

Anatomical Studies and Evaluation of Genetic Stability in Plantlets Derived from Somatic Embryos of Arabica Coffee

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Article history: Received August 24, 2022 Received in revised form November 4, 2022 Accepted January 4, 2023

KEYWORDS: Anatomy, Coffea arabica L., genetic variation, Maragogipe, Sigararutang, trnL Anatomical characteristics regenerant plantlet of Arabica coffee (Coffea arabica L.) were observed to determine the difference of plantlet performance between Sigararutang and Maragogige grown in shooting and rooting medium. Transverse sections of the fresh roots, stems and leaves of three-month-old plantlets from somatic embryos were collected and used for the study. Sigararutang and Maragogipe as the plantlet materials were chosen based on the bean size and the origin. Stomata were microscopically observed on the abaxial leaf paradermal section. A conformity test to compare between plantlet and the parent plant was observed to perform genetic stability. Assessment of genetic stability was measured by using the sequence of trnL (UAA) region. The result showed that all the anatomical roots, stems and leaves of the Maragogipe plantlet have a greater number than Sigararutang (root diameter, cortex thickness, distance of long stele, distance of short stele, endodermis thickness, stem diameter, cortex thickness, maximum stele diameter, minimum stele diameter, epidermis thickness, diameter of stomatal closing, length of stomatal closing, total stomatal density, adaxial epidermis density, midrib thickness, adaxial epidermis thickness, abaxial epidermis thickness, diameter of the vascular bundles, lamina thickness), except of epidermis thickness, diameter of the vascular bundles, diameter of stomatal aperture, diameter of stomatal opening, length of stomatal opening and abaxial epidermis density. Taxonomists may be able to use these anatomic traits as supplementary proof in the determination of Arabica coffee. Molecular analysis showed that there were genetically identical organisms between the plantlet and the parent plant. It was indicated there was no somaclonal variation during somatic embryogenesis in the micropropagation of Arabica coffee.

1. Introduction

Coffee is one of the most consumed beverages in the world and has high economic value (ICO 2018). Coffee has been developed over more than 11 million hectares (ha) of land in Africa, Asia, and the Americas. Around 70 percent of the global coffee supply is produced by small stakeholders with less than 5 ha, and over 80 million people rely on the harvest for livelihood (Simon-Gruita *et al.* 2019). Coffee is a perennial crop with morphologies, sizes, and agroecological conditions that vary greatly. It

* Corresponding Author E-mail Address: endsemi@ugm.ac.id belongs to the Rubiaceae family and has more than 124 species, such as *Coffea arabica*, *Coffea canephora*, *Coffea liberica*, *Coffea excelsa* and *Coffea stenophyla* (Simon-Gruita *et al.* 2019). Development of industrial coffee is primarily based on two related species: *C. arabica* (Arabica coffee) and *C. canephora* (Canephora coffee), which represent 65 percent and 35 percent of global coffee production, respectively (https://coffee-genome.org/). Arabica coffee has been found in the shade of the tropical forest and has been used as a famous refreshment for centuries all over the world. It is a new allotetraploid (2n=4x=44) that originated from a natural crossover between *C. canephora* and *C. eugeniodes* (Cenci *et al.* 2012; http://coffee-genome.org/). Arabica beans have excellent coffee beans and

a more unique aroma. In its chemical composition, it contains more lipids, less caffeine and less chlorogenic acid (Barbosa *et al.* 2019).

Sigararutang is an Indonesian Arabica coffee specialty from North Tapanuli that has been officially released since the Ministry of Agriculture approved Regulation 205/Kpts/SR.120/4/2005 establishing Sigararutang to be an excellent local coffee specialty. It develops at elevations of over 1,000 meters above sea level in the highlands. Sigararutang coffee is a global specialty coffee with the most preferred qualities of coffee judges from around the world, according to cupping analysis (Hulupi 2016).

Maragogipe is a Typical variety mutant that once originated around Maragogipe, Bahia, Brasil. Maragogipe variety was first introduced to Indonesia in 1881 and planted in the Bogor Botanical Gardens. From the Botanical Gardens, the Maragogype variety spread to various coffee plantations in Indonesia (Nugrohoetal. 2012). This phenotype includes tall plant height, long curved leaves that are large at the base, and large bean size, which are all greater than Typica. Margogipe is widely recognized is elephant bean in Arabica coffee variety that produces an extremely large bean. There are two types of fruit: yellow and red. Caffeine content is also lower in Maragogipe, at 0.6 percent vs 1.3 percent in Arabica (Wintgens 2007). It was not approved for major business cultivation in Brazil due to its lower profitability, but it is now more popular in Nicaragua, Guatemala, and Mexico. It has light cup quality (https://www.trespontas.com/ pages/varietals).

The conversion of coffee to different light intensity, temperature and humidity from in vitro propagation by somatic embryogenesis has increased interest in several anatomical studies of this plant. It is recognized that plant that affects the conversion to different environmental conditions may be associated with various physical features (Larcher 2000). This structural modification aims to optimize the capture of water and radiation available as an energy source for photosynthesis in in vitro conditions. According to Rodrigues et al. (2014), anatomical characteristics are generally determined by the environmental factors in which plants grow and the result of a complex method that expresses the phenotypic variation of these species. Anatomy alterations are frequent in in vitro plants and the process of adapting to greenhouse cultivation leads to the alteration of the leaves, especially in the morphology and utilization

of epidermal cells, as well as the thickness and differentiation of mesophyll tissues, and the quantity and arrangement of chloroplasts.

Traits involving the physiological processes and plant growth and development are significantly influenced by factors concerning the assimilation of resources such as carbon, water, and nutrients (Ackerly *et al.* 2000). Stomatal traits (density, frequency, and position) and epidermal traits (density, shape, and size of epidermal cells) determine the complexity of leaf surface morphology description (Jones 1998). Taxonomic knowledge is used to classify plants according to their similarities and distinctions. One of the taxonomic methods for organizing such data is anatomy, which is the actual representation of plant cells, tissues, and organs.

Tissue culture is an important technology plant breeding programs to propagate in superior cultivars which have valuable industrial advantages (Bhojwani and Dantu 2013). The advanced method of regeneration for woody plants is somatic embryogenesis (Guan et al. 2016). Somatic embryogenesis is recognized as advanced micropropagation because of its potential method to produce superior plants and maintain beneficial plant genetic resources. Somatic embryogenesis is an effective plant micropropagation method to produce transgenic plants, artificial seeds and germplasm conservation (Guan et al. 2016). Genetically identical production between the plantlet and the parent plant must be achieved. However, the application of this method on large scale carries the possibility of triggering genomic variation, also known as somaclonal differences because of the alteration during in vitro culture among plantlets in one parental line. Nucleotide alteration which was initiated in continuing callus during subculture, liquid culture and plantlet from micropropagation correlated to genomic variation. The subculture process in somatic embryogenesis propagation affects the development of true-to-type plantlets because of variation of explant tissue and cells, random mutation and stimulation of growth conditions of genomic material transposition (Bhatia et al. 2015). While certain alterations have no impact on agronomic characteristics or may result in significant improvement, creating variants with better qualities, several alterations could be harmful or even lethal, this directly impacts agricultural production (Hervé et al. 2016).

Therefore it is very essential to understand genetic variability in regenerants for their profitable usage. There are many methods for identifying genetic diversity including phenotypic classification, cytological analysis and molecular technique. Molecular techniques have appeared recently as very powerful method for detecting genetic similarities or plantlet dissimilarities from somatic embryogenesis propagation. So strict quality checks to ensure the genetic stability of offspring become mandatory. Molecular techniques were used to evaluate and verify the genetic consistency of plantlets.

The *trnL* application has been popularized as one of the molecular markers commonly used to assess genetic diversity through sequence analysis. The trnL molecular marker is a chloroplastic DNA non-coding region that is capable of identifying the genetic diversity of plants. Because of the simple genome, the chloroplast trnL (UAA) has a benefit that is easily amplified in a large number of plant (highly successful PCR) (Rahadiantoro et al. 2013). The trnL region has been used to distinguish, identify species and analyze the phylogenetic relationships in Lophophora (Adrienne et al. 2015), Atraphaxis (Yurtseva et al. 2016), Pandanaceae (Buerki et al. 2012), ferns (de Groot et al. 2011), tea (Lee et al. 2016), Myrtaceae (Vasconcelos et al. 2017), Cycas chenii (Yang et al. 2016), wheatgrass Elymus fibrosus (Schrenk) Tzvelev (Wu et al. 2016). The primers are very effective in some species such as Pandanaceae (Callmander et al. 2012, 2013; Gallaher et al. 2015). The sufficiently small size of trnL allows the production of complete DNA sequences (Gielly and Taberlet 1994; Taberlet et al. 2007). TrnL has a medium genome length between 260-1,000 bp, a stable genetic structure and never or very rarely undergoes gene recombination, so it is easy to amplify and analyze (Dong et al. 2012; Hidayat et al. 2008). Alteration in the chloroplast trnL (UAA) sequence was identified to study the phylogenetic relationships between species of Coffee and Psilanthus (Maurin et al. 2007). Moreover, these regions display the highest mutation frequency (Baraket et al. 2010).

Plantlets usually have different shapes from each other, are not vigorous, unhealthy and decrease their regeneration. So it is necessary to evaluate their performance, such as anatomy and molecular genotyping. There have been several anatomical research on coffee such as leaf anatomy in C.arabica (Pompelli *et al.* 2012), anatomy and physiology of coffee (Castanheira *et al.* 2019), anatomy from micro-

cuttings (Angelo 2019) and anatomy in Robusta coffee (Sakiroh and Ibrahim 2020). However, there are no reports of studies of the anatomical structure of Coffea arabica from in vitro plantlets. So that the study of anatomy becomes an important thing. The anatomy of the leaf and stem of plantlets is essential for micropropagation which is influenced by the color of light and culture medium (Smith et al. 2017; Su et al. 2013). Although the anatomy of leaves created intense plasticity in response to light conditions, there are several legacy impacts that cause light usage which can seriously affect the development and functioning plantlets during acclimatization in the field (Arena et al. 2016). If the demand for water rises and roots have not vet developed, the number and/or size of stomata will increase which can cause drought stress in plantlets (Batista et al. 2018; Jensen et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2016). Changes in the number of chloroplasts can influence assimilation after changing to a different light condition (Chen et al. 2020). The anatomy of the stem is important for in vitro and ex vitro plantlet development (Batista et al. 2018). The larger stem diameter is key for the simplicity of modifications of plantlets in vitro and ex vitro distribution (Zeps et al. 2022). When plantlets are delivered ex vitro, the thickness and anatomy of the xylem can play an important role in water supply absorptivity (Kwon et al. 2015), whereas phloem thickness provides the nutrient stock required for initial development (Batista et al. 2018). The leaf anatomy has a major function in adjusting plants to the ecological ambiance, and variation in the anatomy of leaves influences on photosynthesis of the plants (Terashima et al. 2011). Molecular genotyping is a rapid test to prove genetic stability. Genetic stability is an important factor for confirming the plantlet after subculture frequently in multiple stages of in vitro culture propagation. However, the genetic accuracy of the Sigararutang dan Maragogipe plantlet has not been evaluated. Type of explant source, genotype, type and concentration of plant hormones, culture period, and combination media are some factors that influence the occurrence of genetic and epigenetic diversity in regenerating plants (Kour et al. 2009). This research aimed to figure out the anatomy of roots, stems, leaves and stomata and genetic consistency evaluation according to the trnL (UAA) region of C. arabica in in vitro conditions as the result of somatic embryogenesis propagation to obtain supplementary aspects which could support

plant taxonomists in the classification of *C. arabica* to provide opportunities for further studies and to evaluate molecular characteristics of genotyping to ensure the stability of the genetic plantlets.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Plant Samples

Coffea arabica (L.) plantlets of Sigararutang and Margogipe were obtained from *in vitro* propagation by somatic embryogenesis from the second leaf explants from the tip of reproductive mother plant according to the protocol described by Arimarsetiowati (2011). Fresh leaves, stems and roots of three-month-old plantlets, developed in shooting and rooting medium were collected for anatomical study.

2.2. Slide Preparation and Anatomical Observation

Roots, stems and leaves anatomy slides were prepared using a semi-permanent method (Harijati *et al.* 2013). Stomata density was prepared based on the protocol of Khoiroh *et al.* (2014). The preparat was observed under an OLYMPUS CX31 light microscope. Images were recorded using a digital camera. It generates 25 characters which will be followed by the observation to measure the length, width, and thickness (Table 1). Analysis of variance was used to describe the experimental results. Duncan's test defines the dissimilarities between the treatments if there is a large difference.

2.3. Assessment of Genetic Stability 2.3.1. DNA Isolation

The CTAB technique was used to obtain total genomic DNA from the second leaf tissue from the tip of the C. arabica parent plant and plantlet (Doyle and Doyle 1990). The plantlet was from the 3-monthold from shooting and rooting medium. The healthy plantlet and complete performance with leave and roots were selected. The parent plant was 3 years old reproductive plant from the greenhouse. The 100 grams of leaves were cut for DNA extraction. The improvement technique by combining Phenol Chloroform-isoamyl alcohol and cold absolute ethanol was subsequently used to purify the nucleic acid. The qualitative of nucleic acid was performed by applying agarose electrophoresis gel method (1%)with Ethidium Bromide (EtBr) of 1 µl dissolved in 1x TBE solution. The isolated DNA samples were then

visualized using a UV transilluminator with a DNA ladder of 1 Kb. The extraction of plant genomic DNA was stored at -2°C.

2.3.2. PCR Amplification

The primer used trnL forward is (5'CGAAATCGGTAGACGCTACG-3') and reverse (5'GGGGATAGAGGGACTTGAAC-3') (Taberlet et al. 2007). PCR was performed in a reaction mixture of 30 µl volume. 6 µl ddH₂O, 15 µl PCR mix 2x solution, 3 µl DNA (100-350 ng/µl), 3 µl primer forward dan 3 μ l primer reverse (30 pmol/ μ l) were used in the reaction. The trnL (UAA) region thermocycling phase was 95°C for 5 minutes, 35 cycles of 95°C for 45 seconds, 61.3°C for 45 seconds, and 72°C for 45 seconds, with a final extension of 72°C for 10 minutes. On a 1 percent agarose gel stained with Ethidium Bromide, the amplicons were interpreted, DNA PCR products were sequenced at 1st Base Sequencing INT Singapore applying the Sanger technique on an ABI PRISM 3730xl (Genetic Analyzer developed by Applied Biosystem, USA). To compare the sample DNA sequences resembling the Gene Bank report, it applied The Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) (www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) (Altschul et al. 1990). Furthermore, gene sequence analysis was performed using MEGA5 software to determine the percentage of similarities.

3. Results

The structural patterns of the arrangement of roots, stems, leaves and stomata showed the same in Sigararutang (Figure 1A-E) and Maragogipe varieties (Figure 1F-J). The main variations in the physical properties of both varieties of roots, stems, leaves and stomata are presented in Table 1. Anatomical root traits consisted of root diameter, cortex thickness, distance of long stele, distance of short stele, epidermis thickness and endodermis thickness. Anatomical stem traits included stem diameter, cortex thickness, diameter of the vascular bundles, maximum stele diameter, minimum stele diameter and epidermis thickness. Anatomical leaf traits were comprised of diameter of stomatal aperture, diameter of stomatal opening, diameter of stomatal closing, length of stomatal opening, length of stomatal closing, total stomatal density, adaxial epidermis density, abaxial epidermis density, midrib thickness, adaxial epidermis thickness, abaxial



Figure 1. Cross section of roots, stems, leaves and abaxial surface of leaf formed *in vitro* of somatic embryo derivedplantlet of *Coffea arabica*. Cross section of roots (A), stems (B), leaves (C and D) and stomatas (E) of Sigararutang plantlets. Cross section of roots (F), stems (G), leaves (H and I) and stomatas (J) of Maragogipe plantlets. Bars = 100 μm (A, B, C, F, G) and 50 μm (D, E, H, I, J)

| Table 1. The comparison of the thickness of the anatomical properties of the roots | s, stems and leaves of Sigararutang and |
|--|---|
| Maragogipe Arabica coffee grown in vitro by somatic embryogenesis | |

| Anatomical traits (µm) | Sigararutang | Maragogipe |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| Anatomical root traits: | | |
| Root diameter | 537.25±40.39 ^b | 679.14±3.59ª |
| Cortex thickness | 178.69±8.24 ^b | 227.89±8.68ª |
| Distance of long stele | 179.08±8.48 ^b | 227.06±22.17ª |
| Distance of short stele | 183.71±16.70 ^b | 246.90±10.29ª |
| Epidermis thickness | 24.08±0.21ª | 16.27±1.79 ^b |
| Endodermis thickness | 38.54±1.85ª | 39.76±3.40a |
| Anatomical stem traits: | | |
| Stem diameter | 1169.04±68.54ª | 1258.03±46.25ª |
| Cortex thickness | 350.07±8.08ª | 383.55±22.29ª |
| Diameter of the vascular bundles | 133.88±30.45ª | 120.82±11.43ª |
| Maximum stele diameter | 291.78±96.57ª | 376.94±40.49ª |
| Minimum stele diameter | 232.39±51.73ª | 251.10±25.39ª |
| Epidermis thickness | 23.53±3.81ª | 46.20±43.97ª |
| Anatomical leaf traits : | | |
| Diameter of stomatal aperture | 11.17±0.23ª | 7.92±1.36 ^b |
| Diameter of stomatal opening | 41.56±2.90 ^a | 22.68±2.09 ^b |
| Diameter of stomatal closing | 20.49±3.57ª | 26.12±1.19ª |
| Length of stomatal opening | 31.67±1.65ª | 28.49±3.44ª |
| Length of stomatal closing | 32.50±2.22ª | 32.90±2.10ª |
| Total stomatal density | 293.00±23.00ª | 296.00±84.00ª |
| Adaxial epidermis density | 155.80±9.7ª | 160.49±5,91ª |
| Abaxial epidermis density | 222.35±25.87ª | 187.12±7.55ª |
| Midrib thickness | 286.69±64.54ª | 333.63±9.40ª |
| Adaxial epidermis thickness | 21.97±1.42 ^b | 26.51±1.42ª |
| Abaxial epidermis thickness | 18.80±2.32ª | 20.22±0.22ª |
| Diameter of the vascular bundles | 136.45±40.47ª | 154.10±7.07ª |
| Lamina thickness | 115.32±9.23 ^b | 151.05±5.66ª |

The values of similar characters in the same line are not significantly different by Duncan test (p<0.05). The anatomical properties was measured at different locations with means ± SD are shown

epidermis thickness, diameter of the vascular bundles and lamina thickness.

Statistical analysis shows a significant difference (P<0.05) of anatomical root traits and anatomical leaf traits between Sigararutang and Marogogipe varieties. Otherwise, the anatomical stem traits are not significantly different between Sigararutang and Marogogipe varieties. Root traits of Sigararutang and Maragogipe were measured from 24.08-537.25 μ m thickness and 16.27-679.14 μ m thickness, respectively. Stem traits of Sigararutang and Maragogipe were calculated from 23.53-1169.04 μ m thickness and 46.20-1258.03 μ m thickness, respectively. Leaf traits of Sigararutang and Maragogipe were computed from 11.17-286.69 μ m thickness and 7.92-333.63 μ m thickness, respectively. Maragogipe's thickness of anatomical traits was found to be greater than those

of Sigararutang, except the epidermis thickness (16.27 μ m), diameter of the vascular bundles (120.82 μ m), diameter of stomatal aperture (7.92 μ m), diameter of stomatal opening (22.68 μ m), length of stomatal opening (28.49 μ m) and abaxial epidermis density (187.12 μ m).

Figure 2 showed that the confirmation of the *trnL* primer DNA of all Maragogipe and Sigararutang samples were amplified successfully. A unique band of approximately 530 bp was observed in all samples using *trnL* primers for amplification.

Nucleotide sequences of the *trnL* coding region between Sigararutang and Maragogipe samples were compared to further characterize and distinguish between parent plant and plantlet (Figure 3). Parent plant and plantlet both of Maragogipe and Sigararutang have 100 percent identity (Table 2).



Figure 2. PCR product from trnL primers: 1. Maragogipe's parent plant, 2. Maragogipe's planlet, 3. Sigagarutang's parent plant, 4. Sigararutang's planlet

10 2.0 30 40 50 GAGCTTGGTT GGAACCACTA AGTGATAACT TTCAAATTCA GAGAAACCCT М1 м2 G<mark>A</mark>GCTTGGTT GGAACCACTA AGTGATAACT TTCAAATTCA GAGAAACCCT S1 GGCTTGGTT GGAACCACTA AGTGATAACT TTCAAATTCA GAGAAACCCT G<mark>G</mark>GCTTGGTT GGAACCACTA AGTGATAACT TTCAAATTCA GAGAAACCCT S2 70 80 90 100 GGAATTAATA AAAAGGGGCA ATCCTGAGCC AAATCCCGTT TTCCGAAACC м1 GGAATTAATA AAAAGGGGCA ATCCTGAGCC AAATCCCGTT TTCCGAAACC М2 GGAATTAATA AAAAGGGGCA ATCCTGAGCC AAATCCCGTT TTCCGAAACC S1 GGAATTAATA AAAAGGGGCA ATCCTGAGCC AAATCCCGTT TTCCGAAACC S2 110 120 130 140 150 AAAGGAAAGG TTCAGAAAGT GAAAAAAGGA TAGGTGCAGA GACTCAACGG М1 М2 AAAGGAAAGG TTCAGAAAGT GAAAAAAGGA TAGGTGCAGA GACTCAACGG AAAGGAAAGG TTCAGAAAGT GAAAAAAGGA TAGGTGCAGA GACTCAACGG S1 S2 AAAGGAAAGG TTCAGAAAGT GAAAAAAGGA TAGGTGCAGA GACTCAACGG 190 160 170 180 200 М1 AAGCTGTTCT AACAAATGGA GTTGGCTGCG TTAGTAGAGA AATCTTTCCA М2 AAGCTGTTCT AACAAATGGA GTTGGCTGCG TTAGTAGAGA AATCTTTCCA AAGCTGTTCT AACAAATGGA GTTGGCTGCG TTAGTAGAGA AATCTTTCCA S1 S1 AAGCTGTTCT AACAAATGGA GTTGGCTGCG TTAGTAGAGA AATCTTTCCA 220 230 240 250 210 TCTAAAATTC CGAAAGGATA AAGTGAAGGA TAAACGTATA TACGTATTGA М1 М2 TCTAAAATTC CGAAAGGATA AAGTGAAGGA TAAACGTATA TACGTATTGA TCTAAAATTC CGAAAGGATA AAGTGAAGGA TAAACGTATA TACGTATTGA S1 s2 TCTAAAATTC CGAAAGGATA AAGTGAAGGA TAAACGTATA TACGTATTGA 280 270 290 300 260 М1 ATACTATATT AAATGATTAA TGACGACTCA ACTGAATCTG TATTTTTAT М2 ATACTATATT AAATGATTAA TGACGACTCA ACTGAATCTG TATTTTTAT S1 ATACTATATT AAATGATTAA TGACGACTCA ACTGAATCTG TATTTTTAT S2 ATACTATATT AAATGATTAA TGACGACTCA ACTGAATCTG TATTTTTAT 320 330 340 310 М1 ATAAAAATGG AAGAATTGGT GTGAATAGAT TCCACATTGA AGAAAGAATC ATAAAAATGG AAGAATTGGT GTGAATAGAT TCCACATTGA AGAAAGAATC М2 S1 ATAAAAATGG AAGAATTGGT GTGAATAGAT TCCACATTGA AGAAAGAATC S2 ATAAAAATGG AAGAATTGGT GTGAATAGAT TCCACATTGA AGAAAGAATC 360 370 380 390 400 GAATATTCAT TGATCAAATG ATTCACTCCA TAGTCTGATA GATCTTTTCA М1 м2 GAATATTCAT TGATCAAATG ATTCACTCCA TAGTCTGATA GATCTTTTCA GAATATTCAT TGATCAAATG ATTCACTCCA TAGTCTGATA GATCTTTTCA S1 GAATATTCAT TGATCAAATG ATTCACTCCA TAGTCTGATA GATCTTTTCA S2 440 450 410 420 430 М1 AGAATTGATT AATCGGACGA GAATAAAGAT AGAGTCCCGT TCTACATGTC М2 AGAATTGATT AATCGGACGA GAATAAAGAT AGAGTCCCGT TCTACATGTC AGAATTGATT AATCGGACGA GAATAAAGAT AGAGTCCCGT TCTACATGTC S1 s2 AGAATTGATT AATCGGACGA GAATAAAGAT AGAGTCCCGT TCTACATGTC 470 480 490 500 460 AATGTCGGCA ACAATGAAAT TTATAGTAAG AGGAAAATCC GTCGACTTTA М1 М2 AATGTCGGCA ACAATGAAAT TTATAGTAAG AGGAAAATCC GTCGACTTTA S1 AATGTCGGCA ACAATGAAAT TTATAGTAAG AGGAAAATCC GTCGACTTTA S2 AATGTCGGCA ACAATGAAAT TTATAGTAAG AGGAAAATCC GTCGACTTTA 510 520 530 AAAATCGTGA GGGTTCAAGT CCCTCTATCC М1 М2 AAAATCGTGA GGGTTCAAGT CCCTCTATCC S1 AAAATCGTGA GGGTTCAAGT CCCTCTATCC

S2 AAAATCGTGA GGGTTCAAGT CCCTCTATCC

Figure 3. Alignment of the *trn*L DNA sequences of *Coffea arabica* (L.). M1 and M2 are sampled populations of Maragogipe as parent plant and plantlet, respectively. S1 and S2 are sampled populations of Sigararutang as parent plant and plantlet. The grey block indicates that the character states are the same. The yellow block indicates that the character states are different

Table 2. Nucleotide sequence similarity of *trnL* sequence for Maragogipe and Sigararutang. M1 and M2 are sampled population of Maragogipe as parent plant and plantlet, respectively. S1 and S2 are sampled population of Sigararutang as parent plant and plantlet. The values were calculated using MEGA5

| Samples | M1 | M2 | S1 | S2 |
|-----------|-------|-------|-----|-----|
| M1 | 100.0 | | | |
| M2 | 100.0 | 100.0 | | |
| S1 | 99.8 | 99.8 | 100 | |
| <u>S2</u> | 99.9 | 99.8 | 100 | 100 |

4. Discussion

Anatomical characters were observed between the two genotypes based on different origins and bean sizes from *in vitro* propagation through somatic embryogenesis. Not only the anatomical study but also the genetic stability suitability test between parent plants and plantlets were mostly caused by differences in genotype and phenotypic plasticity (Majada *et al.* 2000).

4.1. Anatomy of Roots, Stems and Leaves

Anatomical structure studies are very important for plant identification. The existence of similar characteristics indicates the existence of kinship between species in a family in the same habitat (Nabilah et al. 2011). The roots, stems, leaves and stomata of both species (Figure 1) revealed similar structural patterns of arrangement. However, the main differences in the anatomical features in the roots, stems, leaves and stomata of both species are outlined in Table 1. During in vitro somatic embryogenesis propagation, the rate of roots, stems, leaves and stomata differentiation and development differs between genotypes. A morphological analysis of C. arabica L. showed that the size of the root, stem and leaves of Maragogipe were larger than Sigararutang but most of the traits did not differ among samples (Table 1). Some of the features of Maragogipe were shorter in size than Sigarautang. The thickness of the root epidermis, the diameter of the vessel stem, the diameter of stomatal aperture, the diameter of stomatal opening, the length of stomatal opening and the density of abaxial Sigararutang epidermis were larger than that of Maragogipe. It could be the identity of the variety. However, no differences were seen between the samples. The anatomy of the stem is almost similar to that of the root. These can be considered a clear indications of anatomical characteristics from *C. arabica*.

Sigagarutang with shorter roots, stems and leaves are generally a species that grows on steep slopes, is exposed to the drying effects of sun and wind, and experiences low water uptake during rainy periods due to steepness. Maragogipe has a larger size than Sigagarutang most likely because it grows in the highlands under trees close to water sources so there is more water so that the roots, stems and leaves are bigger than Sigararutang. Phenotypic variability is influenced by both genotype and environment and is a key factor for most evolutionary and ecological mechanisms (Hahn et al. 2019; Zirbel and Brudvig 2020). Genetic variation is defined posses major impacts on trait expression (Agrawal and Hastings 2019a), creating variation for selection to respond to throughout evolution (Potts and Hunter 2021). Besides contributing to phenotypic variation (Couture et al. 2015; Decker et al. 2019), environmental variation is a source of powerful selection on specific phenotypes, influencing which genetic traits may succeed (Beemelmanns and Roth 2017; Jay et al. 2012). When environment is changing, population numbers may become developmentally stunted (Jay et al. 2012; Patankar et al. 2013; Sorte et al. 2013), and if the genetic variation is inadequate, the threat of extinction increases. Considering the concept of cellular totipotency, somatic embryogenesis aims to regenerate identical plants from the parent plant (Henao-Ramírez and Urrea-Trujillo 2020).

4.2. Evaluation of Genetic Consistency

Based on the DNA PCR product it can be seen that all Maragogipe and Sigararutang samples were successfully amplified (Figure 2). Then the band is analyzed for the sequencing stage. Somaclonal variation is defined as genetic or epigenetic changes that arise in vitro between clonal regenerants and their corresponding donor plants. The genetic changes are cytogenetic abnormalities and alterations to specific sequences of DNA; epigenetic changes are alterations of gene expression without changes to DNA sequences. Somaclonal variation, independent from the mechanisms involved, has been reported for several plant species. The occurrence of somaclonal variation in tissue culture has a negative effect on the rapid production of clonal plants of elite cultivars but may promote the production of novel horticultural crop genotypes (Leva and Rinaldi 2017). Somaclonal differences are the most common issues observed while the somatic embryogenesis system (Bairu et *al.* 2011; Bhojwani and Dantu 2013) due to long-term treatment of culture and irregular development stag es between plantlets, the high concentration of plant growth regulator, the frequent of subculture and genotype dependence, pre-existing variation of the explants, activation of transposable elements and hypo or hypermethylation of DNA (Roostika *et al*, 2015). Somaclonal variation may lead to loss of genetic fidelity. Thus, evaluating genetic stability is crucial in the propagation strategy for analyzing genomic consistency between plantlet and parent plants (de Oliveira *et al.* 2019). According to Aydin *et al.* (2016), somaclonal variation should be detected during the early stage of plant tissue culture.

This study confirmed that the Margogipe and Sigararutang coffee plantlets resulting from somatic embryogenesis propagation had no genetic variation compared to the parent plant. This is shown by polymorphism analysis of 530 nucleotides on the aligned trnL primers of Maragogipe and Sigararutang coffee (Figure 3). The alignment of the trnL (UAA) DNA marker results shows that the parent plants and plantlets have the same character and conservation area, as well as there are no deletions or insertion of nucleotides between the four samples. Protected areas are areas that have the position of the nucleotide bases that do not change, so they are primitive (plesiomorph) (Hidavat and Pancoro 2008). In contrast, Maragogipe and Sigararutang varieties differ from 1 nucleotide base. The bases in position 2 show differentiation of adenine (A) to guanine (G). There is no gap or missing nucleotide bases. The trnL(UAA) of four Coffea arabica samples obtained in this research was similar in length matched to the GenBank sequence (https://www. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/AF543029.1). Moreover. they have a greater standard of homology (similarity rate 99 percent for *C. arabica*). Those varieties appear to be identical with limited genomic variation from the perspective of phytogeography. The differences between Maragogipe and Sigararutang have been investigated by the low level of genetic replacement in sequences, indicating that trnL(UAA) sequences are suitable for genetic stability assessment. Parent plant and plantlet both of Maragogipe and Sigararutang have 100 percent identity. Sequences are expected to be very similar (Table 2). Otherwise, Maragogipe towards Sigagarutang varieties has 99.8 percent identity because of the one nucleotide base difference (Figure 3). According to Landey et al. (2013), the molecular

analyses indicated that the occurrence of somaclonal variation was very low, and possible genetic and epigenetic alterations occurred during somatic embryogenesis of elite F1 hybrids of *C. arabica*.

In conclusion, the anatomy of the roots, stems, leaves and stomata of the two species shows a similar structural pattern or arrangement. Most of the sizes of root, stem and leaves of Maragogipe are larger than Sigararutang and most of the properties did not differ between samples. The anatomic traits revealed in this research may be used as supplementary evidence in describing *C. arabica.* Sequence analysis showed that genetic stability between the parent plant and plantlet from somatic embryogenesis was achieved. Both of the samples are identical, there is no somaclonal variation. The *trnL* (UAA) sequence can detect genetic variation and is successful as a marker for conformity testing.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education of the Republic of Indonesia on the scheme of PDD research grant 2021, contract number: 2232/UN1/DITLIT/DIT-LIT/PT/2021) with ES as PI.

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