGQKWWDGKGSNGGKTKPKFFYAHSLTTS 138
C. carbonum
                            LISFTGNNLLIEGADGHSIDCQGQRWWDGKGSNGGKTKPKFFSAHSLQNS 135
F. graminearum
                             LVSVSGTSITVQGASGAQLNGDGARWWDGKGTNGGKTKPKFFYAHSLTNS 150
Pen. griseoroseum
                            LVQVSGKQVTINGASG-KFDGEGANYWDSQGDKG-KTRPKFIKISTTSSS 133
S. oryzae PG
Ph. cochleariae PG
                             LLRVKGKAITVVGAKGSVLDGQGQLYWDGKGGNGGIKKPKFFKIKATEGS 135
L. lineolaris PG1
                             LVKVSGKNLKIVGLPGNLLDGEGKRWWDGKGGNGGVAKPRFMEVN-IEDS 127
L. lineolaris PG2
                             LVKVTGKOLTIMAHSYARFDGEGHRWWKG-GRESKLVKPRFFEAI-VDDS 128
L. lineolaris PG3
                             LIILKGRNLKIKGGAGHIFDGEGRRWWDGTGTNSGKIKPYMFYVQ-LADS 126
                             *: . * ::
                                               :: * :*.. * .. :* ::
                             TITGLSIKNTPVQAISVQ-ATNLYLIDITIDNSDG-DDNGG--HNTDGFD 189
A. fumigatus 293
                              TITGLSIKNTPVQAISVQ-ATNLYLIDITIDNSDG-DDNGG--HNTDGFD 189
N. fischeri extracellular
                              TFKGINIKNTPVQAISVQ-ATNVHLNDFTIDNSDG-DDNGG--HNTDGFD 189
A. niger PG1
                             SITGLKVYNTPVQGFSIL-ADHLTITDVTIDNSAG--TSKG--HNTDAFD 181
A. niger endoPGB
Pen. olsonii PG1
                             TITGLNVKNTPVQGFSVQ-ADNLVLDHITIDNTDGDKTNGG--HNTDAFD 191
                             SITGLNIKNTPLMAFSVQ-ANDITFTDVTINNADG-DTQGG--HNTDAFD 183
A. niger endoPGII
                              SISGLNIKNTPVQAFSINGVTGLTLDRITIDNSAG-DSAGA--HNTDAFD 185
C. carbonum
F. graminearum
                             NIKNLNVINTPVQAFSINGVTNLGVYNVHMDNSLG-DTQGG--HNTDAFD 182
Pen. griseoroseum
                             KIENIYIKNSPVQVFSINGAKELTLSGITVDTADG-DSNGG--HNTDAFD 197
                             TFNDITLKNCPHQCVSISSASDTTLSGWNIDVSAGDS-AGG--HNTDGFD 180
S. oryzae PG
Ph. cochleariae PG
                             HFKNINLLNCPVOVHSIDHSGPLTLSGWNIDVSOGDKDALG--HNTDGFD 183
                             TISGLNIKNPPAWCFVANYCKNIHISNLNIDIKD-GDKKAG-GHNTDGIG 175
L. lineolaris PG1
L. lineolaris PG2
                              TITGLYFKNTPAPCFLCNWCHNVAISKITVDTKDAGDGRAGRAFNTDGIS 178
L. lineolaris PG3
                              SVRGLTIKNSPAHTFAINDCNHISINNVMIDNRD-GNRFGG--HNTDGFD 173
                               . .: . * *
```

Figure 2. [continued] (B) Multiple alignment of fungal and insect PGs. [continued on next page]

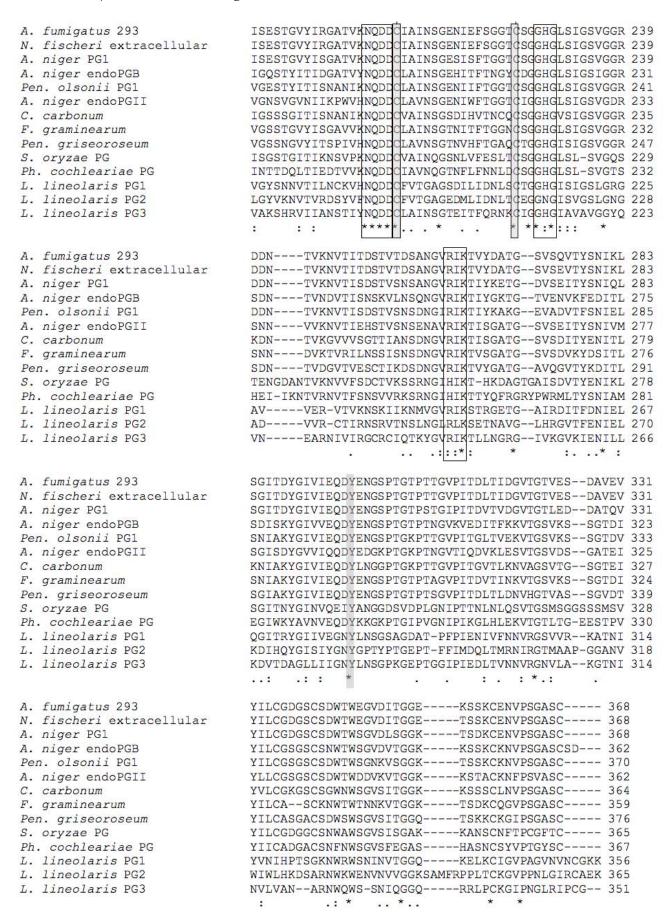


Figure 2. [continued]

Table 2. Proteins used for multiple alignment and phylogenetic reconstruction, species names and the broad taxa to which they belong.

Protein Accession	Nucleotide Accession	Length (aa)	Species	Taxon	Species
NP_768633	NC_004463	510	Bradyrhizobium japonicum	Bacteria	Bradyrhizobium japonicum
ZP_00886079	NZ_AALW01000054	447	Caldicellulosiruptor saccharolyticus	Bacteria	Caldicellulosiruptor saccharolyticus
ZP_01355285	NZ_AAQT01000116	518	Clostridium phytofermentans	Bacteria	Clostridium phytofermentans
ZP_00602671	NZ_AAAK03000002	445	Enterococcus faecium	Bacteria	Enterococcus faecium
ZP_01244777	NZ_AAPM01000004	522	Flavobacterium johnsoniae	Bacteria	Flavobacterium johnsoniae
XP_753090	XM_747997	378	Aspergillus fumigatus	Fungi	Aspergillus fumigatus
CAB72126	Y18805	362	Aspergillus niger (endoPGB)	Fungi	Aspergillus niger (endoPGB)
CAA41694	X58893	362	Aspergillus niger (endoPGII)	Fungi	Aspergillus niger (endoPGII)
CAA41693	X58892	368	Aspergillus niger (PG)	Fungi	Aspergillus niger (PG)
AAA79885	M55979	364	Cochliobolus carbonum	Fungi	Cochliobolus carbonum
CAA61552	X89370	363	Colletotrichum lindemuthiana	Fungi	Colletotrichum lindemuthiana
EAA75337	AACM01000457	359	Fusarium graminearum	Fungi	Fusarium graminearum
BAB69585	AB059425	361	Kluyveromyces wickerhamii	Fungi	Kluyveromyces wickerhamii
AAF06810	AF195791	376	Penicillium griseoroseum	Fungi	Penicillium griseoroseum
BAA24524	D779980	371	Penicillium janthinellum	Fungi	Penicillium janthinellum
CAB46908	AJ243521	370	Penicillium olsonii (PG)	Fungi	Penicillium olsonii (PG)
CAB46909	AJ243522	380	Penicillium olsonii (PG2)	Fungi	Penicillium olsonii (PG2)
CAA76930	Y17906	367	Phaedon cochleariae	Insects	Phaedon cochleariae
AAG35693	AF207068	365	Sitophilus oryzae	Insects	Sitophilus oryzae
AAM28240	AY098646	633	Meloidogyne incognita	Nematodes	Meloidogyne incognita
NP_563654	NM_100127	491	Arabidopsis thaliana	Plants	Arabidopsis thaliana
CAA65072	X95800	433	Brassica napus	Plants	Brassica napus
CAD21651	AJ428543	433	Brassica rapa rapa	Plants	Brassica rapa rapa
AAY21049	AY903297	402	Glycine max	Plants	Glycine max
NP_001042805	NM_001049340	503	Oryza sativa	Plants	Oryza sativa
CAB42886	AJ238848	394	Phleum pratense	Plants	Phleum pratense
CAH18935	AJ811693	398	Pyrus communis	Plants	Pyrus communis
CAA11846	AJ224147	335	Rubus idaeus	Plants	Rubus idaeus
BAB20805	AB047928	443	Zinnia elegans	Plants	Zinnia elegans

C-terminus of the three enzymes, Cys342 and Cys353 (Figure 2A), and is expected to block access to the core of the β -helix structure common to family 28 polygalacturonases (Cho et al. 2001; Markovic et al. 2001; van Santen et al. 1999).

A polygalacturonase phylogenetic tree was constructed facilitate comparison to polygalacturonases from L. lineolaris, two other insects, and other taxa. The fungal, plant, and bacterial polygalacturonase sequences used were those identified by tblastx to be the most similar to insect polygalacturonases. The single nematode polygalacturonase described to date, that from Meloidogune incognita, was also included. Species used for analysis are shown in Table 2, and the tree is presented in Figure 3. While the insect polygalacturonases were clearly most closely related to fungal polygalacturonases, the polygalacturonases insect were distinctly separated from the fungi, albeit in two groups. The two polygalacturonases identified from beetles, S. oryzae and P. cochleariae, formed a group phylogenetically separate from the three Lygus polygalacturonases (Figure 3).

To gain functional insight into the of *Llpg* genes, transcriptional profiling was performed at various developmental stages. RT-PCR was carried out using RNA reverse transcribed from eggs at an early and late stage of development,

approximately day 3 and day 8 respectively; from small, whole second instar nymphs; from fifth instar, pre-adult nymphs that could be segregated by sex; and from adult males and adult females. The sample sizes were based on calculated biomass of 10 mg, therefore a total RNA extract was prepared from 150 eggs, 12 small nymphs, 2 whole preadult nymphs, and 1 whole adult. Replicate samples were prepared, and a series of semiquantitative amplifications confirmed that the Llpgs were not expressed in eggs but were expressed in all feeding stages (Figure 4 A-C). Expression appeared highly variable both within and between stages and sexes. Because the adult represented samples so few individuals. additional samples were prepared from whole adults and semiquantitative PCR was repeated, using the same cycling program (Figure 4 D). Expression controls, L. lineolaris sequences homologous to cytoplasmic actin, ribosomal S2 and 16S, were expressed at all stages of development (primers shown in Table 1) at similar intensity. Variability of *Llpq* expression in adult specimens, and S2, is illustrated in Figure 4

Discussion

Three cDNAs encoding three unique putative polygalacturonases were isolated and completely sequenced. The *L. lineolaris* genes encode proteins that are similar to other insect

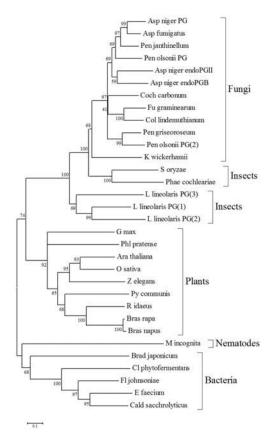


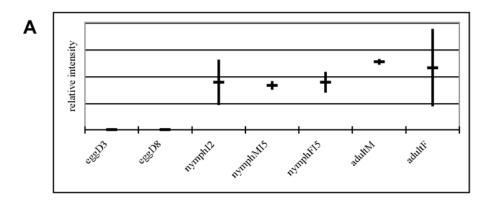
Figure 3. Phylogenetic tree of some polygalacturonase proteins constructed by neighbor-joining (NJ) criteria. Bootstrap support values are shown at nodes, scale is 0.1 amino acid substitution per site. GenBank accession numbers and full species names for each sequence can be found in Table 2.

polygalacturonases in both sequence, predicted signal peptide and predicted molecular weight (Girard et al. 1999; Shen et al. 2003; Shen et al. 1995). The deduced protein products of the *L. lineolaris* genes, as well as the previously isolated insect polygalacturonases, are most closely related to fungal polygalacturonases (Figure 3). Shen et al. (2003) hypothesized that the *S. oryzae* polygalacturonase genes may have been horizontally transferred from a fungal species.

The *Llpq* translation products contain many characteristic features of polygalacturonases including four strictly conserved segments and an invariantly conserved tyrosine residue (Markovic However. et al. 2001). some seminonconserved characteristics may prove responsible for enzymatic differences when further studied. One exception to the consensus was an asparagine residue substituted for the conserved His215 in LlPG2. This histidine is strictly conserved in fungal polygalacturonases and when mutated in A. niger endo-PG II led to an enzyme with less than 5% of the wild-type

activity (van Santern et al. 1999). The histidine residue is thought to play a role in substrate binding (van Santern et al. 1999); however the impact of this substitution on potential LlPG2 activity is unclear and will require more detailed studies of the isolated enzyme.

The *L. lineolaris* polygalacturonases potentially contain only two of the four disulfide bridges (Figure 2) found in polygalacturonases from coleopterans and fungi. This is not unexpected as structure and function are likely to differ between beetle, mirid and fungal polygalacturonases due to the environments found in the insect guts and fungal environs versus the L. lineolaris polygalacturonases that are secreted into saliva that is injected into a plant for extraoral digestion of the cell walls. The L. lineolaris enzymes are unique in that the disulfide bridge found near the N-terminus all previously isolated polygalacturonases does not exist in the putative LlPGs. This disulfide bridge, in combination with other structural features, serves as a shield to the inner core of the β -helix structure expected to be



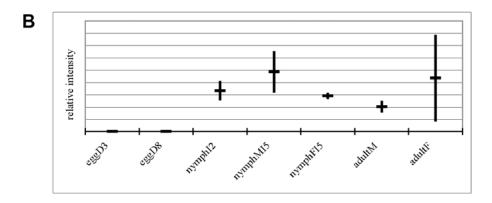
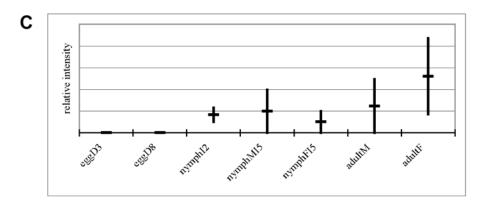


Figure 4 Expression profiles of polygalacturonase genes of *Lygus lineolaris*. (A-C) Relative semiquantitative RT-PCR values, as determined by gel density analysis and normalized to cytoplasmic actin, 16S ribosomal, and S2 ribosomal standards. Vertical bars connect the two expression levels in separate experimental replicates, horizontal crossbars indicate the average. EggD3: 3 day-old eggs, eggD8: 8 day-old eggs, nymphI2: second instar (small) nymphs, nymphMI5: fifth instar male nymph, nymphFI5: fifth instar female nymph, adultM: male adult, adultF: female adult. (A) *Llpg1*, (B) *Llpg2*, [continued on next page]

common among all family 28 hydrolases (Cho et al. 2001). How the L. lineolaris enzymes accomplish the shielding of the β -helix core, and what impact it may have on enzyme activity and/or stability will require more studies. The enzymes also do not have what may be referred to as the 3rd disulfide bridge that provides structural stability in the A. niger endo-polygalacturonase II enzyme (van Santen et al. 1999), however this disulfide bridge is not strictly conserved across other species. The putative L. lineolaris polygalacturonases do contain the disulfide bridges near the active site and the C-terminal end. The C-terminal disulfide bridge, which also acts as a shield for the β -helix core, is present in the L. lineolaris enzymes and is similar to the bridges found in plant, insect, and fungal polygalacturonases, but bacterial not This is polygalacturonases. an important distinction as this supports the assumption that the genes isolated here are indeed of L. lineolaris origin.

When a similar polygalacturonase gene was cloned from the rice weevil, S. oryzae, the possibility that it was of endosymbiont rather than insect origin was raised. This question was carefully examined, and the effort led to the conclusion that the sequence was a single copy polygalacturonase gene in the insect genome (Shen et al. 2003). However, because the S. oryzae polygalacturonase gene from was shown to be more similar to fungal polygalacturonase genes than to any known insect genes, the authors speculated that the gene was transferred horizontally from a fungus to an early coleopteran (Shen et al. 2003). The P. cochleariae polygalacturonase was also concluded to have originated from the insect genome, based on screening of the microbial fauna of the insect at several insect life stages, and the presence of 3' poly(A) tails (Girard et al. 1999). The *L. lineolaris* cDNA sequences from which polygalacturonase genes were identified, although admittedly few, contained no other sequences that would indicate the presence of endosymbiotic



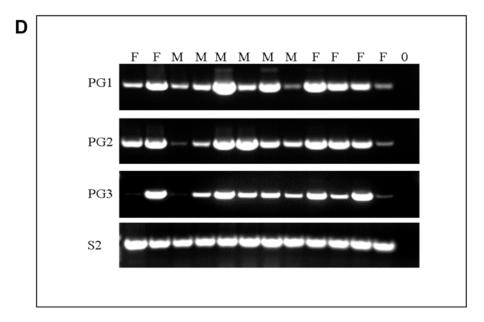


Figure 4. [continued] (C) *Llpg3*. (D) Semiquantitative RT-PCR gels of additional adult specimens. F: female, M: male, o: no template, PG1: *Llpg1*, PG2: *Llpg2*, PG3: *Llpg3*, S2: S2 ribosomal standard.

organisms (Allen 2007). Despite this genus being the focus of more study than most of the remainder of the family Miridae, and despite the documented presence of endosymbionts in many heteropteran and homopteran relatives, no endosymbionts have been found in a Lygus species (Kikuchi et al. 2003). Additionally, documented pathogen transmission is rare in (Wheeler 2001). The polygalacturonase genes described here are more closely related to one another and to the other insect polygalacturonases than to the most similar fungal polygalacturonases when analyzed phylogenetically (Figure 3 and Table 2). It is almost certain that these three genes are of L. lineolaris genomic origin. The evolutionary origin of these genes is an area for more study. As additional insect polygalacturonases are identified and characterized it is likely that one or more distinct insect lineages will emerge.

the three polygalacturonase sequences identified from L. lineolaris are salivary or digestive enzymes, they should be expressed in feeding stages of the insect but not in the egg stage. Because three distinct genes were identified, it is possible that they are differentially expressed based on development, or sex, or some other factor. The L. lineolaris cDNA library was derived from fifth instar male nymphs (Allen 2007), warranting a determination of expression from other life stages. In each replicate of the stage expression experiments, a zero expression reading was present in at least one life stage for Llpg3. This, and the overall variability in expression indicated in Figure 4, suggests that all three genes are differentially expressed in all feeding stages, and are regulated by factors other

than development or sex. Salivary protein profiles from L. hesperus varied depending on diet and starvation status (Habibi et al. 2001). Enzymes extracted from L. hesperus and L. lineolaris vary in specific activity between species and tissue (Agusti et al. 2000) and depending on starch source (Agblor et al. 1994). The range of digestive enzymes produced by L. hesperus and L. lineolaris is indicative of the polyphagous nature of these bugs; they not only attack plants, but are facultative predators as well (Agusti et al. 2000; Wheeler 2001). All of the specimens in the expression studies here were laboratory reared on artificial diet. Future expression assays using a variety of diets may pinpoint host cues that regulate expression of specific polygalacturonase genes. Furthermore, libraries derived from Lygus salivary glands rather than whole insect specimens should provide a more complete set of polygalacturonase and other enzymes involved in extraoral feeding. We have begun preparation of these resources.

Purified fungal genes for carbohydrate-degrading enzymes have been useful for analyses of plant cell walls (Bauer et al. 2006). Degradation of pectins is important in food technology and waste management; the *Lygus* spp. enzymes may be industrially useful (Agblor et al. 1994). The specificity and activity of the *L. lineolaris* enzymes, and those from other insects, may prove useful in a number of applications. Perhaps most importantly, the interaction between *Lygus* spp. polygalacturonases and plant defensive proteins such as polygalacturonase-inhibiting proteins may lead to novel crop protection strategies.

In conclusion, the first three polygalacturonases from L. lineolaris have been identified. Additional gene identifications can be expected from this and other Lygus species as well as from other phytophagous members of the family Miridae. The genes are transcribed in all feeding stages and appear to be highly inducible. The stimuli that drive expression of individual or multiple polygalacturonases can now be tested, and the specific characteristics and functions of the individual or combined forms will provide a basis for understanding, combating, and possibly exploiting this pest.

Disclaimer

This article reports the results of research only. Mention of a commercial or proprietary product does not constitute an endorsement of the product by the United States Department of Agriculture.

Acknowledgements

We thank Cathe Smith and Fannie Williams for their excellent technical support. Sequencing was kindly provided by Brian Scheffler, Mary Duke, Fannie Liu, and bioinformatics support by Linda Ballard. Instruction on *L. lineolaris* rearing and biology were provided by Gordon Snodgrass and Livy Williams. Discussion and review of this manuscript was kindly provided by John M. Labavitch and David B. Taylor.

References

- Agblor A, Henderson HM, Madrid FJ. 1994. Characterization of alpha-amylase and polygalacturonase from *Lygus* spp. (Heteroptera: Miridae). *Food Research International* 27: 321-326.
- Agusti N, Cohen A. 2000. Lygus hesperus and L. lineolaris (Hemiptera: Miridae): the salivary and midgut enzymes. Journal of Entomological Science 35: 175-182.
- Allen ML. 2007. Expressed sequenced tags from *Lygus lineolaris* (Hemiptera: Miridae), the tarnished plant bug. *Genetics and Molecular Research* 6: 206-213.
- Altschul SF, Madden TL, Schaffer AA, Zhang J, Zhang Z, Miller W, Lipman DJ. 1997. Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs. *Nucleic Acids Research* 25: 3389-3402.
- Armand S, Wagemaker MJ, Sanchez-Torres P, Kester HC, van Santen Y, Dijkstra BW, Visser J, Benen JA. 2000. The active site topology of *Aspergillus niger* endopolygalacturonase II as studied by site-directed mutagenesis. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 275: 691-696.
- Bauer S, Vasu P, Persson S, Mort AJ, Somerville CR. 2006. Development and application of a suite of polysaccharide-degrading enzymes for analyzing plant cell walls. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science*, *U S A* 103: 11417-11422.
- Bendtsen JD, Nielsen H, von Heijne G, Brunak S. 2004. Improved prediction of signal peptides: SignalP 3.0. *Journal of Molecular Biology* 340: 783-795.
- Cherqui A, Tjallingii WF. 2000. Salivary proteins of aphids, a pilot study on identification, separation, and immunolocalization. *Journal of Insect Physiology* 4: 1177-1186.
- Cho SW, Lee S, Shin W. 2001. The X-ray structure of *Aspergillus aculeatus* polygalacturonase and a modeled structure of the polygalacturonase-octagalacturonate complex. *Journal of Molecular Biology* 311: 863-878.
- Cohen AC. 2000. New oligidic production diet for *Lygus hesperus* Knight and *L. lineolaris* (Palisot de Beauvois). *Journal of Entomological Science* 35: 301-310.

- Cohen AC, Wheeler AG. 1998. Role of saliva in the highly destructive fourlined plant bug (Hemiptera: Miridae: Mirinae). *Annals of Applied Biology* 124: 405-412.
- Doostdar H, McCollum TG, Mayer RT. 1997. Purification and characterization of an endo-polygalacturonase from the gut of West Indies sugarcane rootstalk borer weevil (Diaprepes abbreviatus L.) larvae. Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology 118B: 861-867.
- D'Ovidio R, Raiola A, Capodicasa C, Devoto A, Pontiggia D, Roberti S, Galletti R, Conti E, O'Sullivan D, De Lorenzo G. 2004. Characterization of the complex locus of bean encoding polygalacturonase-inhibiting proteins reveals subfunctionalization for defense against fungi and insects. *Plant Physiology* 135: 2424-2435.
- Frati F, Galletti R, DeLorenzo G, Salerno G, Conti E. 2006. Activity of *endo*-polygalacturonases in mirid bugs (Heteroptera: Miridae) and their inhibition by plant cell wall proteins (PGIPs). *European Journal of Entomology* 103: 515-522.
- Girard C, Jouanin L. 1999. Molecular cloning of cDNAs encoding a range of digestive enzymes from a phytophagous beetle, *Phaedon cochleariae*. *Insect Biochemistry and Molecular Biology* 29: 1129-1142.
- Habibi J, Backus EA, Coudron TA, Brandt SL. 2001. Effect of different host substrates on hemipteran salivary protein profiles. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata* 98: 369-375.
- Higgins DG, Thompson JD, Gibson TJ. 1994. CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Research* 22: 4673-4680.
- Howell JT, Davis MR. 2005. Plant defense mechanisms against fungal pathogens: polygalacturonase inhibitor proteins. Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology 27: 5-15.
- Jayani RS, Saxena S, Gupta R. 2005. Microbial pectinolytic enzymes: a review. Process Biochemistry 40: 2931-2944.
- Kester HCM, Someren MAK-V, Müller Y, Visser J. 1996. Primary structure and characterization of an exopolygalacturonase from Aspergillus tubingensis. European Journal of Biochemistry 240: 738-746.
- Kikuchi Y, Fukatsu T. 2003. Diversity of Wolbachia endosymbionts in heteropteran bugs. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 69: 6082-6090.
- Kumar S, Tamura K, Nei M. 2004. MEGA3: Integrated software for Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis and sequence alignment. *Briefings in Bioinformatics* 5: 150-163.
- Laurema S, Nuorteva P. 1961. On the occurrence of pectin polygalacturonase in the salivary glands of Heteroptera and Homoptera Auchenorrhyncha. *Annales Entomologici Fennici* 27: 89-93.

- Ma R, Reese JC, Black WC, Bramel-Cox P. 1990. Detection of pectinesterase and polygalacturonase from salivary secretions of living greenbugs, *Schizaphis graminum* (Homoptera: Aphididae). *Journal of Insect Physiology* 36: 507-512.
- Markovic O, Janecek S. 2001. Pectin degrading glycoside hydrolases of family 28: sequence-structural features, specificities and evolution. *Protein Engineering* 14: 615-631.
- Pickersgill R, Smith D, Worboys K, Jenkins J. 1998. Crystal structure of polygalacturonase from Erwinia carotovora ssp. carotovora. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 273: 24660-24664.
- Powell AL, van Kan J, ten Have A, Visser J, Greve LC, Bennett AB, Labavitch JM. 2000. Transgenic expression of pear PGIP in tomato limits fungal colonization. *Molecular Plant and Microbe Interactions* 13: 942-950.
- Rozen S, Skaletsky H. 2000. Primer3 on the WWW for general users and for biologist programmers. *Methods in Molecular Biology* 132: 365-386.
- Shackel KA, de la Paz Celorio-Mancera M, Ahmadi H, Greve LC, Teuber LR, Backus EA, Labavitch JM. 2005. Micro-injection of Lygus salivary gland proteins to simulate feeding damage in alfalfa and cotton flowers. Archives of Insect Biochemistry and Physiology 58: 69-83.
- Shen Z, Denton M, Mutti N, Pappan K, Kanost MR, Reese JC, Reeck GR. 2003. Polygalacturonase from Sitophilus oryzae: possible horizontal transfer of a pectinase gene from fungi to weevils. *Journal of Insect Science* 3: 24
- Shen Z, Reese JC, Reeck GR. 1995. Purification and characterization of polygalacturonase from the rice weevil, Sitophilus oryzae (Coleoptera: Curculionidae). Insect Biochemistry and Molecular Biology 26: 427-433.
- Solbak AI, Richardson TH, McCann RT, Kline KA, Bartnek F, Tomlinson G, Tan X, Parra-Gessert L, Frey GJ, Podar M, Luginbuhl P, Gray KA, Mathur EJ, Robertson DE, Burk MJ, Hazlewood GP, Short JM, Kerovuo J. 2005. Discovery of pectin-degrading enzymes and directed evolution of a novel pectate lyase for processing cotton fabric. Journal of Biological Chemistry 280: 9431-9438.
- Strong FE. 1970. Physiology of injury caused by *Lygus hesperus*. *Journal of Economic Entomology* 63: 808-814.
- Strong FE, Kruitwagen EC. 1968. Polygalacturonase in the salivary apparatus of *Lygus hesperus* (Hemiptera). *Journal of Insect Physiology* 14: 1113-1119.
- van Santen Y, Benen JA, Schroter KH, Kalk KH, Armand S, Visser J, Dijkstra BW. 1999. 1.68-A crystal structure of endopolygalacturonase II from *Aspergillus niger* and identification of active site residues by site-directed mutagenesis. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 274: 30474-30480.
- Wheeler AG. 2001. *Biology of the plant bugs (Hemiptera: Miridae): pests, predators, opportunists.* Comstock Publishing Associates.