# CHARACTERIZATION AND EXPRESSION ANALYSIS OF SPOROCYTELESS (SPL) GENE IN MONOECIOUS AND GYNOECIOUS LINES OF BITTER GOURD

By

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# DEPARTMENT OF PLANT BIOTECHNOLOGY COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE VELLANIKKARA, THRISSUR - 680656 KERALA, INDIA 2023

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### **THESIS**

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DEPARTMENT OF PLANT BIOTECHNOLOGY COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE VELLANIKKARA, THRISSUR - 680656 KERALA, INDIA 2023

### **DECLARATION**

I, Vijrothi Uma Mahesh Prasad (2020-11-160) hereby declare that the thesis entitled "Characterization and expression analysis of SPOROCYTELESS (SPL) gene in monoecious and gynoecious lines of bitter gourd" is a bona fide record of research done by me during the course of research and that it has not previously formed the basis for the award to me of any degree, diploma, fellowship or other similar title, of any other University or Society.

V. U. Purgasal

Vijrothi Uma Mahesh Prasad  $(2020-11-1160)$ 

Place: Vellanikkara Date: / /2023

#### **CERTIFICATE**

Certified that this thesis entitled "Characterization and expression analysis of SPOROCYTELESS (SPL) gene in monoecious and gynoecious lines of bitter gourd" is a bona fide record of research work done independently by Mr. Vijrothi Uma Mahesh Prasad (2020-11-160) under my guidance and supervision and that it has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or associateship to him.

Place: Vellanikkara Date: 19 / 10/2023

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### **CERTIFICATE**

We, the undersigned members of the advisory committee of, Mr. Vijrothi Uma Mahesh Prasad (2020-11-160) a candidate for the degree of Master of Science in Agriculture with major field in Plant Biotechnology, agree that this thesis entitled "Characterization and expression analysis of SPOROCYTELESS (SPL) gene in monoecious and gynoecious lines of bitter gourd" may be submitted by Mr. Vijrothi Uma Mahesh Prasad, in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree.

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#### Vijrothi Uma Mahesh Prasad

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# Introduction

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

 The Cucurbitaceae family includes several important vegetable crops, including bitter gourd (*Momordica charantia* L.;  $2n=2x=22$ ). Bitter gourd holds the alternate names bitter melon, balsam pear, bitter cucumber, African cucumber, and Karela (Heiser, 1979). India produces roughly 1.2 million metric tonnes of bitter gourd from an area of 99,000 hectares (NHB database, 2018-19). Major states growing bitter gourds are Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Gujarat.

Only 12 of the 47 species in the genus Momordica, which originated in tropical Africa, are found in Asia and Australia (Schaefer and Renner, 2010). Momordica charantia var. charantia, which yields enormous fruits, and Momordica charantia var. muricata, a wild variety with small, rounded fruits, are the two main botanical varieties of Momordica charantia (Chakravarthy, 1990; John and Antony, 2008). It is a trailing vine crop that grows quickly and is extremely valuable in terms of nutrition and medicine. The bitter gourd's immature fruits are often eaten as vegetables and known for its anti-diabetic and other therapeutic effects (Robinson and Decker-Walters, 1997). Given that its fruits are high in vitamin A, vitamin C, iron, phosphorus, and carbohydrates, it is regarded as the most nutrient-dense among the cucurbits (Miniraj et al., 1993; Desai and Musmade, 1998; Behera, 2005). Its enormous therapeutic benefits are attributable to the presence of advantageous phytochemicals, which are known to have immune-boosting, antiviral, anti-diabetic, antibiotic, antimutagenic, antihelmenthic and cancer-preventive characteristics. Phytochemicals such as momordin and charantin in fruits are clinically proven for its hypoglycemic activity.

Monoecy, having separate male and female flowers in a plant, is the main sex form of bitter gourd. However, gynoecious sex form with only female flowers, is reported from India and Japan (Ram et al., 2002; Iwamoto and Ishida, 2006). Use of gynoecious lines as female parent in the hybridization programme is a cost-effective strategy since the manual labour required for emasculation can be avoided. Though many gynoecious lines are reported in major cucurbits such as cucumber, initially gynoecious bitter gourd lines were reported from KAU (KAU-Mc-Gy101 and KAU-Mc-Gy102; Minnu et al., 2022; Sunny et al., 2022; Baluchamy et al., 2023), IIVR

(Gy-323, Gy-333, Gy263B, Gy-2116, Gy-2135, Gy-318, Gy-144; Ram et al., 2002; Moharana et al., 2022; ), IIHR (IIHRBTGy-491, IIHRBTGy-492; Varalakshmi et al., 2014) and IARI (DBGy-201 and DBGy-202; Behera et al., 2006; Behera et al., 2009) only. A gynoecious inbred, OHB61-5 with high combining ability was also reported from Japan (Iwamoto and Ishida, 2006; Iwamoto et al., 2009).

Flowering in plants is a complicated process involving multiple genes and pathways. In the ABC model of flowering, stamen formation is the result of interaction between B and C genes (Bowman et al., 1991). The specification of stamen identity in Arabidopsis thaliana is controlled by a combination of the B genes  $APETALA3$  (AP3) and PISTILLATA, the C gene  $AGAMOUS$  (AG), and the E genes SEPALLATA (SEP1 to SEP4). AG is understood to activate the transcription of the "floral organ-building" gene SPOROCYTELESS/NOZZLE (SPL/NZZ). SPL plays a central role in regulating microsporangium differentiation, because SPL/NZZ mutant anthers fail to form archesporial cells (Schiefthaler et al., 1999; Yang et al., 1999). Ectopic expression of SPL/NZZ has resulted in ectopic expression of AG and SEP3 in the outer whorls of flowers, indicating that this gene is engaged in controlling stamen identity via interacting with genes required for stamen identity (Liu et al., 2009). In wild-type Arabidopsis ovules, megaspore mother cell differentiation required SPOROCYTELESS/NOZZLE (SPL/NZZ), as demonstrated by the spl/nzz mutant failing to develop megaspore mother cell (Zhao *et al.*, 2017; Mendes *et al.*, 2020).

The chances for the isolation of a gynoecious line from a monoecious population is often rare since gynoecy in bitter gourd is under the control of a single, recessive gene gy-1 (Ram et al., 2006). Thus, with the increasing demand for the development of gynoecious lines in crops such as bitter gourd, genes identified to have definite roles in sex expression assumes importance. The SPL genes is shown to have pronounced role in stamen and pistil development in flowers. To proceed with the alteration of the sex forms in any crop by genetic engineering, the candidate gene has to be thoroughly characterized. Also, its expression levels in different sex forms has to be well understood. Thus, the objective of this study was to characterize the SPL gene in bitter gourd and to study its expression in the male and female flowers in monoecious and gynoecious sex forms, to formulate the strategies to develop the gynoecious lines through genome engineering.

Review of Literature

#### 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Background

Bitter gourd (Momordica charantia L., Family: Cucurbitaceae, 2n=22) is a vegetable crop widely grown in the tropical and subtropical regions of the world. In cucurbits, especially in cucumber and melon, the impact of gynoecious lines in enhancing crop yield is widely known and has been extensively investigated. Improvement of the trait will be attained by comprehending the genetics and molecular mechanisms behind the determination of gynoecious sex form. Though many gynoecious lines are reported in major cucurbits such as cucumber, gynoecious bitter gourd lines are reported from KAU, IIVR, IIHR and IARI only . The AGAMOUS (AG) gene, leading C class gene in the ABC model of flowering, acts by activating the transcription of SPOROCYTELESS (SPL) gene and hence SPL is considered very important for the megaspore development in flowers. For the silencing/ over expression of this gene, aimed at altering the sex form of bitter gourd, it is to be sequence characterized.

Enough experimental results are available to connect the role of plant growth regulators to initiate the pathways associated with specific sex expression. The relevant literature on the topics related to this study is reviewed in this chapter.

#### 2.2 Plant sex determination

Majority of angiosperms produce hermaphrodite flowers, which have both male and female reproductive organs. Flowering plants have evolved some sex determination techniques in order to avoid self-fertilisation, which could result in fitness loss owing to inbreeding depression (Darwin, 1876). One such tactic is the establishment of unisexual flowers, in which the male and female gametes of flowers are segregated on several blooms of the same plant (monoecious species) or on distinct individual (dioecious species). As a result, the unisexual flower will either have pistils or stamens.

In order to achieve unisexuality, flowers that are initially flawless go through stage-specific and selective arrest of preformed organ primordia. The distinction lies in the way and stage of floral metamorphosis at which the arrest of reproductive organs occurs, (Dellaporta and Calderon-Urrea, 1994). For instance, the sex organ primordia entirely terminate in maize, whereas the primordial arrest in cucumber occurs throughout their growth stage (Malepszy and Neimirowcz-Szcytt, 1991; Grant et al., 1994).

Sex determination, a prominent phenomenon in cucurbits, is governed during development and results in various sexual flowers on the plants. For the purpose of determining what causes plant sex difference, numerous investigations have been conducted (Ainsworth,1999; Tanurdzic and Bnaks, 2004; Perl- Treves and Rajagopalan, 2006; Boualem et al., 2008; 2009; Li et al., 2009; Martin et al., 2009). However, it is still uncertain what commences the decision-making process for organ development and how it could be carried out.

#### 2.3 Sex expression in bitter gourd

Sex expression is the manifestation of a specific gender in a population of plants (Cruden and Lloyd, 1995; Neal and Anderson, 2005). From ideal to a variety of intermediate forms, sex expression has been modified as a result of evolutionary changes through successive generations and the influence of dominant mutations. Since they have the capacity to harbour different sex forms such as hermaphrodite, monoecious and dioecious, cucurbits are models for researchers looking into how plants determine their sexual orientation (Robinson and Decker-Walters, 1999).

Monoecy and gynoecy are the predominant sex forms in bitter gourd but androecy and andromonoecy are also sporadically observed in nature. Furthermore, hermaphrodite plants are also reported (El-Shawaf and Baker, 1981).

Monoecious bitter gourd plants begin to produce male flowers, followed by female and male flowers alternatively, to terminate with a female flowering phase (Shifriss, 1961). Gynoecism occurs when all flower nodes yield female flowers. In various parts of the world, gynoecious plants with exclusively pistillate flowers have been discovered.

Phytohormones, chemical inhibitors and environmental conditions such as day length, humidity, and temperature, influence how sex determining genes are regulated (Meagher,2007). Under short photoperiod and low temperature (25 °C day/ 15 °C night), gynoecy progresses. By adopting the short-day treatment from seedling emergence until sixth leaf stage, a high frequency of pistillate flowers can be induced (Behera et al., 2011).

The plant hormone ethylene exerts a feminising impact on bitter gourd, cucumber, and melons. Thus, to create hermaphrodite flowers, to maintain the gynoecious population, ethylene inhibitors such as GA3, silver nitrate, and silver thiosulfate are applied after the first female flower (Matsumura et al., 2014).

#### 2.4 Sources of gynoecious bitter gourds

Monoecious sexuality dominates in bitter gourds, but gynoecious forms are documented from India, China, and Japan (Behera et al., 2006). Though gynoecy is uncommon, Zhou et al. (1998) have developed a population of bitter gourd with a greater amount of pistillate flowers and used it for hybrid development.

Ram (2002) identified three gynoecious bitter gourd plants, Gy23, Gy63, and Gy263B, with complete expression of gynoecy, and this is the first report on its characterization. Each plant is crossed with its respective monoecious population (Ram et al., 2002). Subsequently, through selfing and sib-mating, they created populations with a greater amount of pistillate flowers.

The two gynoecious lines, DBGy-201 and DBGY-202, were isolated from a native source of the related wild species, M. *charantia* var. *muricata* (Behera *et al.*, 2006). By selfing or crossing to the same lineage, Iwamoto, and Ishida (2006) created a gynoecious inbred from the cv. Aochu-naga that included a high proportion of female flowers.

The gynoecious bitter gourd line OHB61-5 from Okinawa, Japan, with only female flowers, is thought to be a spontaneous mutant (Matsummra et al. (2014). Varalakshmi et al. (2014) reported two gynoecious bitter gourd lines, IIHRBTGy-491 and IIHRBTGY-492.

The consistency of the gynoecious sex expression was assessed in the gynoecious line KAU-MCGy-101 identified at Kerala Agricultural University. Since only female flowers were generated throughout the growth phase in all the plants arising from the sib-mated population, the gynoecious sex expression was found consistent in the inbred (Minnu, 2019). The inbred lines had superior average fruit weight, fruit length, and fruit girth when compared to the first recorded gynoecious lines, indicating the potential for imparting earliness and higher productivity in the breeding programmes.

From the gynoecious bitter gourd accession NBGH-167, Jadhav et al. (2018) selected four gynoecious lines, Gy-1, Gy-14, Gy-15, and Gy 34, with 100% gynoecy nature, using plant by plant selection of its transgressive segregants in progeny row method.

#### 2.5 Inheritance of gynoecy in bitter gourd

Using the gynoecious line Gy263B and monoecious inbred line Pusa Do Mosami, Ram et al. (2006) have studied the inheritance of gynoecy in bitter gourd.  $F_1$ was backcrossed with Gy263B to generate test cross progeny. The  $F_2$  progeny segregated for gynoecy in the ratios of 3:1 (3 monoecious: 1 gynoecious plants) whereas the test cross progeny segregated in the ratio of 1:1. This suggested that gynoecy is governed by a single recessive gene. According to cucurbits gene nomenclature, a gene symbol gu-1 is suggested for the expression of gynoecism in bitter gourd (Robinson et al., 1976). In contrast to their discovery, Iwamoto and Ishida (2006) proposed a partial dominant nature of gynoecism in bitter gourd.

After crossing two gynoecious lines, DBGY-201 and DBGY-202 with two monoecious cultivars, Pusa Do Mausami, and Pusa Vishesh, Behera et al. (2009) detected the segregation of gynoecy in  $F_2$  populations in the ratio of 3:1. Their findings supported the reports by Ram et al. (2006) that the bitter gourd has a single recessive (g-1) regulation of the gynoecious sex form. Poole and Grimball (1939) first noted a similar pattern of inheritance for gynoecy in melon.

The gynoecious line OHB61-5 was crossed with the monoecious line OHB95- 1A, leading to about 5% more female flowers per plant (Matsummra et al., 2014). Segregation ratio for gynoecy in  $F_2$  population was 3:1, suggesting that their findings are consistent with earlier reports showing the monogenic recessive nature of the gynoecy trait. Mishra et al. (2015) provided more support for using the bitter gourd cross DBGy201 x S-2 and DBGy201 × Pusa Do Mausami.

To ascertain how gynoecy is inherited, two cultivated inbred lines, the gynoecious K44 and monoecious Dali-11, were crossed and resulting  $F_2$  population was examined Cui et al. (2018). The population was split into two groups and raised under two distinct conditions. Even though gy was a qualitative feature in their data, a shift in the pattern of segregation between these two groups was observed. One of the populations revealed a 3:1 ratio of gynoecy segregation. The other population displayed two-genic segregation (15:1), indicating that at least two genes may interact to control gynoecy.

In order to study the inheritance pattern of gynoecy, Rao et al. (2018) crossed the gynoecious bitter gourd line DBGy-201 with Pusa Do Mousami having 6% pistillate flower frequency. The  $F_1$  population was monoecious with a dominating pistillate frequency of 33%. The back cross population similarly segregated in a 1:1 ratio, explaining the monogenic recessive inheritance nature of gynoecy in bitter gourd.  $F_2$  population fit well in the predicted ratio of 3 monoecious: 1 gynoecious.

In general, the scholars' perspectives on the heredity of gynoecy in bitter gourd is diverge. Gynoecy is largely believed to be regulated by a monogenic recessive gene (gy-1) (Ram et al., 2006; Behera et al., 2009; Matsummura et al., 2014), while the remaining studies have shown that the condition is either partially dominant (Iwamoto and Ishida, 2006) or semi-dominant. Cui et al. (2018) also reported two pairs of gynoecy-related genes.

#### 2.6 Candidate genes for gynoecy

Plant science's trendiest area of study is the determination of plant sex, which is connected to yield and quality. The sex-determining genes in cucurbits are orthologous and remarkably conserved. Because of its broad range of floral sex types, cucumber is regarded as a model organism for sex determination (Tanurdzic and Banks, 2004). Since the cloning of many key sex-determining genes in cucurbit species, there have been notable advances in understanding the mechanisms behind this crucial overall development in flowering plants (Boualem et al., 2008; Li et al., 2009; Martin et al., 2009). A highly regulated network of interconnected genes controls the process at various points throughout floral morphogenesis on many omics systems (Pawekowicz et al., 2019).

 In 2010, Guo et al. adopted digital expression profiling to analyse the transcriptome fluctuations between two nearly isogenic cucumber lines: the WI1983G gynoecious line and the WI1983H hermaphrodite line. An aggregate of 214 genes with differential expression were found, of which 90 and 124 genes, respectively, were elevated in gynoecious and bisexual flowers. Additionally, they listed a few transcription factors (TFs), such as auxin response and zinc finger TFs, whose expression is only increased in hermaphrodite flowers.

In order to find probable candidate genes controlling gynoecy in bitter gourd, Gunniah et al. (2014) conducted an in silico differential gene expression analysis between gynoecious line Gy323 and monoecious line DRAR-1. In Gy-323, 4131 genes were up-regulated and 3734 genes were down-regulated, for a total of 7865 genes that were differentially regulated between the two lines. Potential candidate genes for gynoecy may be found among the up-regulated genes that play a substantial role in the manufacture of ethylene or the development of flower organs. This has led to the identification of a number of possible candidate genes for gynoecy, including ACS, ACO, ETR, and ERFS. An Arabidopsis homologue BTB/POZ domaincontaining protein that controls the development of floral organs showed the greatest upregulation for gynoecious lines, with a seven-fold increase than the monoecious line.

Similar to this, in bitter gourd, RNA-seq technology was used to compare the transcriptome dynamics of female flowers of a gynoecious line DBGY-201H with hermaphrodite flowers of the same line (Behera *et al.*, 2016). The 477 genes identified have shown a significant variation in gene expression, of which 237 were downregulated and 59 were up-regulated in DBGY-20H sample. Additionally, they found differently expressed ESTs between two flower types, enabling gene discovery and details about the molecular basis of sex determination.

Cui et al. (2018) created a RAD-based genetic map for bitter gourd using an  $F<sub>2</sub>$  population derived from the gynoecious line K44 and monoecious Dali-11. The map had 11 linkages groups, and the QTL/genes gy/fffn/fin regulating the sex expression involved in gynoecy, the first female flower node and the female flower number, respectively were placed in the first linkage group. By mapping the flanking RAD tags to the OHB3-1 genome, they have also provided the list of potential genes influencing the expression in bitter gourd. Additionally, they validated that the  $g_y$ locus, which Matsumura et al. (2014) discovered, is located at the distal end of linkage group 1.

In order to determine gynoecy in bitter gourd, Matsumura et al. (2020) discovered the gene NUA (Nuclear Pore Anchor) connected with the QTL. The 60 kb gene was primarily made of introns and had only 6,240 bp coding region. Through BLAST search, an Arabidopsis thaliana homolog with 6,345 bp coding sequence that is known to have a significant impact on stamen length and anther size was found, indicating that NUA is a probable candidate gene for gynoecy in bitter gourd.

It is widely acknowledged that plant hormones like auxin, ethylene, and gibberellin have a significant impact on how plants behave in sex. Studies have revealed that the majority of the genes that are differentially expressed between monoecious and gynoecious bitter gourds are connected to the signal transduction of plant hormones, such as auxin and ethylene production, which are covered separately below.

#### 2.6.1 Ethylene mediated sex determination

The phytohormone ethylene participates in a number of processes throughout the plant life cycle, including seed germination, root hair formation, root nodulation, floral withering, and fruit ripening (Abeles, 1973; Lieberman, 1979; Yang, 1985, Yang and Hoffman, 1984; Mattoo and Suttle, 1991). It is acknowledged as a powerful regulator of plant growth and development (Ecker, 1995).

ACC (1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid) and S-adenosyl methionine (S-AdoMet) are ethylene precursors. The enzyme ACC synthase transforms S-AdoMet into ACC as the first step in the biosynthesis of ethylene. The enzyme ACC oxidase eventually converts ACC to ethylene (Yang and Hoffman, 1984; Kende, 1993). In addition, genes in the ethylene signalling pathway such ETR, ERS, EIN, and ERF are crucial for controlling ethylene in plants. The main determinant in determining sex is ethylene, which has a strong correlation with femaleness (Rudich et al., 1972a, 1976; Yin and Quinn, 1995). Compared to monoecious cucumber plants, gynoecious plants produce higher amounts of it (Rudich et al., 1972b; Trebitsh et al., 1997). Furthermore, it was shown that the development of female flowers was decreased when ethylene biosynthesis and action were blocked (Beyer, 1976; Atsmon and Tabbak, 1979; Takahashi and Suge, 1980; Takahashi and Jaffe, 1984).

#### 2.6.1.1 Ethylene related genes

Two ACS genes, CsACSIG and CsACS2, two ACC oxidase genes, CsACO2 and CsACO3, three ethylene receptor genes, CsETRI, CsETR2, and CsERS, and a MADS-

box gene, ERAF17 (Ando et al., 2001), were identified to act as ethylene receptors, leading to the formation of female flowers in cucumber.

Ethylene response factor (ERF) transcription factors are distinguished by the presence of a DNA-binding domain of the AP2/ERF type that is unique to plants (Lin et al., 2009; Giovannoni and Klee, 2011). ERF proteins participate significantly in ethylene biosynthesis by regulating the transcription of ACS and ACO genes (Zhang et al., 2009; Klee and Giovannoni, 2011; Liu et al., 2016). These genes accomplish the responses by promoting the initiation of the expression of downstream ethyleneresponsive genes (Xiao et al., 2013 and Li et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2018).

#### 2.6.1.1.1 ACS genes

The ACC synthase gene controls most aspects of ethylene production (Yang and Hoffman, 1984). This enzyme is encoded by a multigene family, and each of its members exhibits differential expression in response to various stimuli (Huang *et al.*, 1991, Nakagawa et al., 1991, Olson et al., 1991, Rottmann et al., 1991, Liang et al., 1992, Zarembinski and Theologis, 1993, Destefano-Beltran et al., 1995). By locating specific ACC synthase (ACS) genes involved in the growth of pistillate flowers, it is possible to comprehend how ethylene regulates the molecular manifestation of sex.

The apex of gynoecious plants showed higher levels of *ACC synthase* activity compared to the monoecious plants (Trebitsh et al., 1987). When genome-wide transcriptome profiling was done on cucumbers, it was discovered that gynoecious and monoecious cucumbers differed in the expression of the gene ACS. The mutation in ACS and auxin-related genes is mostly responsible for the differential expression (Wu et al., 2010).

Gynoecy was associated with high-level expression of CsACS1, CsACS2, and CsACS11 and enhanced endogenous ethylene levels in cucumber (Knopf and Trebitsh, 2006; Saito et al., 2007; Boualem et al, 2016; Chen et al., 2016).

Monoecious (cv. Marketmore76; *MMff*) cucumbers were found to have only one copy of the Cs-ACS1 gene, whereas gynoecious line had at least one additional copy of this gene (cv. Marketmore 76F; MMFF) (Trebitsh et al., 1997). There may be more Cs-ACSIG copies in the gynoecious line as a result of the increased pace of sex change. The auxin-inducible Cs-ACS1G is present in the monoecious lines' genomes.

Therefore, it was concluded that the monoecious cucumber plant still has the ability to produce female flowers, and that ethylene and auxin manipulation can encourage female flowering. They proposed that the  $Cs$ - $ACSIG$  is tightly connected to the  $F$ locus and may be essential for cucumber sex differentiation.

Wu *et al.* (2010) further verified that gynoecious cucumbers contain a second copy of  $CsACSIG$ . Li et al. (2020) validated the finely tuned structure of the  $F$  locus in the gynoecious cucumber and elucidated that only CsACS1G, a duplicate copy of CsACS1 with recombinant distal promoter, is responsible for gynoecy out of the three genes (CsACS1, CsACS1G, and CsMYB) in the F locus. Additionally, cucumber's gynoecy became unstable as a result of the loss of this extra copy by uneven crossing over during meiosis.

Among the genes encoding ACC synthase, only the mRNA of  $Cs$ - $ACS2$  was found near the apical end of gynoecious cucumbers. It was discovered to co-segregate with the M locus. Therefore, it was suggested that the  $Cs-ACS2$  gene may play a role in regulating the growth of female flowers at the tip of gynoecious cucumber plants (Kamachi et al., 1997). Yamasaki et al. (2003b) proposed that the CsACS4 gene is involved in the diurnal regularity of ethylene evolution.

According to a modified model for sex determination in cucumbers (Li et al., 2012), by cooperating to create male, female, or perfect flowers, CsACS2 and  $CsACSIG$  encode ACC synthase enzymes. The  $F$  gene is initially activated in female flower bud primordia, and ethylene will support the growth of female flowers. Additionally,  $M$  is activated, and  $M$  then begins to express positive feedback. Female flowers are produced as a result of the constant arresting of stamen primordia development by the translation of the *M* gene mRNA beneath the region of the pistil primordia.

In carpel primordia of buds that are expected to grow into melon carpels, Cm4CS-7 expresses itself specifically (Boualem et al., 2009). After ACS expression, staminal growth is probably inhibited due to inter-organ communication. Ethylene effects the development of female flowers in cucumbers by inducing DNA damage in the primordial anther of female flowers that is specific to an organ (Wang et al., 2010). The component gene of the ethylene signalling pathway, CsETRI, was downregulated both temporally and geographically in the stamens of stage-6 female flowers.

In contrary, in watermelon, ethylene promotes the growth of male flowers. Both the watermelon ACS genes, CitACS1 and CitACS3, were expressed in the floral tissues, but CitACS1 was also found in the vegetative tissues, indicating that it is important for plant development and growth. The CitACS3 was expressed in open flowers and in staminate or hermaphrodite floral buds, but not in female flowers. Minkov *et al.* (2008) provided an explanation for the upregulation of *CitACS3* and its function in ethylene-regulated anther formation.

An SNP in the highly conserved region of CmACS-7 gene impairs the protein function and reduces the enzyme activity of the ACC synthase in melon (Bouleam et al., 2008). In female flowers, this enzyme activity inhibits the growth of the stamen rather than enhancing the carpel development. As a result of the enzyme's inaction, hermaphrodite flowers are produced and plants become andromonoecious. This CmACS7 gene, which is the homolog of CsACS2 in cucumber, is encoded by the stamen-inhibiting 'A' locus of the melon (Bouleam et al., 2009). Similarly, in watermelon, monoecious lines with active ClACS7 enzyme yield female flowers, but those with inactive enzyme produce hermaphrodite blooms (Bouleam *et al.*, 2016).

CitACSA, a watermelon gene that Manzano et al. (2016) identified and characterised, was strikingly similar to previously described genes for ethylene biosynthesis known to be involved in andromonoecy, CmACS7, CsACS2, and CpACS274. The pistillate flowers are where this gene's encoding ACS type III enzyme is most prominently expressed. In andromonoecious lines, a mis-sense mutation in the conserved region  $(C_{364W})$  of this gene was found, and the amounts of ethylene decreased concurrently. As a result, scientists were able to explain how the mutation prevented the ethylene production necessary for the detainment of stamens in flower buds intended to become female, leading to hermaphrodite flowers for andromonoecy.

By suppressing the male flower-promoting gene CmWIP1, Bouleam et al. (2015) demonstrated how the melon gene CmACSII determines the female flower. Therefore, the lack of ACSII function results in andromonoecy by causing stamen formation. Similar to cucumber, it was proposed thatsACSI be associated with the 'A'

locus. In response to ethylene signalling, the ERF protein genes *CsERII* and *CmERFII* in cucumber and melon, respectively, facilitate ethylene-regulated transcription of the CsACSII or CmACSII genes (Tao et al., 2018).

Silver thiosulphate (STS) is an ethylene regulator that alters the sex of plants by preventing them from detecting ethylene. Spraying STS at 6.0 mM on bitter gourd transforms female flower buds into hermaphrodite ones. Kumari (2015) studied how McACS genes are expressed during four stages of transformation of female buds into ideal buds. After STS spray, McACS2 expression was lowered, and during the development of hermaphrodite flowers, expression got enhanced. Therefore, it is proposed that silver ions will diminish ethylene perception, which will then result in a decrease in the concentration of McACS transcripts in the flower buds of gynoecious line (DBGy-201). This provides compelling evidence that ethylene production, which is mediated by McACS2, is connected to sex determination in bitter gourd. Gunniah et al. (2014) used in silico differential gene expression analysis among monoecious and gynoecious plants to identify a list of probable candidate genes involved for gynoecy in bitter gourd. The list was dominated by genes related to ethylene, including ACS, ACO, ETR, and ERS.

A synteny mapping and phylogenetic analysis of conserved genes has shown that bitter gourd is more close to watermelon rather than cucumber or melon (Urasaki et al., 2017). Since the sex determining genes are already discovered in cucumber and watermelon, the bitter gourd genome was compared to those genes to locate orthologous genes. Three proteins MOMC3 649, MOMC46 189, and MOMC518 1 were thought to be the respective bitter gourd orthologs of CmAcsII and CmAcs7. Following confirmation, it was shown that pistillate flowers expressed MOMC3 649g, which encodes a protein similar to CmAcsII, and MOMC518 1g encodes a protein similar to CmAcs-7. The findings supported earlier research that showed significant expression of ACSII, ACS7, and ACS2 in female flowers of cucumber and bitter melon.

#### 2.6.1.1.2 ACO genes

In pea and sunflower seedlings, high ACC oxidase activity and transcript levels were related to actively dividing tissues, respectively (Liu et al., 1997). Developing tomato flowers showed patterns of organ-specific ACO expression (Barry et al., 1996). Two ACO genes were selectively expressed in the growing pistil tissue of *Petunia* (Tang et al., 1993).

Three complete cDNAs for the *CsACOI* and *ACO* genes were generated by Kahana et al. (1999). In cucumber, different sex types, developmental stages, floral kinds and organs responded differently to etherel treatment in terms of CsACO2 and CsACO3. Additionally, they showed that the expression of CsACO in the shoot apex has no bearing on sex determination and the mechanism regulating ethylene production during flower development is a complex.

 An SNP makes CsACO2 enzyme , reduce ethylene release from shoot tips during the crucial stage of sex determination, carpel development gets prevented and convert cucumber plants to andromonoecious Chen et al. (2016). The melon gene CmACO3, an ortholog of CSACO2, displayed a similar expression pattern in the area of carpel development. This result, contradictory to the report of Kahana et al. (1999), was not reached from the bud of the key stage of sex determination.

#### 2.6.2 Transcription factors (TFs) in sex determination

 TFs, the sequence-specific DNA-binding factors, control the transcription of genes (Singh et al., 2002). Neo-functionalization and sub-functionalization of TFs are important for the differentiation of plant morphology Sharma et al. (2013).

#### 2.6.2.1 MADS box genes

 The process of determining sex in flowering plants is intricate and involves a number of genes that are variably expressed at distinct tissues and developmental stages (Charlesworth & Mank, 2010). One of these is the gene for the MADS box family of transcription factors, which is important for plants during their reproductive stage. One of the first isolated MADS box genes is the Arabidopsis AGAMOUS (AG) gene, which encodes the floral homeotic genes (Yanofsky et al., 1990). As shown by overexpression and mutant phenotypes, AG, a class C homeotic gene that plays a crucial regulatory role in defining the identity of stamens and carpels. Its interaction with other MADS-box proteins is crucial for the induction of floral organs in Arabidopsis (Honma and Goto, 2001). In monoecious cucumber, class C homeotic genes determines position-dependent arrest of specific reproductive organ development, a fundamental mechanism in unisexual flower development (Kater et al., 2001).

 MADS box TFs contain the highly conserved MADS box and the moderately conserved K-box, a domain that creates coiled-coil structures that enable their dimerization (Ma et al., 1991). The MADS boxes attach to a particular CArG box in the promoter region of target gene and control the expression.

Purugganan et al. (1995 have analysed the amino acid sequences of MADS box genes from various species to classify them into groups B, C and other groups such as AGAMOUS (AG), APETALA2 (AP2), APETALA3 (AP3)/PISTILLATA, and APETALA1/AGL9.

 The AG homologs are present in all the plants and functional studies using ectopic expression have shown that they play a crucial role in determining the identity of stamen and carpel (Mandel et al., 1992; Kempin et al., 1993; Tsuchimoto et al., 1993; Pnueli et al., 1994; Saedler and Huijser, 1994; Kang et al., 1995).

 Previously reported MADS-box genes known as AGAMOUS-LIKE6 (AGL6) are found in many eukaryotic genomes, including those of gymnosperms and angiosperms (Becker and Theissen, 2003). The AGL6-like genes play important roles in the formation of angiosperm flowers and overexpression of AGL6 orthologs from orchid (Hsu, 2003) and hyacinth (Fan, 2007) in Arabidopsis causes flower homeotic transition and promotes flowering.

 MAD gene expression is not required for the pathway that results in the arrest of the reproductive organ in cucumber unisexual buds (Perl-Treves et al., 1998). In contrast, Ando et al. (2001) reported that expression of the MAD box gene ERAF17 in cucumber apical floral buds would control the induction of female flowers by ethylene.

<b>Sl. No.</b>	Gene	Crop	Reference
	Cucumber MADS box gene $1 \mid$ Cucumis sativus		Kater <i>et al.</i> (1998)
	CUM1 and CUM10		
$\overline{2}$	TaAP3, TaAGAMOUS	Triticum aestivum	Su <i>et al.</i> (2019)
	and TaMADS1 3		
	OsMADS6	Oryza sativa	Li <i>et al.</i> $(2010)$

Table 2.1. List of genes from MADS box family that participate in floral induction

#### 2.6.2.1.1 MADS-box genes in Momordica

In bitter gourd, a conserved MADS box protein family area was used to isolate the homologue of the AG-like gene known as BAG. In Arabidopsis thaliana, CUM10, cucumber MADS-box protein (95%) and AGL11 were discovered to have a high degree of amino acid sequence similarity.

 On the basis of the conserved MADS box sequences, Peng et al. (2005) identified two MADS box genes, McAG2 and McAG6, from female flower buds of bitter gourd. These genes had been fully cloned and sequenced in preparation for phylogenetic analysis and sequence comparison. The amino acid sequences of the genes McAG2 and McAG6 were remarkably similar to those of the AGL6 and AG-like genes, respectively. Additionally, a high degree of similarity was found between the McAG2 and CUM1 (Cucumber MADS box gene 1) proteins. McAG2 and McAG6 showed their highest levels of expression in the carpel and shoot apex, respectively. The bitter gourd McAG6 gene was the first AGL6-like gene in the Cucurbitaceae family, and its high level of expression in vegetative tissues was intriguing because it was not common in the previously studied plants.

Two genes in bitter gourd were found involved in controlling the development of floral organs according to the pattern of gene expression in various tissues. In order to characterise these genes and identify the various MADS-box members of this family, genome-wide analyses of bitter gourd MADS-box genes was done (Hseih and Do, 2019). The phylogenetic analysis had shown that MADS box proteins from bitter gourd is closely related to watermelon. As per gene expression clustering of the transcripts, three potential genes associated with the sex determination mechanism McMADS1, McMADS10 and McMADS22 were discovered. Additionally, they claimed that hormones such as GA and various environmental factors might affect these genes, which seems to be at conflict with the earlier results of Perl-Treves *et al.* (1998) in cucumber.

Mohanty and Joshi (2019) cloned 17 MdMADS genes from the flower buds of Momordica dioica. Based on the motifs, they divided the genes into MIKC (11 genes), MIKC (4 genes), and M-type (2 genes) subgroups. Through transcriptome analysis, 11 MIKC genes were found related to floral homeotic functions whereas four MIKC genes were related to male gametophyte development and two M-type genes to female gametophytic development. These genes cause sexual dimorphism in M. dioica.

#### 2.6.2.2 Auxin mediated sex determination

Auxin causes the creation of female flowers and boosts the synthesis of ethylene (Takahashi and Jaffe, 1984; Galun et al. 1962; Atsmon and Tabbak, 1979). When auxin was present, certain ACS genes expressed more (Trebitsh et al., 1987).

 Auxin can induce the genes that directly govern the biogenesis of sexual organs. Auxins act through the transcriptional control of gene families such as  $(Aux/LAA)$ , Gretchen Hagen3 (GH3), slight auxin up RNA (SAUR), and auxin factor (ARF) (Shen et al., 2014; Zouin et al., 2014).

#### 2.6.2.2.1 ARF genes

The family of functionally unique DNA-binding proteins known as auxin response factors (ARFs) provides specificity to auxin response by choosing target genes as factors. They are key players in the auxin signalling system, and by interacting with the conserved auxin response element (AuxRE) in the promoter region of numerous auxin response genes, they have the ability to either activate or inhibit transcription of those genes (Tiwari et al., 2003)

 Liu et al. (2015) discovered many ARF genes in papaya and examined their pattern of expression during distinct developmental stages. The expression of the genes CPARF1, CPARF2, CPARF4, CPARFS, and CPARF10 peaked early in the development of the flower and then gradually decreased during the remaining phases. One of the auxin-regulated genes, the *aux responsive factor* gene (*arf*), regulates the growth of pistillate flowers in tomato, arabidopsis, and papaya (Li et al., 2016).

 The auxin signal transduction pathway is significantly impacted by the association between aux/IAAs and ARF. Auxin suppresses the function of the ARF protein by dimerizing with Aux/IAAs in low concentrations, while it activates it in high concentrations (Ulmasov et al., 1997; Hagen and Guilfoyle, 2002).

 Through de novo transcriptome sequencing, Shukla et al. (2015) generated 65,540 transcripts for monoecious (DRARI) and gynoecious (Gy323) lines of bitter gourd. The digital gene expression analysis to compare the transcript count and related differential expression pattern has shown that genes showing high-level differential expression are associated with hormone signalling and response. From among them, 56 ARF genes, which are controlled by auxin and crucial for gene expression and development were discovered.

#### 2.6.3 WRKY transcription factors

 In plants, WRKY proteins make up a huge family of TFs. Members of this family have one or two conserved WRKY domains, with the C terminus containing the C2HC or C2H2 zinc-finger protein motif and the N terminus containing the conserved WRKYGQK heptapeptide sequence (Ishiguro et al., 1994). In accordance with the shape of the C-terminal zinc-finger motif and the number of WRKY domains, the WRKY family will be split into I, II and III groups (Rushton et al., 2010). The W-box  $[(T)TGAC(C/T)]$  present in the promoter regions of numerous target genes is recognised by members of this family.

 Transcriptome analysis of monoecious and gynoecious cucumbers revealed that WRKY DNA-binding protein is important for sex determination (Guo et al., 2010). This is the first publication to link WRKY variables with plant sex determination, despite the fact that its involvement in stress response and different phases of plant growth were well established. WRKY TFS is essential for controlling plant signals, especially in the ABA response pathway (Rushton et al., 2012). According to Rudich et al. (1974), ABA encourages female flowering tendency while inhibiting GA, which increases male flowers. In Arabidopsis, WRKY75 negatively regulates the GA signalling pathway (Zhang et al., 2018) and favourably regulates

floral initiation by interacting with DELLA proteins (Peng et al., 1997; Silverstone et al., 1998 and Pysh et al., 1999).

The *de novo* transcriptome sequencing and comparison of TFs of monoecious (DRARI) and gynoecious (Gy323) bitter gourd lines have revealed the potential sexdetermination candidate genes (Shukla *et al.*, 2015). Using the UniProt nonredundant protein and TAIR (The Arabidopsis Information Resource) data sets, Momordica transcripts were functionally annotated to Arabidopsis thaliana TF sequences and classes of TFs primarily involved in the differential pattern formation were identified. This study reported 80 genes related with WRKY transcription factors.

#### 2.7 Role of SPL gene in plant sex determination

Flowering in plants is a complicated process involving multiple pathways and genes. According to ABC model of flowering as proposed by Bowman et al. (1991), stamen formation is the result of interaction between B and C genes. The specification of stamen identity in Arabidopsis thaliana is controlled by a combination of the B genes APETALA3 (AP3) and PISTILLATA, the C gene AGAMOUS (AG), and the E genes SEPALLATA (SEP1 to SEP4). AG is understood to activate the transcription of the "floral organ-building" gene SPOROCYTELESS/NOZZLE (SPL/NZZ). SPL plays a central role in regulating microsporangium differentiation, because SPL/NZZ mutant anthers fail to form archesporial cells (Schiefthaler et al., 1999; Yang et al., 1999). Liu et al. (2009) reported that ectopic expression of SPL/NZZ results in ectopic expression of  $AG$  and  $SEP3$  in the outer whorls of flowers, indicating that this gene is engaged in controlling stamen identity by interacting with the genes required for stamen identity.

 In wild-type Arabidopsis ovules, megaspore mother cell differentiation required SPOROCYTELESS/NOZZLE (SPL/NZZ), since the spl/nzz mutant failed to develop an MMC (Zhao et al., 2017; Mendes et al., 2020). In cytoplasmic male sterile mustard plants, expression of SPL-like gene was lost in the flower buds. Mitochondrial-specific inhibitors have repressed the expression of *SPL-like* gene and the shape and vigour of pollen grains were severely affected but pistil fertility remained unaltered (Yang et al., 2008). The anther primordium, PMCs, and tapetum all express the SPL (Schiefthaler et al., 1999). The pollen sac cells in spl mutant flowers do not produce microsporocytes, and the tapetum does not develop. The SPL thus has a role in the differentiation of microsporocytes and the development of an anther wall.

 The C-class MADS box protein AGAMOUS (AG), which binds to the CArGbox-like sequence in the 3' region of SPL, directly controls the transcription of SPL (Ito et al., 2004). The SPL is important in defining stamen identity because it causes the ectopic expression of stamen identification genes such AG, SEPALLATA 3 (SEP3), and  $APETALA2$  (AP2) in the outer whorls of flowers (Liu et al., 2009). On the other hand, in Arabidopsis, SPL is expressed in the ovule primordium, nucellus, MMC, and growing integuments. A halted nucleus and the lack of the megasporocyte and embryo sac were the results of the SPL mutation.

 The molecular mechanism and characterisation of SPOROCYTELESS in controlling the ovule development of Arabidopsis showed that SPL performs as a transcriptional repressor similar to an adapter (Baoye Wei et al., 2014). It enlists TOPLESS/TOPLESS-RELATED (TPL/TPR) co-repressors to suppress the transcription factors that resemble CINCINNATA (CIN) such as TEOSINTE BRANCHED1/CYCLOIDEA/PCF (TCP). It also recruits TPL/TPRs using its EAR motif at the C-terminal end and inhibits TCPs using its N-terminal portion. They showed that the abnormalities of megasporogenesis in SPL mutants can be partially mimicked by either disruption of TPL/TPRs or overexpression of TCPs. Additionally, TCP disruption results in abnormalities that are similar to spl-D gain-of-function mutants. These findings outline the method through which SPL, along with TPL/TPRs, regulates ovule development by inhibiting the actions of essential transcription factors.

Studies of the YUCCA (YUC) genes (YUC1, YUC2, YUC4 and YUC6) that encode the key enzymes in auxin biosynthesis provided direct evidence that auxin homeostasis determines the morphology of lateral organs (Zhao *et al.*, 2001; Chang *et* al.,2006). The molecular characterization studies revealed that these YUCCA  $(YUC)$  genes are modulated by SPL. It's shown that in spl-D mutant plants, the expression of YUC2 and YUC6, two essential genes in auxin production, was markedly suppressed. Additionally, the spl-D plants exhibited pleiotropic developmental flaws such as a decrease in shoot apical dominance, a reduction in the
number of lateral roots, and a simpler venation pattern suggesting that SPL may regulate auxin biosynthesis. According to the genetic and phenotypic studies of the spl-D/yuc6-D double mutant, SPL may control auxin homeostasis by inhibiting the transcription of YUC2 and YUC6 and taking role in lateral organ development (Li et al., 2008).

 The HYDRA gene is responsible for the production of spores in tomato. Through cloning and expression analysis it was identified that HYDRA encodes the tomato orthologue of SPL/NZZ of Arabidopsis and involves in germ line formation and fruit set in tomato and it was reported that SPL-like genes work as down regulation of fruit set in fleshy fruit plants and have an evolutionary conserved role in controlling sporogenesis in plants (Pilar-Rojas et al., 2017).

 Phosphorylation of the SPL gene by the protein kinase MPK3 and MPK6 are required for the development of anthers in Arabidopsis. Phosphorylation by MAPK6 maintains the SPL protein stability and improves the quantitative and spatial stability of anther cell differentiation.

The SPL along with BAM1/2 involves in early anther development. Expression of BAM1 in spl mutant and expression of SPL in bam1-bam2 double mutant were analysed. While *BAM1* expression was decreased and distributed unevenly in the *spl* mutant anther, SPL expression increased in the bam1-bam2 mutant. This showed that SPL positively regulates BAM1 expression, but that BAM1/BAM2 play a role in limiting SPL expression. In order to regulate the equilibrium across sporogenous and somatic cell fates, it was suggested that SPL(NZZ) and BAM1/2 also create a positivenegative feedback loop (Hord et al., 2006).

 The SPL and polarity genes such as the YABBY family, the class-III Homeodomain Leucine Zipper (HD-ZIP III) family, the KANAD (KAN) family, ETTIN/AUXIN RESPONSE TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR3 (ARF3) and ARF4 participate in the creation of the adaxial-abaxial pattern in ovules. YABBY family proteins, including FILAMENTOUS FLOWER (FIL), INNER NO OUTER (INO), and YABBY 3 (YAB3), determine the abaxial cell fate of ovules. By physically interacting with FIL, INO and YAB3, the SPL represses INO transcription in both time and space.

 In a cucumber mutant with highly impaired anther and ovule development, SPOROCYTELESS (SPL)/NOZZLE (NZZ) expression was almost eliminated. Particularly in the growing anthers and ovules, CsSPL was expressed. Reduced male and female fertility with abnormal pollen and impaired ovule development were the results of CsSPL knockdown. Importantly, CsSPL positively regulated CsWUS expression through direct interactions with CsWUS (WUSCHEL) in the nucellus and YABBY family genes in integuments. In contrast, CsPHB (PHABULOSA), an HD-ZIP III gene that is only expressed in the nucellus, promoted CsSPL expression by binding to the CsSPL promoter. As a result, CsSPL functions as an adaptor to connect CsPHB and CsWUS activity, establishing a hitherto unrecognised regulatory mechanism that directs the development of the sex organ in plants (Xiaofeng Liu *et al.*, 2018).

 Better knowledge of the molecular and genetic mechanisms governing the pattern development and growth control during floral organogenesis was made possible by the characterization of the NOZZLE gene. Additionally, it was stated that NOZZLE connects these developments as the ovule is developing. NOZZLE, an essential component of the ovule primordium, inhibits the actions of BELL, AINTEGUMENTA, and INNER NO OUTER, all of which encode putative transcription factors, in the region that will eventually become the nucellus. It has been established that the chalaza identification genes, NOZZLE and BELL have complementary roles in determining the ovule's potential chalaza.

 Moreover, NOZZLE controls the number of cells and, thus, the length of the funiculus by competing with AINTEGUMENTA and INNER NO OUTER function. The growth of the integuments also requires *NOZZLE*. It has been demonstrated that AINTEGUMENTA and INNER NO OUTER are transcriptionally controlling NOZZLE during the earliest stage of this process. Therefore, NOZZLE indicates a downstream target of these two genes in the development of integument.

Materials and Methods

#### 3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The research work entitled "Characterization and expression analysis of SPOROCYTELESS gene in monoecious and gynoecious lines of bitter gourd" was carried out at Department of Plant Biotechnology, College of Agriculture, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur during the period 2020-2023. This chapter includes the details of materials used and the methodologies employed in the research.

#### 3.1 Materials

## 3.1.1 Plant material

Seeds of monoecious cultivar Priyanka and gynoecious line KAU-Mc-Gy-102 were collected from the Department of Vegetable Science, College of Agriculture, Thrissur. These genotypes were used to study the sequence variation of the SPOROCYTELESS gene as well as the level of expression of this gene in developing floral buds.

The seeds were sown separately in pots and plants maintained till they reached flower bud stage.

#### 3.1.2 Laboratory chemicals and equipment

LR and MB grade chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich Pvt. Ltd., SRL Chemicals Pvt. Ltd., and HiMedia. Sigma Aldrich Pvt. Ltd., including DEPC (diethyl pyrocarbonate), RNA Later solution, RNase ZAP, and TRI reagent. Thermofisher Scientific provided the 2x RNA loading dye, Riboruler RNA low range ladder and Verso first strand cDNA synthesis kit. Bio-Rad Laboratories provided the SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix used for qRT-PCR analysis. GeNei Labs Pvt. Ltd. provided the dNTP mix, Taq DNA polymerase, and Taq buffer used in the PCR. HiMedia provided the PCR grade water that is suitable for PCR. GeNei Labs Pvt. Ltd.'s StepUpTM 100 bp DNA ladder and Biolit ProxiO100bp DNA ladder from SRL Chemicals Pvt. Ltd. were also used in this research

The laboratory equipment included the electronic balance (Shimadzu), icematic (F100 compact), fume hood (CAFH 1500), water bath (Rotek), high speed refrigerated centrifuge (KUBOTA 3500 and Eppendorf), microcentrifuge  $(SPINWIN<sup>TM</sup> MC-100, SPINWIN TM MC-01)$ , micropipettes (Eppendorf), pH metre

(EU Tech instrument pH tutor) and thermal cycler (BioRad). The glassware was supplied by Borosilicate, while the plasticware were purchased from Tarsons India Ltd. For the quantification and quality control of nucleic acids, Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer and gel electrophoresis unit (BioRad Gel Doc<sup>TM</sup> XR+) were utilised. QuantityOne software was used for the analysis of gel images. The StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems) at Kerala Veterinary and Animal Sciences University was used for the RT-qPCR analysis.(Annexure-I)

## 3.2 Methods

#### 3.2.1 Isolation and characterization of SPOROCYTELESS gene

## 3.2.2 Primer designing

Three pairs of primers were designed for the PCR amplification of full length of SPOROCYTELESS gene in the leaves of both monoecious and gynoecious bitter gourd lines. Reference sequence was downloaded from the NCBI Genome database and Primer3 software was used. Primer sets were synthesised by Sigma-Aldrich Pvt. Ltd.

#### 3.2.3 Isolation of total genomic DNA from bitter gourd

First to third leaves from the shoot tips of each genotype were collected in ice box. Long term storage, when required, was done at -80°C. The leaves were washed with sterile water and then cleaned with 70% ethanol.

The CTAB method (Rogers and Bendich, 1994) was used to extract the genomic DNA. Material required for DNA isolation are listed in Annexure II.

## Procedure

- $\geq 0.1$  g of clean leaf tissue was ground using liquid nitrogen in a pre-chilled mortar and pestle
- One mL of preheated CTAB extraction buffer, a tiny amount of PVP (Polyvinyl Pyrolidone), and fifty micro litres of ß-mercaptoethanol were added to the mortar.
- $\triangleright$  The homogenate was transferred to a two-mL autoclaved centrifuge tube, 500 µL more CTAB buffer added in each tube, mixed gently, and incubated at 65 °C for 20-35 minutes with periodic mixing and moderate inversion
- $\triangleright$  To create an emulsion, an equal volume of chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added and gently mixed by inversion. The tubes were centrifuged for 15 minutes at  $4^{\circ}$ C at 10,000 rpm.
- After centrifugation, DNA and RNA were in the top aqueous layer, proteins and tiny particles in the middle layer and chloroform, pigments and cell debris in the lowest layer.
- $\triangleright$  The top aqueous layer was cautiously pipetted into a clean centrifuge tube and mixed with an equal amount of chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:1) and one tenth volume of 10% CTAB solution. Mixed the ingredients gently and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4 °C.
- $\triangleright$  The aqueous phase was transferred to a two-mL sterile centrifuge tube, to which 2-3 µ L of RNase was added, mixed thoroughly, and incubated for 1.5 hours at 37 °C. Equal volume of Chloroform to isoamyl alcohol (24:1) added, and the mixture was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4 °C.
- $\triangleright$  Supernatant was carefully pipetted out to a clean 1.5-µL centrifuge tube and 0.6 volume of chilled isopropanol was added. To witness the development of threads, the tubes were gently inverted in a horizontal position, and the contents were allowed to precipitate. The tubes were maintained at -20 °C for 30 to 60 min. to allow complete precipitation.
- $\triangleright$  Tubes were centrifuged for 15 min. at 4 °C and 10,000 rpm.
- $\triangleright$  Pellet was washed with 70 % ethanol (200 µL) for 5 min. at 10,000 rpm. After washing, ethanol was decanted.
- $\triangleright$  Then the pellet was washed with 100  $\mu$ L of 100 % ethanol for three min. at 10,000 rpm
- $\triangleright$  The pellet was then dissolved in 50  $\mu$ L of autoclaved distilled water and stored at -20 °C

## 3.2.4 Quality assessment by agarose gel electrophoresis

Quality of the extracted DNA was evaluated by electrophoresis on 0.8 % agarose gel (Sambrook et al., 1989). Reagents and apparatus used in agarose gel electrophoresis are listed in Annexure III.

## Procedure for gel casting and electrophoresis

- $\triangleright$  A 60 mL gel casting tray was placed in a gel casting device, and a comb was put vertically about an inch from one end of the tray such that there would be a space of one to two millimetres between the comb's teeth and the tray's surface
- $\triangleright$  Agarose gel (0.8 %) was made by mixing 0.48 g of agarose with 60 mL of 1X TAE in a conical flask, then heating the mixture in a microwave for 45–60 sec. or until the agarose was completely dissolved and the solution was clear
- $\triangleright$  The solution was allowed to cool to around 42-45 °C at ambient temperature and then  $5\mu$ L of ethidium bromide dye with a working concentration of 0.5 g/mL was added and mixed to ensure even dispersion. The delicate mixing process prevented the formation of bubbles.
- $\triangleright$  The warm semi-solid solution was gently poured into the casting tray, filling it to a height of approximately 5-6 mm, and then left to cool and harden for approximately 30–40 minutes. After the gel got solidified, the casting tray and comb were carefully removed.
- $\triangleright$  The gel tray was positioned within the horizontal electrophoresis unit's gel tank with the wells facing the cathode. IX TAE buffer solution was poured into the gel tank until all the wells were immersed.
- $\triangleright$  The first well was added with 4  $\mu$ L of 100 bp DNA ladder
- Five  $\mu$ L each of the DNA samples were prepared by mixing with 1  $\mu$ L each of 6X gel loading dye. The mixture was then loaded into each well.
- $\triangleright$  The tank was sealed, the anode and cathode were connected to the power pack, and electrophoresis was performed at a constant voltage of 70 V.
- $\triangleright$  When the tracking dye reached two-thirds of the length of the gel, electrophoresis was stopped, gel removed from the apparatus and bands docked under a UV transilluminator.
- $\triangleright$  Gel disposed properly, buffers disposed or transferred back, if reusable, and gel tank cleaned up.

# 3.2.5 Gel documentation

A UV trans-illuminator was used to check for bands on the electrophoresed gel. Due to the ethiduim bromide dye, which binds to the hydrogen bonds between the double helix, the DNA fluoresces when exposed to UV light. This dye is activated at 260 nm and emits yellowish orange light at a wavelength of 590 nm.

Using Quantity One software, bands were recorded in the gel documentation system (BioRad Gel DOC-It<sup>TM</sup> imaging system). The gel was examined for presence of RNA and protein as well as the structural integrity and clarity of the DNA band. A thick band lighter than 100 bp showed the presence of RNA whereas proteins clogged the wells and made to fluoresce under UV. Degraded DNA appeared as smear whereas intact good DNA resulted a single heavy band just emerged from the well.

## 3.2.6 Assessment of quality and quantity of DNA

A spectrophotometer (NanoDrop ND-1000) was used to evaluate the quality and quantity of the extracted DNA. While proteins have the highest absorbance at 280 nm, nucleic acid exhibits its maximum absorbance at 260 nm. At both wavelengths, the absorbance was measured, and the purity was calculated using the  $A_{260}/A_{280}$  ratio. DNA of acceptable quality and reasonably free of proteins and RNA will have a ratio between 1.8 and 2.0. A result of more than 2.0 suggests RNA contamination, whereas a ratio of less than 1.8 indicates contamination with proteins. The amount of DNA in a pure sample was determined using the relation shown below.

1 OD at 260 nm = 50 
$$
\mu
$$
g DNA mL<sup>-1</sup>

Hence, the  $OD<sub>260</sub>$  reading obtained from the sample multiplied with 50 gives the total quantity of DNA  $(\mu g/mL)$ .

## Procedure

- $\triangleright$  NanoDrop spectrophotometer was connected to the system, which was installed with the software ND-1000
- $\triangleright$  The option 'nucleic acid' was selected in the software
- $\triangleright$  The upper and lower measurement pedestals were carefully cleaned with the sampling arm raised, and one  $\mu$ L of distilled water was pipetted onto the lower measurement pedestal.
- $\triangleright$  Sampling arm was closed, and the operating programme started the spectrum measurement.
- $\triangleright$  Reading for the blank sample was set to zero

 $\triangleright$  Similarly, the all samples were measured and after the last sample, the sampling arm, as well as the upper and lower pedestals, were carefully cleaned using a soft laboratory wipe

## 3.2.7 Thermal amplification in PCR

Three primer pairs were used to PCR amplify the SPOROCYTELESS gene from bitter gourd DNA. Gradient PCR at 55 to 60 °C range were performed to determine the ideal annealing temperatures for each primer pair. Composition of the PCR reaction mixture is presented in Table 3.1. The DNA template was added separately after the aliquots of the PCR reaction mixture had been added to the 0.2 mL PCR tubes. Thermal profile for gradient PCR is presented in Table 3.2.





Table 3.2. Thermal profile for gradient PCR

Sl. No.	<b>Steps</b>	Temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	Time	<b>Cycles</b>	
	Initial	95	5 min.		
	denaturation				
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{L}}$	Denaturation	95	30 sec.		
3	Primer annealing	60	$30$ sec.		
4	Primer extension	72	1 min.	30	
	Final extension	72	$8 \text{ min.}$		
	Hold	4			

# 3.2.7.1 Analysis of PCR amplicons by electrophoresis

PCR products were electrophoresed on 2 % agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide. A 100 bp DNA ladder (SRL Biolit) was run to compare and estimate the amplicon sizes.

# 3.2.8 Gel purification

DNA was extracted from the amplicons in the agarose gel for subsequent sequencing on Sanger platform.

Using the gel and PCR clean-up kit (Macherey-Nagel<sup>TM</sup> Nucleospin<sup>TM</sup>), the PCR amplicons of the expected size were eluted from the agarose gel.

# Materials required

- Buffer NT1 (provided with the kit)
- $\bullet$  Buffer NT3 (provided with the kit)
- Nuclease free water

# Procedure

- From the agarose gel, the amplicon of the expected size was cut with a sharp blade.
- The sliced gel was placed in a microcentrifuge tube and 200 µL of Buffer NT1 was added to each 100 mg of the gel.
- Incubated the tube at 50  $\degree$ C for 5–10 min. and got the gel slice dissolved.
- A quick vortexing was performed for 1-2 minutes
- The sample was put into the gel clean up column using a 2.0 mL collection tube, which was included with the kit.
- Centrifuged at 11000 g for 30 sec. and flow-through discarded
- The column was placed back to the collection tube
- Buffer NT3 (700  $\mu$ L) was added to the column and centrifuged for 30 sec. at 11000 g
- The flow-through was discarded
- This action was repeated once more
- The tube was centrifuged again for one minute at 11000 g to remove even traces of Buffer NT3
- The column was then incubated for  $2-5$  minutes at  $70^{\circ}$ C
- The column was inserted into a 1.5 mL tube, 10 µL of nuclease-free water was added, and centrifuged at 11000 g for one min.
- This step was repeated once again.
- Eluted DNA was maintained at -20  $\degree$ C and 4.0 µL of eluted DNA was used to check the quality on 0.8 % agarose gel

## 3.2.9 Sequencing and sequence analysis

## 3.2.9.1 Sequencing of PCR product

PCR products, except those eluted from the gel, were subjected to column purification. PCR amplicons generated using three primer combinations, in both monoecious and gynoecious lines, were paired-end sequenced on Sanger platform using the specific primers (Sanger et al., 1977).

#### 3.2.9.2. Sequence data analysis

The forward and reverse sequences generated from an amplicon using the respective primers were aligned to a single, continuous sequence. Online sequence assembly programme CAP3 available at PRABI-Doua was used to create the continuous sequences from the overlapping forward and reverse complementary sequences (Huang and Madan, 1999).

Contiguous sequences generated using three primer pair were combined to develop the sequence of *SPOROCYTELESS* gene in monoecious and gynoecious lines. Additionally, the sequence from these lines was aligned with reference sequence in GenBank using multiple sequence alignment tool Clustal Omega available at European Bioinformatics Institute (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/) (Goujon et al. 2010). Identical bases at any position were indicated by an asterisk (\*), whereas non-identical bases missed it. In/Dels were indicated by a gap within the sequence.

## 3.2.10 Expression analysis for SPOROCTLESS gene

To confirm the role of SPOROCYTELESS gene in flowering in bitter gourd, its expression in the developing buds of monoecious and gynoecious lines was assessed using real time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) analysis.

# 3.2.10.1 Collection of flower bud samples

Floral buds were collected from pot raised monoecious and gynoecious lines of bitter gourd. The collected samples were wiped with RNase ZAP (Sigma) and stored in RNA Later (Sigma) solution till RNA extraction. When necessary, the buds were stored at -80 ºC for long term.

# 3.2.10.2. RNA isolation

The following general precautions were followed before the isolation of RNA.

- Microcentrifuge tubes, microtips, mortars, and pestles, and other materials needed for RNA isolation, were treated with 0.1 % DEPC overnight and doubly autoclaved before use
- To prepare the TAE buffer and 75% ethanol, double autoclaved DEPC treated water was used
- Before usage, the work bench, all apparatus including the gel electrophoresis machine, were cleaned with 75% ethanol and RNase ZAP (Sigma).

The procedure followed for isolation of good quality RNA from the floral buds is given below.

## Reagents used

- TRI reagent (Sigma)
- Chloroform
- Isopropanol
- 75 % ethanol
- Nuclease free water

## Procedure

- Ground 100 mg of buds to fine powder, in liquid nitrogen, using pre-chilled DEPC-treated mortar and pestle
- When the powdered tissue was fully thawed, it was transferred to a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube
- One mL of TRI reagent was added to the powdered tissue
- Vortexed the tube for 15 sec. and incubated for 10 min. at room temperature
- To this, 200 µL of chloroform was added
- Homogenized the contents for 15 sec. and incubated for 5 min. at room temperature
- Centrifuged the contents at 12000 g, at  $4^{\circ}$ C, for 15 min.
- Supernatant was pipetted out to a new 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube
- To this, 500 µL of ice-cold isopropanol was added and incubated for 10 min. at room temperature, for precipitation of RNA
- Contents were centrifuged at 12000 g for 10 min. at 4  $^{\circ}$ C and supernatant discarded
- The pellet was washed with 1.0 mL of 75 % ethanol and centrifuged at 7500 g for 10 min.
- The supernatant was removed and the RNA pellets was dried under ambient conditions
- Pellet was dissolved in 20 µL of nuclease free water

# 3.2.10.3 Analysis of quality of the isolated total RNA

Agarose gel electrophoresis was used to evaluate the quality of the total RNA.

# Reagents used

- Agarose (SRL Chemicals Pvt. Ltd.)
- Stock solution of TAE buffer (50X, pH 8.0) prepared in DEPC treated water [T buffer (1 M) (242.2 g/L), EDTA 0.5 M (pH 8.0, 100 mL), Glacial acetic acid (57.1 mL), total volume made up to 1 L]
- Double autoclaved DEPC treated water
- RiboRuler<sup>TM</sup> low range RNA ladder (Thermofisher Scientific)
- Loading dye  $(6x)$  (GeNei)
- Ethidium bromide (10 mg/mL stock)

## Procedure

- 1X TAE buffer was prepared using double autoclaved and DEPC-treated water from a 50X stock solution. To prepare 1 % agarose gel, 60 mL of 1X TAE buffer and 0.6 g of agarose were taken in a conical flask and heated in a microwave oven.
- The clear solution obtained after complete melting of the agarose was allowed to cool under room temperature
- When the temperature of the solution reached nearly 45-50  $\degree$ C, 3.0 µL. of ethidium bromide was added and thoroughly mixed
- Gel casting, electrophoresis and documentation were performed as detailed under Section 3.2.4

For electrophoresis, 4.0 µL of RNA sample was mixed with 2.0 µL of loading dye and loaded in the well. RNA ladder  $(3.0 \mu L)$  was loaded in the first well.

Quantity and quality of the isolated RNA was assessed using NanoDrop spectrophotometer, following procedure given in Section 3.2.6.

## 3.2.10.4 Real Time-Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction

## 3.2.10.4.1. First strand cDNA synthesis

The RevertAid First strand cDNA synthesis kit (ThermoFisher Scientific) was used to prepare the first strand of cDNA from the RNA, following manufacturer's protocol.

## Reagents used

- 5X reaction buffer
- $\bullet$  Oligo(dT) primer
- RevertAid M-MuLV RT  $(200 \text{ U/}\mu\text{L})$
- Ribolock RNase inhibitor  $(20 \text{ U/}\mu\text{L})$
- Nuclease free water

## Procedure

After thawing, the components of the kit were briefly spun and stored on ice.

 Following components were added into a sterile nuclease free 0.2 mL microcentrifuge tube on ice

Template RNA - 2.0 ug

Oligo(dT) primer  $-1.0 \mu L$ 

Nuclease free water - To make up total volume to 12  $\mu$ L

• The components were carefully homogenized and vortexed for 1 minute The tube was incubated at 65  $\degree$ C for 5 minutes (preferably in a thermal cycler) and then moved to ice to add the following components in the given order

## Table 3.3 Components of cDNA reaction mixture



- Contents were mixed gently through vortexting.
- The tube was incubated at 42 °C for 60 min and then warmed for 5 min. at 70 °C to end the reaction
- The cDNA was maintained at -20 °C

# 3.2.10.4.2 Designing of primers for RT-qPCR analysis

 Using the sequences of coding regions in SPOROCYTELESS gene, a pair of primers was designed using Primer3 software. Primers were also designed for the endogenous control gene actin.

## 3.2.10.4.3 Confirmation of first strand cDNA synthesis

 Using actin gene-specific primers, the first strand cDNA was PCR amplified at 60 °C annealing temperature.

Table 3.4 Components of PCR reaction mixture used to confirm the synthesis of first strand cDNA



#### 3.2.10.4.4 RT-qPCR analysis

 Through RT-qPCR analysis using SYBR Green chemistry, expression of the SPOROCYTELESS gene in floral buds of monoecious and gynoecious bitter gourd lines was studied. The actin gene was used as endogenous control and two biological replicates and three technical replicates for the test gene and endogenous control gene were done. Sso Advanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad) was used in the experiments, which were carried out on the StepOne Plus Real-Time PCR machine. The Table 3.5 shows the components of the RT-qPCR reaction mixture. The reaction was configured in accordance with the temperature profile shown in Table 3.6. The melt curve analysis was performed to verify the accuracy of the amplicons. Using the formula  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ , the relative level of expression of SPOROCYTELESS gene was normalised with the expression of the endogenous control actin gene (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001).



Table 3.5 Composition of the reaction mixture used for RT-qPCR





Step 3 and 4 were carried out for 45 cycles

## 3.2.10.4.5 Calculation of fold change

Ct values were obtained from the RT-qPCR assay, which were then used to calculate the ∆Ct and ∆∆Ct of the target gene, in comparison to the house-keeping gene.

 $\Delta$ Ct = Ct of gene of interest - Ct of internal control, where the reference gene is taken as internal control.

∆∆Ct = ∆Ct of Sample A - ∆Ct of Sample B = [(Ct of gene of interest - Ct of internal control)

for Sample A - (Ct of gene of interest - Ct of internal control) for Sample B] where, Sample B is the untreated sample, which is monoecious flowers, and Sample A is treated sample, which is gynoecious flowers. Fold change was calculated as 2<sup>-∆∆Ct</sup> (Schmittgen and Livak, 2008).

# Results

#### 4. RESULTS

The research work entitled "Characterization and expression analysis of SPOROCYTELESS gene in monoecious and gynoecious lines of bitter gourd was carried out with the aid of facilities available at Department of Plant Biotechnology, College of Agriculture, Kerala Agricultural University, Vellanikkara, Thrissur during the period 2020-2023. This chapter details the results of the research work.

## 4.1 Planting material

Monoecious bitter gourd cultivar Priyanka and gynoecious line KAU-Mc-Gy-102 were used to sequence characterize the SPOROCYTELESS gene as well as to study its expression level in developing floral buds.

The seeds were sown in separate pots and plants maintained till they reached the bud stage (Plate 4.1).

## 4.2 Retrieval of gene sequences and primer designing

The SPOROCYTELESS/SPL or NOZZLE/NZL gene's nucleotide sequence (2132 bp) was retrieved in FASTA format from the NCBI GenBank  $(XM_0222839995.1)$ (Fig. 4.0). Three pairs of primers were designed with the desired product size, GC content, melting temperature, and least primer dimerization (Tables 4.1 and 4.2).

Primer	Sequence $(5^{\degree}-3^{\degree})$		
SPL-BG-1-FP	<b>TCCCCATTTGAAAGAAAACCCC</b>		
SPL-BG-1-RP	<b>TTTGCTCTTCTTCTGCCATTCC</b>		
$SPL-BG-2-FP$	TCCCTGATTGAGCTTTGTGAAC		
$SPL-BG-2-RP$	GGGGCTCTATCTGGACATTAAGA		
SPL-BG-3-FP	ACCCGGGACAGGCTTTTC		
$SPL-BG-3-RP$	TGAACCCAAAAGACAGAACATTT		

Table 4.1 Primer pairs designed for SPOROCYTELESS gene

<b>SI. No.</b>	<b>Name of Primer</b>	Length (bp)	$Tm$ (°C)	Product size (bp)
	SPL-BG-1-FP	22	63.2	
2	SPL-BG-1-RP	22	63.4	718
3	SPL-BG-2-FP	22	69.2	
$\overline{4}$	$SPL-BG-2-RP$	23	74.1	912
5	$SPL-BG-3-FP$	18	64.7	
6	$SPL-BG-3-RP$	23	65.5	1000

Table 4.2 Features of the primer pairs designed for the study

## 4.3 Molecular characterization and analysis of SPL gene

DNA was isolated from the emerging leaves and electrophoresed to check the quality. High molecular weight, intact, clear, and bright bands have demonstrated their high quality (Plate 4.2). All DNA samples examined in spectrophotometers had A260/280 absorbance ratios between 1.8 and 2.0, indicating their acceptable quality. DNA from KAUMCGy-101 and Priyanka had 665.81 and 585.86 ng/ $\mu$ L concentration with  $A_{260}/A_{280}$  absorbance ratio of 1.84 and 1.90, respectively.

Thermal cycling at annealing temperature of 60  $^{\circ}$ C has generated the bands of the predicted sizes, 718, 900 and 1000 bp (Plates 4.3a and 4.3b).

PCR products were paired-end sequenced on Sanger platform. Forward and reverse sequences having a Quality Value (QV) score of 20 or higher were used for subsequent analysis. . For monoecious and gynoecious lines, contigs with 2381 and 2391 bp were generated (Figs. 4.1 and 4.2). Contiguous sequences generated were used for multiple sequence alignment with monoecious, gynoecious, and reference sequences (Figs. 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7). Two base-variations found in the sequence of gynoecious sample (G and A) compared to monoecious (T and C, respectively) were subsequently found to be misrepresentations, on cross verification with chromatogram peaks (Figs. 4.8 and 4.9). No valid variations were found between the sequences of gynoecious and monoecious lines.

Homology search for the sequences using BLASTn showed 100 % identity and 79 % query coverage with the predicted sequence of Momordica charantia transcript variant (LOC111010534) (Accession no XM\_02283995.1) (Figs. 4.10 and 4.11). Analysis of sequences using BLASTx showed 99.09 % identity with the same transcript variant (Accession no XP\_O22139687.1) (Figs. 4.12 and 4.13). BLASTp analysis of the sequences showed 100 % identity with protein sequence of Momordica charantia (Accession no. XP\_022139688.1) (Figs. 4.16 and 4.17).

The amino acid sequence of the *SPL* gene from monoecious and gynoecious lines were deduced using the ExPASy translate tool (Figs. 4.14 and 4.15).

Analysis using ORF finder showed that the nucleotide sequence had 19 ORFs in both lines with ORF4 as the longest with 768 bp and coding for 255 amino acids (Figs. 4.18 and 4.19).



Plate 4.1 Monoecious and gynoecious lines raised in pots



Fig 4.0 FASTA sequence of the SPOROCYTELESS/NOZZLE gene obtained from the **NCBI** 



Plate 4.2 Agarose gel profile of total DNA isolated from bitter gourd leaves. L: Ladder, M: Monoecious, G- Gynoecious



Plate 4.3a. PCR amplification of SPL gene target in monoecious bitter gourd cultivar. L- Ladder, 1- SPL-BG-1, 2-SPL-BG-2, 3-SPL-BG-3



Plate 4.3b. PCR amplification of SPL gene target in monoecious bitter gourd cultivar. L- Ladder, 1- SPL-BG-1, 2-SPL-BG-2, 3-SPL-BG-3



Fig. 4.1. The contig obtained after assembling the forward and reverse sequences of all the three sets of primers was 2381 bp long for monoecious



Fig 4.2. The contig obtained after assembling the forward and reverse sequences of all the three sets of primers was 2391 bp long for gynoecious



Fig. 4.3. Multiple sequence alignment of SPL gene



Fig .4.4. Multiple sequence alignment of SPL gene



Fig. 4.5. Multiple sequence alignment of SPL gene



Fig. 4.6. Multiple sequence alignment of SPL gene



Fig. 4.7. Multiple sequence alignment of SPL gene



Fig. 4.8. Chromatogram peak images for Var 1 1) Monoecious sequence 2) Gynoecious sequence



Fig. 4.9. Chromatogram peak images for Var 2 1) Monoecious sequence 2) Gynoecious sequence



Fig. 4.10. BLASTn analysis in monoecious line a) Sequences showing significant identity with query sequence in monoecious line



b) Results of BLASTn analysis showing alignment of the sequencpe with Momordica charantia (Accession no XM\_O2283995.1) in monoecious line



Fig. 4.11. BLASTn analysis in gynoecious line a) Sequences showing significant identity with query sequence in gynoecious line



b) BLASTn result window showing alignment of the sequence with Momordica charantia (Accession no XM\_O2283995.1) in gynoecious line



Fig. 4.12. BLASTx analysis in monoecious line a) Sequences showing significant identity with query sequence in monoecious line



b) BLASTp result window showing alignment of the sequence with Momordica charantia (Accession no XP\_O22139687.1) in monoecious line



Fig. 4.13. BLASTx analysis in gynoecious line a) Sequences showing significant

identity with query sequence in gynoecious line



b) BLASTX result window showing alignment of the sequence with Momordica charantia (Accession no XP\_O22139687.1) in gynoecious line


Fig. 4.14 Result window of ExPASy translate tool showing the amino acid sequence corresponding to SPL gene in monoecious line



Fig. 4.15. Result window of ExPASy translate tool showing the amino acid sequence corresponding to SPL gene in gynoecious line



Fig. 4.16. BLASTp analysis in monoecious line a) Sequences showing significant identity with query sequence in monoecious line



b) BLASTp result window showing alignment of the sequence with Momordica charantia (Accession no. XP\_022139688.1) in monoecious line



Fig. 4.17. BLASTp analysis in gynoecious line a) Sequences showing significant identity with query sequence in gynoecious line



b) BLASTp result window showing alignment of the sequence with Momordica charantia (Accession no. XP\_022139688.1) in gynoecious line

< ORFfinder submitting page	$>$ Help
<b>Open Reading Frame Viewer</b>	
<b>Sequence</b>	
ORFs found: 19 Genetic code: 1 Start codon: 'ATG' only	
$81 -$ Find: $\vee$ $\Leftrightarrow$ $\Diamond$ $\Box$ ◎ 価 壬 Tools -	<b>台Tracks • @ ? •</b>
2 K  2,100 100 288  300  1400 [580 689 ORF4 $\frac{6}{10}$ 1888 988 1K  1,100 1,200  1,300  1,400  1,500 1,688  1,700  1,880 1,900  2,200 2,380	2,480 2,54
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$\equiv$ CRF14 $\overline{\phantom{a}}$ ORF13 ORF2	
280 388 1,588  2,300 1100 1488 1588 688 1888  1,100  1,200   1,300 1.488 1.688 11.788 1,880 11.900 12K 2.188  2,200 788 988 11 K	2.488 2,547
1: 12.5K (2,547 nt)	Tracks shown: 2/7
	Six-frame translation
Mark subset <b>Mark</b> as Protein FASTA Y Download marked set <b>ORF4</b> (255 aa) Marked: 0 Display ORF as	
Start Label Strand Frame Stop Length (nt   aa) $>1c1$ ORF4	
MAEEEQKQRCYSNRFGSFGTIGGVGGRSSSKKPKPKTKKVPQRGLGVAQL ORF4 $\overline{2}$ 701 1468 768   255 EKIRLEEOOKNDAAAAIFSSPSPLSPTKSSSYLSLPVPSFROSNOSSSSS	
SFPSPPLVNLSSSSSMFGPPLPVLNMDVRDSFTVPLVD0AKSGGSETGLS ORF9 3 1983 2357 375   124 <b>A</b> AVTIMEQGNALKHQSSCEYYLEKENYGVDPGQAFRSNFNLPYEVNPAHPS	
PELLORAQOYOSPSPHVTHEVSLFLCHTIYYFLKSPGLPQNCSKEHSNTN ORF12 288 94 195   64 $\overline{1}$ $\overline{a}$ <b>HLLQW</b>	
ORF <sub>8</sub> 3 1176 1352 177   58 ÷	
2544 ORF <sub>3</sub> 2380 165   54 $\ddot{}$ $\overline{1}$	
ORF1 76 237 162   53 $\overline{1}$ ٠	
ORF <sub>5</sub> $\overline{2}$ 2029 147 48 1883 $\ddot{}$ ORF4 Marked set (0)	
ORF18 3 1801 1655 147   48 $\sim$ SmartBLAST best hit titles (a)	
<b>SmartBLAST</b> ORF7 3 882 1025 144   47 $\ddot{}$	
<b>BLAST</b> ORF16 3 2294 2428 135   44 <b>BLAST</b>	
ORF13 2333 2202 132   43 $\overline{2}$ $\mathbf{v}$ <b>BLAST Database</b>	
UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot (swissprot) $\check{~}$	

Fig. 4.18. ORFs in SPL gene identified using ORF finder in monoecious line

<b>Open Reading Frame Viewer</b>																					
Sequence																					
ORFs found: 19 Start codon: 'ATG' only Genetic code: 1																					
$5.81$ Find: $-600$		◎ 那 子																		※ Tools → 章 Tracks → ご ? →	
1100 288 1399	See 400	688	ORF1 8 888		1900	11 K	1,188	1,200	1,388	1,400	1,500	1,688	1,700	1,888	1,900	2 K	2,100	2,288	2,300	[2,400]	2,555
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						$-$ 08F11														ORF16	
						<b>CRELA</b> CRELA												ORFS <b>The Second State</b>	CRF13		
280 300 1100	588 1400	1688	1799	1888	1900	1 K	1.188	1.200	1.389	1.400	1,500	1,688	1,700	1,888	1,900	2 K	2, 100	2,280	2,388	2,400	2,555
Tracks shown: 2/8 1: 12.6K (2,555 nt)																					
																				Six-frame translation	
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EKIRLEEQQKIIDAAAAIFSSPSPLSPTKSSSYLSLPVPSFRQSNQSSSSS SFPSPPLVNLSSSSSNFGPPLPVLNNDVRDSFTVPLVDQAKSGGSETGLS		ORF1	R		709	1476	768   255														
AVTIMEQGNALKNQSSCEYYLEKENYGVDPGQAFRSNFNLPYEVNPANPS PELLQRAQQYQSPSPM/THEVSLFLCMTIYYFLKSPGLPQNCSKEHSNTN		ORF7	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{2}$	1991	2365	375   124														
<b>HLLOW</b>		ORF15	٠.	$\overline{2}$	298	104	195   64														
		ORF <sub>6</sub>	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{2}$	1184	1360	177158														
		ORF9	$\overline{1}$	$\overline{3}$	2388	2552	165   54														
		ORF4	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{2}$	86	247	162   53														
ORF1 Marked set (0)		ORF <sub>2</sub>	$\overline{1}$		1891	2037	147   48														
SmartBLAST best hit titles <b>SmartBLAST</b>		ORF18	×	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	1809	1663	147 48														
<b>BLAST</b>		ORF <sub>5</sub>	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{2}$	890	1033	144   47														
<b>BLAST</b>		ORF16		$\overline{3}$	2436 2341	2302 2210	135   44														
132143 ORF13 <b>BLAST Database:</b>																					
UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot (swissprot) $\check{~}$																					

Fig. 4.19. ORFs in SPL gene identified using ORF finder in gynoecious line

## 4.4. Real Time – quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (RTqPCR) analysis for SPOROCTLESS expression

To study the differential expression of SPOROCYTELESS gene, RT-qPCR analysis was performed in the floral buds of male and female flowers of monoecious and female flowers of gynoecious lines (Plate 4.4).

#### 4.4.1 RNA isolation

Quantity and quality of the RNA isolated from the floral buds was assessed using a spectrophotometer. The  $A_{260}/A_{280}$  ratio was between 1.80 to 1.92, suggesting pure RNA. The concentration was between 769 and 851 ng/ $\mu$ L (Table 4.3 and Plate 4.5).

Table 4.3. Concentration and purity of RNA samples

<b>Sample</b>	$Concentration(ng/\mu L)$	$A_{260}/A_{280}$
Gynoecious	769.03	1.832
Monoceious - Male	851.99	1.921
Monoecious - Female 781.70		1.811

#### 4.4.2 Synthesis and quantification of cDNA first strand

When the quantification of cDNA was done using nano volume spectrophotometer, concentration was found adequate with  $A_{260}/A_{280}$  ratio close to 1.8 (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4. Concentration and purity of cDNA samples

<b>Sample</b>	Concentration $(ng/\mu L)$	$A_{260}/A_{280}$
Gynoecious	1121.1	1.743
Monoecious-Male	1092.8	1.789
Monoecious-Female	1715.2	1.761

#### 4.4.3 Designing primers for RT-qPCR analysis

Details on the primers designed for RT-qPCR analysis are given Table 4.5.

<b>Orientation</b> Name of		Sequence $(5'$ to $3')$	<b>Target</b>	Product
	primer		gene	size (bp)
Forward	SPL-RT	ACAGAGAGGGCTTGGTGTTG		
Reverse	SPL-RT	AGGCGAAGGGAATGAAGACG	SPL.	193
Forward	$ACT-F$	<b>TACTCTTTCACCACCACCGC</b>		
Reverse	$ACT-R$	AGGGCATCGGAACCTTTCAG	ACT	196

Table 4.5. Features of the RT-qPCR primers designed

### 4.4.4 Confirmation of first strand cDNA synthesis

The cDNA samples were thermal cycled using the primers for the housekeeping gene actin and amplification of bands at 196 bp has confirmed the synthesis of cDNA first strand in all samples (Plate 4.6).







(c)

Plate 4.4. Buds used for RNA isolation for SPL expression analysis a) Monoecious female buds b) Monoecious male buds c) Gynoecious buds



Plate 4.5. Agarose gel profile of RNA isolated L: Ladder, 1- Gynoecious, 2- Monoecious male, 3- Monoecious female



Plate 4.6. Confirmation of synthesis of first strand cDNA. L: 1kb Ladder, 1: NTC, 2: Gynoecious sample, 3: Monoecious male, 4: Monoecious female

#### 4.4.5 RT-qPCR analysis

Differential expression of SPL gene in the floral buds of monoecious and gynoecious plants was studied using RT-qPCR. In the melt-curve analysis, the melting temperature was found to be 84.67 °C for SPL amplicons (Fig. 4.20). The relative expression levels of SPL were normalised with the expression of endogenous control (actin) and fold change in expression was calculated using the formula  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  taking male as the standard (Table 4.6). The relative expression levels of SPL in different floral buds is graphically represented in Fig. 4.21.

Name of		<b>Ct Mean Ct Mean</b>	ACt.	AACt	$2^{\Lambda-\Delta\Delta}Ct$
sample	of SPL	of <i>Actin</i>			(Relative expression)
Male	40.26	17.57	22.69		1.00
Female	38.02	19.77	18.25	$-4.44$	21.69
Gynoecious	40.37	25.79	14.58	$-8.11$	276.75

Table 4.6. Relative expression of SPL gene in three floral buds



Fig. 4.20 Melt curve analysis. Unique melting peak of 84.67 ºC obtained for SPL amplicons



Fig. 4. 21 Relative expression of SPL gene in the floral buds

**Discussion** 

#### 5. DISCUSSION

The research work entitled "Characterization and expression analysis of SPOROCYTELESS gene in monoecious and gynoecious lines of bitter gourd" was carried out at Department of Plant Biotechnology, College of Agriculture, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, during 2020-2023. The results of the study are briefly discussed in this chapter.

 The Cucurbitaceae family accommodates several important vegetable crops, including bitter gourd (*Momordica charantia* L.;  $2n=2x=22$ ). Bitter gourd is also known as bitter melon, balsam pear, bitter cucumber, African cucumber, and Karela (Heiser, 1979). India produces roughly 1.2 million metric tonnes of bitter gourd from an area of 99,000 hectares (NHB database, 2018-19). Major states growing bitter gourds are Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, and Gujarat. Only 12 of the 47 species in the genus Momordica, which originated in tropical Africa, are found in Asia and Australia (Schaefer and Renner, 2010). The Momordica c. var. charantia, which yields large fruits, and Momordica c. var. muricata, a wild variety with small, rounded fruits, are the main botanical varieties of Momordica charantia (Chakravarthy, 1990; John and Antony, 2008). It is a trailing viny plant that grows quickly and is extremely valuable in nutritional and therapeutic terms. The bitter gourd's immature fruits are often eaten as vegetables and known for its anti-diabetic and other therapeutic effects (Robinson and Decker-Walters, 1997). Given that its fruits are high in vitamin A, vitamin C, iron, phosphorus, and carbohydrates, it is regarded as most nutrient-dense among the cucurbits (Miniraj et al., 1993; Desai and Musmade, 1998; Behera, 2004). Its enormous therapeutic benefits are attributable to the presence of advantageous phytochemicals, which are known to have immune-boosting, antiviral, anti-diabetic, antibiotic, antimutagenic, antihelmenthic and cancer-preventive characteristics. Phytochemicals such as momordin and charantin in the fruits are clinically proven for its hypoglycemic activity (Grover and Yadav, 2004). Monoecy, having separate male and female flowers in a plant, is the main sex form of bitter gourd. However, gynoecious sex form with only female flowers, is reported from India and Japan (Ram et al., 2002; Iwamoto and Ishida, 2006). Use of gynoecious lines as female parent in the hybridization programme is a cost-effective strategy since the manual labour required for emasculation can be avoided. Though many gynoecious lines are reported in

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major cucurbits such as cucumber, initial gynoecious bitter gourd lines were reported from KAU (KAU-Mc-Gy101 and KAU-Mc-Gy102; Minnu et al., 2022; Sunny et al., 2022; Baluchamy et al., 2023), IIVR (Gy-323, Gy-333, Gy263B, Gy-2116, Gy-2135, Gy-318, Gy-144; Ram et al., 2002; Moharana et al., 2022), IIHR (IIHRBTGy-491, IIHRBTGy-492; Varalakshmi et al., 2014) and IARI (DBGy-201 and DBGy-202; Behera et al., 2006; Behera et al., 2009) only. A gynoecious inbred, OHB61-5 with high combining ability was also reported from Japan (Iwamoto and Ishida, 2006; Iwamoto et al., 2009).

Flowering in plants is a complicated process involving multiple genes and pathways. In the ABC model of flowering, stamen formation is the result of interaction between B and C genes (Bowman et al., 1991). The specification of stamen identity in *Arabidopsis thaliana* is controlled by a combination of the B genes  $APETALA3$  (AP3) and PISTILLATA, the C gene AGAMOUS (AG), and the E genes SEPALLATA (SEP1 to SEP4). AG is understood to activate the transcription of the "floral organ-building" gene SPOROCYTELESS/NOZZLE (SPL/NZZ). SPL plays a central role in regulating microsporangium differentiation, because SPL/NZZ mutant anthers fail to form archesporial cells (Schiefthaler et al., 1999; Yang et al., 1999). Ectopic expression of SPL/NZZ has resulted in ectopic expression of AG and SEP3 in the outer whorls of flowers, indicating that this gene is engaged in controlling stamen identity via interacting with genes required for stamen identity (Liu et al., 2009). In wild-type *Arabidopsis* ovules, megaspore mother cell differentiation required SPOROCYTELESS/NOZZLE (SPL/NZZ), as demonstrated by the spl/nzz mutant failing to develop megaspore mother cell (Zhao et al., 2017; Mendes et al., 2020).

The chances for the isolation of a gynoecious line from a monoecious population is often rare since gynoecy in bitter gourd is under the control of a single, recessive gene gy-1 (Ram et al., 2006). Thus, with the increasing demand for the development of gynoecious lines in crops such as bitter gourd, genes identified to have definite roles in sex expression assumes importance. The SPL genes is shown to have pronounced role in stamen and pistil development in flowers. To proceed with the alteration of the sex forms in any crop by genetic engineering, the candidate gene has to be thoroughly characterized. Also, its expression levels in different sex forms has to be well understood. Thus, the objective of this study was to characterize the SPL gene in bitter gourd and to study its expression in the male and female flowers in monoecious and gynoecious sex forms, to formulate the strategies to develop the gynoecious lines through genome engineering.

 In this study, characterization of the SPL gene was carried out by isolating the genomic DNA from the bitter gourd leaves of both monoecious and gynoecious lines. DNA was isolated from the first or second bitter gourd leaf from the tip, which is pale green and delicate. With a small adjustment, the Rogers and Bendich (1994) CTAB technique of DNA isolation methodology produced DNA of high quality and yield. The alteration employed was the direct addition of PVP while pre-warming in a water bath to the CTAB buffer.

 The generation of modified forms of protein, polyphenols, and secondary metabolites is the main issue that arises during the isolation of DNA from plants (Weising et al., 1995; Matasyoh et al., 2008). To avoid the oxidation of polyphenols to polyquinones, which bind to the DNA and make extraction challenging, samples were collected in ice. Liquid nitrogen was used to grind the samples, making the cell walls brittle and to inactivate the enzymes, which also helped in reducing phenol oxidation. Addition of 50 μL of 1-mercapto ethanol helped in controlling protein contamination by denaturation of proteins. RNAse A (Ribonuclease A) was used in eliminating RNA contamination (Gallego and Martinez, 1996; Wettasinghe and Peffley 1998). The quantity and quality of the DNA used during molecular analysis are key factors in deciding the outcome of subsequent procedures such as PCR and sequencing. The quantity and quality were assessed using spectrophotometric techniques and agarose gel electrophoresis, respectively.

DNA samples were electrophoresed on a 0.8 % agarose gel to confirm that the DNA used in this study was of high-quality. Since the NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer accurately and consistently detects the absorbance from one uL of sample, the quantity analysis performed with it was proven to be effective. In contrast to the typical UV spectrophotometer, it does not use cuvettes or any other samplecontaminating equipment. The maximum absorbance of nucleic acids occurs at 260 nm, while that of proteins occurs at 280 nm. For high-quality DNA samples, the  $A_{260}/A_{280}$  ratio will fall between 1.8 and 2.0 (Meena, 2014; Thakur et al., 2014). The isolated samples' absorbance ratio fell within this range.

The success of a PCR experiment depends critically on the design of the oligonucleotide primers. The selection of primers and the amplification of target sequences found in the template DNA depend on crucial factors such the primer's sequence, length, and melting temperature. Utilising the sequence that is present in the NCBI genome database, three sets of primers were created to amplify the SPL gene since the size of the gene is >2kb and the processivity of Taq was only 1500 bp. Primer3 software was used to choose the primers. Optimising the specificity of a PCR reaction requires careful consideration when choosing the ideal annealing temperature. PCR can be used to determine the ideal annealing temperature gradient (Yang et al., 2005; Sipos et al., 2007). To find the ideal annealing temperature for each of the three pairs, gradient PCR was carried out.

The PCR product of all the three primer pairs of both the lines were separately pooled to 50 µL each and sequenced on Sanger platform. All the sequences had a quality value of more than 20, which suggested that they are of good quality.

The forward and reverse sequences obtained for the three primer pairs were assembled into single contig. The final contig lengths of 2381 and 2391 bp were obtained for the monoecious gynoecious lines. When compared to monoecious genotypes, there were no variations in the sequence of the gynoecious sample for the SPL gene. The SPL gene is not characterised in any of the cucurbits.

Using BLASTn, sequences of monoecious and gynoecious lines developed in this study were found to have 100% identity with 79% query coverage with sequence of Momordica charantia (LOC111010534) (Accession no. XM 022283995.1). In BLASTx, the sequences had 99.09% similarity with the protein sequence of Momordica charantia (Accession no. XP 022139687.1). Similarly, BLASTp of the deduced protein sequences in both lines showed that the sequence is 100% identical to the protein sequence of Momordica charantia (Accession no. XP 022139688.1). Analysis using ORF Finder showed that the nucleotide sequence had 19 ORFs in both lines with ORF4 as longest with 768 bp coding for 255 amino acids.

To study the expression profile of the SPL gene in the monoecious and gynoecious flowers, RNA was isolated from the floral buds at the earliest stage. As SPL is a C class gene, its expression will be more in the floral buds (Schiefthaler *et* 

al., 1999; Yang et al., 1999) and hence the floral buds were chosen for studying the expression of this gene using qRT-PCR.

Prior to RNA isolation, the samples were kept in RNA Later (Sigma). While working with RNA, special precautions must be taken to assure an RNase-free environment. It is essential to utilise RNase-free tools and glassware in the lab and to prevent the unintentional entry of RNases from any other sources (Krieg, 1996; Loomis, 1974). Diethyl pyrocarbonate (DEPC) was applied to the microtips, microcentrifuge tubes, mortar, and pestle employed in RNA isolation. TAE buffer and 75 % ethanol were made using double autoclaved DEPC-treated water. According to Robert and Farrell (2010), the DEPC is a strong, non-specific chemical inhibitor of RNase. The work bench and all of the apparatus, including the gel electrophoresis machine, were cleaned with 75% alcohol before RNA isolation. In this present study RNA isolation was done TRIZOL reagent (Rio et al., 2010), which is an effective method for RNA extraction (Kansal et al., 2008). Agarose gel electrophoresis was used to examine the extracted total RNA. Good quality RNA with intact bands corresponding to 28S and 18S rRNA were seen in the agarose gel profile. RNA was subjected to quality analysis and quantified using a Nanodrop Spectrophotometer. The AA ratio for the samples ranged between 1.80 and 1.92, indicating that the RNA isolated using the TRI reagent is of good quality and has a decent yield. The concentration of the RNA extracted was between 769 and 851 ng/µL. Using the Revert Aid first strand cDNA synthesis kit, the first strand cDNA was created from the total RNA that had been extracted.

Errors in qRT-PCR studies might arise from minor differences in the initial amount of RNA utilised, the quality of the RNA, variances in the efficiency of cDNA synthesis, and PCR amplification. A specific gene is amplified alongside the target gene in order to eliminate mistakes and correct sample variance. This gene will act as an internal reference against which other gene expression values can be normalised. Housekeeping genes, such as those encoding actin, ribosomal RNA, a cytoskeletal protein, a glycolytic enzyme, and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, are frequently utilised for normalisation (Gilliland et al., 1989). The expression of housekeeping genes should be abundant, with minimal inherent variability, and not co-regulated with target genes (Chervonova et al., 2010). As an endogenous regulator, the actin gene was utilised in the present RT-qPCR experiment.

One pair of primers were designed for SPL gene (test gene) and actin gene (endogenous control) based on the available sequences in NCBI database using Primer3 software. Real-time PCR employing SYBR Green chemistry was used for the gene expression research. Utilising Bio-Rad's SoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix, real-time PCR tests were carried out. once it has attached to doublestranded DNA, SYBR Green I's fluorescence is increased by more than 1,000-fold (Dragan et al. 2012). Because SYBR-Green I is more user-friendly and less expensive than TaqMan probes, it is preferable for measurement of nucleic acids (Ponchel et al., 2003). According to Makkouk and Kumari (2006), the amount of amplified product produced after each amplification cycle directly correlates with the amount of fluorescence produced during that cycle. In the current research work, the relative gene expression study was conducted using the Comparative Ct technique (Livak, 1997). The fractional PCR cycle number at which the fluorescence exceeds the threshold level is known as the cycle threshold (Ct) value. According to Arya et al. (2005), a fluorescent signal that is detected above the threshold is considered a true signal and is utilised to determine the threshold cycle for a sample. In the current work, melt curve analysis was also carried out to verify the fidelity of the amplicons. Melt curve is produced when fluorescence is plotted as a function of temperature. Gel electrophoresis is not necessary because desired and unwanted products can be differentiated based on melting temperature (Ririe et al., 1997). When melt curve analysis was carried out, it was found that SPL amplicons has unique melting temperature of 84.67 °C.

The relative expression levels of the SPL gene were normalized with the expression of the endogenous control actin gene. The fold change in expression of the SPL gene was calculated using the formula  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). In the current study, the relative expression was normalized using male flower of monoecious as the standard and the fold change was compared. The SPL gene was had a higher expression in gynoecious flowers, compared with male and female flowers of monoecious plant, proving that this C class gene is involved in the development of megaspores.

Expression studies on SPL gene is reported in Cucumis sativus (CsSPL) by Xiaofeng Liu et al. (2018) who found that SPOROCYTELESS (SPL)/NOZZLE (NZZ) expression was nearly abolished in a mutant with severely defective anther and ovule development. CsSPL was expressed specifically in the developing anthers and ovules. Additionally, CsSPL knock-down plants had less auxin buildup in their reproductive organs. Biochemical studies also revealed that CsSPL stimulated the expression of AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR 3 (CsARF3) and was positively regulated by CsARF13 during the development of reproductive organs, indicating sequential interactions of CsSPL with auxin signalling components in directing the development of the anther and ovule. As bitter gourd also belongs to the Cucurbitaceae family, this may be considered as base for the expression of SPL gene with respect to the floral organ development.

# Summary

#### 6. SUMMARY

The research work entitled "Characterization and expression analysis of SPOROCYTELESS gene in monoecious and gynoecious lines of bitter gourd" was undertaken at Department of Plant Biotechnology, College of Agriculture, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur. The objective of the study was sequence and characterize the SPL (SPOROCYTELESS) gene from monoecious and gynoecious bitter gourd lines and to study its differential expression in both the lines. The salient findings of the study are presented below.

- Seeds of monoecious bitter gourd variety Priyanka and gynoecious line KAU-Mc-Gy-102 were collected from the Department of Vegetable Science, College of Agriculture, Thrissur and plants were raised in pots
- Emerging leaves were collected from the monoecious and gynoecious plants and total genomic DNA was extracted. For all of the samples, absorbance ratio A260/280 was in the range of 1.80-2.0, indicating that the DNA isolated is of high quality.
	- Using the sequence of SPOROCYTELESS gene (XM\_022283995.1) retrieved from GenBank, three sets of overlapping PCR primer combinations SPL-BG-1, SPL-BG-2 and SPL-BG-3, were designed to amplify the full length of SPOROCYTELESS gene
- Using three sets of primers, full length of SPL gene was PCR amplified at an annealing temperature of 65º C. Product sizes for SPL-BG-1, SPL-BG-2 and SPL-BG-3, were 718, 912 and 1000 bp, respectively in both the lines of bitter gourd.
- PCR products were paired-end sequenced and the overlapping sequences were aligned to generate 2381 and 2391 bp SPL gene sequence in monoecious and gynoecious lines, respectively.
- The sequences from monoecious and gynoecious bitter gourd lines had no valid difference.
- BLASTn analysis showed 100 % identity with 79 % query coverage with Momordica charantia transcript variant (LOC111010534) (Accession no XM\_O2283995.1)
- BLASTx showed 99.09% identity with the sequence of Momordica charantia transcript variant (LOC111010534) (Accession no XP\_022139687.1)
- The amino acid sequence of the SPL gene was deduced for both the monoecious and gynoecious lines using ExPASy translate tool
- Analysis using ORF finder showed that the nucleotide sequence had 19 ORFs in both lines with ORF4 being the longest with 768 bp coding region for 255 amino acids
- Differential expression of the SPL gene in the flower buds of monoecious and gynoecious lines was studied using RT-qPCR analysis
- One pair of primers each for SPL gene (test gene) and actin gene (control gene) was designed using mRNA sequences of the respective genes
- RNA was isolated from the emerging buds using TRI reagent and converted to cDNA using Oligo(dT)primers
- Synthesis of first strand of the cDNA was confirmed by PCR amplification using the primer sets specific to housekeeping gene, *actin*. Amplification of band at the expected size of 196 bp was observed in all the samples.
- In real time expression analysis, relative expression levels of the SPL gene was normalized with the expression level of endogenous control *actin*
- Three technical replicates and two biological replicates were used for each sample and he fold change was calculated through 2<sup>-∆∆Ct</sup>
- The relative expression of SPL gene was more in gynoecious flower buds compared with that in monoecious female and male buds, using male flower bud as standard.

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# CHARACTERIZATION AND EXPRESSION ANALYSIS OF SPOROCYTELESS (SPL) GENE IN MONOECIOUS AND GYNOECIOUS LINES OF BITTER GOURD

**By** 

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## ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Bitter gourd (*Momordica charantia* L.; 2n=2x=22) is an important vegetable crop. India produces roughly 1.2 million metric tonnes of bitter gourd from an area of 99,000 hectares. The bitter gourd's immature fruits are often eaten as vegetables, which is known for its anti-diabetic and other therapeutic properties. It is rich in Vitamin A, C, iron and phosphorous. Its enormous therapeutic benefits are attributed to the presence of phytochemicals, which are known to have immune-boosting, antiviral, anti-diabetic, antibiotic, antimutagenic, anthelminthic and cancer-preventive characteristics. Gynoecious lines have revolutionized the hybridization programmes in cucurbits. Though many gynoecious lines are reported in major cucurbits such as cucumber, gynoecious bitter gourd lines are reported from KAU, IIVR, IIHR and IARI only.

The AGAMOUS (AG) gene, leading C class gene in the ABC model of flowering, acts by activating the transcription of SPOROCYTELESS (SPL/NZZ) gene and hence SPL is considered very important for the megaspore development in flowers. For the silencing/ over expression of this gene, aimed at altering the sex form of bitter gourd, the gene must be sequence characterized. Its expression pattern in the male and female flowers can further reveal the roles of this gene in sex expression in this crop. In this background, the present study "Characterization and expression analysis of SPOROCYTELESS (SPL) gene in monoecious and gynoecious bitter gourd lines" was under taken during the period from 2020-2023 at the Department of Plant Biotechnology, College of Agriculture, Thrissur, with the objective of sequencing and analysis of SPL gene amplified from the cDNA of monoecious and gynoecious bitter gourd lines and expression analysis of the gene in the developing buds of the male and female flowers of monoecious plants and female flowers of gynoecious plants.

Monoecious bitter gourd cultivar Priyanka and gynoecious line KAU-Mc-Gy-102 were raised in pots. Initially, male and female flower buds, at differentiating phase, from the monoecious cultivar and female flowers from the gynoecious line were collected. The collected flower buds were quick frozen in liquid nitrogen, brought to laboratory, stored in -20°C for a short while and used for RNA isolation. First strand of cDNA was synthesised from the RNA isolated from each flower bud group. However, the real time PCR primers designed using the mRNA sequences of the gene has failed to amplify the gene from the cDNA. Since intronic region in the gene was found lesser, it was decided to sequence characterize the gene using the genomic DNA. DNA isolated from the leaves using CTAB method was used for PCR

amplification of the SPL gene from monoecious cultivar and gynoecious line, using three primers pairs. The PCR amplicons were sequenced and contigs covering the complete length of the gene in both lines were generated. The final contigs in monoecious and gynoecious lines were 2381 2391 bp long, respectively. The sequence alignment had shown no variation between the monoecious and gynoecious lines. The BLASTn showed 100% identity with 79% query coverage, with the predicted sequence of M. charantia transcript variant (LOC111010534) (Acc. no. XM02283995.1). The BLASTx showed 99.09% identity with the sequence of M. charantia transcript variant (LOC111010534) (Acc. no. XP022139687.1). Amino acid sequence of the gene was deduced from the nucleotide sequence using ExPASy translate tool. BLASTp showed 100% identity with protein sequence of M. charantia (Acc. no. XP022139688.1) in both lines. Analysis using ORF Finder yielded 19 ORFs, with ORF4 being the longest with 768 bp coding for 255 amino acids.

For the expression analysis, RNA was isolated from the developing buds of male and female flowers of monoecious line and female buds of gynoecious line, using TRI reagent. The RNA was converted to cDNA using  $Oligo(dT)_{18}$  primer and reverse transcriptase enzyme. Primer pairs for SPL and Actin gene (endogenous control) were designed and real time PCR reaction based on SYBR Green chemistry was carried out. Expression of SPL gene in the developing buds of male and female flowers of monoecious cultivar and female buds of gynoecious line was analyzed. The relative expression levels of the gene was normalised with the expression of endogenous control *Actin* gene, following the  $2^{\Delta\Delta\text{Ct}}$  method. The relative expression of the SPL gene was analysed by taking the male flower as control. Compared to male flowers, gynoecious flowers had higher fold change (276.5) followed by monoecious female flowers (21.69). The present study has sequence characterized the SPL/NZZ gene in M. charantia. The amino acid sequences were deduced and annotated. Expression analysis had shown that SPL gene is upregulated in the gynoecious flowers. Similarly, expression of this gene was higher in the female flowers in the monoecious cultivar compared to that in male flowers, proving its role in the development of megaspores in the bitter gourd flowers. Based the results, it is predicted that the monoecious lines overexpressed with SPL gene may turn gynoecious or produce more female flowers, leading to higher fruit yield.

# Annexures

## ANNEXURE I

# List of laboratory equipment used for the study



#### ANNEXURE II

#### Reagents required for DNA isolation

#### 1.2X CTAB extraction buffer (100ml)



(Adjusted the pH to 8 and made up final volume to 100 ml)

#### 2. 10 per cent CTAB solution

#### 3. Chloroform- Isoamyl alcohol (24:1v/v)

To chloroform (24 parts), isoamyl alcohol (1 part) was added and mixed thoroughly

#### 4. Chilled isopropanol

Isopropanol was stored in refrigerator at 0°C and used for the study.

#### 5. Ethanol (70%)

To 70 parts of absolute ethanol (100%), 30 parts of sterile distilled water was added to make 70 per cent ethanol.

#### 6. TE buffer (pH 8, 100ml)





(The solution was prepared, autoclaved and stored at room temperature)

#### ANNEXURE III

#### Composition of buffers and dyes used for gel electrophoresis

## a. TAE buffer (50X) (for 1 L)



Glacial Acetic Acid : 57.1 mL

 $0.5 M$  EDTA (pH 8) : 100 mL

(final volume made up to 1 L)

### b. Loading dye (6X)

0.25 per cent bromophenol blue

0.25 per cent xylene cyanol 30 per cent glycerol in water

#### c. Ethidium Bromide

The dye was prepared as a stock solution of 10 mg/ml in water and was stored at room temperature in dark bottle.