

**DEVELOPMENT OF HAPLOID INDUCERS IN BANANAS (*Musa Spp.*) BY
MODIFICATION OF CENTROMERE SPECIFIC HISTONE 3 PROTEIN**

Kariuki Samwel Muiruri

I80/94211/2014

(Bsc, Msc Nairobi)

**A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Genetics in the School of Biological Sciences of the University of
Nairobi.**

2015

DECLARATION

I, Kariuki Samwel Muiruri declare that this thesis is my original research and it has not been presented for a degree or any other award in any University. Furthermore, this work to the best of my knowledge does not breach any copyright law. Whenever contributions of others are involved, every effort is made to indicate this clearly, with due reference to the literature, and acknowledgement of collaborative research and discussions.

Signature í í í í í í í í í í í . Date í í í í í í . í í í í í í í í í .

Kariuki Samwel Muiruri

We hereby declare that this thesis is the candidate's own work and is being submitted with our approval as supervisors.

Signature í í í í í í í í í í í . Date í í í í í í . í í í í í í í í í .

Dr. Nelson O. Amugune
School of Biological Sciences, University of Nairobi

Signature í í í í í í í í í í í . Date í í í í í í . í í í í í í í í í .

Prof. Edward K. Nguu
Department of Biochemistry, University of Nairobi

Signature í í í í í í í í í í í . Date í í í í í í . í í í í í í í í í .

Dr. Leena Tripathi
International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA), Nairobi

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my family, specially my wife Fridah and son Ryan who are two very special people in my life and have kept me going.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank God for the far He has brought me, the strength that He has given me to endure the difficult and challenging academic times. I sincerely thank the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) for awarding me a graduate fellowship through which I undertook my studies.

The last three years plus have not been easy academically, for that reason I feel highly indebted to my supervisors. Dr. Leena Tripathi who has been with me through the whole journey, I thank you for your guidance, understanding and patience throughout my study period. I believe I have matured and become a better scientist, no better words can explain my gratitude Leena. I would also like to thank my two University supervisors Dr. Nelson Amugune, and Prof. Edward Nguu. Thank you for the fruitful discussions that we have had and the contributions that you have made in shaping my academics.

I deeply appreciate group members of Leena's Lab. My fellow graduate students Joshua, Ken and Esther who we shared a common name (Student) and platform for over three years, I cannot forget the value you added to my life both in science and in life. To Ken, I learnt a lot of cloning techniques from you over time. To Esther, you took care of my transgenic plants when I was away, I cannot thank you more. To Joshua, we shared a lot brother. To my brother, Dr. Evans Nyaboga who had been a source of motivation and knowledge, I appreciate you so much. I asked so many questions which you were always eager to answer I have learnt a lot from you. To the rest of the Lab members in no particular order: Dr. Jandra Tripathi, Sarah, June, Ruth (Who assisted me in subculture of non-transgenic plants when I was away), Syombua, Cris, Rajesh, Belayneh (Read Chapters one and two of this thesis and gave positive

criticism), Jackie and Kogo I appreciate you, you made me a better person. I would also like to thank other groups that we shared the Lab, Pauline and Rachel from BeCA, the International Potato Center (CIP) group and CIMMYT.

It would be futile if I do not thank other people who greatly played a role to the project. First I thank Dr. Jim Lorenzen who was at some point my advisor; you played a very big role in the success of the project. Thank you for the constant guidance on many aspects of the project. I would also want to posthumously appreciate Prof. Simon Chan who was part of the project but did not live long enough to witness its completion.

I also thank Prof. Anne Britt and her Lab for the hospitality I was accorded while in University of California at Davis. I learnt many techniques including cloning. To Anne, thanks for the answers to the many questions I asked concerning Genetics and the generosity that you have with knowledge.

I would also like to acknowledge the National Science Foundation (NSF) for funding this research under the grant award number [1109882](#).

To all the people who have contributed to the success of the project and were not mentioned, I sincerely thank you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEVELOPMENT OF HAPLOID INDUCERS IN BANANAS (*Musa Spp.*) BY MODIFICATION OF CENTROMERE SPECIFIC HISTONE 3 PROTEIN

DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF APPENDICES	xiii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS, SYMBOLS AND ACRONYMS	xiv
ABSTRACT	xx
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 General introduction.....	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	4
1.3 JUSTIFICATION.....	5
1.4 HYPOTHESES	6
1.5 OBJECTIVES	6
1.5.1 Overall objective	6
1.5.2 Specific objectives.....	6
1.6 LAYOUT OF THE THESIS	8
CHAPTER TWO	9
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
2.1 Origin and domestication of bananas	9
2.2 Banana taxonomy	10
2.2.1 The dispute in <i>Musa</i> sections	11
2.3 Importance of bananas.....	12
2.4 Constraints to banana production.....	13

2.5 Conventional banana breeding and its challenges	14
2.6 Production of haploids and their role in breeding	15
2.6.1 Conventional methods of haploid production	16
2.6.1.1 Haploid production through anther and microspore cultures.....	16
2.6.1.2 Haploid production through wide crosses.....	17
2.6.2 Haploid production by centromere-mediated genome elimination.....	17
2.6.2.1 Technical aspects in haploid production through centromere modification	18
2.6.2.2 The eukaryotic centromere and its role in cell division.....	19
2.6.3 CENH3 deposition and organization into the centromere	20
2.6.4 <i>CenH3</i> expression pattern in plants of different ploidies	23
CHAPTER THREE	24
PHYLOGENY OF BANANAS AND HAPLOTYPE INFERENCE OF UNPHASED DATA BASED ON THE MARKERS <i>NADH</i> AND <i>CENH3</i>	24
3.1 INTRODUCTION	24
3.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS.....	26
3.2.1 Plant material	26
3.2.2 Primer design	29
3.2.3 PCR, sequencing and sequence assembly	29
3.2.4 Sequence alignment and phylogenetic reconstruction	31
3.2.5 Haplotype inference.....	32
3.3 RESULTS.....	35
3.3.1 PCR Analysis	35
3.3.2 Sectional and genomic group congruence	36
3.3.2.1 Segregation based on maker <i>NADH</i>	36
3.3.2.2 Segregation based on the marker <i>CenH3</i>	40
3.3.4 Haplotypes in diploids and triploids.....	43
3.4 DISCUSSION.....	45
CHAPTER FOUR.....	52
DEVELOPMENT OF HAPLOID INDUCERS IN BANANAS BY MODIFICATION OF CENTROMERE SPECIFIC HISTONE 3 (CENH3) PROTEIN	52

4.1 INTRODUCTION	52
4.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	53
4.2.1 Plant materials, multiplication and production of multiple bud clumps	53
4.2.2 RNAi plasmid constructs.....	55
4.2.3.3 Preparation and transformation of competent bacterial cells	56
4.2.3.4 Validation of plasmid constructs.....	58
4.2.3.5 Preparation of <i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> culture.....	59
4.2.4 Explant preparation and genetic transformation	59
4.2.5 Molecular analysis of transgenic plants.....	61
4.2.5.1 DNA extraction and PCR analysis of putative transgenic plants.....	61
4.2.5.2 RNA extraction, RT-PCR and Northern blot analysis.....	61
4.2.6 Fluorescent microscopy.....	64
4.2.7 Transfer of plants into the field and glasshouse.....	64
4.2.8 Data collection and statistical analysis	65
4.3 RESULTS.....	66
4.3.1 Plant multiplication and production of multiple bud clumps.....	66
4.3.2 Transformation of <i>E.coli</i> and <i>A.tumefaciens</i> cells and validation of plasmid constructs	66
4.3.3 Genetic transformation and plant regeneration.....	67
4.3.4 PCR analysis of putative transgenic plants.....	70
4.3.5 RT-PCR analysis of transgenic lines.....	71
4.3.6 Northern blot analysis.....	73
4.3.7 Fluorescent microscopy.....	73
4.3.8 Agronomic performance of plants in field and glasshouse.....	75
4.4 DISCUSSION.....	77
CHAPTER FIVE	79
EXPRESSION OF <i>CenH3</i> ALLELE AND SPLICE VARIANTS IN CULTIVATED TRIPLOID AND WILD DIPLOID BANANAS.....	79
5.1 INTRODUCTION	79
5.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	82

5.2.1. Plant materials	82
5.2.2. In silico analysis	82
5.2.3. RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis	82
5.2.4 Cloning and sequencing of <i>CenH3</i> genes	83
5.2.5 Sequence assembly, alignments and phylogenetic analysis	83
5.2.4 Analysis of evolutionary relationships in <i>CenH3</i> sequences	84
5.2.4 Protein structure modeling	85
5.3 RESULTS.....	85
5.3.1 cDNA sequences of <i>CenH3</i> in wild diploid and cultivated triploid bananas	85
5.3.2 Splice and allele variants in banana <i>CenH3</i> transcripts.....	90
5.3.3 Evolutionary divergence of CENH3 proteins	93
5.3.4 Expression bias in diploids and triploids	97
5.3.5 Secondary structure prediction.....	98
5.3.6 Banana <i>CenH3</i> monophyletic clade.....	100
5.4 DISCUSSION.....	103
CHAPTER SIX.....	109
GENERAL DISCUSSION.....	109
CONCLUSIONS	110
RECOMMENDATIONS	111
7.0 REFERENCES	114
8.0 LIST OF APPENDICES	129

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: List of banana samples used in determination of phylogeny.....	28
Table 3.2: Positions of Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) that were used in inferring haplotypes of triploid and diploid banana cultivars.....	34
Table 3.3: Single neocleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) from the partial <i>NADH</i> gene that differentiated banana A and B genomes.....	38
Table 3.4: Haplotypes inferred from seven SNPs of the partial <i>CenH3</i> alignment in bananas.....	44
Table 4.1: Composition of different media used in the transformation and tissues culture of bananas	54
Table 4.2: Transformation efficiencies of banana cv. <i>-Zebrina</i> GFø with different RNAi constructs using multiple bud clamps (MBCs) and intercalary meristems (IM) as the explants.....	69
Table 5.1: Cultivars used and clones obtained in the analysis of <i>CenH3</i> expression in bananas.....	86
Table 5.2: Number, location and size of SNPs and indels in the alignment of <i>CenH3</i> transcripts having variable lengths.....	87
Table 5.3: The location of polymorphisms within exons of the different exons/introns structures of banana <i>CenH3</i> transcripts.....	89
Table 5.4: The average Ka/Ks values within and between pairwise alignments of banana CenH3 transcripts obtained from different diploid and triploid cultivars	94
Table 5.5: The average Ka/Ks values within and between alignments of <i>CenH3</i> transcripts having different exon/intron structures.....	97

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Models (A-F) explaining how DNA wraps around kinetochores in CENH3 containing nucleosomes.....	22
Figure 3.1: PCR analysis of banana cultivars with different genomic composition using <i>NADH</i> and <i>CenH3</i> specific primers.	35
Figure 3.2: Phylogenetic tree of different banana cultivars based on the partial <i>NADH</i> gene..	39
Figure 3.3: Phylogenetic positioning of different banana cultivars based on the marker <i>CenH3</i>	42
Figure 4.1: Schematic presentation of the three different <i>RNAi</i> constructs used in the transformations of bananas.	56
Figure 4.2: Explants of bananas that were used in transformation with <i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> harbouring <i>RNAi</i> gene constructs.....	60
Figure 4.3: Sample cultures of <i>E. coli</i> and <i>A. tumefaciens</i> transformed with <i>RNAi</i> constructs and their validation using restriction digest and PCR.	67
Figure 4.4: PCR analysis of the transgenic lines obtained from transformation of diploid banana <i>-Zebrina GFø</i> with the three <i>RNAi</i> constructs.....	70
Figure 4.5: RT-PCR products showing expression of banana endogenous <i>CenH3</i> and the control gene Glycerol Dehyde 3 Phosphate Dehydrogenase (<i>GAPDH</i>) in selected transgenic lines in comparison to non-transgenic control in two weeks old plants.	71
Figure 4.6: RT-PCR products for <i>CenH3</i> and <i>GAPDH</i> showing expression in 3 weeks old plants.....	72
Figure 4.7: Northern blot analysis of randomly selected transgenic lines and non-transgenic plant showing accumulation of siRNAs.	73

Figure 4.8: Fluorescent microscopy of transgenic plants having a green fluorescent protein (GFP) and control non-transgenic lines.....	74
Figure 4.9: Stages in the transfer of transgenic and non-transgenic plants into the glass house and field.	75
Figure 4.10: Agronomic data of transgenic plants in the glass house for the three RNAi constructs and the control.	76
Figure 5.1: Alignment of banana CENH3 protein sequences translated from transcripts of diploid and triploid cultivars showing regions of the C-terminal.	99
Figure 5.2: Secondary structure predictions of selected translated banana CENH3 proteins.	100
Figure 5.3: Phylogenetic tree of banana CENH3 proteins from the cultivars Sukali ndizi, Kayinja, Gros michel and Zebrina in relations to those of other monocotyledons and dicotyledons.	102

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Transgenic lines for different constructs that were transferred to the glass house.....	129
Appendix 2: Ka/Ks values obtained in <i>CenH3</i> full CDS alignment of different cultivars and exon/intron structure groups.	130
Appendix 3: Ka/Ks ratios that were observed to be greater than one in different banana <i>CenH3</i> transcripts pairwise alignments.....	151

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS, SYMBOLS AND ACRONYMS

ABI	Applied Biosystems
AFM	Atomic Force Microscopy
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BAP	6-benzylamino purine
BBTV	Banana Bunchy Top Virus
bp	basepair
BP	Bootstrap
BREAD	Basic Research Enabling Agricultural Development
BSV	Banana Streak Virus
ca1	<i>Musa acuminata</i> chloroplast haplotype
CaCl ₂	Calcium Chloride
caMV35S	Cauliflower mosaic 35S promoter
CARBAP	The African centre for research on bananas and plantains (Centre de Recherches Régionales sur Bananier et Plantain)
cDNA	complementary DNA
CDS	Coding sequence
<i>CenH3</i>	Centromere specific histone H3 variant gene
CENP-A	Centromere Protein A
CID	Centromere Identifier

CIRAD	French Agricultural Research Centre for International Development
cpDNA	chloroplast DNA
CRISPRs	Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats
Cse4	Chromosome segregation 4
CTAB	Cetyl Trimethyl Ammonium Bromide
DAPI	2-(4-Amidinophenyl)-6-indolecarbamidine dihydrochloride, 4,6-Diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride
dATP	deoxyadenosine triphosphate
dCTP	deoxycytidine triphosphate
dGTP	deoxyguanosine triphosphate
DH	Doubled Haploid
DIG	Digoxigenin
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
DNAse	Deoxyribonucleic acid nuclease
dNTP	deoxyribonucleotide triphosphates
dsRNA	Double stranded ribonucleic acid
EAHB	East African Highland Bananas
EDTA	Ethylene Diamine Tetraacetic Acid
F1	First filial generation
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization

FAOSTAT	Food and Agricultural Organization Statistics
FHIA	Fundación Hondureña De Investigación Agrícola
GAPDH	Glyceroldehyde-3-dehydrogenase
gDNA	Genomic Deoxyribonucleic Acid
GEP	Gap Extension Penalty
GFP	Green Fluorescent Protein
GOP	Gap Opening Penalty
H2A	Histone 2A
H2B	Histone 2B
H3	Histone 3
H3.3	Histone 3.3
H4	Histone 4
HFD	Histone Fold Domain
HJURP	Hilliday Junction Recognition Protein
IAA	Indole-3-acetic acid
IBA	Indole-3-butyric acid
IITA	International Institute of Tropical Agriculture
IM	Intercalary Meristem
Indel	Insertion and deletion
ISEA	Islands of Southeast Asia
ITC	International banana transit centre

IUPAC	International Union for Pure and Applied Chemistry
JC	Juke Cantor model
K2	Kimura-2-parameter
Ka	Synonymous sites
KALRO	Kenya Agricultural and Livestock Research Organization
kb	Kilo base
KCl	Pottasium chloride
Ks	Non-synonymous sites
L1	Loop1
L2	Loop2
LB	Luria-Bertani broth
M	molar
Ma	<i>Musa acuminata</i> mitochondrial haplotype
MAS	Marker Assisted Selection
Mb	<i>Musa balbisiana</i> mitochondrial haplotype
Mbc	Multiple bud clamps
mg	milligrams
MgCl ₂	magnesium chloride
ML	Maximum Likelihood
mM	millimolar
MS	Murashige and Skoog

mtDNA	mitochondrial DNA
mya	million years ago
NADH	Nicotinamide Adenine Dehydrogenase
NARO	National Agricultural Research Organization
NCBI	National Centre for Biotechnology Information
ng	nanograms
ng/ μ l	Nanogram per microleter
nm	nanometers
nM	nanomole
NOS	Nopaline Synthase
OD	Optical Density
PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction
P-H	Post Harvest
PTM	Post Transcriptional Methylation
PVP	Polyvinnyl Pyrrolidone
RB	Right Border
rDNA	ribosomal DNA
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
RNAi	ribonucleic acid interference
RNAse	Ribonucleic Acid interference nuclease
RT-PCR	Reverse Transfer ribonucleic acid Polymerase Chain Reaction

Scm3	Suppressor of chromosome missegregation protein 3
siRNA	small interfering RNA
SNP	Single Nucleotide Polymorphism
TAE	Tris-Acetate-EDTA
TALENs	Transcriptional Activator Like Effector Nucleases
T-DNA	transfer DNA
UV	Ultraviolet Light
WT	Wild Type

ABSTRACT

Conventional breeding of bananas (*Musa* spp.) is a slow process due to long breeding cycles, sterility and polyploidy. Development of inbred lines establishes homozygous lines used in breeding and through conventional approaches, these lines have been achieved albeit in long cycles of backcrossing. In addition to conventional approaches, efforts have been made to reduce these cycles through marker assisted selection (MAS) and through culture of haploid plant parts (anthers and ovules) to produce haploid plants. These methods are however not universal and reproducible in all cultivars. A new approach developed and tested in *Arabidopsis* and used in the current study develops haploids by crossing centromere specific histone 3 (CENH3) mutants (haploid inducers) with wild type.

The current study aimed at producing haploid inducer transgenic banana lines for future development of inbred lines. Three RNAi gene constructs (*GFP-tailswap*, *Tailswap* and *GFP-CenH3*) were transformed into *Escherichia coli* (Strain DH5⁺), re-extracted, validated and transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (Strain EHA 105) which was used to transform diploid bananas using intercalary meristems and multiple apical bud clumps as explants. The Agro-infected explants were then selected and regenerated on media containing 100mg/L kanamycin. Successful integration of the constructs into the genome of transgenic plants and RNAi silencing of endogenous *CenH3* were confirmed through molecular analysis.

As one of the basis of establishing the candidate cultivars for development of putative haploid inducers, a phylogenetic and haplotyping analysis using the markers Nicotinamide Adenine Dehydrogenase (*NADH*) and Centromere specific histone 3 (*CenH3*) partial coding sequence was performed on both diploid and triploid bananas. The phylogeny of 39 banana cultivars using the markers *NADH* and *CenH3* differentiated banana species *Musa acuminata*, *Musa balbisiana* and *Musa textilis* as well as sections *Rhodochlamys*, *Eumusa* and *Australimusa*. In haplotype analysis, a total of 13 haplotypes were obtained in all the 39 banana cultivars using 7 SNP positions in the *CenH3* partial gene. Five of these were observed to be present in both diploids and triploids and 8 were unique. A total of 59 putative haploid inducer lines were developed and the presence of gene constructs confirmed in 47% of them using PCR. RNAi silencing was confirmed by accumulation of small interfering RNA (siRNA) in transgenic plants and their absence in non-transgenic plants.

CenH3 complementary DNA (cDNA) clones from diploid and triploid banana cultivars were sequenced to check allele and splice variants as well as characterize their evolutionary relationships. Analysis of banana *CenH3* expression resulted in a total of 20 *CenH3* transcripts of variable lengths (471-760 base pairs (bp)) and exon/inton structures (7/6, 6/5 and 5/4). Evolutionary relationship of the transcripts indicated that CENH3 in bananas is undergoing both positive ($Ka/Ks > 1$) and stabilizing selections ($Ka/Ks < 1$).

The study was able to develop putative haploid inducer lines, identify banana phylogenetic relations using partial *CenH3* and *NADH* genes and identify expression and evolutionary relations of *CenH3*. Future work should be done to improve on the efficiency of silencing using recent and more specific silencing approaches like Transcriptional Activator Like Effector Nucleases (TALENs) and Clustered Regulatory Interspersed Palindromic Repeats (CRISPRs).

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General introduction

Bananas and plantains herein referred to as bananas are classified under the family Musaceae genus *Musa* (Cheesman, 1947; Simmonds, 1953; Robinson, 2010). They are an important fruit and food crop with a global production of 144 million tones of which over 74% is used for consumption making banana the number one fruit crop (FAOSTAT, 2013). Despite this importance, bananas have a narrow genetic base with only two species constituted in most hybrid cultivars. This narrow genetic base makes them susceptible to many pests and diseases some of which completely wipe out banana plantations (Baurens *et al.*, 2010). Wild relatives which are progenitors of cultivated varieties are in existence and can be used to widen the genetic base in the already existing cultivated genotypes.

Musa as a genus is divided into four sections which are mainly based on the chromosome numbers (Daniells *et al.*, 2001). The four sections are *Callimusa* and *Australimusa* which have twenty chromosomes ($2n=20$), *Eumusa* and *Rhodochlamys* ($2n=22$). Cultivated bananas are hybrids between the species *Musa acuminata* (A genome) and *M. balbisiana* (B genome) both of which are in the section *Eumusa*. To further establish classification system for both wild and cultivated bananas, they have been put into genomic groups depending on the relative contribution of the A and/or B genomes. The genomic groups include diploids (AA, AB and BB), triploids (AAA, AAB and ABB) and tetraploid (AAAA, AAAB, AABB and ABBB).

The hybrid banana cultivars in existence are as a result of years of selection and crosses some of which have occurred naturally (Daniells *et al.*, 2001). The identification of progenitors of the triploid cultivars from the existing wild diploids has been achieved using different approaches including molecular markers (Ude *et al.*, 2002; Creste *et al.*, 2004; Ruangsuttapha *et al.*, 2007; Thomas-Hall *et al.*, 2007; Brown *et al.*, 2009; Miller *et al.*, 2010; Hippolyte *et al.*, 2012) and morphological characterization (Cheesman, 1947). The identification of such progenitors enables mapping of the origin and spread of cultivars. The identification also provides information to breeding programs which makes decision for cultivar selection and parents for breeding easier. For example, if there are cultivars with some level of disease resistance or important biotic and a biotic traits with known progenitors, then these can be used in breeding programs. Many studies using molecular approaches have not conclusively identified all the progenitors for cultivated hybrids. More genetic information based on use of diverse genes in plant genomes will increase the knowledge base and lead to the universal acceptance of known progenitors. In the current study the partial coding sequence for the nuclear gene coding for Centromere Specific Histone 3 Protein (CENH3) and the partial coding sequence for mitochondrial nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (*NADH*) gene were used to cluster triploid banana cultivars to diploids and this information was consequently used as part of the basis on which identification of cultivars to develop haploid inducers were selected.

Banana breeding is an essential part of crop improvement programme and offers one of the best solutions to existing and emerging biotic and abiotic stresses. Breeding aims at achieving homozygosity for a favorable characteristic and this is achieved by first creating inbred lines which have the favorable characteristic homozygously expressed. The inbred lines can then be crossed with other lines to develop new varieties with superior

characteristics. However, despite the importance and success of conventional breeding in solving major constraints affecting banana production, it is time consuming and tedious. It takes more than ten years to breed and release plant varieties with character of choice to farmers through conventional breeding approaches, such plants have 90-97% homozygosity (Chan, 2010). However, there exist tools such as Marker Assisted Selection (MAS) that have been used with an effort to reduce this time. Despite this effort, molecular markers only reduce the time involved in screening for the character of choice but do not reduce the number of crosses to be done to attain homozygosity in developing pure breeding lines or establishing cultivars.

Research has been ongoing in different crops to develop a mechanism that together with MAS and conventional breeding could drastically reduce breeding time. Creation of haploids in plants has been in use for a long time mainly with an aim of facilitating genetic mapping (Assani *et al.*, 2003). Different procedures have been used in creating haploids in plants; among them are microspore and anther culture (Barnabás *et al.*, 1999; Assani *et al.*, 2003; Lee *et al.*, 2003; Kim and Baenziger, 2005; Grewal *et al.*, 2009; Dunwell *et al.*, 2010). Both microspores and anthers are natural haploids and once cultured, they develop into haploid plants which are doubled to become homozygous *õ*doubled haploids^õ. However the success of these approaches is cultivar dependent and furthermore protocols vary intra-specifically. Another approach commonly used in creating haploids is by crossing species that are widely related where the genome of one of the parents involved is lost remaining with haploids (Sanei *et al.*, 2011). However, the mechanism underlying this approach is not clearly known and cannot always be recreated in different species.

The haploid development approach used in this study is based on crossing wildtype parents to mutants. It is an improvement to the existing haploid development approaches of anther

and microspore culture as well as haploid development through wide crosses; this is because the specific working mechanism is clearly known (Ravi and Chan, 2010). The protein CENH3 is mutated in one of the parents, this protein very important in cell division (Robinson, 2010). The main principle is based on the fact that CENH3 attaches to spindle fibers during cell division and any alterations to it normally affect post-zygotic mitosis, hence only wild type chromosomes undergo normal mitosis resulting in half the genome in the offspring. The working mechanism of this approach is clearly known (Ravi and Chan, 2010) and its transferability to bananas is investigated in this study.

Multiple *CenH3* transcripts have been observed in wild diploid and allopolyploids cultivars in different angiosperm genera (Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014) and different crop species including rice (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009; Li *et al.*, 2010), carrots (Dunemann *et al.*, 2014), brassica (Wang *et al.*, 2011) and barley (Sanei *et al.*, 2011). Since the ribonucleic acid interference (RNAi) constructs used in this study were based on a *CenH3* coding sequence (CDS) from the cultivar Doubled Haploid Pahang (DH Pahang) that is different from the cultivars -Zebrina GFø and -Calcutta 4ø used for making haploid inducers, it was imperative to check whether multiple *CenH3* copies and variants exist in bananas including the cultivars -Zebrina GFø and -Calcutta 4ø

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Banana breeding is a long process that involves establishing inbred lines, these have a desired character homozygously expressed. Such lines are then used crossed to other cultivars to give new varieties. The process of developing pure breeding lines (inbred lines) in bananas involves cycles of crosses and backcrosses to the parents in order to reduce heterozygosity. The process of developing inbred lines in bananas can take up to 8 years hence making it time consuming to release new cultivars to farmers.

1.3 JUSTIFICATION

This study was carried out with the aim of reducing the time involved in developing pure breeding lines in bananas by developing haploid inducers that can be crossed with any other parent cultivar to develop haploids. Haploids developed can then be doubled to produce doubled haploids (DH) which are 100% homozygous and hence true breeding lines.

The method of haploids induction used in this study was chosen because existing approaches have limitations. Time reduced in Marker Assisted Selection (MAS) for example, is only at the screening of presence of characters but the actual time for crossing and backcrossing is not reduced. Current approaches of haploid development are cultivar-specific and are not replicable. Furthermore, most of the haploid development approaches are tissue culture dependent with protocols being very specific to the cultivar targeted.

In this study, the approach used was by mutating a variant of histone 3 called Centromere Specific Histone 3 (CENH3). In this method CENH3 involved in mitosis is silenced and when plants with such a mutated protein are crossed to wild type parent (not having the silenced protein), haploids are developed. The genome of the haploid plants is then doubled using existing approaches like colchicine treatment to develop doubled haploid which are true breeding plants. The working mechanisms of the current approach are clearly known and its replicability in bananas is tested.

To partially identify the cultivar to be used in developing haploid inducers, it was important to carry out a phylogenetic study of 39 diploid and triploid bananas. In this study two partial coding sequences for a nuclear gene *CenH3* and mitochondrial *NADH* were used to identify the phylogenetic positions of wild diploids against hybrids including some East African Highland Banana (EAHB) cultivars.

Since the success in development of haploid inducers in the approach used in this study is highly dependent on complete silencing of endogenous *CenH3* gene, presence of multiple and variable *CenH3* transcripts would result to alternate expression and hence reduce the success rates in haploid induction. It was therefore important to check whether the diploid cultivars used in the study had multiple transcripts being expressed by sequencing of Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) clones.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

1. There is no phylogenetic variability in *NADH* and *CenH3* partial gene of 39 diploid and triploid banana cultivars.
2. Modification of the *CenH3* gene in diploid banana cultivar Zebrina GF does not result in haploid inducers.
3. Multiple *CenH3* gene transcripts can not be expressed in diploid and triploid banana cultivars

1.5 OBJECTIVES

1.5.1 Overall objective

To carry out a Phylogenetic study of 39 banana cultivar, develop haploid inducers in diploid banana cultivars Zebrina GF and Calcutta 4 and analyze the expression of the *CenH3* gene in six banana cultivars.

1.5.2 Specific objectives

1. To carry out phylogenetic analyses of 39 banana cultivars based on partial *CenH3* gene coding sequence and mitochondrial *NADH* as well as identify respective haplotypes.
2. To develop haploid inducers in selected banana cultivars using RNAi gene constructs.

3. To assess the expression of *CenH3* transcripts in diploid and triploid cultivars by observing the sequence diversity of RT-PCR clones.

1.6 LAYOUT OF THE THESIS

This thesis is arranged into six chapters, chapter one is a general introduction to the study topic, chapter two is review of literature in the field of study. Chapter three and four are phylogenetic studies and development of doubled haploid inducers respectively while chapter five assesses *CenH3* gene expression in diploid and triploid bananas. These three chapters have a brief introduction, materials and methods and discussion. Chapter six gives the general conclusion and recommendations. References are listed at the end of chapter six lastly the appendices.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Origin and domestication of bananas

Bananas (*Musa spp*) are thought to have originated from south-east Asia and western pacific, where diploid seed-bearing progenitors of cultivated varieties are still present in the wild, mainly in forests (Robinson, 2010). Natural crosses between these cultivars and consequent selection of edible ones by farmers based on vigour, fruit type and adaptability over generations resulted to the edible bananas currently under cultivation (De Langhe, *et al.*, 2009).

The history of domestication and spread of bananas is very complex and is thought to have occurred thousands of years ago (De Langhe *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore the relationships of banana cultivars have been a subject of research using both genetic and morphological approaches (Gawel and Whittemore, 1992). Different markers have been used to assess the origin, relatedness and global spread of bananas. Studies using restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLP) in 19 banana species and sub-species was generally in agreement with morphological positioning apart from the observation that section *Rhodochlamys* and *Musa* could not be differentiated (Gawel and Whittemore, 1992). A study using similar markers of mitochondria and chloroplast origin were used to ascertain maternal and paternal lineages in diploid and triploid cultivars where results suggested that the first center of domestication was Phillipines-New Guinea area (Carreel *et al.*, 2002) but it is suggested that human migration resulted to the present wide geographical distribution of cultivars in different continents (Robinson, 2010; Perrier *et al.*, 2011).

Amplified fragment length polymorphic (AFLP) markers have been used to assess relatedness of cultivars in different countries and globally. In Malaysia the subspecies of *M. Acuminata*: *truncata*, *malaccensis* and *macrocarpa* were compared and found to be different (Wong, 2001). A study using similar markers assessed the genetic diversity of 28 cultivars in the species *M. acuminata* colla and *M. balbisiana* colla and their natural hybrids and the results of this study was able to identify new sub-species within *M. acuminata*, the study identified three sub-species (*Microcarpa*, *burmannica*, and *malaccensis*) sub-species (Ude *et al.*, 2002). A more comprehensive study targeting on the validity of the sections in *Musa* using AFLP targeted 4 sections and concluded that the sections *Rhodochlamys* and *Musa* should be combined into one and sections *Australimusa* be merged with *Callimusa* (Wong *et al.*, 2002).

Other markers and genes both chloroplast and nuclear have widely been used to assess the origin and domestication of cultivated bananas. Chloroplast and nuclear genes were used to assess the clustering of A and B genome haplotypes; where sub-species of *M. acuminata* from the islands of Southeast Asia (ISEA) were observed to cluster into the A genome haplotype while those of B- and S genome clustered to *M. balbisiana* and *M. schizocarpa* respectively (Li *et al.*, 2013). Another study using single sequence repeats (SSR) on 561 *Musa* accessions postulated that the major phenotypic differences observed in the sub-groups 'Cavendish', 'plantain' and 'Mutika' are as a result of epigenetic regulation (Hippolyte *et al.*, 2012).

2.2 Banana taxonomy

Bananas are monocotyledonous, perennial herbs in the family *Musaceae* genus *Musa* (Simmonds, 1953). The genus *Musa* is divided into sections; *Australimusa*, *Callimusa*, *Eumusa* and *Ingentimusa* based on physical appearance of parts of the plant including

height, size and shape of inflorescence among others (Simmonds, 1953; Wong, 2002). The section *Eumusa* is the most important economically as it contains all the edible and cultivated cultivars. Edible cultivars were grouped by Simmonds (1953) into five genomic groups: AA, AAA, ABB, AAB and AB. The five genomic groups have further been confirmed through isoenzyme and molecular analysis (Gawel *et al.*, 1992; Perrier *et al.*, 2009). The A denote *Musa acuminata* genome and the B, *Musa balbisiana*. The five genomic groups which are diploid or triploid are therefore of intergenomic or intragenomic hybrids of A and/or B. *Musa* as a genus is divided into four sections which are mainly based on the chromosome numbers (Daniells *et al.*, 2001). The four sections are *Callimusa* and *Australimusa* whose species have been shown to share a common characteristic of having the same number of chromosomes ($n=x=10$), while the sections *Eumusa* and *Rhodochlamys* have a chromosome number ($n=x=11$) (Cheesman, 1947; Wong, 2002). Edible bananas are hybrids between the species *Musa acuminata* (A genome) and *M. balbisiana* (B genome) both of which are in the section *Eumusa*, although species of T and S genome have been observed to have contributed to cultivated cultivars (Carreel *et al.*, 2002). To further establish classification system for both wild and cultivated bananas, they have been put into genomic groups depending on the relative contribution of the A and/or B genomes. The genomic groups include diploids (AA, AB and BB), triploids (AAA, AAB and ABB) and tetraploid (AAAA, AAAB, AABB and ABBB) (De Langhe *et al.*, 2010).

2.2.1 The dispute in *Musa* sections

The four *Musa* sections established using morphological data have been reviewed using molecular methods and many studies have found that the sections are not supported and suggest that they be collapsed into two (Ude *et al.*, 2002; Raboin *et al.*, 2005; Perrier *et al.*,

2009; Opara *et al.*, 2010; H ibová *et al.*, 2011; Hippolyte *et al.*, 2012; Li *et al.*, 2013). The studies using molecular approaches have indicated that the species from the different sections identified using morphological characters do not result to monophyletic groups when phylogenetically positioned using genetic markers (Carreel *et al.*, 2002; DeHont *et al.*, 2000). Two clades were identified in those studies, clade one represents the sections *Eumusa* and *Rhodochlamys* while species from sections *Australimusa*, *Ingentimusa* and *Callimusa* formed the second clade . This observation has prompted the reappraisal of the *Musa* sections previously identified through morphology (Häkkinen, 2013). The two monophyletic clades identified in the different molecular studies mentioned have been proposed to produce the two new sections *Musa* and *Callimusa*. The section *Musa* represents the clade formed by species from the former sections *Eumusa* and *Rhodochlamys*. The new section *Callimusa* identified as the second clade from molecular studies is a representative of the species previously grouped into sections *Australimusa*, *Ingentimusa* and *Callimusa* (Li *et al.*, 2010). Different studies have recommended the use of more markers to firmly cement these two new clades and to observe if there are any deviations using other regions of the banana genome (Perrier *et al.*, 2009; Li *et al.*, 2010; Christelová *et al.*, 2011; Häkkinen, 2013).

2.3 Importance of bananas

Banana is an important crop globally and is the largest fresh fruit crop traded internationally in terms of both volume and value (FAOSTAT, 2013). They constitute a staple food and income source for millions of people, especially in Africa with about 87% of the worldwide production remaining in domestic markets (FAOSTAT, 2013). Bananas can be eaten raw as a fruit when ripe, as a vegetable and in small proportions can be processed into storable products including jam, chips and banana puree (Abiodun-Solanke

and Falade, 2011) They are a good source of carbohydrates (Mohapatra *et al.*, 2010), vitamins (thiamine, riboflavin, niacin, pantothenic acid, pyridoxine, folic acid, ascorbic acid) and minerals (potassium, calcium, phosphorus, iron) (Mohapatra *et al.*, 2010). Banana leaves are fibrous and this makes them have diverse uses, first they are used as plates for serving food or wrapping food when steaming (Le *et al.*, 2007). Dry banana Leaves have been used as strips for weaving, wrapping, rope making, roofing and thatching (Le *et al.*, 2007).

Bananas have also been used for medicinal purposes, the flowers are used in treatment of ulcers (Abiodun-Solanke and Falade, 2011). Bananas have also been variedly used in different communities: they have been used as animal feed to fatten hogs and whole bananas and pseudostem are fed to cattle after chopping. Species of bananas have also been used for aesthetic value in land scaping (Abiodun-Solanke and Falade, 2011). However, despite the importances; banana production is greatly hampered by biotic and abiotic stresses (Mohapatra *et al.*, 2010).

2.4 Constraints to banana production

The production of banana and plantain is challenged by both abiotic and biotic factors. Biotic constraints to banana production are both pests and diseases. Bananas are susceptible to a range of serious and debilitating diseases caused by fungi, nematodes, bacteria and viruses (Opara *et al.*, 2010). Fungal diseases that afflict banana production include Fusarium wilt (Panama) caused by *Fusarium oxysporum* fsp *cubense*, black leaf streak disease caused by *Mycosphaerella fijiensis* and Sigatoka disease caused by *Mycosphaerella musicola* (Tripathi *et al.*, 2008). Plant parasitic nematodes are an equally common problem and severe production constraint to bananas production. Most of the nematodes species of economic importance to bananas production are burrowing

nematodes. They include: *Pratylenchus goodeyi*, *Radopholus similis*, *Helicotylenchus multicinctus*, *Meloidogyne* spp, *Rotylenchulus*, *Radopholus*, *Pratylenchus* and *Helicotylenchus* (Robinson, 2010). Banana weevils *Cosmopolites sordidus* are a major banana pest too, they severely infest the rhizome resulting in significant crop losses (Le *et al.*, 2007).

The main bacterial diseases afflicting banana include Xanthomonas wilt caused by *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *musacearum* and bacterial diseases caused by *Ralstonia solanacearum* such as Moko, blood and bugtok (Tripathi *et al.*, 2008). Infection can result in severe to complete losses in production and affects overall productivity (Tripathi *et al.*, 2008). Viral diseases such as the Banana bunchy top, caused by Banana bunchy top virus (BBTV), genus *Nanavirus* and Banana streak virus (BSV) have also been reported to severely hamper banana production. To address these challenges, there is a continuous need to develop and introduce new and improved banana cultivars. This is mainly being tackled through two main approaches conventional breeding by introgressing relevant characters into new cultivars and by genetic engineering introducing new genes which can confer resistance against banana diseases.

2.5 Conventional banana breeding and its challenges

Conventional breeding in bananas started in the early 1920s especially in the Caribbean, Jamaica and Trinidad with countries like Brazil, Cameroon and Nigeria now having breeding programs (Robinson, 2010). Cultivar improvement through conventional breeding is aimed at achieving functional homozygosity and phenotype consistency (Chan, 2010). The methods applied in conventional breeding are based on crossing elite cultivars and selecting the best performing progeny. In bananas this is done by crossing the highly sterile cultivated triploids with wild relatives followed by backcrossing (Robinson, 2010).

Different approaches are pursued in banana breeding programs, the first one utilizes improved diploid as the male to pollinate a fertile triploid female resulting in tetraploids (Robinson, 2010). The tetraploid attained in diploid-triploid cross is subsequently used in development of triploids by crossing with another improved diploid (Robinson, 2010). The second approach involves crossing two diploids and essentially having normal segregation where triploids are screened (Robinson, 2010). The third strategy employed uses tetraploids obtained by treatment of improved diploids with colchicine. The tetraploids are then crossed with diploids to give triploids of dessert bananas exemplified by the cultivar 'Florban 920' (Robinson, 2010).

The process of conventional breeding in bananas takes a long time with a 16-18 months average from planting to flowering (Robinson, 2010). Despite the fact that intentional classical *Musa* breeding has been successful, it is slow due to problems intrinsic to bananas, including low fertility due to inter-sub specific hybridity and triploidy, and long generation times (Crouch, 1998). The difficulty involved in screening for a character of choice during crosses can be overcome by identification of molecular markers that are used to reduce the number of progenies that must be screened to recover the useful trait combinations (Chan, 2010).

2.6 Production of haploids and their role in breeding

The main objective of achieving homozygosity in breeding is to fully express a target character of a parent in the progenies (Chan, 2011). This expression can only be achieved by first establishing true breeding lines; those that have the target character(s) being expressed homozygously (Ravi and Chan, 2010). Biotechnologies that can achieve homozygosity in shorter periods would be welcome in *Musa*. One such technology is developing haploids and then doubling them to doubled haploids (Chan, 2011). In plant

breeding, haploidy is a sure means of achieving homozygosity and is closely linked to reduction of breeding time .

2.6.1 Conventional methods of haploid production

Development of doubled haploids has been achieved with great success especially in crops where it can be performed efficiently like rice, wheat and maize among others (Forster *et al.*, 2007; Dunwell, 2010). Haploid development in these crops has been mainly achieved through conventional approaches of haploid development. These include culture of haploid plant parts and haploids achieved through wide crosses (Chan, 2010).

2.6.1.1 Haploid production through anther and microspore cultures

Despite the importance of haploidy, its adoption in many crops is limited due to barriers in the standard methods of development. One of the common standard methods of haploid development is regeneration of cultured haploid cells to yield adult plants (Assani *et al.*, 2003). This approach is mainly through microspore embryogenesis based on anther or microspore cultures (Assani *et al.*, 2003; Maluszynski *et al.*, 2003). Anther and microspore culture have successfully been achieved in many crops including rice, wheat, chickpea and oil palm (Kim and Baenziger 2005; Grewal *et al.*, 2009; Chen *et al.*, 2010; Dunwell *et al.*, 2010). The main advantage of this approach is that microspores can be isolated in greater amounts per flower hence providing large number of potentially embryogenic single haploid cells (Chan, 2010; Basu *et al.*, 2011). However, these methods are only limited to a few crops since tissue culture protocol development is largely species and cultivar dependent (Chan, 2010). Furthermore, somaclonal variation from tissue culture can also result into deleterious effects. Moreover, regeneration is frequently inefficient for production breeding and may be limited to only a few genotypes (Chan, 2010).

2.6.1.2 Haploid production through wide crosses

The alternative to haploid cultured cells is the crossing of wild relatives where the genome of one is eliminated leaving one parental chromosome in the offspring. A case of this is the cross between *Hordeum vulgare* (barley) and its wide relative *H. bulbosum* resulting in the loss of the latter's genome. Another example where a wide cross has attained haploids is the cross between maize (*Zea mays*) and wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) (Campbell *et al.*, 2000; Bidmeshkipour *et al.*, 2007; Niroula and Bimb, 2009). Despite the few successes, two main problems prevent adoption and usability of wide crosses as a method to attaining haploids. The first problem is that in inter-specific crosses, the seeds obtained are not always viable and embryo rescue is required (Chan, 2010). A rare case where there is success in viability and no embryo rescue was required is in maize intra-specific genome elimination of the 'Stock6 line' (Ravi and Chan, 2010). The second problem in wide crosses is that the mechanism behind development of haploids is not clearly known and this limits its adoption in other crops (Chan, 2010).

2.6.2 Haploid production by centromere-mediated genome elimination

The approaches of haploid development discussed in sections 2.6.1.1 and 2.6.1.2 are either not universal or the principles behind their use are not clearly known. However, a recent discovery proves to be more universal and the mechanisms behind its use clearly known (Ravi and Chan, 2010). The strategy involves replacing the endogenous CENH3 with a modified version. Modification was by replacing the CENH3 tail with that of H3.3. The CENH3 tail has in previous studies been shown to be sufficient for successful mitosis (Black *et al.*, 2007; Ravi *et al.*, 2011).

2.6.2.1 Technical aspects in haploid production through centromere modification

The study by Ravi and Chan (2010) utilized the fact that diverse CENH3 cannot be substituted for one another for normal post fertilization mitosis to take place. This study generated 'haploid inducers' in *Arabidopsis thaliana* CENH3 null mutant by replacing endogenous CENH3 with transgenic proteins (Ravi and Chan, 2010). This is because, to effectively create haploids, chromosomes from the inducer have to be out-competed by those from wild-type parent (Ravi and Chan, 2010). This can only be achieved by silencing or inactivating the endogenous CENH3. The main technique used in silencing in the study of Ravi and Chan (2010) was Ribonucleic acid interference (RNAi).

RNAi is an approach that is naturally used by organisms to regulate the movement of transposable elements, destroy virus sequences and prevent recombination of homologous chromosomes (reviewed by; Kusaba, 2004; Matzke and Birchler, 2005; Sen and Blau, 2006). RNAi silencing was discovered and used in *Caenorhabditis elegans* and has been also used to silence genes in plants (Fire *et al.*, 1998). RNAi takes place post-transcriptionally and is induced by double stranded RNA (dsRNA). It has widely and successfully been used to silence genes in *A. thaliana*, barley, rice, maize and bananas (Baulcombe, 2004; Miki and Shimamoto, 2004; Crane and Gelvin, 2007; Uauy *et al.*, 2007; Ravi *et al.*, 2010). The approach can artificially be used by making gene constructs that would resemble natural RNAi machinery. Transformation constructs with two repeats corresponding to the gene being targeted for silencing are designed with an intron between them to enable hairpin formation (Fusaro *et al.*, 2006). This hairpin formation leads to double stranded RNA that is used in silencing of the target gene. RNAi has been successfully used to silence the endogenous CENH3 in *A. thaliana* in the haploid

development approach (Ravi and Chan, 2010). However, despite the success; this gene silencing approach does not always yield 100% silencing (Fire *et al.*, 1998; Chan, 2008).

2.6.2.2 The eukaryotic centromere and its role in cell division

Centromeres are positions that nucleate (provide nucleotide sequences) kinetochores, the protein complexes that bind to spindle microtubules and mediate chromosome segregation during cell division (Chan, 2010; Furuyama and Biggins, 2007). They actually govern chromosome segregation by being the sites of kinetochore assembly (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009). The structure, organization and functional analysis of the centromere in different organisms has been extensively studied (Tagami *et al.*, 2004; Zhou *et al.*, 2011; Dunemann *et al.*, 2014; Steiner and Henikoff, 2014) and reviewed (Henikoff *et al.*, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Maddox *et al.*, 2012; Lermontova *et al.*, 2014). Studies on eukaryotic centromere have confirmed that it has a common core structure.

The basic building block of the centromere is the nucleosome, which is composed of four core histone proteins H3, H4, H2A and H2B. The nucleosome is wrapped by a 147bp DNA sequence (Tagami *et al.*, 2004; Kouzarides, 2007; Rando, 2007) in 1.7 turns around two molecules of each of the four core histones (Ahmad and Henikoff, 2002; Talbert and Henikoff, 2010). This ensures that the long DNA molecule is properly compacted and packaged. The nucleosomes are further folded into chromatin fiber of 30nm diameter which results to a size that can be accommodated within the cell (Basu *et al.*, 2011).

Another common feature shared across the four histone proteins is the presence of C-terminal histone fold domain (HFD) and N-terminal α -tail. The HFD is composed of three α () helices: α -1, α -2 and α -3 separated from each other by two loops 1 and 2 (L1 and L2) (Zhou *et al.*, 2011). The HFD is highly conserved even in organisms which are evolutionary diverse for example a comparison between human and mouse HFDs show a

78% homology, that between human and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* 50% homology and in plants HDF from Brassicaceae (*Lepidium oleraceum*) has been shown to substitute that of Gramineae (*Zea mays*) in function (Baker and Rogers, 2006; Maheshwari *et al.*, 2015). The CENH3 tail on the other hand is unique in that it protrudes from the nucleosome core and is open to diverse post transcriptional modifications (PTM) (Groth *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, unlike the conserved HFD, the tail is highly evolving (Henikoff *et al.*, 2004).

One other common feature in eukaryotic centromeres is the presence of variants of the core histone proteins. The core histones H3 and H2A have been observed to have variant(s) which are the centromeric specific histone H3 (CENH3), H3.3, H2A.Z and H2A.X (Henikoff *et al.*, 2004). The focus in this study is on CENH3 which was previously described as CENP-A in humans (Talbert *et al.*, 2002), chromosome segregation protein 4 (Cse4) in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and centromere identifier (CID) in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Talbert and Henikoff, 2010).

2.6.3 CENH3 deposition and organization into the centromere

CENH3 is a variant of the H3 that replaces it at the centromeric nucleosomes. Homologues of CENH3 have been identified in many eukaryotes including maize, carrot, Brassica and other crops plants (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Dunemann *et al.*, 2014). CENH3 like other histone proteins has a C-terminal histone fold domain (HFD) and a hypervariable N-terminal -tail domain. It is 50-60% identical to conventional H3 especially at the HFD. However the tail does not show any similarity to H3 (Talbert and Henikoff, 2010; Ravi *et al.*, 2011) and is highly variable. Despite being a histone protein, it has some special characteristics both structurally and in its location that makes it unique. First, it only localizes in the centromere and is actually the centromere -landmark (Collins *et al.*, 2004; Henikoff *et al.*, 2004; Steiner and Henikoff, 2014). Second, it is the indicator

of the centromere with or without the satellite repeats sequences that characterize centromeres and it replaces H3 in centromeric kinetochores (Black and Bassett 2008).

The structural arrangement of CENH3 and other histones within the nucleosome is important in maintaining stability of chromosomes and the different forces during cell division (Black and Cleveland, 2011). Even if CENH3 is somewhere else along the chromosome apart from the centromere, it is mainly transiently and this does not always change the position of the centromere to these new deposition sites (Black and Cleveland, 2011).

The question of how CENH3 marks and maintains centromere through physical conformation has been a big an open question. To answer this, different models for the structure of *CenH3*-containing nucleosomes have been provided (Black and Cleveland, 2011; Zhou *et al.*, 2011). Six main models have been proposed: the Octamer model (Sheinin *et al.*, 2013; Codomo *et al.*, 2014; Henikoff *et al.*, 2014; Wisniewski *et al.*, 2014), the tetrasome model (Dechassa *et al.*, 2011; Tachiwana and Kurumizaka, 2011; Henikoff and Furuyama, 2012), the hemisome (Furuyama *et al.*, 2013; Henikoff *et al.*, 2014), Octameric reversible (Camahort *et al.*, 2009), hexameric complex (Henikoff and Furuyama, 2012) and trisome (Verdaasdonk and Bloom, 2011; Nechemia-Arbely, 2012; Shivaraju *et al.*, 2012) models . The octamer model is the most common and entails having two copies of each of the four core histones H2A, H2B, H4 and CENH3 in place of H3 (Figure 2.1A). In this model, DNA wraps around the histones with a right hand twist. The other model is tetrasome which has two copies of *CenH3* and H4 but does not have the histone H2A and H2B (Figure 2.1B). The hemisome model (Figure 2.1C) was hypothesized after atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements of cenH3-containing chromatin revealed that their height was half that of conventional chromatin (Dalal *et al.*,

2007 a and b; Dimitriadis *et al.*, 2010). This model was also observed to be unique in that DNA wraps around histones with a right hand twist instead of the conventional left hand twist (Henikoff and Furuyama, 2012; Furuyama *et al.*, 2013; Codomo *et al.*, 2014). The reversome is considered a high energy model (Black and Cleveland, 2011) with the positive supercoiling of DNA observed to be affecting the nucleosome structure (Bancaud *et al.*, 2007). Reversome is actually a reverse nucleosome and only exists when there are other forces, these are currently unknown.

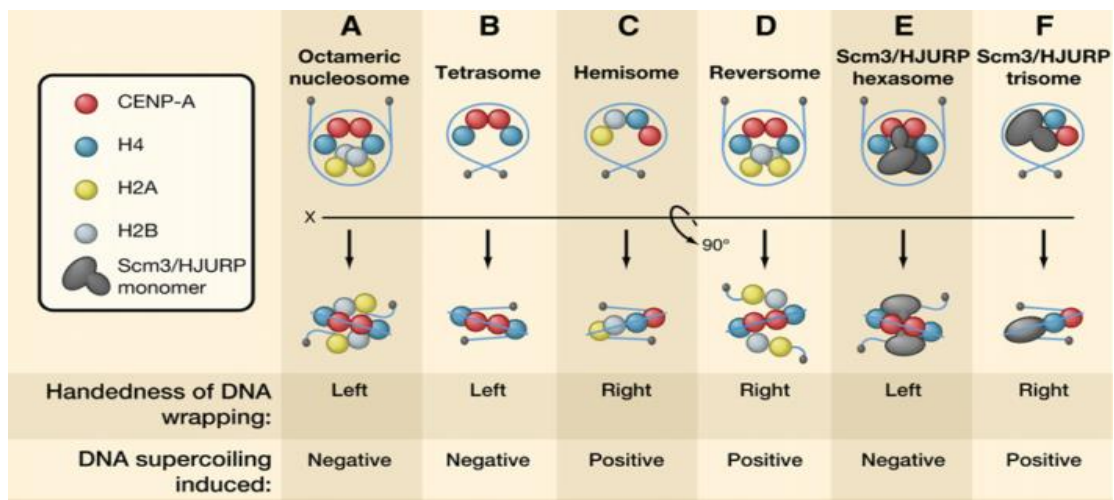


Figure 2.1: Models (A-F) explaining how DNA wraps around kinetochores in CENH3 containing nucleosomes. A: The octameric nucleosome model with two molecules each of the histone proteins, B: The tetrasome model with only CENH3 and H4 histones, C: Hemosome, with one molecule of each histone. Source: Black and Cleveland, 2011

The tetrasome model (Figure 2.1B) has two copies of the CENH3 and histone H4 and lacks the histones H2A and H2B (Mizuguchi *et al.*, 2007; Dechassa *et al.*, 2014). In this model also, the non-histone protein Scm3 a homologue of HJURP in mammals, co-localize with CENH3 and substitutes for H2A and H2B. Dechassa *et al.* (2014) further

proved this model quantitatively by showing that Scm3 has a higher affinity to CenH3-H4 and with a 10 fold likelihood of affinity to H3-H4.

The trisome and hexasome models have similarity in that in both, histones H2A and H2B are replaced by the non-histone protein Scm3 (Black and Cleveland, 2011; Furuyama *et al.*, 2013). There are however differences between the two, first the hexasome model contains two copies each of CENH3, H4 and Scm3 (Figure 2.1E). Trisome model (Figure 2.1F) on the other hand contains one copy of each molecule (Henikoff and Henikoff, 2012). Despite the disagreement in the centromere structural model, research is still going on. Centromere still remains the centre of mitotic control and cell division in general.

2.6.4 *CenH3* expression pattern in plants of different ploidies

Natural variability in *CenH3* gene transcripts has been observed in diploids and polyploids of different species (Hui *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2011 ; Dunemann *et al.*, 2014; Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014; Nagaki *et al.*, 2009). Presence and loading of multiple CENH3 in the centromere results in complexities during mitosis and meiosis which can result to segregation errors (Chan, 2010; Ravi and Chan, 2010; Seymour *et al.*, 2012). In diploids, *Hordeum vulgare* – *bulbosum* crosses, only one of the variable CENH3 proteins was observed to be loaded into the centromere (Sanei *et al.*, 2011). Complementation of *Arabidopsis thaliana* with *CenH3* sequences derived from distant species like *Zea mays* was observed to maintain CENH3 function (Maheshwari *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore selfing and intercrossing of fertile species having naturally variable CENH3 was observed to produce progenies which were either aneuploids, haploids and hybrid diploids all with novel characteristics (Maheshwari *et al.*, 2015). The importance of checking *CenH3* expression profiles in plant species is important in understanding breeding dynamics if plants are observed to have multiple *CenH3* transcripts.

CHAPTER THREE

PHYLOGENY OF BANANAS AND HAPLOTYPE INFERENCE OF UNPHASED DATA BASED ON THE MARKERS *NADH* AND *CENH3*

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The genus *Musa* represents four sections, *Eumusa* and *Rhodochlamys* with a basic chromosome number of $n = 11$, *Callimusa* ($n = 10$ or $n = 9$) and *Australimusa* ($n = 10$) (Cheesman, 1947). The most important section is *Eumusa*, where most of cultivated bananas fall. There are four wild progenitors of domesticated banana, three from section *Eumusa*, *M. acuminata*, *M. balbisiana*, and to a much lesser extent, *M. schizocarpa* (S genome) and one from section *Australimusa*, *M. textilis*/*M. maclayi* (T genome) (Cheesman, 1947). The species *M. acuminata* has been classified into eight sub-species based on chloroplast and mitochondrial genetic analysis (Wong, 2002). The eight sub-species include: *banksii* of Papua new guinea, *errans* from Phillipines, *Zebrina* from the Indonesia, *malaccensis*, *microcarpa*, *burmannicoides*, *burmannica* and *siamea* with a distribution from Thailand, Malaysia and Phillipines (Carreel *et al.*, 2002). However, no sub-species have been identified in *M. balbisiana* to date. Cultivated *Musa* clones are mainly inter-specific hybrids of *M. acuminata* and *M. balbisiana* (Wong, 2002). However, hybrids are in existence which originated from crosses between *M. acuminata* and *M. schizocarpa* (S genome) and others between *M. acuminata* and *M. textilis* (T genome) (H ibová *et al.*, 2011).

The haploid genome contributed by *M. acuminata* is referred to as the A genome and that from *M. balbisiana* the B genome (Carreel *et al.*, 2002). Based on morphological

characters, genetic composition and other qualitative descriptors, the genetic groups AA, AB, AAA, AAB, ABB were identified by Simmonds (1953).

Studies have attempted to answer the question of the origin and domestication of cultivated bananas, mainly using molecular approaches (Wong, 2001; Ude *et al.*, 2002; Nwakanma *et al.*, 2003; Ruangsuttapha *et al.*, 2007; Lescot *et al.*, 2008; Hippolyte *et al.*, 2012; Li *et al.*, 2013). The progenitors of cultivated bananas based on the existing wild relatives would help explain which diploid cultivars contributed to the triploid genome. Studies using cytoplasmic DNA (chloroplast and mitochondria) have been used to unravel the progenitors of cultivated diploid and triploid bananas (Boonruangrod *et al.*, 2008; Boonruangrod *et al.*, 2009; De Langhe *et al.*, 2010). The reason for the use of cytoplasmic DNA in identifying progenitors is due to the property of monoparental inheritance of chloroplast and mitochondrial DNA (cpDNA and mtDNA respectively) from paternal the maternal parents respectively (Carreel *et al.*, 2002; Boonruangrod *et al.*, 2008). The chloroplast and mitochondrial DNA have been shown to be inherited from the mother and the father in bananas (Carreel *et al.*, 2002). Three chloroplast variants (Ca1-Ca3) representing the A genome and two (Cb1 and Cb2) for the B genome chloroplast gene-pool were identified by Boonruangrod *et al.*'s (2008) study. Furthermore, the variants Ma1-Ma4 and Mb1-Mb3 were identified in the mitochondrial genome for *M. acuminata* and *M. balbisiana* respectively in the same study (Boonruangrod *et al.*, 2008). However, B genome contribution in AB and AAB cultivars has not been observed this far. Genome specific markers that can identify hybrid gene-pool composition both in the chloroplast and in the mitochondria would be welcome.

Unphased data can be used to identify haplotypes in polyploids and different approaches have been used so far (Ching *et al.*, 2002; Ding and Cantor, 2003; Neigenfind *et al.*, 2008;

Browning and Browning, 2011; Tyson and Armour, 2012; Su *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, identification of gene pools contributing to the triploid and diploid cultivars through direct sequencing of PCR products would be an added advantage as the time involved in cloning will be reduced.

Genome elimination in plant interspecific hybrids has been an area of interest to researchers in recent times. Crosses between distantly related species have been shown to result in genome elimination. Inter-specific crosses in barley resulted in uniparental genome elimination (Sanei *et al.*, 2011), while crosses between *Arabidopsis thaliana* bearing a mutant Centromere specific histone 3 protein (CENH3) with the wild type resulted in elimination of the mutant genome (Ravi and Chan, 2010). To be able to make crosses for haploid development, it is critical to know the relationship of different cultivars that can be used in crosses.

In this study, the partial coding sequence for the markers *CenH3* and the mitochondrial marker *NADH* were used to establish phylogeny of cultivated diploid and triploid bananas as well as wildtype diploid progenitor. The study also aimed to infer haplotypes from unphased data (data with all the alleles not separated) within triploids and diploids based on *CenH3*.

3.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.2.1 Plant material

In total 39 cultivars with different genomic compositions were used in this study (Table 3.1). The samples included 10 cultivars of AA, 6 cultivars of AAA, 7 cultivars of AAB, 2 cultivars of AB, 6 cultivars of ABB, 1 cultivar of AS and 5 cultivars of BB genomic composition and the species *Musa ornata* and *Musa textilis* from sections *Rhodochlamys*

and *Australimusa* respectively. DNA samples for all cultivars were obtained from International Transit Centre (ITC) (Leuven, Belgium) except the cultivar Ngombe, which was collected from Kenya Agricultural and Livestock Research Organization (KALRO) Bungoma, Kenya.

Table 3.1: List of banana samples used in determination of phylogeny.

Number	Codes	Common name	Section	Species	Genomic group	Sub-species/Sub-group	Country of collection
1	ITC1028	Agutay	Eumusa	<i>acuminata</i>	AA	<i>errans</i>	Philippines
2	ITC0623	Banksii	Eumusa	<i>acuminata</i>	AA	<i>banksii</i>	Papua New Guinea
3	ITC0249	Calcutta 4	Eumusa	<i>Acuminata</i>	AA	<i>burmannicoides</i>	India
4	-	DH Pahang	Eumusa	<i>Acuminata</i>	AA	<i>malaccensis</i>	Guadeloupe (CIRAD 930)
5	ITC0767	Dole	Eumusa		ABB	<i>Bluggoe</i>	
6	ITC0046	Monthan	Eumusa		ABB	<i>Monthan</i>	India
7	ITC1325	Orishele	Eumusa		AAB	<i>Plantain</i>	Nigeria
8	ITC0962	Prata Ana	Eumusa		AAB	<i>Pome / Prata</i>	Brazil
9	ITC0769	Figue Pomme Géante	Eumusa		AAB	<i>Silk</i>	Guadeloupe
10	ITC0649		Foconah	<i>Eumusa</i>	AAB	<i>Pome / Prata</i>	
11	-	Ngombe	Eumusa	<i>Acuminata</i>	AAA		KALRO Bungoma, Kenya
12	NEU0172	Grande Naine	Eumusa		AAA	<i>Cavendish</i>	Guadeloupe
13	ITC0247	Honduras	Eumusa	<i>Balbisiana</i>	BB	<i>type 1</i>	Honduras (seeds)
14	ITC0660	Khae (Phrae)	Eumusa	<i>Acuminata</i>	AA	<i>siamea</i>	Thailand (THA 015)
15	ITC0652	KluaiTiparot	Eumusa		ABB	<i>Klueteparod</i>	Thailand (THA 020)
16	ITC1034	Kunnan	Eumusa	<i>cv</i>	AB		India, Kerala
17	ITC0582	Lady Finger	Eumusa		AAB	<i>Nadan</i>	India
18	NEU0051	LaVelchi	Eumusa	<i>Balbisiana</i>	BB	<i>type 3</i>	India
19	ITC0084	Mbwazirume	Eumusa		AAA	<i>Lujugira/Mutika</i>	Burundi
20	-	malaccensis	Eumusa	<i>Acuminata</i>	AA	<i>malaccensis 250</i>	
21	ITC0393	Truncata	Eumusa	<i>Acuminata</i>	AA	<i>truncata</i>	
22	ITC0637	Musa ornata	Rhodochlamys	<i>Ornata</i>		<i>Ornata</i>	
23	ITC0659	NamwaKhom	Eumusa		ABB	<i>PisangAwak</i>	Thailand (THA 011)
24	ITC0472	Pelipita	Eumusa		ABB	<i>Pelipita</i>	Philippines
25	ITC1064	Pisangbakar	Eumusa		AAA	<i>Ambon</i>	Indonesia (IDN 106)
26	ITC1156	PisangBatu	Eumusa	<i>Balbisiana</i>	BB	<i>type 4</i>	Indonesia (IDN 080)
27	ITC1441	PisangCeylan	Eumusa		AAB	<i>Mysore</i>	Malaysia
28	ITC0420	PisangKayu	Eumusa		AAA	<i>Orotav</i>	Indonesia (IDN 098)
29	ITC1063	PisangKlutukWulung	Eumusa	<i>Balbisiana</i>	BB	<i>type 4</i>	Indonesia (IDN 056)
30	ITC0653	Pisang Mas	Eumusa	<i>cv (2)</i>	AA	<i>Sucrier</i>	Malaysia
31	ITC1138	Saba	Eumusa		ABB	<i>Saba</i>	Philippines
32	ITC0245	SafetVelchi	Eumusa	<i>cv</i>	AB		India
33	ITC1120	Tani	Eumusa	<i>Balbisiana</i>	BB		
34	NEU0001	Textilis	Australimusa	<i>Textilis</i>			
35	ITC1187	Tomolo	Eumusa	<i>cv</i>	AA	<i>Cooking AA</i>	Papua New Guinea (PNG023)
36	ITC1152	Wompa	Eumusa		AS		Papua New Guinea (PNG 063)
37	ITC1177	Zebrina	Eumusa	<i>Acuminata</i>	AA	<i>zebrina</i>	Indonesia
38	ITC1140	Red Yade	Eumusa		AAB	<i>Plantain</i>	Cameroon
39		Long Tavoy	Eumusa		AAA		

3.2.2 Primer design

Partial coding sequence for *CenH3* and those of the non-coding intergenic region for *NADH* were used as the target markers for primer design. Centromere histone 3 coding sequence for Doubled Haploid pahang (DH pahang) was kindly provided by the Global *Musa* genomics consortium (Dr. Jim Lorenzen) which was used as a template for primer design. Forty eight *NADH* sequences representing 28 species within the monocots group were downloaded from National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) genebank release 186 and assembled in Sequencher version 4.1 (Ann Arbor, MI USA). Variable and conserved regions within the consensus sequence based on the alignment were noted and these were used as the reference in designing primers. The primer pairs were designed targeting variable regions for *NADH*, these were positions 215 to 231 for the forward and 1598 to 1615 for the reverse primers out of the 1726bp long sequence alignment. The *CenH3* primers were designed from the coding region targeting a 322 basepair (bp) amplicon from position 6211 to 6533 corresponding to exon 1 and part of intron 1 obtained from *in silico* analysis of the 7kb DH Pahang genomic sequence. The software PrimerSelect in the DNASTAR software suite (Madison, WI, USA) was used in designing all the primers. The best primer pair from the program was selected for each of the target region and synthesized at Inqaba Biotech company (Pretoria, SA).

3.2.3 PCR, sequencing and sequence assembly

Six primer sets, three for each target region were first screened with eight cultivars. Based on either quality of PCR products or sequences, a primer pair for each marker was selected and used with the remaining 31 DNA samples. The sequences of the two primer pairs were: *CenH3_gene_F2*: CTGCTGTGATGGCGAGAAC and *CenH3_gene_R2*: CTGGTGGCCGTGGTTC for *CenH3* and *Nad1_c5F*: GTCCCCGGCCAGAACCAC and

Nad1_c5R: GCAGTCCGGGGCACAAG for *NADH*. PCR reactions were performed in 20µl reaction volume using the Bioneer® PCR premix (Daejeon, South Korea) containing 1 U of *Top* DNA polymerase, 250µM dNTP, 10 mM Tris-HCL (pH 9.0), 30 mM KCl and 1.5 mM MgCl. The PCR was run in Gene Amp® Applied Biosystem (ABI) 9700 machine. The profile was set at initial denaturation of 94 °C for 5 min, 40 cycles of 94 °C for 30 sec, annealing temperature of 59 °C for 1 min, 72 °C extension for 40 secs and a final extension of 72 °C for 10 min for *CenH3*. The conditions were similar for *NADH* apart from the annealing temperature which was set at 64 °C for 30 secs and extension at 72 °C for 1.5 min.

The PCR products were cleaned using Bioneer® PCR purification kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. The cleaned PCR products were viewed by running on a 1.5% agarose gel stained with gelred. Sequencing of PCR products was performed using Applied Biosystem (ABI) Bigdye® terminator v 3.1 (Foster City, CA USA) protocol from both ends using the same primers used for amplification (*CenH3* and *NADH* primers).

Excess dye terminators were removed using EDTA/ethanol precipitation method. The 96-well reaction plate in which the sequencing reaction was done was removed from the thermocycler and briefly spun on a Beckman Allegra S5700 at 3000 rcf. One microliter of 125 mM EDTA was added followed by one microliter of 3 M sodium acetate was added to the bottom of each well after which 25µl of absolute ethanol was added. The mixture was incubated at room temperature for 15 min in order to precipitate the extension products. Shorter precipitation time was avoided as this would result into very short extension products while precipitation time longer than 24 hrs would increase the precipitation of unincorporated dye terminators. The plate was spun on a Beckman Allegra S5700 at 3000 rcf for 30 min. The plate was inverted and spun at 185 rpm to remove supernatants. Effort

was made to remove all the supernatants as unincorporated dye terminators were dissolved in them. One hundred micro liters of 70% absolute ethanol was added to each well containing the PCR products. The plate was spun on a Beckman Allegra S5700 at 3000 rcf for 15 min. The plate was removed, inverted and again spun to 185rpm for one min to remove supernatants. The plates were placed in a thermocycler with the lids open; the thermocycler was set at 90 °C for one min. The samples were then re-suspended in 10 µl of injection buffer (HiDi Formamide), vortexed and spun to make sure the pellets were in contact with the buffer. The samples were heated at 95 °C for 2 min to ensure complete dissolution and then placed in ice after which they were ready to be run in the sequencer. The sequencing reactions in this case were run in ABI 3130 and 3730 prism as per set protocols.

Sequences were assembled and edited in sequencher version 4.1. Ends that had low confidence base calls were trimmed to retain high confidence sequences. Sequence assembly parameters were set at 85 and 25 while the assembly was done using the -assemble automatically parameter. In cases of low base calls, the secondary peaks which were up to 25% of the primary peak were called. The criteria for calling secondary bases at region with clear base calls were set at 75% of the primary chromatogram. IUPAC codes were assigned to all the positions that were meeting the criteria for multiple calls. Sequences were exported in FASTA concatenated format without gaps for further analyses.

3.2.4 Sequence alignment and phylogenetic reconstruction

FASTA concatenated sequences were aligned in ClustalW (Thompson *et al.*, 1994) as implemented in MEGA5 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). Alignment of *CenH3* sequences was done at Gap Opening Penalty (GOP) of 13.2 and a Gap Extension Penalty (GEP) of 1.11 while

that of *NADH* was done at a GOP and GEP of 6.66 and 1.11, respectively. The DNA weight matrix, the transition weight and percentage of delay divergent cutoff were set at IUB, 0.5 and 30, respectively, for both markers. Negative matrix was used in both alignment and the predefined gaps kept. Phylogeny reconstruction was performed by maximum likelihood (ML) for both markers. The two markers had different parameters set in performing the phylogenetic reconstruction except for the bootstrap (BP) statistical support of individual clades and the respective number of bootstrap replicates which was at 1000 for both. The model selected for *CenH3* was kimura-2-parameter (K2), rates among sites being gamma distributed with a gamma parameter of 8.0, gaps and missing data were treated by pairwise deletion while the codon positions used were the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and non-coding. Phylogenetic reconstruction for *NADH* used the model jukes cantor (JC) the rates among sites were uniform while gaps and missing data were treated by complete deletion. Equally, for *NADH* the codon positions selected were the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and non-coding while gaps in the alignment were treated as missing data.

3.2.5 Haplotype inference

Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) for *CenH3* that had been assigned IUPAC codes were exported to excel and saved as cvs file. The SNP positions were grouped as per the cultivar's ploidy (triploids and diploids). Triploids that had one or two basecalls per position (example A or AT) were added with Ns to complete the call to three (example A to ANN and AT to ATN). SNPs within diploid cultivars that only had one basecall were equally added with an N to complete the two basecalls associated with diploidy (Table 3.2). The software SATlotyper (Neigenfind *et al.*, 2008) was used for haplotype inference.

Both triploid and diploid SNP positions were run with the SATsolvers set as MiniSat_v1.14_cygwin. All the SNP positions for all the genotypes were used for the analysis and the bootstrap support set at 100. Haplotypes identified in haploids were physically checked for duplication and similarity to those obtained in triploids, these were noted. Haplotypes that were duplicated in diploid and triploids were treated as a single incidence. Duplicated haplotypes together with the unique ones (occurring only once in either diploids or triploids) were considered as unique for both diploids and triploids.

Table 3.2: Positions of Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) that were used in inferring haplotypes of triploid and diploid banana cultivars. (The -SNP positions in alignment \emptyset indicate the position of the *CenH3* sequence alignment that was used in haplotype inference).

Cultivar Name	Genome	Ploidy	SNP positions in alignment						
			62	63	95	120	122	166	208
Calcutta_4	AA	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	TN	CN
Malaccensis	AA	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	TN	CN
Agutay	AA	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	TN	CN
Long_Tavoy	AA	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	TN	CN
Banksii	AA	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	TN	CN
Truncata	AA	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	TN	CN
Khae_Phrae	AA	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	TN	CN
DH_Pahang	AA	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	TN	CN
Tomolo	AA	2N	CN	GN	AG	AN	AG	TN	CN
Pisang_Mas	AA	2N	NN	NN	NN	TN	AN	TN	CN
Zebrina	AA	2N	NN	NN	NN	AN	AG	CT	CN
Kunnan	AB	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	CN	TN
Safet_velchi	BB	2N	GC	GC	AG	AN	AN	TN	CN
Wompa	AS	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	GN	TN	CT
Pisang_Batu	BB	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	CN	TN
Honduras	BB	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	CN	TN
Pisang_Klutuk_Walung	BB	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	CN	TN
Lal_Velchi	AB	2N	CN	GN	AN	AN	AN	CN	TN
Grande_Naine	AAA	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	TNN	CNN
Gombe	AAA	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	GNN	TNN	CNN
Mbwazirume	AAA	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	GNN	TNN	CNN
Pisang_Kayu	AAA	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ATN	ANN	TNN	CNN
Figue_Pomme_Geante	AAB	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	TNN	CNN
Pisang_Ceylan	AAB	3N	CNN	GNN	GNN	ANN	AGN	TNN	CNN
Prata_Ana	AAB	3N	GCN	GCN	AGN	ANN	ANN	TNN	CTN
Orishele	AAB	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	TNN	CNN
Foconah	AAB	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	TNN	CNN
Lady_Finger	AAB	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	CTN	CTN
Red_yade	AAB	3N	NNN	NNN	NNN	NNN	TNN	CNN	GNN
Pelipita	ABB	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	TNN	CNN
Namwa_Khom	ABB	3N	GNN	GNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	TNN	CTN
Dole	ABB	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	CNN	TNN
Saba	ABB	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	CNN	TNN
Kluai_Tiparot	ABB	3N	CNN	GNN	ANN	ANN	ANN	CNN	TNN

3.3 RESULTS

3.3.1 PCR Analysis

Resultant PCR product run on a 1.5% agarose gel showed clear differences in band sizes for *NADH* while the marker *CenH3* did not result in visible size differences (Figure 3.1). Three fragment sizes were observed in the amplicons of the marker *NADH*: those that were ~1500 bp (lanes 2, 6, 7 and 10), ~1200 bp long (lanes 3, 4, 5 and 9) and ~1000 bp (lanes 1 and 8). The band sizes observed were not genomic-group specific because size 1500bp was observed in two different genomic groups (BB and ABB), 1200bp in two genomic groups (BB and AA) and in the species *M. ornata* whereas 1000bp long fragment was observed in genomic group AAB and in the species *M. textilis* (Figure 3.1). The amplicon for *CenH3* was observed to be 350bp long (Figure 3.1). The difference in the band size was confirmed on sequencing where multiple indels were observed along the 1.5 kb alignment, with the largest indel being 3 bp long and the longest 26 bp.

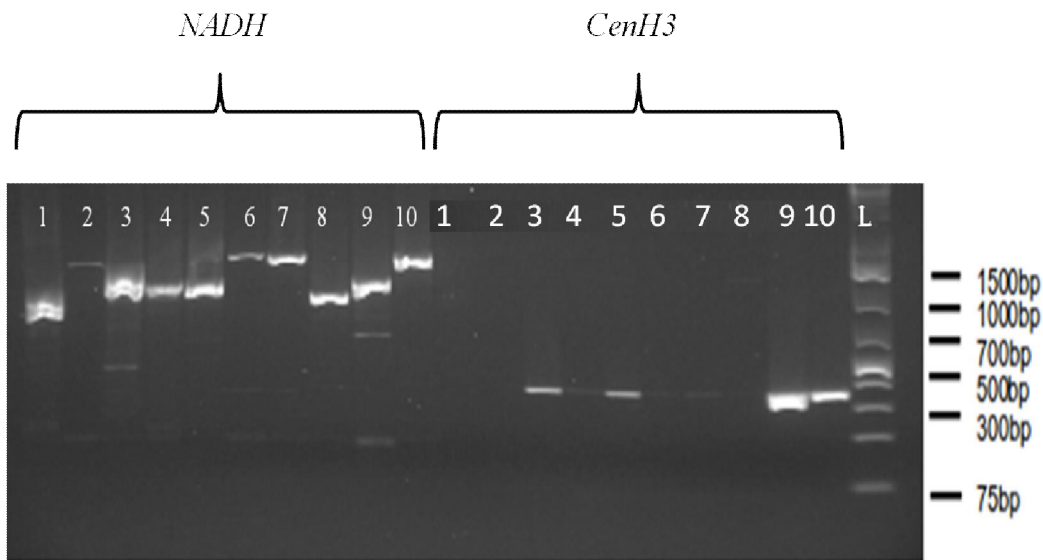


Figure 3.1: PCR analysis of banana cultivars with different genomic composition using *NADH* and *CenH3* specific primers. Lane 1- AAB genomic group, 2, 3, and 10 ó BB genomic group, 4 and 5 ó AA genomic group, 6 and 7 ó ABB genomic group, 8 and 9 were *Musa textilis* and *M. ornata* respectively. Lanes 11 to 20 are a repetition of samples 1 to 10 with the marker *CenH3*. L is 1 kb plus fermentas ladder.

3.3.2 Sectional and genomic group congruence

Thirty four sequences representing different cultivars and common to both markers were obtained on sequencing. These were deposited in the NCBI under the accession numbers KP751256 - KP751292 for *NADH* and KP751293 - KP751328 for *CenH3*. The sequences for the tetraploid cultivar 'Yawa 2' and diploid cultivar 'Long tavoy' were missing for the *CenH3* while sequences for cultivars 'Honduras', 'Monthan', 'Pisang bakar' and *M. textilis* were missing for the marker *NADH* and these were treated as missing data for the respective markers. Alignments of *NADH* and *CenH3* sequences resulted in a length of 1448 bp and 278 bp for the longest alignments, respectively. Out of these, 196 and 4 positions were found to be variable in *NADH* and *CenH3*, respectively. The best ML model selected for *CenH3* and *NADH* were Kimura 2 (K2) and Jukes Cantor plus a gamma parameter of 0.265 (JC+G) respectively. During model selection, the two markers were observed to have different evolutionary rates and hence alignments were conducted separately. Twenty SNP positions in *NADH* alignment were found to differentiate A and B genomes (Table 3.3).

3.3.2.1 Segregation based on marker *NADH*

Three clades denoted as A, B and C were obtained on phylogenetic reconstruction with *NADH* (Figure 3.2). The clades were strongly supported at 98 and 84 bootstrap values for clades A and B, respectively. The clade A was represented by triploid and diploid cultivars from section, *Eumusa*. The only representative of the section *Rhodochlamys* *M. ornata* branched earlier on as a separate clade from A, and is labeled as section *Rhodochlamys* (Figure 3.2). This clade was also observed to have representation of mixed genomic cultivars. Triploid cultivars in this clade were either AAA in font green (Grande naine,

Pisang Kayu, Gombe, Pisang bakar and Mbwazirume) or AAB genomic groups (Foconah, Prata ana, Pisang ceylan, Figue pomme geante, Lady finger and Orishele) in font black (Figure 3.2). Diploids in this clade were either one of the three genomic groups, AA genomic composition in font yellow (Tomolo), AS genomic constitution represented by the cultivar Wompa indicated in single block bracket and AB genomically constituted cultivars represented by Safet velchi and Kunnan also indicated in single block bracket (Figure 3.2). This marker was unable to differentiate wildtype AA (red font) from each other, these sub-species were represented by the sub-species *banksii*, *zebrina*, *truncata*, *Calcutta 4*, *burmannicoides*, *errans* and *siamea* all of which clustered into the same clade A. Only the sub-species *malaccensis* segregated from clade A as a sub-clade.

Table 3.3: Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) from the partial *NADH* gene that differentiated banana A and B genomes. Greyed cells represent AA, AAA and AAB cultivars while white ones represent ABB and BB cultivars.

Cultivar	Genomic group	SNP Number																			
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Dole	ABB	C	C	G	T	A	C	A	T	T	A	C	G	C	T	G	G	A	C	T	C
Honduras	BB	C	C	G	T	A	C	A	T	T	A	C	G	C	T	G	G	A	C	T	C
Kluaitirapot	BB	C	C	G	T	A	C	A	T	T	A	C	G	C	T	G	G	A	C	T	C
Monthan	ABB	C	C	G	T	A	C	A	T	T	A	C	G	C	T	G	G	A	C	T	C
Pelipita	ABB	C	C	G	T	A	C	A	T	T	A	C	G	C	T	G	G	A	C	T	C
PisangBatu	BB	C	C	G	T	A	C	A	T	T	A	C	G	C	T	G	G	A	C	T	C
Pisangklutukwulung	BB	C	C	G	T	A	C	A	T	T	A	C	G	C	T	G	G	A	C	T	C
Tani	BB	C	C	G	T	A	C	A	T	T	A	C	G	C	T	G	G	A	C	T	C
FiguePommeGeante	AAB	A	A	T	G	T	A	C	A	G	T	A	T	A	G	T	T	T	T	A	G
Lady finger	AAB	A	A	T	G	T	A	C	A	G	T	A	T	A	G	T	T	T	T	A	G
Banksii	AA	A	A	T	G	T	A	C	A	G	T	A	T	A	G	T	T	T	T	A	G
Calcutta 4	AA	A	A	T	G	T	A	C	A	G	T	A	T	A	G	T	T	T	T	A	G
Malaccensis	AA	A	A	T	G	T	A	C	A	G	T	A	T	A	G	T	T	T	T	A	G
Truncata	AA	C	C	T	G	T	A	C	A	G	A	A	T	A	G	T	T	T	T	A	G
Wompa	AS	A	A	T	G	T	A	C	A	G	T	A	T	A	G	T	T	T	T	A	G
Zebrina	AA	A	A	T	G	T	A	C	A	G	T	A	T	A	G	T	T	T	T	A	G

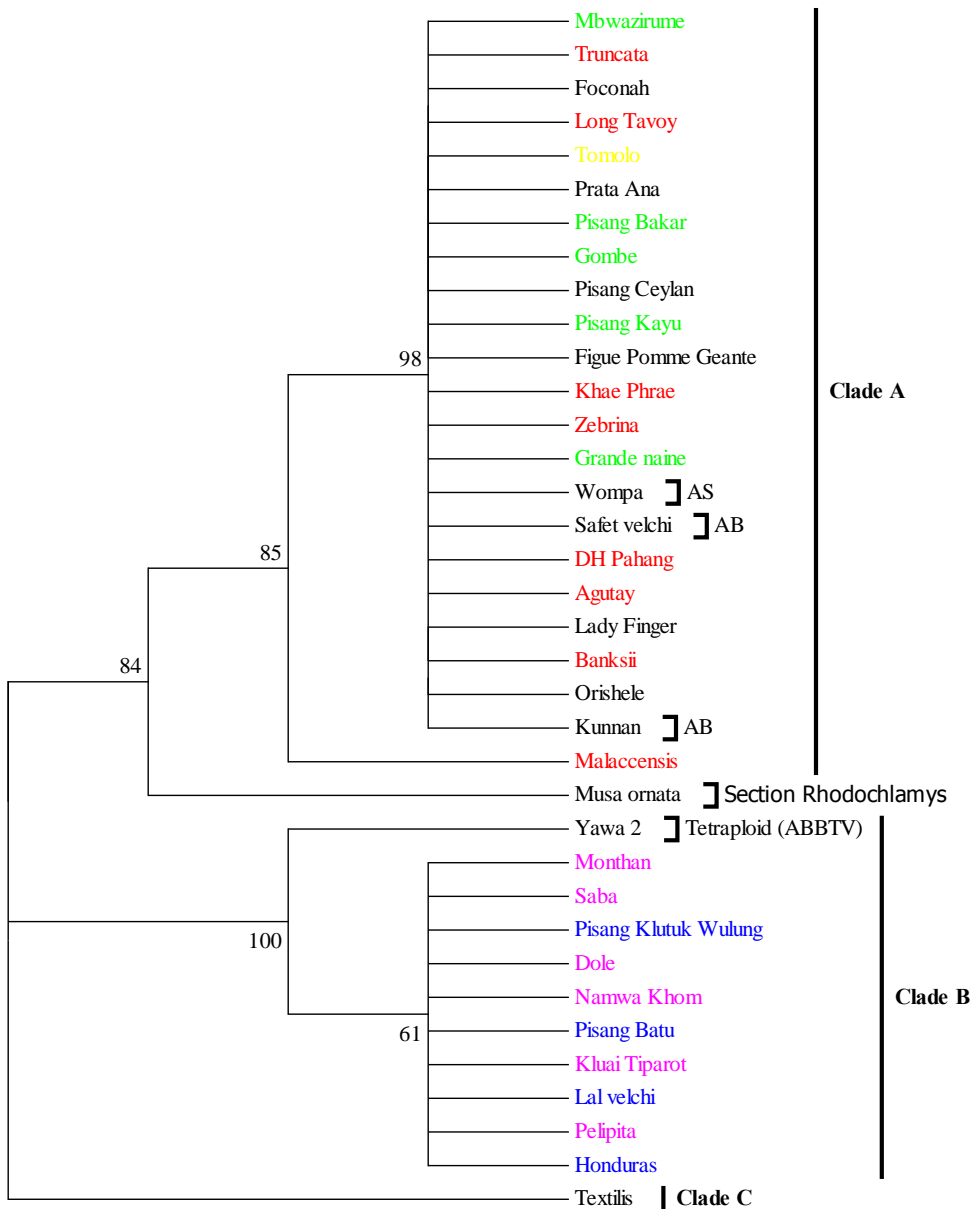


Figure 3.2: Phylogenetic tree of different banana cultivars based on the partial *NADH* gene. Numbers above branches represent the BP support values which are over 50%. Cultivars in green are triploid AAA, yellow represent cultivated diploid AA, Red represent *M. acuminata* wild type relatives, purple represent wild type BB, blue are ABB cultivars while names of cultivars in black represent AAB except those that have a bracket and description after. The cultivars in black with a single square bracket have their genome composition indicated after the brackets.

The clade B which mainly represented the B genome cultivars in the *NADH* phylogeny had BB and ABB genomic groups and was strongly supported at a BP support of 100. Two sub-clades were observed within this clade, these were the uni-cultivar sub-clade represented by the tetraploid cultivar Yawa-2 (ABBT) and the second sub-clade represented by 10 cultivars of BB and ABB genomic constitution. The BB cultivars within this clade were represented by the cultivars Saba, Namwa khom, kluai tiparot, monthan, pelipita and Dole, these are in the *NADH* tree in colour pink (Figure 3.2). The origin of some of these cultivars is Philippines for Saba, Thailand for Namwa khom and Kluai tiparot and India for Monthan (Boonruangrod *et al.*, 2009). The ABB cultivars within this clade are in font blue and are represented by the cultivars Pisang Klutuk Walung, Pisang Batu, lal velchi and Honduras. The third clade C was having the species *M. textilis* as a representative and this was in the section *Australimusa*.

3.3.2.2 Segregation based on the marker *CenH3*

Sequences for 23 out of the 39 cultivars used in the study were obtained with the marker *CenH3*. The resultant phylogeny based on *CenH3* had two major clades (A and B) and the associated subclades (Figure 3.3). The first clade referred to as Clade A or the A genome clade had representative cultivars within *M. acuminata* except for the cultivar Wompa which is interspecific hybrid between *M. acuminata* and *M. schizocarpha* (AS genomic composition). This marker was able to differentiate subspecies and genome groups within the A genome clade. Different sub-clades each of which had one or more cultivars were observed within this clade. The first sub-clade supported at a BP value of 79 contained the cultivars of ABB genome composition and these were the cultivars Namwa khom and Safet velchi. The second sub-clade supported at 54 BP differentiated the cultivars of the sub-species malaccensis, it had two cultivars malaccensis and tomolo with the cultivar DH Pahang being a

sister clade. The fourth sub-clade supported at BP value of 40 had the sub-species *zebrina* and East African highland banana cultivar Gombe. Twelve other cultivars appeared as individuals in this clade and these included cultivars Pisang ceylan, Pisang mas, Wompa, Calcutta 4, *M. acuminata cv truncata*, Khae phrae, Long tavoy, Banksii, Prata ana, *M. ornata* and Agutay (Figure 3.3).

The B genome clade based on *CenH3* represented the ABB and BB genomic groups and was strongly supported at 82 BP (Figure 3.3). This clade had two major sub-clades, the first had the ABB cultivar pelipita and the second had four cultivars of either BB or ABB genomic composition. The BB cultivars in this sub-clade were Pisang klutukwalung and Pisang batu while the ABB cultivar was Dole. The tetraploid cultivar Yawa (ABBT) was observed to cluster with the BB and ABB diploids and triploids respectively. Sequences for the cultivars Honduras, monthan, Pisang bakar and *M. textilis* were treated as missing data.

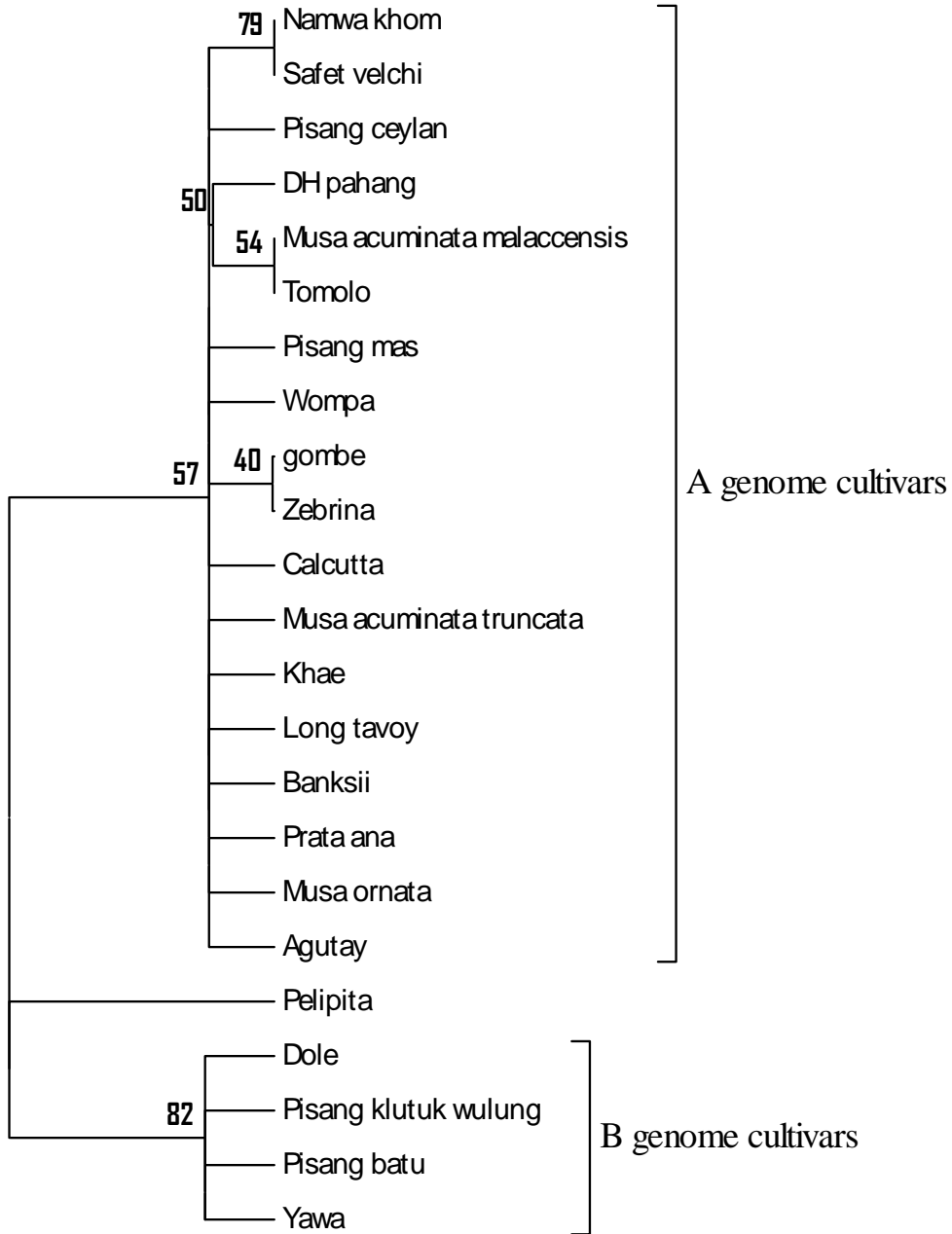


Figure 3.3: Phylogenetic positioning of different banana cultivars based on the marker *CenH3*. The numbers on top of each clade represent BP support values.

3.3.4 Haplotypes in diploids and triploids

Seven SNP positions in thirty four genotypes were used in the inference of haplotypes (Table 3.2). A total of 13 haplotypes were observed based on the 7 SNPs used (Table 3.4). Five haplotypes were common in diploids and triploids, 3 unique to diploids and 5 unique to triploids. Haplotype numbers 1, 2, 3 and 5 were observed to have the highest species representatives.

The B genome cultivars of Pisang batu (26), Honduras (13), Pisang klutuk wulung (29) and Lal velchi (18) were represented within haplotype number 1 (Table 3.4). The cultivar Lady finger (17) with the genomic composition AAB was also observed to be associated with this haplotype. Haplotype number 2 had representatives from A genome diploids and triploids as well as A and B genome interspecific triploids. The AA genomic group diploids associating with haplotype 2 were represented by the cultivars Agutay (1), Banksii (2), Khae phrae (14), DH Pahang (4) and Zebrina (37). The triploid AAA linking to this haplotype were represented by the cultivars Pisang Kayu (28) and Long tavoy (39). Moreover haplotype 2 had cultivars with AAB and ABB genomic composition closely linking to it at these 7 SNP positions. The cultivars Figue pomme geante (9), Prata ana (8), Orishele (7), Foconah (10) and Ladyfinger (17) were the AAB genomic group cultivars that were closely linking to haplotype 2. The cultivar Pelipita (24) was the only cultivar with the ABB genomic composition that had close sequence similarity to this haplotype. Haplotype number 3 had four cultivars associated Mbwarzirume (19), Timolo (35), Wompa (36) and Gombe (11) these are mainly A genome containing cultivars. Haplotype number 4 was closely associating to the cultivars Pisang klutuk walung (29) and Saba (31). Pisang klutuk walung is a BB genomic group cultivar

while the cultivar Saba is of ABB genomic composition. The cultivars Pisang ceylan (27), Tomolo (35), Prata ana (8) and Safet velchi (32) were the cultivars that were within close to haplotype 5. Haplotypes 6 to 13 had only one representative cultivar, these were Wompa (36), Zebrina (37), Safet velchi (32), Pisang ceylan (27), Prata ana (8), Red yade (38), Namwa Khom (23) and Namwa khom (23) for haplotypes 6 to 13, respectively (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Haplotypes inferred from seven SNPs of the partial *CenH3* alignment in bananas.

Haplotype number	Haplotype	Ploidies represented	Cultivars	Genomic group(s) represented
1	CGAAACT	Tripoids and diploids	5,13,15,16,17,18,26,29,31	ABB, BB and AB
2	CGAAATC	Tripoids and diploids	1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14,17, 24, 28, 37, 39	AA, AAB, ABB and AAA
3	CGAAGTC	Tripoids and diploids	11, 19, 35, 36	AA, AAA and AS
4	CGATATC	Tripoids and diploids	29, 31	BB and ABB
5	CGGAATC	Tripoids and diploids	8, 27, 32, 35	AAB, AB and AA
6	CGAAGTT	Diploid	36	AS
7	CGGAGCC	Diploid	37	AA
8	GCAAATC	Diploid	32	AB
9	CGGAGTC	Triploid	27	AAB
10	GCAAATT	Triploid	8	AAB
11	GCAATCG	Triploid	38	AAB
12	GGAATC	Triploid	23	ABB
13	GGAATT	Triploid	23	ABB

The column cultivars present indicate the cultivars that had representation within that haplotype. The cultivar numbers are as listed in the last column like they appear in Table 3.1.

3.4 DISCUSSION

The observation that the sizes of *NADH* amplicons were variable may be attributable to insertions and deletions (indels) at the 3' end of the respective cultivars. The groups BB and ABB were observed to have a larger amplicon by about 300bp hence the total length was 1500bp in comparison to cultivars with AA, AAB and AAA genomic composition that had relatively small length of approximately 1200 bp. This marker was able to pick out the B genome component in ABB and A component in AAB heterogenomic triploids, which was clearly reflected in the band sizes. The identification of genomic groups based on amplicon size differences without sequencing is a first report for bananas for this marker. This could be used in cases where one requires differentiating A from B genome containing cultivar without further analysis. The differences in band sizes could however not differentiate diploid AA and their respective homo- and heterogenomic sub-groups.

Three sections (*Eumusa*, *Rhodochlamys* and *Australimusa*) were clearly differentiated using *NADH* and *CenH3* (Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3) and they clustered into monophyletic groups. These sections have been observed to be monophyletic in other studies using both nuclear and chloroplast markers (Hippolyte *et al.*, 2012; H ibová *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2010, 2013). The observation using the marker *NADH* that the only representative of the section *Rhodochlamys*, *M. ornata* clustered with the A genome cultivars of the section *Eumusa* is consistent with other studies (Wong, 2002; Christelová *et al.*, 2011; H ibová *et al.*, 2011). These results further corroborates Wong's (2002) and Christelová *et al.* (2011) findings and suggestions that these two sections should be merged as there are no great genetic differences that warrant their positioning into different sections. Similar work to repeal the classification of *Musa* sections has already been reported (Häkkinen, 2013).

The observation in *NADH* phylogeny that the only representative of the A×S diploid cultivar 'Wompa' clustered to the *M. acuminata* clade within the section *Eumusa* supports the point made by H ibová *et al* (2010) that *M. schizocarpa* is closely related to *M. acuminata*. Alternatively this clustering can be explained on the basis that only the A genome region for this hybrid could be picked by these markers. Consequently, the AB cultivars in this study; 'Safet velchi' and 'Kunnan' did not cluster into the B genome and it attests to the observations made by Carreel *et al* (2002) that no evidence of B genome contribution to these cultivars has been identified.

The monophyly of the B genome clade is confirmation of its distinctiveness. It was observed that the B genome clade and the respective cultivars are distant to that of *M. acuminata* despite being in the same section. This observation affirms results of other studies indicating the uniqueness and monophyly of the B genome (Brown *et al.*, 2009; Creste *et al.*, 2004; De Langhe *et al.*, 2010; Perrier *et al.*, 2009; Raboin *et al.*, 2005). The species *M. ornata* of the section *Rhodochlamys* was observed to be closer to *M. acuminata* than it was to *M. balbisiana* represented by the cultivars 'Pisang batu' and 'Pisang Klutuk wulung' (Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3). This observation is consistent to the observation by Christelová *et al* (2011) on *Musa* species divergence times where B genome is shown to have diverged 27.9 million years ago (mya) while *M. ornata* of the section *Rhodochlamys* diverged 8.8 mya. Furthermore, the results affirm Simmonds (1953) work which showed that hybridization between species of section *Eumusa* and *Rhodochlamys* are successful since weak or no reproductive barrier exists between them.

The clustering of the ABB cultivar Pelipita, Monthan, Dole and Saba to the B genome clade affirms the observations made by Boonruangrod *et al* (2008) that ABB cultivars cluster to BB diploids. All the ABB cultivars used in this study clustered to BB diploids, these included cultivars: Monthan, Dole, Klui tiparot and Namwakhom. The segregation of AAB cultivars in this study affirms the results obtained by Carreel *et al* (2002), where AAB sub-groups were found to have A genome cytoplasmic constitution. The segregation of this genomic group was observed in the sequences using both markers and only using gel electrophoresis for the marker *NADH*.

The segregation based on the marker *CenH3* was similar in many ways to that of *NADH*. The two major clades representing the A and B genomes observed in *NADH* phylogeny were also observed and this shows consistency. The identification of A and B was derived by the observation that no diploid BB or AA cultivars clustered together, they were in either one of the two main clades for both markers. The major deviation to the *NADH* phylogeny was mainly in the A genome clade where this marker was unable to differentiate the sub-species. The marker *CenH3* is a nucleus based marker and hence the clustering of the A genome sub-species was expected. The segregation of the A genome subspecies *malaccensis* and *truncata* in this study compares favourably with the one observed by Wong (2002) where the two subspecies clustered separately. However this observation deviates from the placement of the subspecies *truncata* as a synonym of the subspecies *Malaccensis* Wong (2001). This study clearly differentiated the two sub-species, with *malaccensis* being strongly supported (51 BP) as a separate clade from *truncata*. The subspecies *banksii* and *siamea* (Khae (Phrae) have previously been grouped into different sub-species. The subspecies *banksii* though has been differentiated from the other *M. acuminata* clones using chloroplast and mitochondrial markers.

In this study, *banksii* was shown to cluster separate from the rest. Carreel *et al* (2002) attributed the clear segregation of this subspecies to its geographical isolation in Papua New Guinea and some north Indonesian islands. The subspecies *burmannica* (Long tavoy) and *burmannicoides* (Calcutta 4) have been shown to be closely related (Ude *et al.*, 2002), this study also confirms the same observation as the two cultivars were also observed to cluster.

The segregation within the B genome clade was consistent in both markers used and is similar in some aspect to observations made by Ude (2002) which showed that ABB cultivars were closer to BB diploids than AAB were. In this study AAB and ABB cultivars were observed to segregate into either A or B genome clade, this was observed in both *NADH* and *CenH3* markers.

Different studies have indicated that only *M. acuminata* sub-species that originated from the Islands of Southeast Asia (ISEA) have had genomic contribution to cultivated bananas (Perrier *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2013). In this study, both phylogeny and haplotype inference indicated that ISEA sub-species contributed to triploid cultivated bananas (Figure 3.2, Figure 3.3 and Table 3.4). Phylogeny using both *NADH* and *CenH3* was able to establish one major clade (Clade A) that had ISEA sub-species Zebrina, Errans, Banksii, Truncata and Malaccensis clustering. Moreover, the EAHB have been shown to have had genomic contribution from ISEA sub-species Zebrina and banksii (Perrier *et al.*, 2011). In this study EAHB cultivar Ngombe was observed to form a sub-clade with the cultivar Zebrina for the marker *CenH3* (Figure 3.3), the cultivar Ngombe was also observed to cluster in clade A with major ISEA sub-species with *NADH* affirming the study by Li *et al* (2013). Observation that the diploid cooking cultivar Tomolo was clustering with the wildtype cultivar Malaccensis

was contrary to other observations made that have linked this diploid to wildtype sub-species *Banksii* using both chloroplast and mitochondrial markers (Carreel *et al.*, 2002; De Langhe *et al.*, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2013). However, this deviation was only observed in the phylogeny with *CenH3* (Figure 3.3). This deviation can be explained by the fact that *CenH3* is a nuclear gene which is prone to recombination while *NADH* is mitochondrial where there is no recombination. Furthermore, the partial coding region of *CenH3* used in this phylogeny is the coding sequence of the *CenH3* tail region which is highly evolving (Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014), and might be evolving much faster in *Malaccensis* and *tomolo* than it is in *Banksii*.

The maternal and paternal nature of inheritance of chloroplast and mitochondrial DNA genetic material in bananas can facilitate the identification of the wild diploids that genetically contributed to diploid and triploid cultivars (Fauré *et al.*, 1993; Le *et al.*, 2007). To infer haplotypes from unphased data, only the marker *CenH3* was used, this is because the other marker *NADH* is monoparentally inherited and no crossing over should have taken place during breeding. Furthermore, no multiple peaks were observed in the sequences obtained from triploid and diploid cultivars.

Haplotype 1 mainly consisted of B genome derived haplotypes. The two haplotypes of the cultivar Kunnan (AB) were found to be closely linked to haplotype 1 which was a B genome haplotype, this suggests that only B genome diploids might have contributed to this cultivar's genome. This was contrary to observations previously made that the AB genome cultivar Kunnan has genomic contributions from only A genome cultivars and therefore suggesting that this cultivar be put in the AA genomic group (Li *et al.*, 2013). The triploid cultivars Ladyfinger (AAB), Saba (ABB) and Dole (ABB) were observed to have a haplotype

clustering to haplotype 1 which is a B-genome haplotype. This suggests that B genome diploids contributed to triploids and is in line with observations made from other studies (Perrier *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2013). However, this study could not identify which BB diploid specifically contributed to the B genome in triploids as all the cultivars representing this haplotype clustered together. The clustering of two ladyfinger haplotypes to haplotype 2 which is essentially an A-genome haplotype group, indicates that both AA haplotypes in the AAB haplotype of Ladyfinger may have originated from the same *M. acuminata* sub-species. The two haplotypes of the cultivar Wompa were related to Haplotypes 3 and 6. Haplotypes 3 had other cultivars of A genomic composition but no diploid wild type cultivars were in this haplotype. Two of the four cultivars that grouped together with Wompa in this haplotype were Gombe and Mbwazirume which are EAHB. The other cultivar with a haplotype represented in this group was the diploid cultivar Tomolo. This indicates that Tomolo may have contributed its genome to EAHB cultivars.

Two mtDNA types were identifiable with the marker *NADH* with each of the diploids and triploids under study having one of either the two types. This observation can be explained by the uniparental nature of plastid inheritance in banana. Both mitochondria and chloroplast DNA have previously been used to identify the origins of genomes in Diploid, homo- and heterogenomic banana cultivars (Carreel *et al.*, 2002; Boonruangrod *et al.*, 2009). In the present study, direct sequencing of PCR products was able to differentiate the maternal mtDNA types. This study could not conclusively identify the number of *CenH3* copies in the triploids, despite multiple copies having been observed in other stable polyploidy crops (Hui *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014). More transcripts obtained from an

equally bigger number of clones need to be sequenced to be able to make conclusions on the number of clones expressed in bananas.

However, the study was able to differentiate the A and B genomes in bananas with both *NADH* and *CenH3*. The marker *NADH* differentiated only A and B genomes while the marker *CenH3* differentiated A genome cultivars as well. The study was also able to identify the phylogenetic positions of interspecific cultivars like AAB and ABB using *NADH* and *CenH3* markers. The study also positioned the different *M. acuminata* subspecies. This work adds new nucleotide sequences for the markers *CenH3* and *NADH* for different banana species (*M. acuminata*, *M. balbisiana*, *M. textilis* and *M. ornata*), subspecies, cultivars and genomic groups (AA, AB, ABB, AAA, AAB, AS and TT) used in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DEVELOPMENT OF HAPLOID INDUCERS IN BANANAS BY MODIFICATION OF CENTROMERE SPECIFIC HISTONE 3 (CENH3) PROTEIN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Haploids are sporophyte plants containing gametophytic number of chromosomes, this is due to their origin from a single haploid cell (Germanà, 2006). The importance of doubled haploids (DHs) and haploids and the methods currently used to develop them have extensively been reviewed (Germanà, 2006; Forster *et al.*, 2007; Dunwell, 2010). Haploids are important in breeding program as they give a possibility of reducing the breeding time required to obtain completely homozygous inbred lines (Assani *et al.*, 2003; Germanà, 2006).

Haploids and consequently DH have been achieved in many plants including bananas (Snape *et al.*, 1986; Assani *et al.*, 2003; Yahata *et al.*, 2005; Grewal *et al.*, 2009; Dunwell *et al.*, 2010; Ravi and Chan, 2010; Sanei *et al.*, 2011). In most of the plant species the approaches used to develop haploids have been through either culture of anthers or microspores or through wide crosses with close relatives (Maluszynski *et al.*, 2003; Sanei *et al.*, 2011). In bananas, haploid development has been achieved in only one species (*M. balbisiana*) through anther culture; the success rate was however very low (Assani *et al.*, 2003).

Despite the success with the two major methods in a number of plants, haploid development has not been widely taken up by researchers and breeders because these methods are cultivar and species specific and not reproducible (Ravi and Chan, 2010). An approach of replacing

the endogenous histone protein with altered histone protein was shown to produce inducer lines that when crossed with wildtype cultivar produce haploids in *A. thaliana* (Ravi and Chan, 2010).

The gene constructs that carried the RNAi silencing mechanism as well as the selection marker and mutant *CenH3* were inserted in the plant through *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* mediated transformation (Ravi and Chan, 2010). The same approach was explored in the current study in bananas. Experiments were conducted to develop haploid inducer lines which will in future be used to develop haploid and doubled haploids.

4.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.2.1 Plant materials, multiplication and production of multiple bud clumps

Two diploid cultivars *õ*Zebrina GFö and *õ*Calcutta 4ö (AA genomic group) were used for transformation experiments. The plant materials were obtained from IITA- Uganda. The plants were multiplied by culturing in proliferation media (Table 4.1) following protocol described by Tripathi *et al.* (2008). All plants in proliferation media were sub-cultured monthly and placed in a growth room at 28 °C with a 16 h photoperiod provided by a cool white fluorescent tube (Philips, Amsterdam, Netherlands). Multiple bud clumps were initiated by excising white buds (approximately 2 mm) developing at the base of plants in proliferation media. These buds were cultured in P4 media containing high amounts of BAP (Table 4.1) and kept at 28 °C in the dark. Buds were sub-cultured at monthly intervals in fresh P4 medium in order to obtain multiple bud clumps. The multiple buds were used for *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation experiments.

Table 4.1: Composition of different media used in the transformation and tissues culture of bananas

Name of medium	Composition
Selection medium	1 x MS ^a salts with vitamins, 100 mg/L AA, 5 mg/L BAP, 3% Sucrose, 0.24% gelrite, 300 mg/L cefotaxime and 100 mg/L Kanamycin
Infection medium	1 x MS salts with vitamins, 100 mg/L AA, 22.7 mg/L BAP, 3% Sucrose, 100 µg/L IAA, 100 mM Acetocyringone
Co-cultivation Medium	1 x MS salts with vitamins, 100mg/L AA, 5 mg/L BAP, 3% Sucrose, 0.24 % gelrite
Resting medium	1 x MS salts with vitamins, 100mg/L AA, 5 mg/L BAP, 3% Sucrose, 300mg/L Cefotaxime, 0.24% gelrite
P4 medium	1 x MS salts with vitamins, 100mg/L AA, 22.7 mg/L BAP, 3% Sucrose , 100 µg/L IAA, 0.3% gelrite
Proliferation medium	1 x MS salts with vitamins, 100mg/L AA, 5 mg/L BAP, 3% Sucrose, 0.24% gelrite
Rooting medium	1 x MS salts with vitamins, 100mg/L AA, 3% Sucrose, 1mg/L IBA, 0.24% gelrite
Luria bertani broth (LB broth)	10 g/L Tryptone, 10g/L Sodium chloride (NaCl), 5 g yeast extract and Agar 20 g/L.
Luria bertani agar (LB agar)	10 g/L Tryptone, 10 g/L Sodium chloride (NaCl), 5 g yeast extract

^a-Murashige and Skoog (1962), IAA-Indole acetic acid, BAP - N6-benzylaminopurine, IBA-Indole butaric acid and AA-Ascorbic acid

4.2.2 RNAi plasmid constructs

Plasmid constructs were obtained from the laboratory of Simon Chan, University of California at Davis. Three different constructs with a similar structure were obtained (Figure 4.1). The three similar components in the constructs were: the selectable marker, the mutant and reporter genes and the RNAi component. The plant selection was based on a Kanamycin resistance gene also described as neomycin phosphotransferase type II (*nptII*) that was driven by Cassava mosaic virus 35S (CaMV35S) promoter and terminated by CaMV35S terminator. The second component was the mutant and reporter gene Green Fluorescent protein (*GFP*) (Figure 4.1 A, B and C).

Despite the similarity there were also differences in two main aspects, the nature of mutant gene and/or the presence or absence of *GFP* reporter gene. The construct *GFP-tailswap* (Figure 4.1A) was similar to *Tailswap* (Figure 4.1B) in terms of the mutant genes used and different in the absence of *GFP* tag in *tailswap*. The modified version of *CenH3* replacing the endogenous one after RNAi silencing in *tailswap* and *GFP-tailswap* was obtained by replacing the tail end of endogenous *CenH3* with that of banana histone H3.3 (Another variant of histone 3) and retaining the histone fold domain (HFD). The construct *GFP-CENH3* (Figure 4.1C) on the other hand had a mutant gene different from *tailswap* and *GFP-tailswap*. The mutant gene in *GFP-CENH3* was an endogenous *CenH3* having the codon usage modified with a total of 156 out of the 471 nucleotides. Just like the construct *GFP-tailswap*, the construct *GFP-CENH3* also had the reporter gene *GFP* tagged to the mutant *CenH3*. The mutant gene and the reporter genes were both driven and terminated by the endogenous banana *CenH3* promoter and terminator. The third component in the constructs, the RNAi was

common in all the constructs. It consisted of maize ubiquitin promoter driving inverse repeats of endogenous *CenH3* which were flanking a yabby 5 intron. This component was terminated by the NOS terminator (Fig 4.1A, B and C).

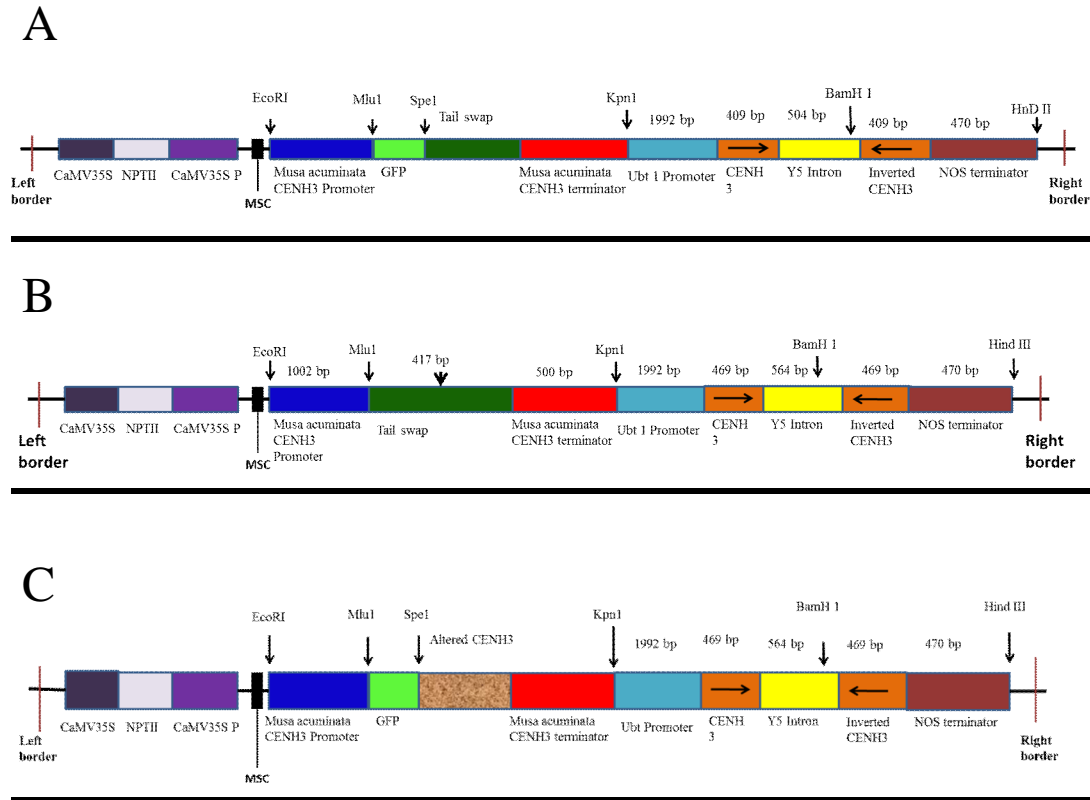


Figure 4.1: Schematic presentation of the three different *RNAi* constructs used in the transformations of bananas. *A-GFP-tailswap*, *B-Tailswap*, *C-GFP-CenH3*, the *GFP-tailswap* and *GFP-CenH3* have a GFP tag while tailswap doesn't. *GFP-tailswap* and *Tailswap* have the endogenous C-terminal tail substituted with H3.3 terminal while *GFP-CenH3* has the endogenous *CenH3* codon usage changed

4.2.3.3 Preparation and transformation of competent bacterial cells

Competent cells were prepared from host *E. coli* strain DH5 by initiating from glycerol stock. This was streaked on plain Luria Bertani (LB) plates (Table 4.1) and incubated at 37 °C

overnight. A single colony was cultured in 10 ml of LB broth at 37 °C overnight. A new culture of 500 ml was initiated with 1ml of the overnight culture and shaken at 37 °C to an optical density (OD) of 0.5 after 2-3 hrs. The culture was centrifuged and the pellet resuspended in 10 ml of 100 mM MgCl and 10% glycerol (1:1) ratio. This was then centrifuged at 3000 g in an eppendorf 5810 R centrifuge (Hamburg, Germany) for 10 min and resuspended in 10 ml of 100 mM MgCl and 100 mM CaCl₂ (1:1) ratio.

The final pellet was resuspended in 5 ml of 100 mM CaCl₂ and aliquoted in 50 µl volume in sterile 1.5 ml eppendorf® tubes and stored at -80 °C. The competent cells were used for transformation with the three constructs. Transformation was done through heat shock method (Froger and Hall, 2007). The 50 µl competent cells were thawed on ice and 50ng of the plasmid DNA added. The cells were left on ice for 10 min, they were then heat shocked at 42 °C for 45 sec and immediately transferred into ice for 2 min. After that, 800 µl of LB broth was added and the cells were incubated at 37 °C for 1 hr with gentle shaking. One hundred microliters of the transformed cells were plated on LB supplemented with 50mg/L kanamycin and incubated at 37 °C overnight. A single colony was cultured in 10ml LB supplemented with 50 mg/L kanamycin and again incubated overnight at 37 °C. The plasmid was extracted from the cell culture using Qiagen miniprep® plasmid extraction kit (Biozek, Kenya). Plasmid extracted from *E. coli* was validated (as described in section 4.2.3.4) and used further to transform *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*.

Electro-competent cells of the *A. tumefaciens* strain EHA105 were prepared as described by Gonzales *et al.* (2013). Fresh culture of EHA105 was started by streaking glycerol stock on LB plate supplemented with 50 mg/L rifampicin and incubating plates at 28 °C for 24 hrs.

Two day culture was initiated from a single colony grown on the plate. A 500 ml culture was initiated from 2 ml of the 24 hrs culture and grown for 4-5 hrs to an OD of 0.5. The culture was centrifuged and the pellet washed 4 times with 10% glycerol and resuspended in 5 ml of 10% glycerol. The suspension was aliquoted in 100 µl volume. The electro-competent cells were transformed with 100 ng of the plasmid DNA through electroporation in a Biorad GenePulserXcell[®] (Hercules, CA) set at 2500 volts (V), 25 millifarad (µF) and 200 Ohms (). Transformed cells were plated on LB supplemented with 50 mg/L rifampicin and 50 mg/L kanamycin. A colony was picked after 2 days and cultured in LB broth supplemented with 50 mg/L rifampicin and 50 mg/L kanamycin overnight to an OD of between 0.6-0.8. The plasmids were also re-extracted for validation and the *A. tumefaciens* culture containing the right plasmid was used to transform explants and 25% glycerol stock with 1ml aliquot stored at -80 °C.

4.2.3.4 Validation of plasmid constructs

Integrity of the plasmid constructs was done for both *E. coli* and *A. tumefaciens* harbouring them. Plasmid was extracted from *E. coli* and *A. tumefaciens* using Qiagen plasmid miniprep kit. Presence of plasmid was confirmed by running on a 1.5% agarose gel. Plasmid DNA integrity in *E. coli* was validated by both restriction digest using the enzymes *Hind*III and *Eco*RI and by PCR while those from *A. tumefaciens* were validated using PCR only. The primer pairs CENH3-T-F GGTGGCCACTGAAGATAC and Ubi-R TTATTACGGCGGGCGAGGAAGG designed with the forward binding on the *CenH3* terminator and reverse on the maize ubiquitin promoter amplifying a product size of 1184 bp were used for validation in both *E. coli* and *A. tumefaciens*. The PCR conditions were set at initial denaturation of 94 °C for 4 min, 35 cycles of 94 °C for 30 secs, annealing temperature

of 62 °C for 30 secs, extension temperature of 72 °C for 1 min, the products were finally extended at 72 °C for 5 min.

4.2.3.5 Preparation of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* culture

Agrobacterium tumefaciens cultures of 0.6-0.8 OD harbouring the plasmids were centrifuged at 3000 rcf for 10 min at 4 °C to harvest cells. Harvested cells were resuspended in 10ml of infection media (Table 4.1) supplemented with 100 µM acetosyringone. Resuspended *A. tumefaciens* culture was incubated at 28 °C for 2 hrs with gentle shaking of 150 rcf.

4.2.4 Explant preparation and genetic transformation

Intercalary meristems (IM) (Figure 4.2 A and B) and multiple bud clumps (MBC) (Figure 4.2D) were used as the explants for transformation. Preconditioned buds were immersed in *A. tumefaciens* re-suspended in infection media supplemented with 100 µM acetosyringone and vacuum infiltrated for 10 secs and further cultured for 30 min at room temperature. The explants were blotted on sterile tissue paper to remove excess bacteria and cultured for three days on co-cultivation media (Table 4.1) at 22 °C in the dark. The explants were transferred to resting media (Table 4.1) supplemented with 300 mg/L cefotaxime for 10 days and kept in growth room at 26 ± 2 °C and 16 hr photoperiod. The explants were transferred to selection media (Table 4.1) supplemented with 100 mg/L kanamycin and 300 mg/L cefotaxime with sub-culturing to fresh medium fortnightly until shoots were obtained. The developed shoots were transferred to proliferation media (Table 4.1) for maintenance and multiplication.

Explants (IM) were obtained by cutting two thin meristematic disks approximately 0.3-0.4 mm in thickness from the meristematic region of the corm as described by Tripathi *et al.*

(2008) (Figure 4.2). These disks were used as explants for transformation with the three plasmid constructs (*GFP-tailswap*, *Tailswap* and *GFP-CENH3*). The disks were put in preconditioning media (Table 4.1) for two days prior to transformation (Tripathi *et al.*, 2008). Just like MBCs, the explants were immersed in *A. tumefaciens* culture, vacuum infiltrated, blotted and co-cultivated, rested and selected in media supplemented with Kanamycin (100 mg/L) and Cefotaxime (300 mg/L) (Table 4.1). The transformed explants were cultured in selection medium with monthly subculture in the same selection for four monthly cycles.

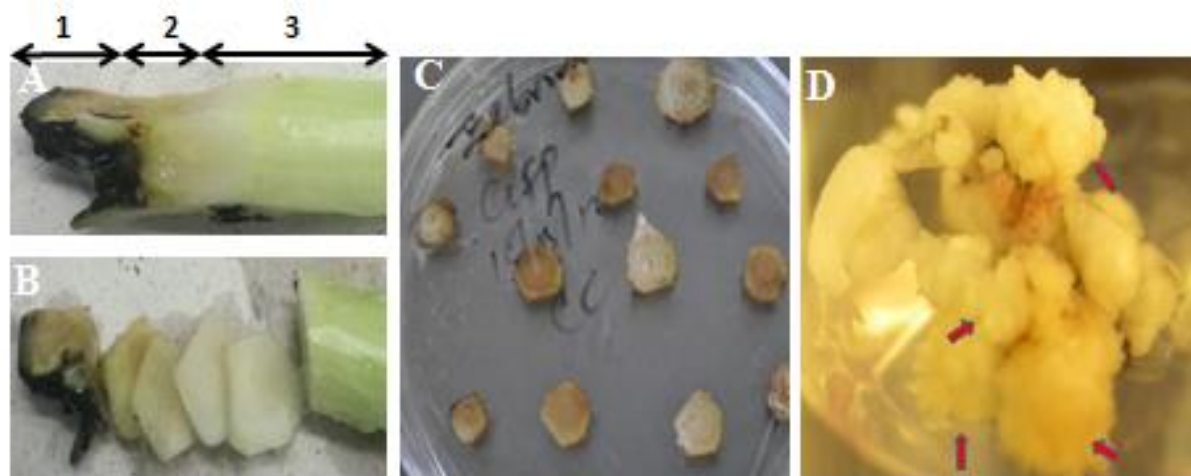


Figure 4.2: Explants of bananas that were used in transformation with *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* harbouring RNAi gene constructs. A-shows the different regions in banana (1-corm, 2-intercalary meristematic region, 3-pseudostem), B-shows excised intercalary meristems., C- pre-conditioned intercalary meristems and D-multiple buds, arrows indicate buds forming cauliflower-like clumps that were transformed.

4.2.5 Molecular analysis of transgenic plants

4.2.5.1 DNA extraction and PCR analysis of putative transgenic plants

Genomic DNA was extracted from young leaves of putative transgenic lines using Qiagen DNAeasy® plant mini prep Kit with slight modifications to the manufacturer's protocol. Modification was at the washing step where 350 µl of washing buffer was used thrice instead of twice with 500µl. Presence of transgene in plant genome was confirmed through PCR analysis using primers spanning the mutant gene and the maize ubiquitin promoter. The primers used were: CENH3-T-F CAGAAGGATCGGCGGCAGGAG and Ubi-R TTATTACGGCGGGCGAGGAAGG. PCR was performed in 20 µl reactions using Qiagen PCR kit, containing 1X of buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl, 0.4 mM dNTP containing each of the dATP, dCTP, dGTP and dTTP. The PCR cycle had an initial denaturation step at 94 °C for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles of 94 °C for 30 secs, 62 °C for 30 secs and extension at 72 °C for one min. The final extension of 72 °C was set at ten min. PCR products were separated on a 1.5% agarose gel stained with GelRed.

4.2.5.2 RNA extraction, RT-PCR and Northern blot analysis

RNA was extracted from 100 mg of both root tips and young leaves using the Qiagen RNAeasy® plant RNA extraction kit and guanidium thiocyanate method (Chomczynski and Sacchi, 2006) with a few modifications to the protocol. Modifications were at the phenol step, where this step was replaced with an initial wash with chloroform followed by a chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (49:1) step.

RNA was quantified using Nanodrop® 2000 (Thermoscientific, MA, USA) spectrophotometer and RNA concentration was adjusted to 250 ng/μl. RNA was treated with RNase-free DNaseI (Thermoscientific, MA, USA) and 2 μg of RNA was used for cDNA synthesis. First strand cDNA synthesis was performed with revertaid cDNA synthesis kit (Thermoscientific, MA, USA) with random primers. The primers *CenH3_END_F* (GGCGAGAACGAAGCATC) and *CenH3_END_R* (TCACCAATGTCTTCTTCCTCC) were used for PCR amplification of cDNA in ABI 9700 machine with cycling conditions set at initial denaturation of 94 °C for 5 min, 35 cycles of 94 °C denaturation for 30 secs, 62 °C annealing for 30 secs, extension at 72 °C for 1 min and a final extension of 72 °C for 10 min. The RT-PCR products were run on a 1.5% agarose gel and stained with GelRed®. The relative intensity of the 471 bp product between the transgenic and non-transgenic plants was used to determine the relative expression of transgenic plants to non-transgenic.

Northern blot was performed to detect accumulation of small interfering RNA (siRNA). The analysis was performed with twelve transgenic plants (2 lines of *GFP-Tailswap*, 3 lines of *tailswap* and 6 lines of *GFP-CENH3* and 1 plant of non-transgenic). Labeled RNA probe was synthesized by *in vitro* transcription of linearized DNA template which was obtained by PCR amplification of target gene (endogenous *CenH3*). The plasmid DNA of *GFP-Tailswap* construct was used as a *CenH3* template to synthesize the RNA labelled probe. The primers that amplified *CenH3* were designed with the forward having SP6 RNA polymerase promoter sequence and the reverse having that of T7 promoter sequence.

The primers also had part of the sequence derived from banana *CenH3*. The primers used were:

CENH3_RNA_F:ATTTAGGTGACACTATAGGGCGAGAACGAAGCATC and the CENH3_RNA_R: CCCTATAGTGAGTCGTATTATCACCAATGTCTTCTTCCTCC. The conditions were set at initial denaturation of 94 °C for 5 min, 35 cycles of 94 °C denaturation for 30 secs, 64 °C annealing for 30 secs, extension at 72 °C for 1 min and a final extension of 72 °C for 10 mins. The PCR products were purified using Bioneer PCR purification kit and eluted in 15 µl volume for use in RNA *in vitro* transcription. *CenH3* RNA was labelled with digoxigenin-11-UTP (DIG-dUTP) during transcription and this was used to probe RNA from transgenic and non-transgenic plants. Eight microgram of RNA earlier extracted was denatured at 65 °C for 5 min and then placed on ice for two min before loading into the precast urea gel. RNA was transferred to a hybond-N+ nylon membrane (GE, USA) in a 20X20 cm Semi-dry blotter unit (SCIE-PLAS, England).

The RNA was fixed on the membrane by UV cross linking twice in the auto cross link feature in the cross linker followed by hybridization. Diogoxigenin (DIG) Easy Hyb buffer was pre-warmed at 68 °C and the membrane was pre-hybridized for 30 min with gentle agitation in a glass tube. Five µl of the *CenH3* RNA probe earlier transcribed was added to 1ml of DIG Easy Hybridization buffer and denatured by heating at 95 °C for 5 min and cooled on ice for 2 min. This was then added to 9ml of pre-warmed DIG Easy hybridization buffer and used for hybridization. The pre-hybridization buffer was removed and 10 ml hybridization buffer added to the glass tube containing the membrane and incubated at 51 °C overnight in hybridization oven.

The membrane was washed in two cycles of 5 min each with 0.1 SSC at 68 °C with constant agitation followed by two washes of 15 min each with 0.1 × SSC, 0.1% SDS at 68 °C. The membrane was then rinsed for 5 min in washing buffer (0.1 M Maleic acid, 0.15 M NaCl; pH

7.5 (20 °C); 0.3% (v/v) Tween 20) and then incubated with 100 ml of blocking solution (10X blocking solution stock diluted to 1X with maleic acid buffer (0.1 M Maleic acid, 0.15 M NaCl₂; pH adjusted to 7.5 with NaOH (pellets)). The membrane was then incubated for 30 min in 50 ml antiDIG antibody solution. Washing was done for 15 min twice in 100 ml of washing buffer and then equilibrated for 5 min in detection buffer. The membrane was developed by applying CDP-*star* ready to use until it was evenly soaked. The membrane was spread on a development cassette and all the air bubbles removed. An X-ray film was put on top of the membrane and the cassette tightly closed in the dark. The cassette was incubated at 37 °C overnight and developed in the dark.

4.2.6 Fluorescent microscopy

Localization of CENH3 in the centromere was observed through fluorescence of the GFP tag. GFP was visualized using a fluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axioimager, Zeiss) fitted with a 100W mercury lamp. Slides were made from thin sections of root tips and directly mounted to the slide without fixation. The tissue was stained using 4', 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) which stains the nucleus blue. DAPI has an excitation wavelength of 375 nm and absorption of 470 while GFP was observed at an excitation wavelength of 470 nm and emission of 570 nm. Ten Z-stack images for both DAPI and GFP were combined and saved as tiff images.

4.2.7 Transfer of plants into the field and glasshouse

Twenty seven transgenic lines (Appendix 1) were multiplied and rooted and then transferred to pots in glasshouse. The plants were transferred into sterile soil in small pots (~5 cm diameter) and kept in a humid chamber for one month for acclimatization. The plants were

then transferred to medium size pots (~20 cm diameter) and kept for 4 months before transferring to big pots (1 m diameter) where they were grown to flowering. In all these stages, the plants were watered regularly. Non-transgenic plants were multiplied in Proliferation medium rooted in rooting medium and acclimatized in sterile soil then planted in the field at International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) Nairobi, Kenya. The plants were planted in holes with a diameter of 3 feet and a similar depth (3 feet) with spacing of 3x3 meters.

4.2.8 Data collection and statistical analysis

Transformation efficiencies were calculated by dividing the number of PCR positive lines with the the initial number of explants used for transformation multiplied by 100. Statistical analysis was performed on the number of PCR positive lines obtained, number of leaves and pseudostem base diameter for transgenic plants in the glasshouse and control plants. Analysis for the experiments in which MBCs were used as the transformation explants was performed independently. Experiment number five was omitted since it used IM as the explants and could not be compared with those that used different explants. To check whether the construct type had an effect on the number of putatively transformed events, a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted.

Agronomic data was collected for two major traits, the basal diameter of the pseudostem and the number of functional leaves. The pseudostem basal width of 5 representative lines per construct and for the control was collected. Data was collected 6 months after establishment of plants in the glass house. Two-way ANOVA with replication was used in the analysis; the

interaction between the constructs for each of the traits was checked. All statistical analyses were performed in excel 2007 (Microsoft corporation, Redmont, WA, USA).

4.3 RESULTS

4.3.1 Plant multiplication and production of multiple bud clumps

Plants obtained from Uganda were successfully multiplied in tissue culture through micropropagation. The cultivar 'Zebrina GFØ was observed to be more proliferative than 'Calcutta 4Ø. Each explant of 'Zebrina GFØ produced on average 4-5 shoot buds while 'Calcutta 4Ø had 1-3 shoot buds in 4 weeks after sub-culturing. The shoot buds of both cultivars cultured in P4 media multiplied to form cauliflower-like structures in about 7 months and 16 months in 'Zebrina GFØ and 'Calcutta 4Ø respectively.

4.3.2 Transformation of *E.coli* and *A.tumefaciens* cells and validation of plasmid constructs

Transformation and consequent plating of both *E. coli* and *A. tumefaciens* in LB agar containing the respective antibiotics resulted in individual colonies (Fig 4.3A and B). On digestion of the extracted plasmids with *HindIII* and *EcoRI* two clear bands of the expected sizes were obtained and the sizes of the digested fragments were variable depending on the constructs. The fragment sizes obtained were 8742 and 6604 bp for *GFP-tailswap* plasmid, 8742 and 5883 for *Tailswap* plasmid and 8742 and 6658 bp for *GFP-CENH3* plasmid (Figure 4.3C). All the plasmids extracted from *A. tumefaciens* were positive on PCR amplification (Figure 4.3D) with an expected fragment sizes of ~830 bp.

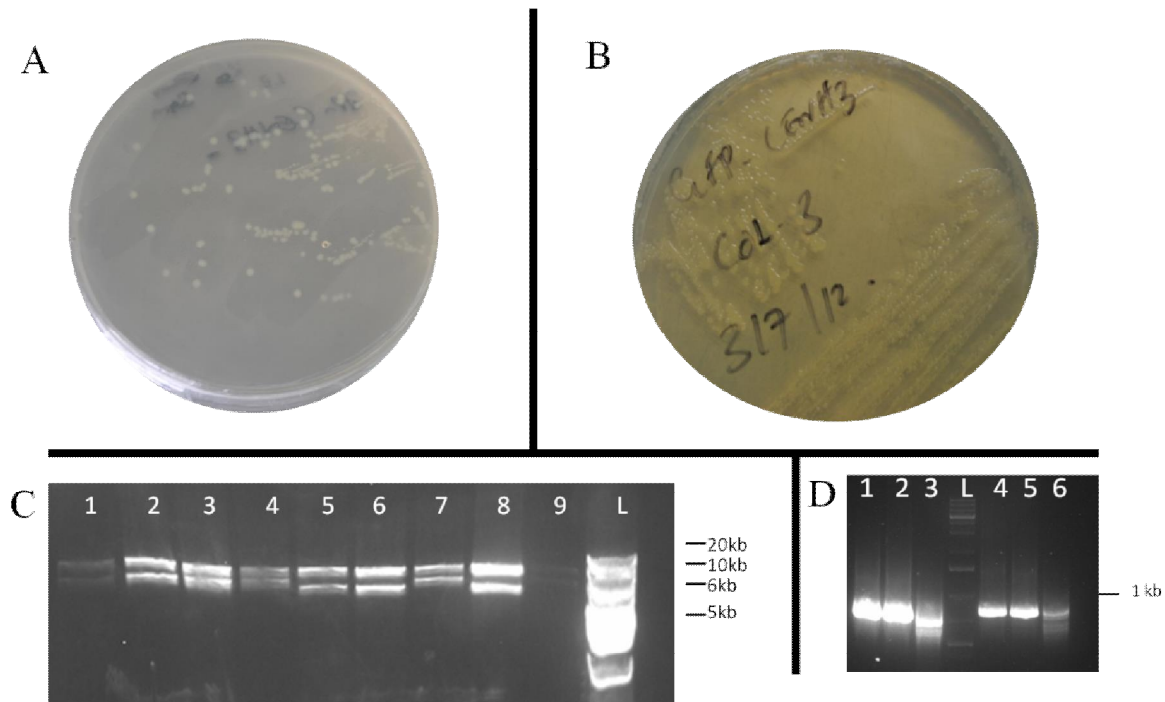


Figure 4.3: Sample cultures of *E. coli* and *A. tumefaciens* transformed with RNAi constructs and their validation using restriction digest and PCR. A - Colonies of *E. coli*, B ó Colonies of *A. tumefaciens*, C ó Restriction digest of plasmid constructs with *Hind*III and *Eco*RI enzymes. Lanes 1, 2 and 3 represent the construct *GFP-tailswap*, lanes 4, 7 and 9 *Tailswap* while lanes 5, 6 and 8 are *GFP-CENH3*. D ó Lanes 1-3 is PCR analysis of (*GFP-tailswap*, *tailswap* and *GFP-CENH3* respectively) constructs obtained from *E. coli*, 4-6 is PCR analysis of the same constructs obtained from *A. tumefaciens*. L - 1kb plus DNA ladder (thermoscientific).

4.3.3 Genetic transformation and plant regeneration

Genetic transformation of the cultivar *-Zebrina GFø* and the consequent selection and regeneration resulted in shoot initiation within the first 6 weeks on selection medium. A total of 59 putative transgenic lines were generated on selective medium in this cultivar with all the 3 constructs (Table 4.2) using both type of explants (MBC and IM) in about 9-10 months. Transformation with the constructs *GFP-tailswap* and *Tailswap* had generated 9 and 8

putative transgenic lines, respectively while the construct *GFP-CenH3* had a total of 42 lines. The control non-transformed explants did not develop any shoots on selection medium (100 mg/L kanamycin). Eleven putative transformants (1 line for *GFP-tailswap*, 1 line for *Tailswap* and 9 lines for *GFP-CENH3*) were obtained on transformation of intercalary meristem and the remaining 48 transformants (8 lines for *GFP-tailswap*, 7 lines for *tailswap* and 33 lines for *GFP-CENH3*) were produced from MBCs (Table 4.2). All the transgenic lines generated were from *-Zebrina GFØ* and no plants were obtained with the cultivar *-Calcutta 4Ø*. Results obtained from statistical analysis on the number of plants obtained per construct indicated that there was a significant difference in transformation efficiencies with the three constructs (p-value 0.09).

Based on MBCs as explants, the construct *GFP-tailswap* was observed to have a transformation efficiency of 1.17% and construct *GFP-CenH3* had an efficiency of 1.67%, whereas construct *Tailswap* showed lowest efficiency of 0.83% (Table 4.2). Based on IM, the efficiencies of transformation were 1% for *GFP-Tailswap* and *Tailswap* and 3% for *GFP-CenH3* construct. The transgenic shoots produced roots 6 weeks after culturing on rooting media and these were transferred into the glass house in sterile soil. Eight lines of *GFP-tailswap*, 6 of *Tailswap* and 12 lines of *GFP-CenH3*, after validation by PCR, were successfully hardened and transferred into the glasshouse (Appendix 1). Both transgenic and non-transgenic plants of *-Zebrina GFØ* under glasshouse conditions did not flower within 18 months after establishment. Under field conditions, non-transgenic plants of *-Zebrina GFØ* flowered in 18 months while those of *Calcutta 4* under the same field conditions flowered in 7 months.

Table 4.2: Transformation efficiencies of banana cv. ‘Zebrina GF’ with different RNAi constructs using multiple bud clumps (MBCs) and intercalary meristems (IM) as the explants.

Construct	Total number of explants transformed		Putative transgenic lines generated		PCR positive lines		Flourescent positive lines (\pm SE)		Transformation efficiency* %	
	IM	MBC	IM	MBC	IM	MBC	IM	MBC	IM	MBC
<i>GFP_Tailswap</i>	100	600	1	8	1	7	1 \pm 0.01	7 \pm 0.72	1	1.17
<i>Tailswap</i>	100	600	1	7	1	5	NA	NA	1	0.83
<i>GFP_CENH3</i>	100	600	9	33	3	10	3 \pm 0.54	9 \pm 0.68	3	1.67

* Transformation efficiency was calculated as no. of transgenic lines generated (PCR confirmed)/ total number of explants transformed x 100.

IM ó Intercalary meristem

MBCs ó multiple bud clumps

4.3.4 PCR analysis of putative transgenic plants

The expected band size of 500bp was obtained in PCR analysis using primer pair overlapping modified *CenH3* and maize ubiquitin promoter (Fig 4.4A, B andC). All the 59 putative transgenic lines were tested by PCR analysis and 27 lines were found to be positive amplifying expected size of fragment (Table 4.2). Analysis resulted in 8 PCR positives for the *GFP-tailswap* lines (Figure 4.4 A lanes 1-8), 6 PCR positives of the *Tailswap* lines (Figure 4.4B lanes 2 and 4-8) and 13 PCR positives of the *GFP-CenH3* lines (Figure 4.4C lanes 2, 5-8, 12, 17, 21, 31, 34 and 35). There was no amplification observed in the non-transgenic control plants.

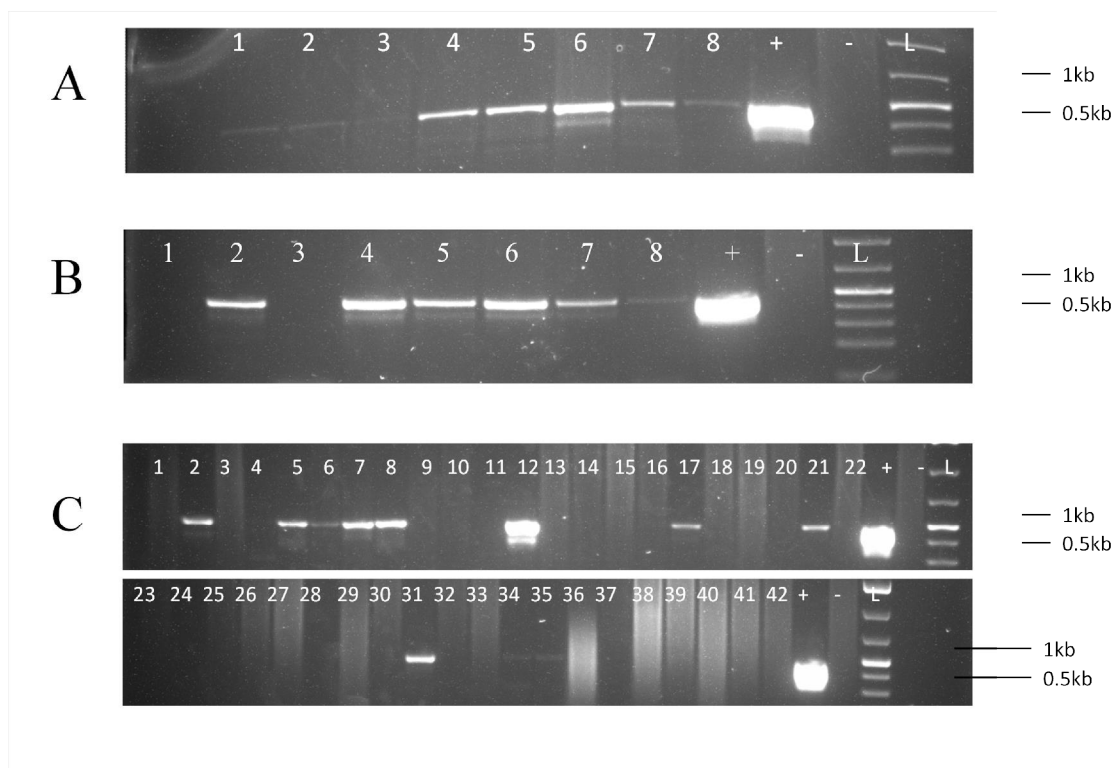


Figure 4.4: PCR analysis of the transgenic lines obtained from transformation of diploid banana ‘Zebrina GF’ with the three RNAi constructs. A-*GFP-tailswap* lines, B-*tailswap* lines, C-*GFP-CENH3* lines, +∅ plasmid positive control, ÷ non-transgenic control and L-1kb plus fermentas ladder. All numbers indicated the transgenic lines for the respective construct.

4.3.5 RT-PCR analysis of transgenic lines

The endogenous *CenH3* was expressed in all the transgenic lines at variable levels. The expression levels of endogenous *CenH3* were observed to be higher in rapidly dividing cells than in slow-dividing ones (2 weeks old root tips have few differentiating cells relative to 3 weeks old). RNA extracted from 2 weeks old root tips were observed to have higher *CenH3* expression than that from 3 weeks old.

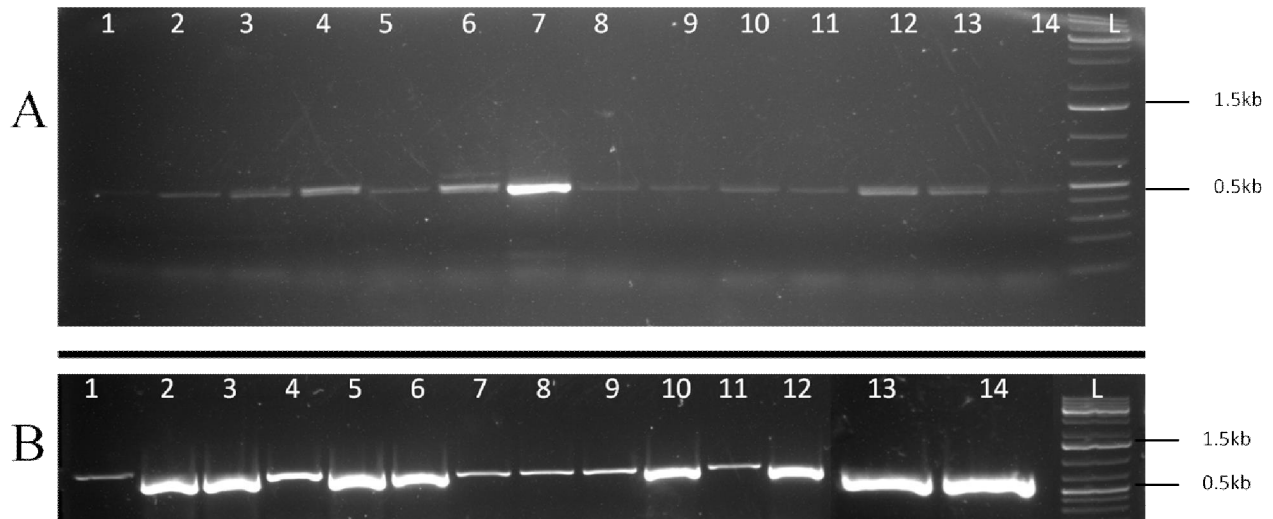


Figure 4.5: RT-PCR products showing expression of banana endogenous *CenH3* and the control gene Glycerol Dehyde 3 Phosphate Dehydrogenase (*GAPDH*) in selected transgenic lines in comparison to non-transgenic control in two weeks old plants. A-Expression of endogenous *CenH3* in selected transgenic lines, B-Expression of *GAPDH* for transgenic lines. Lane 1-4 *GFP-Tailswap* lines, 5-9 *Tailswap* lines, 10-13 *GFP-CenH3* lines and 14 non-transgenic control, L is 1kb plus Fermentas ladder. Expression for both genes was performed using RNA extracted from root tips at two weeks post culturing on rooting medium.

The internal control gene (*GAPDH*) amplified at both 2 weeks (Figure 4.5B) and 3 weeks (Figure 4.6 B) indicating accumulation of RNA. Only two *GFP-Tailswap* lines were found to

have high levels of silencing (Figure 4.5A lanes 1 and 5). For *Tailswap*, two lines were observed to have high levels of *CenH3* (Figure 4.5 A lanes 8 and 9) silencing while 4 *GFP-CenH3* lines were found to have high silencing (Figure 4.5A lanes 10, 11, 13 and 14). The internal control was used to make sure that any failure to amplify was not a result of RNA preparation (Figures 4.5B and 4.6B).

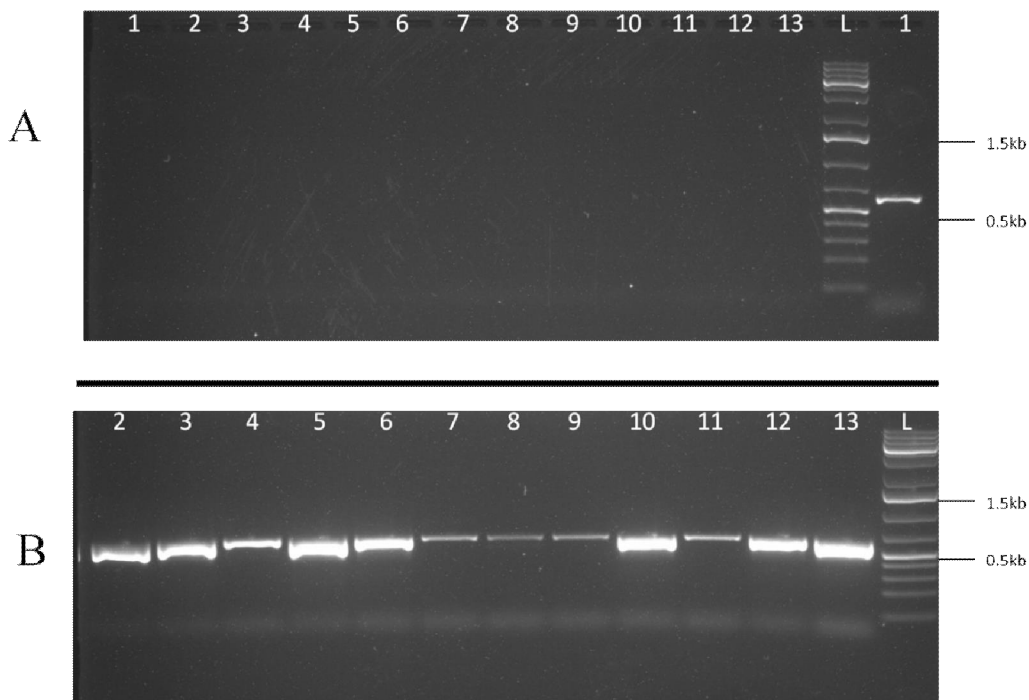


Figure 4.6: RT-PCR products for *CenH3* and *GAPDH* showing expression in 3 weeks old plants. A ó No *CenH3* expression was observed in roots at 3 weeks. B-Expression of the *GAPDH* internal control gene was observed at 3 weeks. Lanes 1-12 are transgenic lines, with four lines per construct for *GFP-Tailswap*, *Tailswap* and *GFP-CenH3* respectively, lane 13 is the non-transgenic while L is 1kb plus fermentas ladder.

4.3.6 Northern blot analysis

Analysis of plants for siRNA accumulation indicated variable levels of silencing. There were transgenic plants that had high levels of siRNA while others indicated lower levels of accumulation. No siRNA accumulation was observed in the non transgenic plants (Figure 4.7). The siRNA accumulation was observed to correlate positively with *CenH3* silencing observed in RT-PCR. Lines that had higher levels of *CenH3* silencing were observed to have higher levels of siRNA accumulation. The *GFP-CENH3* lines 8, 10 and 11 were observed to have high siRNA accumulation (they equally had higher *CenH3* silencing Figure 4.5A lanes 9, 11 and 14).



Figure 4.7: Northern blot analysis of randomly selected transgenic lines and non-transgenic plant showing accumulation of siRNAs. WT is the wild type (Non-transgenic plant), 1 ó 11 are transgenic lines. Lanes 1 and 2 indicate lower siRNA accumulation relative to other transgenic lines in lanes 3-11.

4.3.7 Fluorescent microscopy

Fluorescent microscopy resulted in clear expression of GFP for the two constructs *GFP-Tailswap* and *GFP-CenH3* that had a GFP tag (Figure 4.8 A and B). Green spots representing GFP expression were observed in the nucleus and this was clearly visible at 100X oil immersion magnification. Variable intensities of fluorescence were observed depending on the age at which the roots were excised with 2 weeks old roots having high intensities. The counter stain DAPI was observed to stain the nucleus blue, this was observed in both control non-transgenic (Figure

4.8 C) lines and transgenic lines (Figure 4.8D). No green spots were visible in non-transgenic at the GFP-channel (Figure 4.8E).

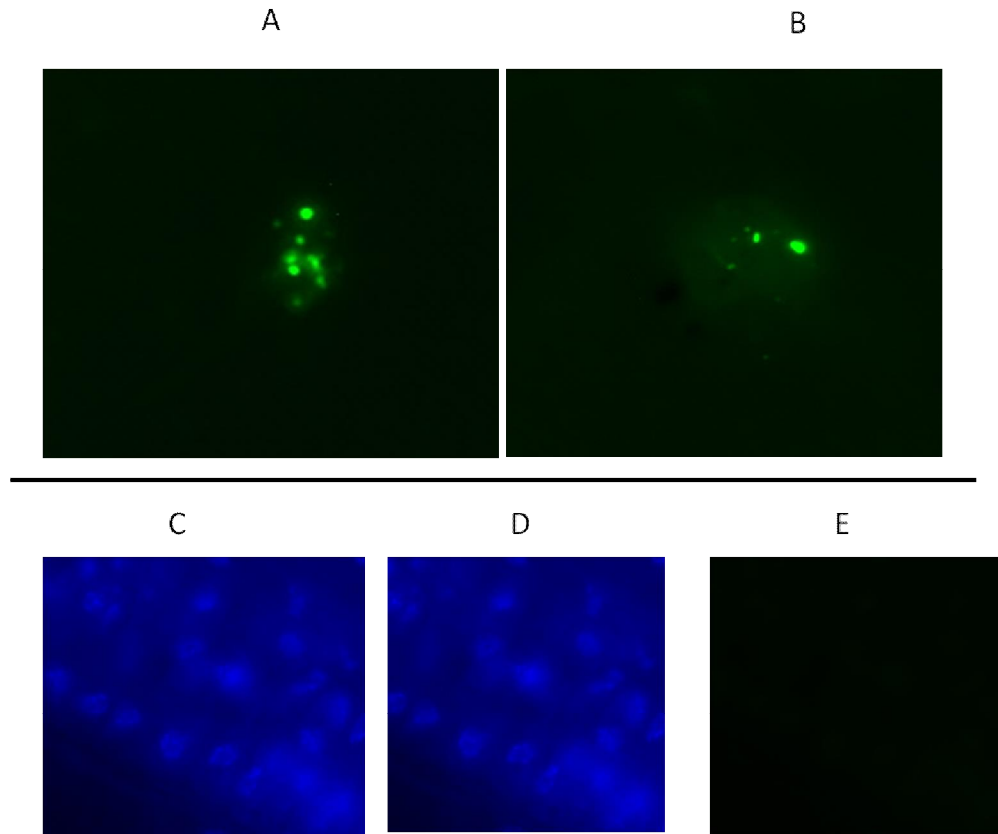


Figure 4.8: Fluorescent microscopy of transgenic plants having a green fluorescent protein (GFP) and control non-transgenic lines. A δ GFP-*Tailswap* line taken at the GFP Channel indicating the cenH3 localization (green dots), B δ GFP-*CenH3* root tip taken at GFP Channel showing CENH3 fluorescence, C δ DAPI Channel showing fluorescence of the nucleus in non-transgenic plant, D δ transgenic plant at the DAPI channel showing the blue spots in the nucleus and E δ GFP δ channel for non-transgenic plant without the GFP spots in the nucleus.

4.3.8 Agronomic performance of plants in field and glasshouse

Transgenic and non-transgenic plants were successfully acclimatized and grown in the glass house (Figure 4.9A, B and C). The transgenic plants were planted in the glasshouse awaiting maturity and crossing (Figure 4.9C).

In the field two cultivars -Zebrina GF \emptyset and -Calcutta 4 \emptyset were established which were expected to act as a source of pollen. Flowering was observed within 7 months after transfer into the field for the cultivar -Calcutta 4 \emptyset whereas, the cultivar -Zebrina GF \emptyset flowered after 18 months (Figure 4.9D).



Figure 4.9: Stages in the transfer of transgenic and non-transgenic plants into the glass house and field. A- transgenic banana plants hardened in glass house, B- transgenic plants in medium size pots (~40 cm diameter), C - transgenic plants in pots awaiting flowering (~1 m radius pot), D ó non-transgenic plants established in field (At three weeks), E ó non-transgenic plants of the cultivar -Calcutta 4 \emptyset flowering in the field.

Agronomic data collected indicated that there was no variation in the average pseudostem diameter and the number of functional leaves in which plants. The pseudostem basal diameter did not vary in transgenics from different constructs in comparison to the non-transgenic banana plants of the same cultivar. The average diameter of the pseudostem was observed to be 44 ± 0.9 cm whereas the number of functional leaves was 12 ± 1 (Figure 4.10). Statistical analysis comparing transgenic and non-transgenic plants based on the number of leaves and the pseudostem diameter at 6 months indicated that there was no significant difference between transgenics and the non-transgenic controls (p value of 0.81).

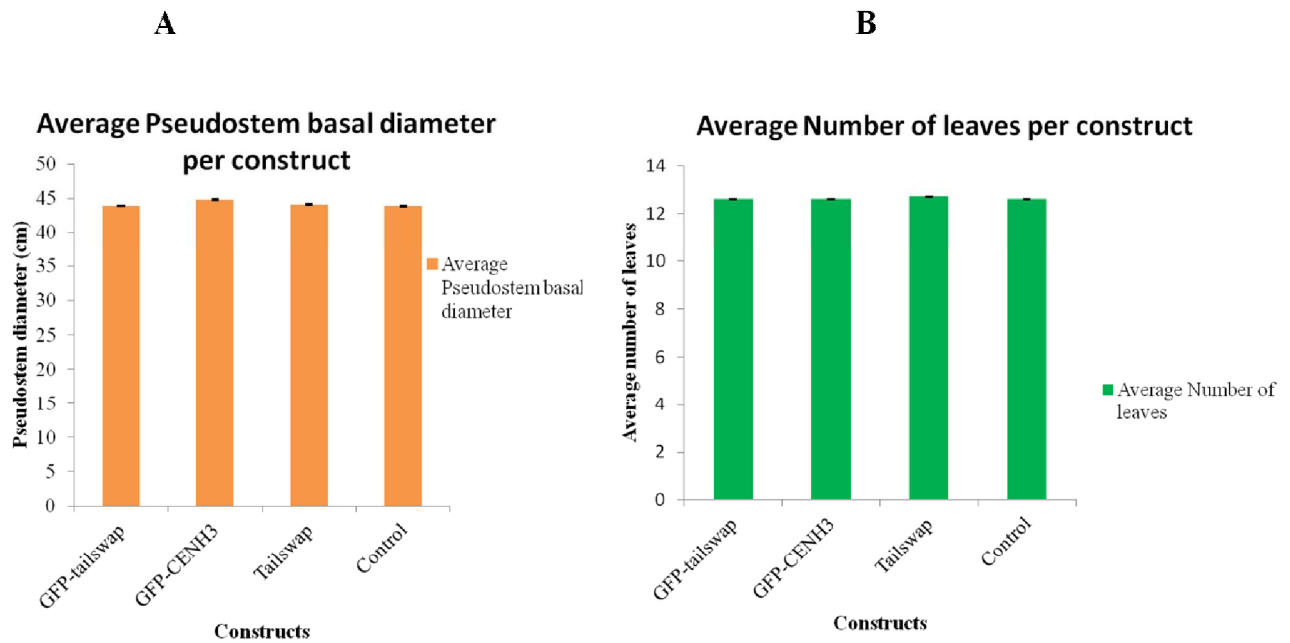


Figure 4.10: Agronomic data of transgenic plants in the glass house for the three RNAi constructs and the control. A-graph of average pseudostem diameter in planttransformed with various constructsand B-Average number of functional leaves in plants transformed with various constructs. Each value is an average of five lines for each construct (*GFP-Tailswap*, *Tailswap* and *GFP-CENH3*). Control was not transformed with any construct.

4.4 DISCUSSION

In this study, putative haploid inducer lines were successfully developed in the banana cultivar 'Zebrina GF'. The study could not develop transgenic lines for the cultivar 'Calcutta 4' because this cultivar was unable to regenerate after transformation using the conditions that were used for cultivar 'Zebrina GF'. However, non-transformed plants of the cultivar 'Calcutta 4' were successfully regenerated and established in the field. The inability of transgenic plants to regenerate after transformation can be explained by effect of different factors. These factors included response to different media, the *A. tumefaciens* strain, co-cultivation time, antibiotic and acetosyringone concentrations and the OD of the *A. tumefaciens* since these factors have been shown to cause low regeneration efficiency in different plants mainly due to necrosis induction (Magdum, 2013). Moreover, this was a different cultivar which means that genotypic differences may have played a role in low transformation success in 'Calcutta 4'. Furthermore, time constraints could not allow for protocol optimization for this cultivar but this is part of ongoing and future work.

The efficiency of transformation obtained in the cultivar 'Zebrina GF' is relatively lower compared to efficiencies of about 10% observed in other cultivars that have been transformed using multiple bud clumps (Tripathi *et al.* 2008) and intercalary meristems (4.3-51.6%) depending on the *A. tumefaciens* strain (Yip *et al.*, 2011). The lower efficiency in transformation can be attributed to the cultivar 'Zebrina GF' being a wild diploid unlike other edible cultivated triploids used in Tripathi *et al.* (2008) and in Yip *et al.* (2011). Intercalary and apical meristems are multicellular organized tissues and the transformation efficiencies are bound to be lower than if embryogenic parts were used (Tripathi *et al.* 2008). Use of organized tissues as explants has

however been used in plants including bananas although the efficiency of transformation has always been observed to be low (Arvanitoyannis *et al.*, 2008; Tripathi *et al.*, 2008).

Silencing of endogenous *CenH3* checked by RT-PCR and siRNA indicated variable levels of silencing with only few lines showing high level of silencing. None of the transgenic lines from any of the three constructs was observed to have 100% level of silencing. This observation is in line with other studies that have observed that RNAi as a technique does not always result in 100% silencing (Buehler *et al.*, 2012; Marine *et al.*, 2012). In *Arabidopsis thaliana* plants co-expressing wild type and endogenous *CenH3* were observed not to induce haploidy (Ravi and Chan, 2010). The effect of partial silencing of endogenous *CenH3* on haploid induction in this study will only be known after crosses are done.

CENH3 has been shown to be loaded into the centromere during specific stages of the cell cycle (Lermontova *et al.*, 2006, Lermontova *et al.*, 2011; Lermontova *et al.*, 2013; Ravi *et al.*, 2011; Schubert *et al.*, 2014). In this study, *CenH3* was observed to be expressed in the root tips two weeks post culture in rooting media when the roots have just emerged. However, this study did not elucidate the cell cycle stage at which *CenH3* is highly expressed but the general observation indicates that *CenH3* in bananas is loaded during active cell division.

The observation that the transgenic plants were not different to the non-transgenic based on agronomic traits is in line with observations made in *Arabidopsis* (Ravi and Chan, 2010; Seymour *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore, no differences in agronomic traits were observed in lines developed from the different constructs and this is an indication that the constructs did not have an effect on general growth of the plants.

CHAPTER FIVE

EXPRESSION OF *CenH3* ALLELE AND SPLICE VARIANTS IN CULTIVATED TRIPLOID AND WILD DIPLOID BANANAS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Centromeres play a role as the sites where a complex of proteins called kinetochore assemble, these in turn connect chromosomes to the spindle fibres which serve to segregate them during meiosis and mitosis (Sanei *et al.*, 2011). The structure and size of centromeres differ in different species in spite of having a common function (Talbert *et al.*, 2004). Centromeres in both plants and animals are quite complex. They generally contain arrays of megabases of rapidly evolving tandemly repeated sequences (Gent *et al.*, 2011; Verdaasdonk and Bloom, 2011). The high rate of evolution in these repeats is remarkable given the fact that centromere function is highly conserved. However, the role played by centromeric repeats is a subject of debate with different propositions put forth, the main one being that they maintain the large heterochromatin domains (Black and Cleveland, 2011; Malik and Henikoff, 2009). Despite this, the general agreement is that centromeres are determined and maintained epigenetically not genetically (Dawe and Henikoff, 2006; Ekwall, 2007; Fachinetti *et al.*, 2013). The epigenetic mark in centromeres is characterized by the presence of centromeric nucleosome, defined as nucleosomes that replace conventional H3 with CENH3. The protein CENH3 has been described as centromere protein A (CENP-A) in Human and CID in drosophila (Malik and Henikoff, 2001; Allshire and Karpen, 2008) and has been shown to contain a highly variable tail and a relatively conserved HFD (Ravi *et al.*, 2010; Lermontova *et al.*, 2014). Diploid plant species including Arabidopsis, rice, pea and

maize have been shown to encode a single *CenH3* gene (Talbert *et al.*, 2002; Zhong *et al.*, 2002b; Nagaki *et al.*, 2004; Neumann *et al.*, 2012;).

Polyploidization brings two or more genomes together and thus two different gene copies in the same background. Polyploidization can result in additive or non-additive gene expression which may lead in homeologs expression bias (Pignatta and Comai, 2009; Hui *et al.*, 2010; Rapp *et al.*, 2010; Yoo *et al.*, 2013). Unlike many diploids where single copy *CenH3* gene is encoded, multiple copies have been observed in newly synthesized allopolyploids in rice, brassica and in pea (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009; Hui *et al.*, 2010; Neumann *et al.*, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2011). *CenH3* variants have also been characterized in wild and cultivated carrots (Dunemann *et al.*, 2014) and in different stable polyploids c. Multiple *CenH3*s are not a preserve of polyploids, the diploid species *Hordeum vulgare* and *H. bulbosum* for example were found to encode two copies each (Sanei *et al.*, 2011).

Stable hybrids from crosses of parents encoding multiple *CenH3* transcripts have been obtained (Sanei *et al.*, 2011). In stable *H. vulgare* x *H.bulbosum* and *H. bulbosum* x *Triticum aestivum* combinations, all variants of *H. vulgare* and only one variant (Hv CENH3) of *H.bulbosum* were observed to incorporate into the centromeres of *H.bulbosum* and *T. aestivum*, respectively (Sanei *et al.*, 2011). Observations in newly synthesized allopolyploids *Oryza* was that *CenH3* copies from parents were expressed and loaded into centromere (Hui *et al.*, 2010). Bananas are either allo- or autotriploids and because two supposedly divergent sets of *CenH3* are assembled into the same nucleus, it would therefore be fascinating to understand their dynamics in the stable triploids.

Unlike stable hybrids, embryos of crosses from unstable combinations have been observed to undergo uniparental genome elimination resulting in haploids (Maheshwari *et al.*, 2015; Ravi and Chan, 2010; Sanei *et al.*, 2011; Seymour *et al.*, 2012). The genome of *H. bulbosum* in embryos of *H. vulgare* x *H. bulbosum* crosses was completely lost in 5-9 days post fertilization (Sanei *et al.*, 2011). Ravi and Chan (2010) had a similar observation in *A. thaliana* where uniparental elimination of the mutant ϕ -haploid inducer genome (Parent with modified *CenH3*) was achieved in the offspring of crosses with non-mutants. The modification of *CenH3* in this case was by replacing the tail with that of variant H3.3 and tagging it with GFP. This technology is currently being tried in bananas and cassava (Comai, 2014). A recent study clearly attest that crosses of plants carrying natural CENH3 variants to wild type result to genome elimination (Maheshwari *et al.*, 2015). The study crossed parents in which CENH3 variants from evolutionarily diverse plants had complemented a CENH null mutant *A. thaliana* Col-1 background with wild type. Apart from obtaining haploids in these crosses, novel genetic rearrangements were observed (Maheshwari *et al.*, 2015). A clear understanding of CENH3 in cultivated crops is essential if breeding tools like the haploid technology is to be effectively transferred. In the current study the expression of *CenH3* was evaluated in cultivated triploid and wild diploid banana cultivars. The existence of *CenH3* alleles or splice variants, their evolutionary relationship and whether there is bias in their expression levels was also evaluated.

5.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

5.2.1. Plant materials

Five cultivars collected from IITA were used in the current study, AA genomic group diploids -Zebrina GF and -Calcutta 4 allotriploids Sukali ndiizi (AAB) and -Kayinja (AAB) and the autotriploid cultivar -Gros michel (AAA).

5.2.2. In silico analysis

Putative genomic *CenH3* sequence from the cultivar Doubled Haploid (DH) Pahang was kindly provided by the *Musa* genome consortium (to Dr. Jim Lorenzen). Through, *in silico* analysis five *CenH3* exons were identified and based on these, the *CenH3* coding sequence (CDS) was deciphered. The forward and reverse primers were designed from the beginning of the first exon and last exon respectively. The primer pair: CENH3_END_F (GGCGAGAACGAAGCATC) and CENH3_END_R (TCACCAATGTCTTCTTCCTCC) were used in this study.

5.2.3. RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis

RNA was extracted from 100 mg young cigar-like leaf collected from tissue cultured banana plants using RNeasy® plant Mini kit (Hilden, Germany) as per the manufacturer's protocol except for the elution volume which was reduced to 40 µl, this was to increase on the RNA concentration. The RNA was treated with thermoscientific DNaseI by incubation at 37 °C for thirty min and the reaction terminated by addition of 1 mM EDTA and heating at 70 °C for 5 min. RNA was quantified using a thermoscientific NanoDrop[®] 2000 (MA, USA) spectrophotometer. First strand cDNA synthesis was performed with 1 µg DNA-free RNA using the maxima first strand cDNA (Thermoscientific) synthesis with random primers. The cDNA

synthesis was done in an ABI 9700 series PCR machine at 25 °C for 5 min followed by 42 °C for 60 min.

5.2.4 Cloning and sequencing of *CenH3* genes

The *CenH3* transcripts from all the cultivars used in the study were PCR amplified with cDNA as the template. PCR was done using Qiagen PCR kit in a 20µl PCR reaction volume containing: 1 µl of cDNA, 1x reaction buffer containing 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 500 µM of each dNTP, 10 picomole each of forward and reverse banana *CenH3* primers and 1 unit of Taq DNA polymerase. PCR was performed in an ABI 9700 PCR machine with the cycling conditions set at initial denaturation of 95 °C for 4 min, 35 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 30 secs, annealing of 64 °C for 30 secs and extension of 72 °C for 45 secs and a final extension of 72 °C for 10 min. The amplified products were run in a 1.5% agarose gel stained with gel red. PCR reactions were cleaned using Bioneer PCR purification kit (Daeongeon, South Korea) and cloned into PJet 1.2 cloning vector (Thermiscientific). To obtain all haplotypes for each of the five accessions, between two and six clones were sequenced (Table 5.1). Amplicons <200bp were considered as artifacts and therefore removed from the analysis. Sequencing reactions were done using Bigdye terminator version 3.1 and sequencing performed in ABI 3130 automatic analyzer (Applied biosystems). To ensure certainty of a sequence, each of the clones was sequenced from each direction thrice.

5.2.5 Sequence assembly, alignments and phylogenetic analysis

Sequences obtained from each clone (Forward and reverse) were assembled in Geneious version 7.2 (Biomatter, NZ) of Kearse *et al.*, (2012) and the sequence chromatograms checked manually for authenticity. Sequences that had quality below 50% across the entire sequence length were

discarded. Sequences from clones of the same cultivar were assembled and clones that resulted in different assembly contigs were noted. The number of times a unique transcript was observed per cultivar was noted and this was used in calculating the transcript (variant) expression bias which was considered the ratio of that transcript to the total number of transcripts observed per cultivar. Consensus sequences were obtained from each of the contigs and were considered as the representative transcript.

To check allele variants within a cultivar, transcripts from that cultivar were aligned and checked for polymorphisms. To check for alternate splicing, each of the transcript sequence was aligned to the genomic sequence (cultivar 'DH Pahang' genomic sequence) that had been used in designing primers. Based on this alignment, different types of alternate splicing could then be observed. To check for evolutionary relationship of banana *CenH3* relative to other monocots and dicot species, protein translated banana sequences were aligned to CENH3 protein sequences from other monocots and dicots from the genbank release 204.0. All alignments were performed in clustalW as implemented in geneious version 7.2. Phylogenetic trees comparing CENH3 protein sequences from different species were drawn in MEGA 6.0 (Tamura *et al.*, 2013).

5.2.4 Analysis of evolutionary relationships in *CenH3* sequences

The exon/intron structures were identified by aligning each of the cDNA sequences obtained to the genomic sequence. The structure obtained in each transcript was recorded and the same sequence aligned to others of the same structure to check differences between transcripts sharing the same structure. All alignments were performed in MUSCLE as implemented in Geneious version 7.1 using the default parameters.

The rates of Synonymous (Ks) and nonsynonymous (Ka) substitutions were estimated in the software DNAsp version 5.3. Average Ka/Ks values for a cultivar and exon/intron structure group were obtained by computing the ratios of average Ka and Ks in all pairwise alignment of transcripts for a cultivar and for all possible alignments of transcripts with a given structure.

5.2.4 Protein structure modeling

Secondary protein structures were predicted by modeling with the program RaptorX, which aligns query protein with proteins of known structural information and statistically determines the most probable. All the transcripts obtained in this study were used in protein structure prediction.

5.3 RESULTS

5.3.1 cDNA sequences of *CenH3* in wild diploid and cultivated triploid bananas

A total of 26 *CenH3* clones for all cultivars were obtained, this was excluding those that had transcripts lengths <200 bp which were excluded from the study since they were considered artifacts. All sequences from the diploid cultivar 'Calcutta 4' were only aligning partially either at the first and last exons similar to the transcript 'Kayinja' clone A and these were also excluded from the analysis. The transcript 'Sukali ndiizi' clone D (650 bp) was also omitted from the analysis as it was not aligning to the other transcripts even in the histone fold domain.

Sequences obtained had transcripts of different lengths and this was observed across all the cultivars, the 3 major lengths were: 471 bp and 503 bp both representing 25% of the transcripts obtained and 504 bp long sequence representing 40%. Other transcripts lengths obtained were 474, 477, 591, and 760 bp each representing 5% (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Cultivars used and clones obtained in the analysis of *CenH3* expression in bananas.

Cultivar	Genomic composition	Clone number	*CDS length	Gene bank accession numbers
Sukali ndizi	AAB	E	471	KP878239
Sukali ndizi	AAB	C	471	KP878236
Sukali ndizi	AAB	B	471	KP878238
Sukali ndizi	AAB	G	471	KP878221
Zebrina GF	AA	D	474	KP878237
Sukali ndizi	AAB	F	477	KP878222
Kayinja	AAB	C	503	KP878230
Kayinja	AAB	B	503	KP878229
Gros michel	AAA	B	503	KP878232
Gros michel	AAA	A	503	KP878231
Sukali ndizi	AAB	H	504	KP878226
Sukali ndizi	AAB	A	504	KP878225
Zebrina GF	AA	C	504	KP878220
Zebrina GF	AA	B	504	KP878224
Zebrina GF	AA	A	504	KP878223
Gros michel	AAA	D	504	KP878235
Gros michel	AAA	E	504	KP878234
Gros michel	AAA	C	504	KP878233
Gros michel	AAA	F	591	KP878227
Kayinja	AAB	D	760	KP878228

*Coding sequence

Transcripts of the same length were either within the same cultivar or from different cultivars. Sequences with the same length from all the cultivars were aligned and it was observed that some were 100% identical while others had polymorphisms. Alignment of all the 503bp long sequences identified 4 bp SNP positions; one of these was in the N-terminal tail and the others in the C-terminal histone fold domain (HFD) (Table 5.2). Alignment of the 504bp long alignment had more SNPs relative to the 503 bp long, there were 15 bp SNP positions nine of which were

located within the N-terminal and six in the HFD (Table 5.2). Alignment of the 471 bp long sequences from four *‘Sukali ndiiziø* clones (clones 8, 18I, 18G and 18B) showed a high level of polymorphism in the N-terminal tail. Two insertions were observed in the N-terminal. A 9 bp insertion (CTGATGCCGA) was observed in clone 8S in cultivar *‘Sukali ndiiziø* from alignment position 92-100 and a deletion of the same size (TTTGTTGGT) from position 137 to 145. There were also 22 intermittent substitutions spread from position 101 to 146 all in the N-terminal while the HFD had a total of 7 SNP positions (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Number, location and size of SNPs and indels in the alignment of *CenH3* transcripts having variable lengths.

Length of transcript alignment (bp)	Number of SNP (N-terminal)	Number of SNPs (C-terminal HFD)	Indel(s) length(bp)	Indel positions	Indel sequence (s)
503	1	3	-	-	-
504	9	6	-	-	-
471	22	7	9	92-100, 137-145	CTGATGCCGA, TTTGTTGGT

SNP-Single Nucleotide Polymorphism, HFD-Histone Fold Domain

Three intron/exon structures were obtained on aligning of *CenH3* transcripts to DH Pahang genomic sequence (Table 5.3). The first structure was observed to have 7 exons and 6 introns, this was the most frequent and was observed in 65% of all the transcripts obtained (Table 5.3). This structure was observed in both diploid and triploids representing 75% of transcripts obtained from diploid cultivar *‘Zebrina GFø* and 63% of all the transcripts in the allotriploids

(-Kayinjaø -Sukali ndiiziø). The 7 exons/6 introns structure was observed in the triploid cultivar -Sukali ndiiziø (clones A, F and H), -Gros Michelø (clones A-E), -Kayinjaø (clones B and C) and diploid cultivar -Zebrina GFø in clones A, B and C. Furthermore, the 7 exons/6 introns structure was observed in 100% of the transcripts with a length of 503 bp, and 504 bp and only one transcript (-Sukali ndiiziø clone F) with a different length (477bp) other than the two lengths (503 and 504 bp) had this structure. The 7 exons obtained in the 7 exons/6 introns structure were of varying sizes with the longest being 131bp and the shortest 37 bp.

The second structure with 5 exons and 4 introns was observed in 25% of all the transcripts obtained from the allotriploid cultivars -Kayinjaø (clone D), -Sukali ndiiziø (clones B, C and E) and diploid cultivar -Zebrina GFø (clone D). The 5 exons/4 introns structure was observed in transcripts of different lengths and included transcripts from clone D in the cultivar -Kayinjaø which was 760 bp long, clone B, C and E from cultivar -Sukali ndiiziø which was 471 bp long and clone D from the cultivar -Zebrina GFø which was 474 bp long (Table 5.3).

The third intron/exon structure observed had 6 exons and 5 introns, this was observed in 10% of the transcripts analyzed. The 6 exon/5 intron structure was observed in only two transcripts from allotriploid cultivars Gros Michel (clone F) and sukali ndizi (clone G). The two transcripts were of different lengths with the first having a length of 591 bp and the second 471 bp long (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: The location of polymorphisms within exons of the different exons/introns structures of banana *CenH3* transcripts

Exon name (Structure)	Exon Length (bp)	Position in the genomic to cDNA alignment	Number of SNPs	Indel (position)	Intron retention
Exon 1 (7/6)	90	1002-1092	2(27bp deletion)	1065-1092	None
Exon 2 (7/6)	42	1185-1227	2	None	None
Exon 3 (7/6)	35	1314-1348	3	None	None
Exon 4 (7/6)	133	1518-1650	3	None	None
Exon 5 (7/6)	73	1813-1885	3		None
Exon 6 (7/6)	78	4368-4446	3	4430	None
Exon 7 (7/6)	53	6488-6540	2	None	None
Exon 1 (6/5)	90	1002-1092	0	None	None
Exon 2 (6/5)	44	1185-1229	0	120	1229-1348
Exon 3 (6/5)	133	1518-1650	0	None	None
Exon 4 (6/5)	73	1813-1885	0	None	None
Exon 5 (6/5)	78	4369-4446	0	None	None
Exon 6 (6/5)	53	6488-6540	None	None	None
Exon 1 (5/4)	136	1002-1138	1	None	1092-1137
Exon 2 (5/4)	132	1520-1651	2	1608	1185-1518
Exon 3 (5/4)	74	1814-1887	3	1845	None
Exon 4 (5/4)	79	4371-4449	0	4404	None
Exon 5 (5/4)	53	6491-6543	2	None	None

5.3.2 Splice and allele variants in banana *CenH3* transcripts

The alignment of the different banana *CenH3* transcripts from allotriploids and diploids to the cultivar 'DH Pahang' genomic sequence facilitated observation of variation in splicing and the alleles. *CenH3* transcripts having the same intron/exon structure were aligned to the genomic sequence together in order to clearly identify splice variations within an exon/intron structure. Three alignments were obtained in the first group having 7/6, 6/5 and 5/4 exon/intron structure (Table 5.3).

The splicing of sequences having a 7/6 exon/intron structure was relatively conserved across all the transcripts. Exon1 in this structure was 90 bp long spanning alignment positions 1002 to 1092 except for the transcript of 'Sukali ndiizi' clone F which was observed to have a 27 bp deletion from position 1065 to 1092 (Table 5.3). The deletion in this transcript changed the beginning of the first 5' intron position whereas the first exon was shortened by 27 bp and the first intron elongated with an equal number of base pairs. These elongations resulted to change in the nucleotide sequence of the exon/intron junction from CCCC/GGTC to TTTC/GGTC. The first exon in this structure also had 2 SNPs at alignment positions 1028 and 1035. The SNP at position 1028 was a substitution of C with a T in the transcripts of 'Zebrina GF' clones A and B whereas the one at position 1035 was a substitution of a T with a C. Exon 2 in this structure was 42 bp long from alignment position 1185 to 1227, this exon was conserved across all the transcripts except for 2 SNPs at positions 1199 and 1211. The SNP at position 1199 was a substitution of G with an A in the transcripts of 'Sukali ndiizi' clones A, F and H and in transcripts of 'Zebrina GF' clones A, B and C. The 5' intron/exon junction was conserved as AATA/GCTG for this exon and TCCT/GTGC in the 3' exon/intron junction. Exon 3 was the

shortest at 35 bp (1314 to 1348) and had a 5' exon/intron junction of ATAG/AGAA and a CTCA/AGGT exon/intron junction. Three SNPs were observed in exon 3 at positions 1338, 1340 and 1341 with these being substitutions of A with G, C with T and G with A respectively for the transcripts of 'Sukali ndiizi' clones A, F and H and in 'Zebrina GF' clones A, B and C (Table 5.3). Exon 4 was 133bp long spanning positions 1518 and 1650, the 5' intron/exon junction was AGGC/AGGG and 3' exon/intron junction ACTT/GTTA. There were 3 SNPs in exon 4 at positions 1534, 1539 and 1540 with a C with T substitution at position 1534 in the transcript of 'Sukali ndiizi' clone F, position 1539 had G with A substitution in the transcripts of 'Gros Michel' clones A-E and position 1540 had a substitution of C with A in the transcripts of 'Sukali ndiizi' clones A, F and H and 'Zebrina GF' clones A and H. Exon 5 was 73bp long from alignment position 1813 to 1886 (Table 5.3). This exon had a total of 3 SNPs at positions 1815, 1872 and 1878 with substitution of A with T in the transcripts of 'Gros Michel' clones A-E at position 1815, this changed the intron/exon junction of these cultivars to CTAG/GTTC from CTAG/GTTC. At alignment position 1872 a G was substituted with an A in the transcripts of Gros Michel clones A-E and at position 1878 a G was substituted with an A in the transcripts of 'Kayinja' clones B and C (Table 3). Exon 6 was 78bp long stretching from alignment position 4368 to 4446 with a 5' intron/exon structure of TTGC/AGGC and 3' CTTA/GTAA exon/intron structure. Three SNPs were observed in this exon at alignment positions 4395, 4421, and 4430. The SNPs were substitution of A with G in the transcript of 'Zebrina GF' clone C at position 4395, substitution of A with G in the transcripts of 'Sukali ndiizi' clones A, F and H and transcripts of 'Zebrina GF' clones A-C at alignment positions 4421. A deletion was observed at position 4430 in transcripts of 'Kayinja' clones B and C and in transcripts of 'Gros Michel'

clones A-E (Table 5.3). Exon 7 was observed to be 53bp long spanning alignment positions 6488-6540. This exon had 2 SNPs at position 6497 and 6530, the first was a substitution of A with G in the transcript of -Sukali ndiiziø clone H and the second a substitution of G with A in the transcript of -Zebrina GFø clone B.

Splicing of the 5/4 exon/intron structure was observed to have a high level of variability in the first three exons. This structure was observed in all the cultivars across different ploidy. Three cultivars represented by five transcripts (-Zebrina GFø clone D, -Kayinjaø clone D, and -Sukali ndiiziø clones B, C and E) were observed to have this structure. The first exon in this structure was 136bp long in most transcripts from positions 1002-1137, they had 46bp intron retention except for the transcript of -Kayinjaø clone D (Table 5.3). The partial intron retention in this exon affected the exon/intron junction in transcript of -Kayinjaø clone D which was CCCC/GGTC with the rest of the transcripts having TGGT/GTTA exon/intron junction and splice sites being at positions 1092 and 1138 for the two exon/intron junctions respectively. Exon 2 in this structure was observed to be 132bp long spanning 1521-1651 except in the transcript of -Kayinjaø clone D which had a 335bp 5ø(intron 1) intron retention from position 1185-1520. Three polymorphisms were observed in this exon, 2 SNPs at positions 1589 and 1609 and an indel at position 1608. Exon 3 was observed to be 74bp long spanning positions 1814-887. Four polymorphic positions were observed in this exon, 3 SNPs at positions 1821, 1869 and 1871 and an indel at position 1845 (Table 5.3). Exon 4 was observed to be 79bp long from position 4371-4450. Only one polymorphism was observed in this exon, an indel at position 4404. The last exon like in all the other structures was observed to be 53bp long and had two SNPs, at positions 6530 and 6533 which were all substitutions of G with an A in the transcript -Sukali ndiiziø clone C.

The last exon/intron structure (6/5) had only 2 representative transcripts of -Sukali ndiizi clone D and -Gros michel clone F. The main variation observed in transcripts within this structure was due to a partial intron retention in exon 2 in the transcript of -Gros michel clone F. This consequently changed the 3' exon 2/intron 2 junction from CTGC/TGCG with the splice site at alignment position 1229 to CTCA/AGGT with the splice site at 1349. The exons were observed to have different lengths. Exon 1 was 90bp from positions 1002 to 1091, exon 2 43bp from 1185- 1227 in Sukali ndizi clone D and 167bp long in Gros michel clone F from positions 1185-1348 in the alignment (Table 5.3). Exon 3 was 133bp long from positions 1518-1650. Exon 4 was 73bp long from alignment position 1813-1885 while exons 5 and 6 were 78bp (1811-1885) and 53bp (6488-6540) respectively (Table 5.3).

In the analysis of the different structures and alleles variants, it was also observed that some of the transcripts had premature stop codons when translated in one frame (Frame 1) which was found to be the most consistent for banana CENH3. Among these were: Kayinja clone D which had 6 stops two of which were within the retained intron fragment, Gros michel clone F that had one which was equally within the retained intron.

5.3.3 Evolutionary divergence of CENH3 proteins

To determine the divergence in the different banana *CenH3* proteins for the full CDS and for N- and C-terminal regions, Ka (nonsynonymous) and Ks (synonymous) substitutions and their ratios were calculated using cDNA sequences in DNAsp version 5.10. Twenty transcripts representing all cultivars were used in the analysis. Stop codon appearing in the coding sequence were considered as coding for a rare amino acid or a stop codon read through. A total of 417 nucleotide sites representing 139 amino acids were used in the analysis of the full length

transcript. The average number of synonymous and non-synonymous sites obtained in all the transcripts was 106.5 and 310.5 respectively. Out of the 190 pairwise alignments in all the full transcripts obtained 5 had Ka/Ks ratio >1 whereas 185 had a Ka/Ks ratio of <1 (Appendix 2). The 5 that had ratios of >1 were representing six transcripts derived from 2 cultivars diploid -Zebrina GFø and triploid -Gros michelø To check the divergence within each cultivar, the average Ka/Ks ratios of *CenH3* transcripts per cultivar were obtained (Table 5.4). The cultivar -Zebrina GFø was found to have the highest Ka/Ks ratio of 0.508, -Gros Michelø ratio was observed to be 0.244, -Kayinjaø was 0.229 and that of øSukali ndiiziø was 0.395. The average Ka/Ks values for *CenH3* between cultivars was observed to be highest in -Gros michelø and øSukali ndiiziø alignments and lowest in -Zebrina GFø and -Sukali ndiiziø alignments (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: The average Ka/Ks values within and between pairwise alignments of banana CenH3 transcripts obtained from different diploid and triploid cultivars

	Within cultivar				Between cultivars					
	A	B	C	D	A/B	A/C	A/D	B/C	B/D	C/D
Full length	0.244	0.508	0.395	0.229	0.606	0.623	0.418	0.372	0.38	0.419
N-terminal (Tail)	0.458	0.433	0.414	0.242	0.607	0.74	0.243	0.34	0.356	0.508
C-terminal (HFD)	0.167	0.102	0.357	0.192	0.536	0.73	0.222	0.182	0.266	0.424

A-Gros michel, B-Zebrina, C-Sukali ndizi, D-Kayinja

To determine the extent of divergence in the N-terminal tail and C-terminal histone fold domains across all the transcripts obtained, Ka/Ks ratios were calculated. For the tail domain, a total of 138 sites representing 46 amino acids were involved in the analysis while 111 sites were found to have gaps and were therefore not analyzed.

The average numbers of synonymous and nonsynonymous sites were 36.63 and 101.38 respectively. A total of 10 pairwise alignments in this region were observed to have Ka/Ks values >1, these were representing a total of 7 transcripts from 3 cultivars (2 triploids and the diploid) (Appendix 3). The average number of Ka/Ks ratio per cultivar for the N-terminal tail domain was observed to be highest in the cultivar 'Gros michel' at 0.458 then Zebrina GF at 0.433 then 'Sukali ndiizi' at 0.414 and last was 'Kayinja' at 0.242 (Table 5.4). Within the HFD, a total of 276 nucleotide sites representing 93 amino acids were analyzed. The total numbers of synonymous sites obtained in the analysis in this region were 63.54 while non-synonymous sites had 215.46. A total of 14 pairwise alignment in the HFD were found to have Ka/Ks ratio >1 (Appendix 3). The average Ka/Ks values within different cultivars at the HFD were observed to vary between 0.1-0.3. The transcripts from the cultivar Sukali ndiizi had the highest average Ka/Ks values of 0.357, 'Kayinja' at 0.192, 'Gros michel' at 0.167 and 'Zebrina GF' at 0.102 (Table 5.4).

To determine the relative extent of evolution in different cultivar as well as between and within transcripts sharing the same exon/intron structure for full length *CenH3*, N-terminal tail and HFD; analysis was conducted to get the average Ka/Ks ratios within and between each exon/intron group. The average Ka/Ks values within each exon/intron group for the full *CenH3* alignments were observed to be between 0-0.373 with the highest being observed in

CenH3 sequences having 7 exons and 6 introns structure (0.373), the lowest value was observed in the 6 exons/5 introns structure (0) (Table 5.5). Ka/Ks values between exon/intron groups on the other hand had values between 0.316-0.6 with the highest observed in the alignments of 7 exons /6 introns structure with 5 exons/4 introns (0.60). The 7 exons/6 introns alignments to 6 exons/5 introns resulted in the lowest Ka/Ks ratio of 0.316. Analysis of the N-terminal tail region resulted in Ka/Ks values ranging from 0-0.344 within different exon/intron groups. The 6 exons/5 introns structure had the lowest value of 0 while the highest value (0.344) was observed in the 7 exons/ 6 introns structure (Table 5.5). Ka/Ks values between *CenH3* with different exon/intron structure resulted in the highest ratio of 0.719 being observed in the alignments between 7/6 and 5/4 exon/intron structures and the lowest between 7/6 and 5/4 exon/intron structures. Ka/Ks values in the HFD region within exon/intron structures were observed to be between 0-0.448 with the highest observed in the 5 exons /4 introns and the lowest in the 6 exons/ 5 introns structure. Ka/Ks ratios between exon/intron structures in the C-terminal were ranging between 0.241-0.592 with the highest observed between 7 exons/6 introns and 5 exons/4 introns structure and the lowest between 6/5 and 5 exons/ 4 introns structures.

Table 5.5: The average Ka/Ks values within and between alignments of *CenH3* transcripts having different exon/intron structures

	Within exon/intron structure			Between exon/intron structure		
	i	ii	iii	i/ii	i/iii	ii/iii
Full length	0.373	0	0.323	0.316	0.60	0.520
N-terminal (Tail)	0.344	0	0.271	0.380	0.719	0.542
C-terminal (HFD)	0.310	0	0.448	0.270	0.592	0.241

i-7exons/6introns
ii-6exons/5introns
iii-5exons/4introns

5.3.4 Expression bias in diploids and triploids

Expression bias of the different transcripts in both diploid and triploids was observed in both allele and in the exon/intron structure type. In the diploid cultivar *Zebrina GFØ* three out of the 4 transcripts obtained were very similar with the only <5 polymorphic nucleotide positions among them. The other transcript in this cultivar was highly diverse when compared to the three especially in the N-terminal tail, this represented a 75% expression in the dominant transcript to 25% in the alternative transcript. Bias in the exon/intron structure in this diploid cultivar was towards the 7 exon/ 6 intron which was observed in 75% of all the transcripts obtained.

In triploid cultivars, a similar trend like the one in diploid was observed. In the triploid cultivar *Gros michelØ* 5 out of the 6 transcripts obtained apart from having two SNPs that were the most expressed, these transcripts also accounted for 83% of all the transcripts obtained. The bias in the exon/intron structure was towards 7 exon/6 introns representing 83%

of the transcripts. In 'Sukali ndizi' two different transcripts were observed to be expressed in 33% of the total transcripts while another two were observed to be expressed in 16% of the total transcripts. Exon/intron bias was also observed in 'Sukali ndiizi' 43% of all the transcripts were observed to have both 7 exons/ 6 introns and 5 exons/ 4 exons structure while 14% were observed to have a 6 exons/ 5 introns structure. In the cultivar 'Kayinja' 67% of the transcripts were observed to represent one type of transcript while in 33% the other transcript type was observed. The 7 exon/6 intron structure was also favoured with 67% of the transcripts having this structure, the rest had the 6 exon/5 intron structure.

5.3.5 Secondary structure prediction

Secondary structures for different CENH3 protein translations were obtained by first aligning the sequences (Figure 5.1). Alignment of these to CENH3s from known species also enabled the identification of the conserved domains especially in the C-terminal HFD. Among these domains were the -N, 1, 2 and 3 helices (Figure 5.1). Secondary structures were obtained in both diploid and triploids (Figure 5.2). Different exon/intron groups and *CenH3* lengths from which the translations were made were also represented in the secondary structure predictions (Figure 5.2). The major variability in the secondary structures was observed to be in the N-terminal tail whereas the C-terminal domain was observed to be relatively conserved (Figure 5.2).

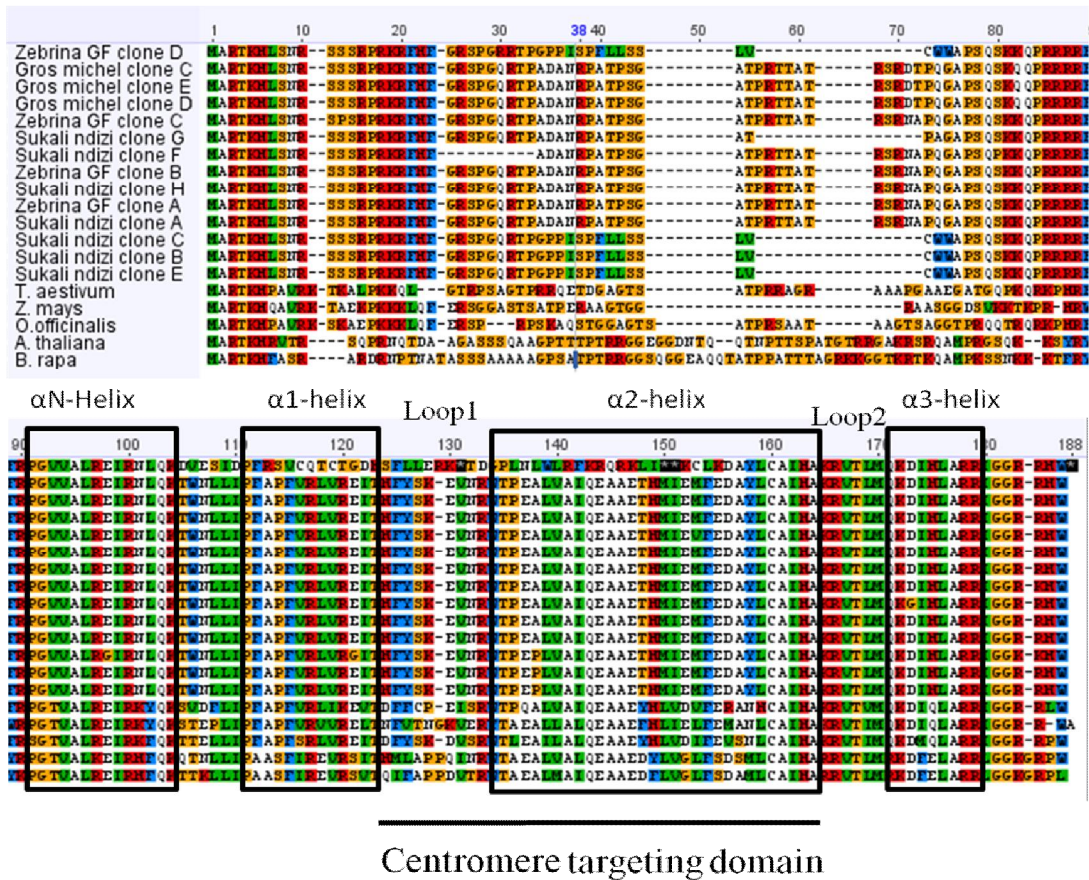


Figure 5.1: Alignment of banana CENH3 protein sequences translated from transcripts of diploid and triploid cultivars showing regions of the C-terminal. The alignment indicates the helices and loop positions within the HFD. Indicated also is the centromere targeting domain (CTD) spanning loop1 and 2-helix. The structure was predicted by the tool Garnier in EMBOSS version 6.5.7 as implemented in Geneious version 7.2, this tool has an approximate 65% accuracy level.

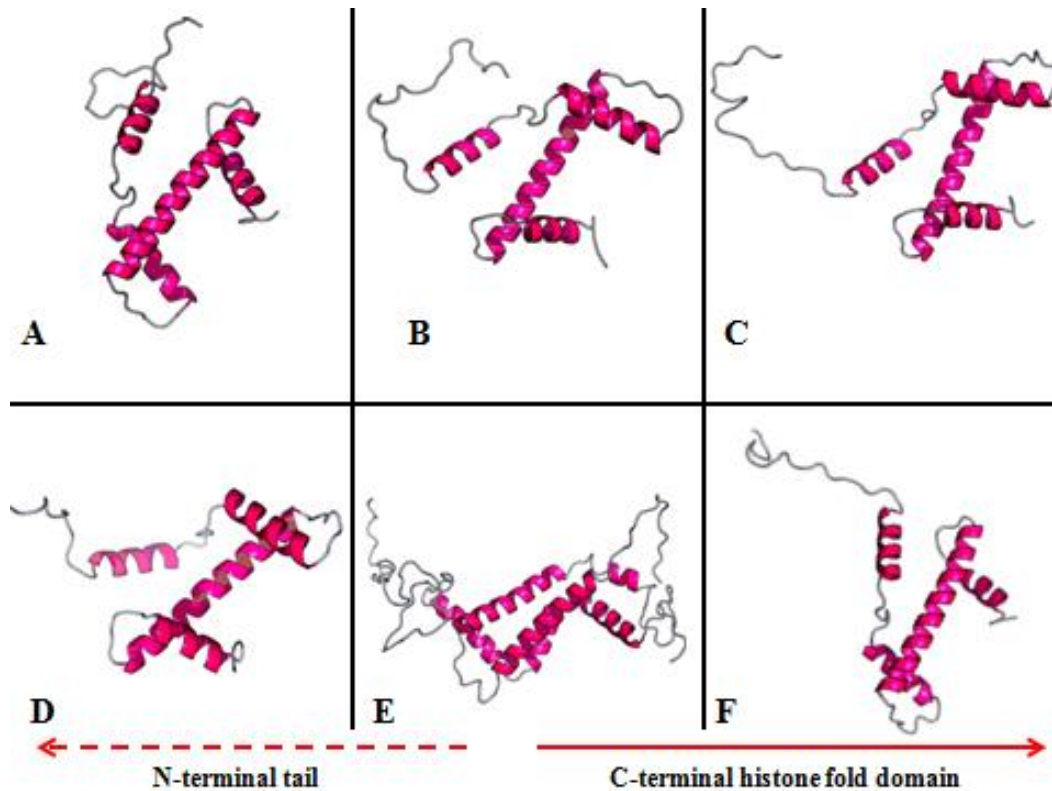


Figure 5.2: Secondary structure predictions of selected translated banana CENH3 proteins. The structures represent different CENH3 lengths, source cultivar, ploidy and exon/intron groups: A-*Sukali ndiizi* clone G (Triploid, 471bp, 6 exons/5 introns), B-*Sukali ndiizi* clone F (Triploid, 477bp, 7 exons/ 6 introns), C- *Zebrina GF* clone B (diploid, 504bp 7 exons/6 introns), D-*Gros michel* F (Triploid, 591bp, 6 exons/ 5 introns), E-*Kayinja* clone D (Triploid, 760bp, 5 exons/4 introns), F-*Kayinja* clone B (Triploid, 503bp, 7 exons/6 introns).

5.3.6 Banana *CenH3* monophyletic clade

The phylogeny of all banana CENH3 protein sequences with those of other monocot and dicot species resulted in two banana monophyletic groups. In this analysis, four main clades which had multiple sub-clades were observed and these had strong bootstrap support values (Figure 5.3). The first clade was banana CENH3 clade 1 which only had representatives from banana. This clade had 3 sub-clades: 1a, 1b and 1c. Sub-clade 1a had 8 clones from the cultivars

Zebrina GF, *Sukali ndiiziø* and *Gros michelø*. This sub-clade was also observed to have transcripts with either 7/6 or 6/5 exon/intron structure. The second sub-clade 1b had only 2 cultivars represented, *Gros michelø* and *Kayinjaø* (Figure 5.3). All the representatives in this sub-clade had a 7/6 exon/intron structure. Sub-clade 1b had two sister clades one with 88 BP and the other 100 BP support. The 88 BP support sister clade had all the representatives from the cultivar *Gros michelø* while the 100 BP one had 2 from the cultivar *Kayinjaø* and the other 2 from *Gros michelø*. The last sub-clade 1c had 3 representatives all from the cultivar *Sukali ndiiziø* (clones B, C and E). The clone E was observed to be the most diverse of the 3 in this sub-clade as it diverge earlier. It was also noted that all the transcripts in this sub-clade had a 5/4 exon/intron structure.

The second and third clade had representatives from other species within the monocots and dicots respectively. The fourth clade was the second banana CENH3 clade and had two representative transcripts from the diploid cultivar *Zebrina GFø* and the triploid *Kayinjaø*. The two transcripts in this clade had a 5/4 exon/intron structure but were differing in length with the transcript from *Kayinjaø* clone D having 253 amino acids while *Zebrina GFø* clone D had 158.

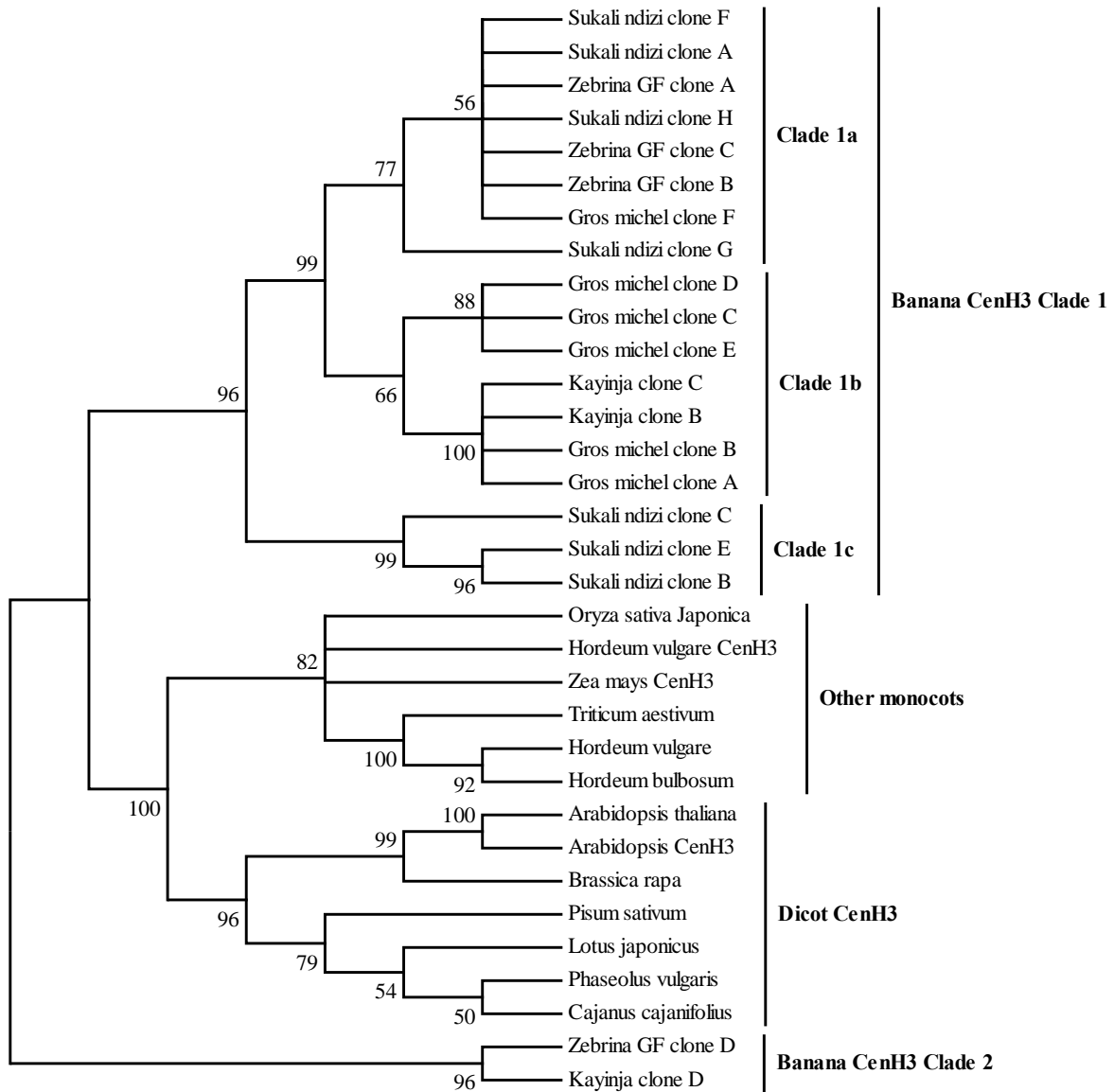


Figure 5.3: Phylogenetic tree of banana CENH3 proteins from the cultivars Sukali ndizi, Kayinja, Gros michel and Zebrina in relations to those of other monocotyledons and dicotyledons. The number at each clade indicates the BP support values. The tree was drawn in MEGA version 6 (Tamura *et al.*, 2013).

5.4 DISCUSSION

The number of *CenH3* copies have been observed to vary in diploids and polyploids (mainly allopolyploids), some having single copies and others multiple (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014; Dunemann *et al.*, 2014), in bananas this has not been studied. Duplicated genes in polyploids can be retained without expression, others can be spliced differently during expression while others show bias in their expression within the same polyploidy cultivar (Pignatta and Comai, 2009; Rapp *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Rapaport *et al.*, 2013; Yoo *et al.*, 2013; Yoo *et al.*, 2014).

The current study was able to amplify cDNA from the diploid cultivar Zebrina GF and three triploid cultivars Gros michel, Sukali ndizi and Kayinja which indicated a very high *CenH3* diversity in the 26 sequences analyzed. *CenH3* sequences obtained in the current study were observed to vary even in the same cultivar with up to 3 isoforms. The diversity in the transcripts was in both length and allele. The differences in length were mainly due to indels and intron retention which resulted in splice site variation in exons (2, 3 and 4). However, presence of multiple polymorphisms in form of substitutions and indels within exons that were conserved attest to the presence of allele variants especially in the diploid Zebrina GF. The presence of multiple variants in autotriploids may indicate presence of multiple *CenH3* genomic copies in different species, this is in agreement with similar observations made in different angiosperms genera (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009; Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014). This is further attested to by the presence of diverse transcripts in allotriploids, some of which were similar to those obtained in diploids and allotriploids indicating that their diploid progenitors may

have contained diverse *CenH3* genes, this observation is with similar with the one made in Brassica where multiple *CenH3* copies were observed in diploids (Wang *et al.*, 2011).

Studies in *H. vulgare* x *H. bulbosum* crosses have indicated that presence of multiple *CenH3* transcripts does not result in multiple CENH3 proteins being incorporated into the centromere (Sanei *et al.*, 2011). However, studies in peas have alternately observed loading of multiple CENH3 into the centromere which resulted in multiple centromere domains (Neumann *et al.*, 2012). The presence of transcribed variants (both allele and splice) in both diploids and triploids has not been reported in bananas before. These have been observed in other angiosperms like *Gossypium*, *Oryza* and *Brassica* (Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014). However, immuno-staining studies to check whether proteins translated by the transcripts are also loaded into the centromere should be conducted in bananas.

Recently, it was reported in *Arabidopsis* that naturally occurring *CenH3* variations can cause genetic instability which caused genetic rearrangements and resulted to both haploids and aneuploids in some cases (Maheshwari *et al.*, 2015). Banana breeding mainly involves crossing tetraploids to diploids to create triploids and this results to variable genomic compositions in the offsprings (Oselebe *et al.*, 2006). *CenH3* homolog expression bias was observed in studies in *Brassica* where polyploids were shown to be biased to a specific transcript while in *Oryza*, equal expression of the *CenH3* variants was observed (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009; Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014). Expression bias of *CenH3* was observed in transcripts of both diploid and triploid bananas. Moreover, no obvious ratio in expression bias was observed in both diploid and triploid cultivars used in the current study.

Predictions of the secondary structures for the sequences with different transcript lengths, from different cultivars and with different exons/introns numbers indicated a general conservation in the structure with the main difference being in the length of the N-terminal. This is consistent with results obtained in other angiosperms like Brassica, which showed similar secondary structures and the differences were mainly observed in the length of the N-terminal domain (Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014).

The number of exons and introns in *CenH3* has been found to vary in different plant varieties and species. In *Oryza* different *CenH3s* were observed to have 7 exons and 6 introns despite having different CDS lengths (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009). In carrots a similar structure of 7 exons and 6 introns was observed while in Brassica two different structures were observed in *CenH3* cDNA sequences of varying lengths, one had a 7 exon/ 6 intron structure and the other a 9 exon/ 8 intron structure. In this study, three different exon/ intron structures were observed in bananas; 7/6, 6/5 and 5 exons/ 4 introns with the 7/6 and the 5/4 exons/introns structures were observed in both diploids and triploids while the 7/6 being the predominant. The 6 exon/5 intron structure was only observed in triploids (Gros michel); however a caveat to this is that CENH3 expression in more diploids and triploids not covered in this study should be performed to affirm this. In this analysis, it is clear that more transcripts in expression are more biased towards having a 7 exons/ 6 introns structure.

Centromeres in many plant species have been shown to have rapidly evolving satellite repeats and the conserved kinetochore proteins (Talbert *et al.*, 2002; Zhong *et al.*, 2002a; Kawabe and Charlesworth, 2007; Malik and Henikoff, 2009; Tek *et al.*, 2011; Mach, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2013; Yuan *et al.*, 2015). Since CENH3 interacts with both satellite repeats as well as the

kinetochore proteins, then it exists in a highly evolving as well as a conserved environment (Cooper and Henikoff, 2004). To counter this, CENH3 has been shown to be undergoing adaptive evolution in the N-terminal as well as in the loop1 of the C-terminal HFD in rice, Arabidopsis, wheat, (Malik and Henikoff, 2001; Talbert *et al.*, 2002; Hirsch *et al.*, 2009; Yuan *et al.*, 2015). In this study the evolutionary relationship of the different banana *CenH3* transcripts was checked by calculating the Ka/Ks ratios in the full length *CenH3*, the N-terminal tail and the C-terminal HFD. Some of the banana pairwise alignments had Ka/Ks values >1 indicating that the presence of positive selection in full length, N-terminal and C-terminal. However, it was interesting to note that in each of the pairwise alignments with positive selection, be it the full length *CenH3* transcript, the N-terminal tail or the C-terminal HFD, included one transcript from at least one of the triploid cultivars.

The observation that some of the transcripts within one cultivar were involved in alignments having positive selection shows that in bananas *CenH3* variants within a cultivar are evolving positively while others are not. In the diploid cultivar -Zebrina GFø for example, only 2 of the transcripts obtained were observed as having positive selection. Contrary to the expectation, the current study observed that both tail and HFD are going through positive selection. It was observed that 185 out of 191 pairwise alignments had Ka/Ks values less than 1 indicating that stabilizing selection is playing a big role in some of the transcripts. The diploid cultivar -Zebrina GFø involved is in the *M. acuminata* sub-group -Zebrinaø, the diploid progenitors of the triploids involved in the study on the other hand is not known but two are from the East Africa highland group (-Kayinjaø and -Sukali ndiizi'). The presence of *CenH3* transcripts in Zebrina GF that are 100% similar to some of those in triploids indicates that it may have contributed its genome to East African high land bananas (EAHB). This is consistent with

observations that the Islands of South East Asia (ISEA) are the origin of cultivated bananas and they have been domesticated through complex routes (Li *et al.*, 2013).

Diversity of CENH3 has been suggested to be necessary to target centromere in meiosis or response to increase in centromere size (Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014). Apart from allele variants, splice variation is another approach that has been shown to add into the diversity of CENH3 proteins (Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014). Alternate splicing was also observed in the current study and this was mainly in intron retention. Splice retention was observed to affect the length of the N-terminal especially in exon 1 and 2. This is consistent with previous studies that observed a similar trend in angiosperms (Masonbrink *et al.*, 2014). Splice variation was only observed in triploids. The reason for diversity of CENH3 in triploid bananas can only be explained as being a response to the increased genome or the presence of polycentromeres and studies on localization of the different CENH3 would allow the clarification of this.

Phylogenetic analysis indicated that bananas formed two unique clades in a phylogeny with other monocots and dicots. It was interesting to observe 2 diverse clades which indicated a high level of diversity. Similar diversity was observed in *CenH3* of *Oryza spp.* in a phylogeny with other monocots (Hirsch *et al.*, 2009).

The current study was able to identify and characterize *CenH3* transcripts from both diploid and triploid bananas. The evolutionary relationship within and between the different banana *CenH3* transcripts as well as the phylogenetic relationship to other monocots and dicots were also evaluated. Through this study, further insight into banana CENH3 expression was explored. Future studies especially on localization of CENH3 proteins derived from the different transcripts should be done to know if these are loaded into the centromere.

Furthermore, more diploid and triploids should be used in future studies to check for more diversity within the different bananas.

CHAPTER SIX

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Conventional banana breeding despite it being successful takes a long time and has challenges due to parthenocarpy, long generation time and polyploidy (Pillay and Tripathi, 2007). Development of haploids and then doubling them is an approach that can be used to reduce breeding time. This is because DH are true inbreds which can be used for breeding as homozygotes (Comai, 2014; Van Nocker and Gardiner, 2014). The current study endeavored to develop haploid inducers in bananas through a transgenic approach.

The phylogenetic analysis of 39 banana cultivars was conducted in this study in order to find out the phylogenetic position and relatedness of triploid cultivars to diploids and identify haplotypes which would facilitate identification of progenitors. The results would ultimately be used in part to identify the diploid cultivars from which haploid inducers would be developed. Triploids and diploids were positioned to their genomic groups, sections and species. Thirteen haplotypes were identified in triploids and diploids, five of which were shared between the two ploidies and seven were unique. The main aim of the phylogeny was to assist in the identification of cultivars to use in developing haploid inducers, based on the study and other factors like availability of plantlets and fertility of cultivars, two cultivars (Zebrina GF and Calcutta 4) were chosen to be used in development of haploid inducers.

Development of haploid inducers in two diploid banana cultivars was the overall goal of the study, and was conducted in Chapter 3. Twenty seven putative haploid inducer lines were obtained with three different gene constructs in the diploid banana Zebrina GF. The presence of the transgene in the lines was confirmed using PCR while silencing of the endogenous

CenH3 was assessed using northern blot analysis on the accumulation of siRNAs, this indicates that the genetic transformation was successful. The twenty seven PCR positive lines were chosen and are being grown in the glasshouse to check success in haploid induction.

Chapter five of this study characterized *CenH3* in different banana cultivars including the diploids Zebrina GF and Calcutta 4. Characterization of *CenH3* entailed evaluating the presence of splice and allele variants, evolutionary relationships in these variants and assess if there exists expression bias in the variants. Splice and allele variants were observed in both diploids and triploids with similarity being found in some variants across the ploidies. The presence of variants in bananas complicates the production of haploid inducers based on silencing of a single transcript because the success of haploid induction is pegged to the complete silencing of endogenous *CenH3*.

CONCLUSIONS

The current study endeavored to develop haploid inducers in bananas through a transgenic approach. From the study the following conclusions were made:

CHAPTER THREE:

1. The marker *NADH* can differentiate *Musa acuminata* (A genome) from *Musa balbisiana* (B-genome) even in mixed genomic groups irrespective of their ploidy.
2. That the partial coding sequence for the marker *CENH3* is able to differentiate A and B genome as well as intagenomic hybrids in the B genome.
3. The cultivar Zebrina GF used to develop haploid inducers in this study, has close relationship to the East African Highland (EAHB).

4. That atleast thirteen haplotypes exist amongst the 39 banana cultivars used in this study and that there might be more haplotypes if more banana cultivars were to be included.

CHAPTER FOUR:

In Chapter two the following conclusions were made:

1. The cultivar Zebrina GF is easier to transform and is more regenerative in comparison to the cultivar Calcutta 4.
2. That RNAi approach does not result in total (100%) silencing of the endogenous CENH3 in bananas and this is attributed to expression of multiple transcripts of the gene as observed in chapter five of this study.
3. That one of the main factors contributing to success in transformation is the cultivars used.

CHAPTER FIVE

1. Some triploid and diploid banana cultivars express multiple *CenH3* variants (alleles and splice)
2. The splicing of *CenH3* in bananas is variable with the most preferred splicing approach is the one having 7 exons and 6 introns.
3. *CenH3* in bananas is undergoing positive selection within all its domains.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite the successes that were achieved in the phylogeny of the 39 banana cultivars, several aspects need to be done in future studies to improve on this work. The phylogenetic study did

not identify progenitors of triploids from the diploids that were used, and the markers used could also not cluster the triploids to their progenitors. Several recommendations are therefore suggested for future phylogenetic work relating to phylogeny of bananas, these are:

1. More markers that have a higher level of variability should be used in future in order to achieve differentiation in A-genome cultivars.
2. More diploid progenitors should be used in future so that there are more choices from which the polyploids can cluster and consequently have a clear identification of the progenitors.

The overall goal of developing putative haploid inducers in the fourth Chapter of the study was achieved. However, there are recommendations proposed based on some of the shortcomings, these are:

1. Since RNAi approach did not realize complete gene silencing of the endogenous *CenH3*, basepair-specific silencing approaches like Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPRs) and Transcriptional Activator Like Effector Nucleases (TALENs) should be used in future. These have been shown to be more specific in their targeting been shown to be more specific in their targeting and can be used in silencing (Gaj *et al.*, 2013; Souza, 2013; Wendt *et al.*, 2013; Belhaj *et al.*, 2013; Comai, 2014)
2. The cultivar 'Calcutta 4' did not yield any transformants; this was due to the protocol used being ineffective. We recommend that the transformation protocol for this cultivar be improved in future by optimizing *A. Tumefaciens* OD, the infection time, the co-cultivation time and acetosyringone concentration.

Despite the efforts made to identify *CenH3* variants in bananas, only a minimum number of variants were identified in this study. In future work, the following recommendations are made:

1. To check if the various variants observed in this study are loaded into the centromere, it is recommended that immunostaining with regions specific to the respective variants be carried out and the translated protein checked.
2. Tagging of variants from a specific cultivar should be tagged with different fluorescent dyes and their localization in the centromere followed per cultivar.
3. Since only the minimum number of *CenH3* variants that were identified in this study, more clones should be included in future to have a clear view of *CenH3* transcription in bananas.
4. The *CenH3* genomic loci for the cultivars used in the current study should be sequenced in order to identify how many Loci exist and whether there is any variability amongst them.

7.0 REFERENCES

- Abiodun-Solanke, A. O. and Falade, K. O. (2011). A review of the uses and methods of processing banana and plantain (*Musa spp.*) into storable food products. *Journal of Agricultural Research and Development*, 9(2).
- Ahmad, K. and Henikoff, S. (2002). The histone variant H3. 3 marks active chromatin by replication-independent nucleosome assembly. *Molecular Cell*, 9(6), 119161200.
- Allshire, R. C. and Karpen, G. H. (2008). Epigenetic regulation of centromeric chromatin: old dogs, new tricks? *Nature Reviews. Genetics*, 9(12), 923637.
- Arvanitoyannis, I. S., Mavromatis, A. G., Grammatikaki-Avgeli, G. and Sakellariou, M. (2008). Banana: cultivars, biotechnological approaches and genetic transformation. *International Journal of Food Science & Technology*, 43(10), 187161879.
- Assani, A., Bakry, F., Kerbellec, F., Haïcour, R., Wenzel, G. and Foroughi-Wehr, B. (2003). Production of haploids from anther culture of banana [*Musa balbisiana* (BB)]. *Plant Cell Reports*, 21(6), 51166.
- Baker, R. and Rogers, K. Baker, R. and Rogers, K. (2006). Phylogenetic analysis of fungal centromere H3 proteins. *Genetics*, 174, 148161492.
- Bancaud, A., Wagner, G., Conde E Silva, N., Lavelle, C., Wong, H., Mozziconacci, J., Barbi, M., Sivolob, A., Le Cam, E., Mouawad, L., Viovy, J.-L., Victor, J.-M. and Prunell, A. (2007). Nucleosome chiral transition under positive torsional stress in single chromatin fibers. *Molecular Cell*, 27(1), 135647.
- Barnabás, B., Obert, B. and Kovács, G. (1999). Colchicine, an efficient genome-doubling agent for maize (*Zea mays* L.) microspores cultured in anthero. *Plant Cell Reports*, 18(10), 8586862.
- Basu, S. K., Datta, M., Sharma, M. and Kumar, A. (2011). Invited Review Article Haploid production technology in wheat and some selected higher plants. *Australian Journal of Crop Science*, 5(9), 108761093.
- Baulcombe, D. (2004). RNA silencing in plants. *Nature*, 431(7006), 356663.
- Baurens, F., Bocs, S., Rouard, M., Matsumoto, T., Miller, R. N. G., Rodier-Goud, M., MBéguié-A-MBéguié, D. and Yahiaoui, N. (2010). Mechanisms of haplotype divergence at the RGA08 nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat gene locus in wild banana (*Musa balbisiana*). *BMC Plant Biology*.

- Belhaj, K., Chaparro-garcia, A., Kamoun, S., and Nekrasov, V. (2013). Plant genome editing made easy: targeted mutagenesis in model and crop plants using the CRISPR / Cas system. *Plant Methods*, 9(1), 1.
- Bidmeshkipour, A, Thengane, R. J., Bahagvat, M. D., Ghaffari, S. M. and Rao, V. S. (2007). Production of haploid wheat via maize pollination. *Journal of Sciences, Islamic Republic of Iran*, 18(1), 5611.
- Black, B. and Bassett, E. (2008). The histone variant CENP-A and centromere specification. *Current Opinion in Cell Biology*, 20(1), 916100.
- Black, B. E. and Cleveland, D. W. (2011). Epigenetic centromere propagation and the nature of CENP-A nucleosomes. *Cell*, 144(4), 4716479.
- Black, B. E., Jansen, L. E. T., Maddox, P. S., Foltz, D. R., Desai, A. B., Shah, J. V and Cleveland, D. W. (2007). Centromere identity maintained by nucleosomes assembled with histone H3 containing the CENP-A targeting domain. *Molecular Cell*, 25(2), 3096 22.
- Boonruangrod, R., Desai, D., Fluch, S., Berenyi, M. and Burg, K. (2008). Identification of cytoplasmic ancestor gene-pools of *Musa acuminata* Colla and *Musa balbisiana* Colla and their hybrids by chloroplast and mitochondrial haplotyping. *TAG. Theoretical and Applied Genetics. Theoretische Und Angewandte Genetik*, 118(1), 43655.
- Boonruangrod, R., Fluch, S. and Burg, K. (2009). Elucidation of origin of the present day hybrid banana cultivars using the 5 ETS rDNA sequence information. *Molecular Breeding*, 24(1), 77691.
- Brown, N., Venkatasamy, S., Khittoo, G., Bahorun, T. and Jawaheer, S. (2009). Evaluation of genetic diversity between 27 banana cultivars (*Musa spp.*) in Mauritius using RAPD markers. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 8(9), 183461840.
- Browning, S. R. and Browning, B. L. (2011). Haplotype phasing: existing methods and new developments. *Nature Reviews. Genetics*, 12(10), 703614.
- Buehler, E., Khan, A. A., Marine, S., Rajaram, M., Bahl, A., Burchard, J. and Ferrer, M. E. (2012). siRNA off-target effects in genome-wide screens identify signaling pathway members. *Scientific Reports*, 2, 428.
- Camahort, R., Shivaraju, M., Mattingly, M., Li, B., Nakanishi, S., Zhu, D., Shilatifard, A., Workman, J. L. and Gerton, J. L. (2009). Cse4 is part of an octameric nucleosome in budding yeast. *Molecular Cell*, 35(6), 7946805.
- Campbell, A. W., Griffin, W. B., Burritt, D. J. and Conner, A. J. (2000). Production of wheat

- doubled haploids via wide crosses in New Zealand wheat. *New Zealand Journal of Crop and Horticultural Science*, 28(3), 1856194.
- Carreel, F., Gonzalez de Leon, D., Lagoda, P., Lanaud, C., Jenny, C., Horry, J. P. and Tezenas du Montcel, H. (2002). Ascertaining maternal and paternal lineage within *Musa* by chloroplast and mitochondrial DNA RFLP analyses. *Genome*, 45(4), 6796692.
- Chan, S. W. L. (2011). In a battle between parental chromosomes, a failure to reload. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 108(33), 1336162.
- Chan, S. W. L. (2008). Inputs and outputs for chromatin-targeted RNAi. *Trends in Plant Science*, 13(7), 38369.
- Chan, S. W. L. (2010). Chromosome Engineering: Power tools for plant genetics. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 28(12), 605610.
- Cheesman, E. (1947). Classification of the Bananas: The Genus *Musa* L. *Kew Bulletin*, 2(2), 1066117.
- Chen, J.F., Cui, L., Malik, A. A. and Mbira, K. G. (2010). In vitro haploid and dihaploid production via unfertilized ovule culture. *Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture (PCTOC)*, 104(3), 3116319.
- Ching, A., Caldwell, K. S., Jung, M., Dolan, M., Smith, O. S., Tingey, S., Morgante, M. and Rafalski, A. J. (2002). SNP frequency, haplotype structure and linkage disequilibrium in elite maize inbred lines. *BMC Genetics*, 3, 19.
- Chomczynski, P. and Sacchi, N. (2006). The single-step method of RNA isolation by acid guanidinium thiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction: twenty-something years on. *Nature Protocols*, 1(2), 58165.
- Christelová, P., Valárik, M., H ibová, E., De Langhe, E. and Dolefel, J. (2011). A multi gene sequence-based phylogeny of the Musaceae (banana) family. *BMC Evolutionary Biology*, 11(1), 103.
- Codomo, C. A., Furuyama, T. and Henikoff, S. (2014). CENP-A octamers do not confer a reduction in nucleosome height by AFM. *Nature Structural & Molecular Biology*, 21(1), 465.
- Collins, K., Furuyama, S. and Biggins, S. (2004). Proteolysis contributes to the exclusive centromere localization of the yeast Cse4/CENP-A histone H3 variant. *Current Biology*, 14(21), 1968672.
- Comai, L. (2014). Genome elimination: translating basic research into a future tool for plant

- breeding. *PLoS Biology*, 12(6), e1001876.
- Cooper, J. L. and Henikoff, S. (2004). Adaptive evolution of the histone fold domain in centromeric histones. *Mol. Biol. Evol.*, 21(9), 1712-1718.
- Creste, S., Tulmann Neto, A., Vencovsky, R., de Oliveira Silva, S. and Figueira, A. (2004). Genetic diversity of Musa diploid and triploid accessions from the Brazilian banana breeding program estimated by microsatellite markers. *Genetic Resources and Crop Evolution*, 51(7), 723-733.
- Crouch, J. H. (1998). Perspectives on the application of biotechnology to assist the genetic enhancement of plantain and banana (*Musa* spp.). *Electronic Journal of Biotechnology*, 1(1), 116-22.
- D'Hont, A., Paget-Goy, A., Escoute, J. and Carreel, F. (2000). The interspecific genome structure of cultivated banana, *Musa* spp. revealed by genomic DNA in situ hybridization. *TAG Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 100(2), 177-183.
- Dalal, Y., Furuyama, T., Vermaak, D. and Henikoff, S. (2007). Structure, dynamics, and evolution of centromeric nucleosomes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 104(41), 15974-681.
- Dalal, Y., Wang, H., Lindsay, S. and Henikoff, S. (2007). Tetrameric structure of centromeric nucleosomes in interphase *Drosophila* cells. *PLoS Biology*, 5(8), e218.
- Daniells, J., Jenny, C., Karamura, D. and Tomekpe, K.. (2001). *Musalogue: A catalogue of Musa germplasm Diversity in the genus Musa*.
- Dawe, R. K. and Henikoff, S. (2006). Centromeres put epigenetics in the driver's seat. *Trends in Biochemical Sciences*, 31(12), 662-669.
- De Langhe, E., H ibová, E., Carpentier, S., Doleel, J. and Swennen, R. (2010). Did backcrossing contribute to the origin of hybrid edible bananas? *Annals of Botany*.
- De Langhe, E., Vrydaghs, L., De Maret, P., Perrier, X. and Denham, T. (2009). Why bananas matter: An introduction to the history of banana domestication. *Ethnobotany Research and Applications*, 7, 165-178.
- Dechassa, M. L., Wyns, K., Li, M., Hall, M. A, Wang, M. D. and Luger, K. Dechassa, M. L., Wyns, K., Li, M., Hall, M. a, Wang, M. D. and Luger, K. (2011). Structure and Scm3-mediated assembly of budding yeast centromeric nucleosomes. *Nature Communications*, 313.
- Dechassa, M. L., Wyns, K. and Luger, K. (2014). Scm3 deposits a (Cse4-H4)₂ tetramer onto DNA through a Cse4-H4 dimer intermediate. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 42(9), 5532-642.

- Dimitriadis, E. K., Weber, C., Gill, R. K., Diekmann, S. and Dalal, Y. (2010). Tetrameric organization of vertebrate centromeric nucleosomes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 107(47), 20317622.
- Ding, C. and Cantor, C. R. (2003). Direct molecular haplotyping of long-range genomic DNA with M1-PCR. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 100(13), 7449653.
- Dunemann, F., Schrader, O., Budahn, H. and Houben, A. (2014). Characterization of centromeric histone H3 (CENH3) variants in cultivated and wild carrots (*Daucus sp.*). *PLoS ONE*, 9(6), e98504.
- Dunwell, J. M., Wilkinson, M. J., Nelson, S., Wening, S., Sitorus, A. C., Mienanti, D., Alfiko, Y., Croxford, A. E., Ford, C. S., Forster, B. P. and Caligari, P. D. S. (2010). Production of haploids and doubled haploids in oil palm. *BMC Plant Biology*, 10, 218.
- Dunwell, J. M. (2010). Haploids in flowering plants: origins and exploitation. *Plant Biotechnology Journal*, 8(4), 3776424.
- Ekwall, K. (2007). Epigenetic control of centromere behavior. *Annual Review of Genetics*, 41, 63681.
- Fachinetti, D., Folco, H. D., Nechemia-Arbely, Y., Valente, L. P., Nguyen, K., Wong, A. J., Zhu, Q., Holland, A. J., Desai, A., Jansen, L. E. T. and Cleveland, D. W. (2013). A two-step mechanism for epigenetic specification of centromere identity and function. *Nature Cell Biology*, 15(9), 1056666.
- Fauré, S., Noyer, J. L., Horry, J. P., Bakry, F., Lanaud, C. and Gonzalez de León, D. (1993). A molecular marker-based linkage map of diploid bananas (*Musa acuminata*). *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 87(4), 5176526.
- Fire, A., Xu, S., Montgomery, M. K., Kostas, S. A., Driver, S. E. and Mello, C. C. (1998). Potent and specific genetic interference by double-stranded RNA in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Nature*, 391(6669), 806611.
- Forster, B. P., Heberle-bors, E., Kasha, K. J. and Touraev, A. (2007). The resurgence of haploids in higher plants. *Trends in Plant Science*, 12(8), 368675.
- Froger, A. and Hall, J. E. (2007). Transformation of plasmid DNA into *E. coli* using the heat shock method. *Journal of Visualized Experiments : JoVE*, 253.
- Furuyama and Biggins, S. (2007). Centromere identity is specified by a single centromeric nucleosome in budding yeast. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 104(37), 14706611.

- Furuyama, T., Codomo, C. A. and Henikoff, S. (2013). Reconstitution of hemisomes on budding yeast centromeric DNA. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 41(11), 5769683.
- Fusaro, A. F., Matthew, L., Smith, N. A, Curtin, S. J., Dedic-Hagan, J., Ellacott, G. A, Watson, J. M., Wang, M.-B., Brosnan, C., Carroll, B. J. and Waterhouse, P. M. (2006). RNA interference-inducing hairpin RNAs in plants act through the viral defence pathway. *EMBO Reports*, 7(11), 1168675.
- Gaj, T., Gersbach, C. A. and Barbas, C. F. I. (2013). ZFN, TALEN, and CRISPR/Cas-based methods for genome engineering. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 31(7), 169.
- Gawel, N. J., Jarret, R. L. and Whittmore, A. P. (1992). Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) -based phylogenetic analysis of Musa. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics (TAG)*, 2866290.
- Gent, J. I., Schneider, K. L., Topp, C. N., Rodriguez, C., Presting, G. G. and Dawe, R. K. (2011). Distinct influences of tandem repeats and retrotransposons on CENH3 nucleosome positioning. *Epigenetics & Chromatin*, 4(1), 3.
- Germanà, M. A. Germanà, M. A. (2006). Doubled haploid production in fruit crops. *Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture*, 86(2), 1316146.
- Gonzales, M. M. F., Brooks, T., Pukatzki, S. S. U. and Provenzano, D. Gonzales, M. M. F., Brooks, T., Pukatzki, S. S. U. and Provenzano, D. (2013). Rapid protocol for preparation of electrocompetent Escherichia coli and Vibrio cholerae. *Journal of Visualized Experiments : JoVE*, (October), 6611.
- Grewal, R. K., Lulsdorf, M., Croser, J., Ochatt, S., Vandenberg, A. and Warkentin, T. D. Grewal, R. K., Lulsdorf, M., Croser, J., Ochatt, S., Vandenberg, A. and Warkentin, T. D. (2009). Doubled-haploid production in chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.): role of stress treatments. *Plant Cell Reports*, 28(8), 1289699.
- Groth, A., Rocha, W., Verreault, A. and Almouzni, G. (2007). Chromatin challenges during DNA replication and repair. *Cell*, 128(4), 721633.
- Häkkinen, M. (2013). Reappraisal of sectional taxonomy in *Musa* (Musaceae). *Taxon*, 62(4), 8096813.
- Henikoff, S., Furuyama, T. and Ahmad, K. (2004). Histone variants, nucleosome assembly and epigenetic inheritance. *Trends in Genetics*, 20(7), 32066.
- Henikoff, S. and Furuyama, T. (2012). The unconventional structure of centromeric nucleosomes. *Chromosoma*, 121(4), 341652.

- Henikoff, S. and Henikoff, J. G. (2012). Point centromeres of *Saccharomyces* harbor single centromere-specific nucleosomes. *Genetics*, *190*(4), 1575-67.
- Henikoff, S., Ramachandran, S., Krassovsky, K., Bryson, T. D., Codomo, C. A., Brogaard, K., Widom, J., Wang, J.-P. and Henikoff, J. G. (2014). The budding yeast Centromere DNA Element II wraps a stable Cse4 hemisome in either orientation in vivo. *eLife*, *3*, e01861.
- Hippolyte, I., Jenny, C., Gardes, L., Bakry, F., Rivallan, R., Pomies, V., Cubry, P., Tomekpe, K., Risterucci, A. M., Roux, N., Rouard, M., Arnaud, E., Kolesnikova-Allen, M. and Perrier, X. (2012). Foundation characteristics of edible *Musa* triploids revealed from allelic distribution of SSR markers. *Annals of Botany*, *109*(5), 937-951.
- Hirsch, C. D., Wu, Y., Yan, H. and Jiang, J. (2009). Lineage-specific adaptive evolution of the centromeric protein CENH3 in diploid and allotetraploid *Oryza* species. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, *26*(12), 2877-685.
- Hibová, E., Šífková, J., Christelová, P., Taudien, S., de Langhe, E. and Doležel, J. (2011). The ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 sequence region in the Musaceae: structure, diversity and use in molecular phylogeny. *PloS One*, *6*(3), e17863.
- Hui, L., Lu, L., Heng, Y., Qin, R., Xing, Y. and Jin, W. (2010). Expression of CENH3 alleles in synthesized allopolyploid *Oryza* species. *Journal of Genetics and Genomics*, *37*, 703-711.
- Kawabe, A. and Charlesworth, D. (2007). Patterns of DNA variation among three centromere satellite families in *Arabidopsis halleri* and *A. lyrata*. *Journal of Molecular Evolution*, *64*, 237-247.
- Kearse, M., Moir, R., Wilson, A., Stones-Havas, S., Cheung, M., Sturrock, S., Buxton, S., Cooper, A., Markowitz, S., Duran, C., Thierer, T., Ashton, B., Meintjes, P. and Drummond, A. (2012). Geneious Basic: an integrated and extendable desktop software platform for the organization and analysis of sequence data. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)*, *28*(12), 1647-69.
- Kim, K. M. and Baenziger, P. S. (2005). A simple wheat haploid and doubled haploid production system using anther culture. *In Vitro Cellular & Developmental Biology - Plant*, *41*(1), 22-27.
- Kouzarides, T. (2007). Chromatin modifications and their function. *Cell*, *128*(4), 693-705.
- Kusaba, M. (2004). RNA interference in crop plants. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, *15*(2), 139-43.

- Heslop-Harrison, J. S. and Schwarzacher, T. (2007). Domestication, genomics and the future for banana. *Annals of Botany*, 100(5), 1073684.
- Lee, S. Y., Cheong, J. I. and Kim, T. S. (2003). Production of doubled haploids through anther culture of M1 rice plants derived from mutagenized fertilized egg cells. *Plant Cell Reports*, 22(3), 2186223.
- Lermontova, I., Koroleva, O., Rutten, T., Fuchs, J., Schubert, V., Moraes, I., Koszegi, D. and Schubert, I. (2011). Knockdown of CENH3 in Arabidopsis reduces mitotic divisions and causes sterility by disturbed meiotic chromosome segregation. *The Plant Journal : For Cell and Molecular Biology*, 68(1), 40650.
- Lermontova, I., Kuhlmann, M., Friedel, S., Rutten, T., Heckmann, S., Sandmann, M., Demidov, D., Schubert, V. and Schubert, I. (2013). Arabidopsis kinetochore null2 is an upstream component for centromeric histone H3 variant cenH3 deposition at centromeres. *The Plant Cell*, 25(9), 33896404.
- Lermontova, I., Sandmann, M. and Demidov, D. (2014). Centromeres and kinetochores of Brassicaceae. *Chromosome Research : An International Journal on the Molecular, Supramolecular and Evolutionary Aspects of Chromosome Biology*, 22(2), 135652.
- Lermontova, I., Schubert, V., Fuchs, J., Klatte, S., Macas, J. and Schubert, I. (2006). Loading of Arabidopsis centromeric histone CENH3 occurs mainly during G2 and requires the presence of the histone fold domain. *The Plant Cell*, 18(10), 244362451.
- Lescot, M., Piffanelli, P., Ciampi, A. Y., Ruiz, M., Blanc, G., Leebens-Mack, J., Da Silva, F. R., Santos, C. M. R., D'Hont, A., Garsmeur, O., Vilarinhos, A. D., Kanamori, H., Matsumoto, T., Ronning, C. M., Cheung, F., Haas, B. J., Althoff, R., Arbogast, T., Hine, E., Pappas, G. J., Sasaki, T., Souza, M. T., Miller, R. N. G., Glaszmann, J.C. and Town, C. D. (2008). Insights into the Musa genome: syntenic relationships to rice and between Musa species. *BMC Genomics*, 9, 58.
- Li, L. F., Häkkinen, M., Yuan, Y. M., Hao, G. and Ge, X. J. (2010). Molecular phylogeny and systematics of the banana family (Musaceae) inferred from multiple nuclear and chloroplast DNA fragments, with a special reference to the genus Musa. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 57(1), 1610.
- Li, L. F., Wang, H. Y., Zhang, C., Wang, X. F., Shi, F. X., Chen, W. N. and Ge, X. J. (2013). Origins and domestication of cultivated banana inferred from chloroplast and nuclear genes. *PloS One*, 8(11), e80502.
- Mach, J. (2012). Rapid Centromere Evolution in Potato: Invasion of the Satellite Repeats. *The Plant Cell*, 24(September), 348763487.

- Maddox, P. S., Corbett, K. D. and Desai, A. (2012). Structure, assembly and reading of centromeric chromatin. *Current Opinion in Genetics and Development*, 22(2), 1396147.
- Magdum, S. S. (2013). Effect of Agrobacterium Induced Necrosis, Antibiotic Induced Phytotoxicity and Other Factors in Successful Plant Transformation. *Journal of Stress Physiology & Biochemistry*, 9(3), 986112.
- Maheshwari, S., Tan, E. H., West, A., Franklin, F. C. H., Comai, L. and Chan, S. W. L. (2015). Naturally Occurring Differences in CENH3 Affect Chromosome Segregation in Zygotic Mitosis of Hybrids. *PLOS Genetics*, 11(1), e1004970.
- Malik, H. S. and Henikoff, S. (2001). Adaptive evolution of Cid, a centromere-specific histone in *Drosophila*. *Genetics*, 157, 129361298.
- Malik, H. S. and Henikoff, S. (2009). Major Evolutionary Transitions in Centromere Complexity. *Cell* 138(6), 1067-1082.
- Maluszynski, M., Kenneth, K., B.P., F. and I., S. (2003). *Doubled Haploid Production in Crop Plants: A Manual* (Vol. 30). Springer Science & Business Media.
- Marine, S., Bahl, A., Ferrer, M. and Buehler, E. (2012). Common seed analysis to identify off-target effects in siRNA screens. *Journal of Biomolecular Screening*, 17(3), 37068.
- Masonbrink, R. E., Gallagher, J. P., Jareczek, J. J., Renny-Byfield, S., Grover, C. E., Gong, L. and Wendel, J. F. (2014). CenH3 evolution in diploids and polyploids of three angiosperm genera. *BMC Plant Biology*, 14, 1611.
- Matzke, M. A. and Birchler, J. A. (2005). RNAi-mediated pathways in the nucleus. *Nature Reviews. Genetics*, 6(1), 24635.
- Miki, D. and Shimamoto, K. (2004). Simple RNAi vectors for stable and transient suppression of gene function in rice. *Plant & Cell Physiology*, 45(4), 49065.
- Miller, R. N. G., Passos, M. A. N., Menezes, N. N. P., Souza, M. T., do Carmo Costa, M. M., Rennó Azevedo, V. C., Amorim, E. P., Pappas, G. J. and Ciampi, A. Y. (2010). Characterization of novel microsatellite markers in *Musa acuminata* subsp. *burmannicoides*, var. *Calcutta 4*. *BMC Research Notes*, 3, 148.
- Mizuguchi, G., Xiao, H., Wisniewski, J., Smith, M. M. and Wu, C. (2007). Nonhistone Scm3 and histones *CenH3*-H4 assemble the core of centromere-specific nucleosomes. *Cell*, 129(6), 1153664.
- Mohapatra, D., Mishra, S. and Sutar, N. (2010). Banana and its by-product utilization: an overview. *J Sci Ind Res*, 69(May), 3236329.

- Nagaki, K., Cheng, Z., Ouyang, S., Talbert, P. B., Kim, M., Jones, K. M., Henikoff, S., Buell, C. R. and Jiang, J. (2004). Sequencing of a rice centromere uncovers active genes. *Nature Genetics*, 36(2), 138645.
- Nagaki, K., Kashihara, K. and Murata, M. (2009). A centromeric DNA sequence colocalized with a centromere-specific histone H3 in tobacco. *Chromosoma*, 118, 2496257.
- Nechemia-Arbely, Y. (2012). Replicating centromeric chromatin: spatial and temporal control of CENP-A assembly. *Experimental Cell Research*, 318(12), 1353660.
- Neigenfind, J., Gyetvai, G., Basekow, R., Diehl, S., Achenbach, U., Gebhardt, C., Selbig, J. and Kersten, B. (2008). Haplotype inference from unphased SNP data in heterozygous polyploids based on SAT. *BMC Genomics*, 9, 356.
- Neumann, P., Navrátilová, A., Schroeder-Reiter, E., Koblífková, A., Steinbauerová, V., Chocholová, E., Novák, P., Wanner, G. and Macas, J. (2012). Stretching the rules: Monocentric chromosomes with multiple centromere domains. *PLoS Genetics*, 8(6).
- Niroula, R. K. and Bimb, H. P. (2009). Overview of Wheat X Maize System of Crosses for Dihaploid Induction in Wheat. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 7(8), 103761045.
- Nwakanma, D. C., Pillay, M., Okoli, B. E. and Tenkouano, A. (2003). Sectional relationships in the genus *Musa* L. inferred from the PCR-RFLP of organelle DNA sequences. *TAG. Theoretical and Applied Genetics. Theoretische Und Angewandte Genetik*, 107(5), 85066.
- Opara, U. L., Jacobson, D. and Al-Saady, N. A. (2010). Analysis of genetic diversity in banana cultivars (*Musa* cvs.) from the South of Oman using AFLP markers and classification by phylogenetic, hierarchical clustering and principal component analyses. *Journal of Zhejiang University. Science. B*, 11(5), 332641.
- Oselebe, H. O., Tenkouano, A., Pillay, M., Obi, I. U. and Uguru, M. I. (2006). Ploidy and Genome Segregation in *Musa* Breeding Populations Assessed by Flow Cytometry and Randomly Amplified Polymorphic DNA Markers. *Journal of American Society for Horticultural Sciences*, 131(6), 7806786.
- Perrier, X., Bakry, F., Jenny, C., Horry, J., Lebot, V. and Hippolyte, I. (2009). Combining Biological Approaches to Shed Light on the Evolution of Edible Bananas. *Geographical*, 7, 1996216.
- Perrier, X., De Langhe, E., Donohue, M., Lentfer, C., Vrydaghs, L., Bakry, F., Carreel, F., Hippolyte, I., Horry, J. P., Jenny, C., Lebot, V., Risterucci, A. M., Tomekpe, K., Doutrelepon, H., Ball, T., Manwaring, J., de Maret, P. and Denham, T. (2011). Multidisciplinary perspectives on banana (*Musa spp.*) domestication. *Proceedings of the*

National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 108(28), 1131168.

- Pignatta, D. and Comai, L. (2009). Parental squabbles and genome expression: lessons from the polyploids. *Journal of Biology*, 8(4), 43.
- Raboin, L. M., Carreel, F., Noyer, J. L., Baurens, F. C., Horry, J. P., Bakry, F., Montcel, H. T. Du, Ganry, J., Lanaud, C. and Lagoda, P. J. L. Raboin, L. M., Carreel, F., Noyer, J. L., Baurens, F. C., Horry, J. P., Bakry, F., Montcel, H. T. Du, Ganry, J., Lanaud, C. and Lagoda, P. J. L. (2005). Diploid Ancestors of Triploid Export Banana Cultivars: Molecular Identification of 2n Restitution Gamete Donors and n Gamete Donors. *Molecular Breeding*, 16(4), 3336341.
- Rando, O. (2007). Chromatin structure in the genomics era. *Trends in Genetics*, 23(2), 67673.
- Rapaport, F., Khanin, R., Liang, Y., Pirun, M., Krek, A., Zumbo, P., Mason, C. E., Socci, N. D. and Betel, D. (2013). Comprehensive evaluation of differential gene expression analysis methods for RNA-seq data. *Genome Biology*, 14(9), R95.
- Rapp, R. A., Haigler, C. H., Flagel, L., Hovav, R. H., Udall, J. A. and Wendel, J. F. (2010). Gene expression in developing fibres of Upland cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.) was massively altered by domestication. *BMC Biology*, 8(1), 139.
- Ravi, M. and Chan, S. W. L. (2010). Haploid plants produced by centromere-mediated genome elimination. *Nature*, 464(7288), 61568.
- Ravi, M., Kwong, P. N., Menorca, R. M. G., Valencia, J. T., Ramahi, J. S., Stewart, J. L., Tran, R. K., Sundaresan, V., Comai, L. and Chan, S. W. L. (2010). The rapidly evolving centromere-specific histone has stringent functional requirements in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Genetics*, 186(2), 461671.
- Ravi, M., Shibata, F., Ramahi, J. S., Nagaki, K., Chen, C. and Chan, S. W. L. (2011). Meiosis-Specific Loading of the Centromere-Specific Histone CENH3 in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *PLoS Genetics*, 7(6).
- Robinson, J. C. (2010). *Bananas and Plantains*, 2nd Edition.
- Ruanguttapha, S., Eimert, K., Schröder, M. B., Silayoi, B., Denduangboripant, J. and Kanchanapoom, K. (2007). Molecular phylogeny of banana cultivars from Thailand based on HAT-RAPD markers. *Genetic Resources and Crop Evolution*, 54(7), 15656 1572.
- Sanei, M., Pickering, R., Kumke, K., Nasuda, S. and Houben, A. (2011). Loss of centromeric histone H3 (CENH3) from centromeres precedes uniparental chromosome elimination in interspecific barley hybrids. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the*

United States of America, 108, E4986E505.

- Schubert, V., Lermontova, I. and Schubert, I. (2014). Loading of the centromeric histone H3 variant during meiosis-how does it differ from mitosis? *Chromosoma*.
- Sen, G. L. and Blau, H. M. (2006). A brief history of RNAi: the silence of the genes elucidation of the silencing trigger. *FASEB, 20, 129361299.*
- Seymour, D. K., Filiault, D. L., Henry, I. M., Monson-Miller, J., Ravi, M., Pang, A., Comai, L., Chan, S. W. L. and Maloof, J. N. Seymour, D. K., Filiault, D. L., Henry, I. M., Monson-Miller, J., Ravi, M., Pang, A., Comai, L., Chan, S. W. L. and Maloof, J. N. (2012). Rapid creation of Arabidopsis doubled haploid lines for quantitative trait locus mapping. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 109(11), 4227632.*
- Sheinin, M. Y., Li, M., Soltani, M., Luger, K. and Wang, M. D. (2013). Torque modulates nucleosome stability and facilitates H2A/H2B dimer loss. *Nature Communications, 4, 2579.*
- Shivaraju, M., Unruh, J. R., Slaughter, B. D., Mattingly, M., Berman, J. and Gerton, J. L. (2012). Cell-cycle-coupled structural oscillation of centromeric nucleosomes in yeast. *Cell, 150(2), 304616.*
- Simmonds, N. Simmonds, N. (1953). Classification of the Bananas. *Kew Bulletin, 8(4), 5716 572.*
- Snape, J. W., Lane, M. and Britain, G. (1986). Doubled production in winter wheat and tricale genotypes, using the Hordeum bulbosum system. *Euphytica, 35, 104561051.*
- Sorenson, M. D. and DaCosta, J. M. (2011). Genotyping HapSTR loci: phase determination from direct sequencing of PCR products. *Molecular Ecology Resources, 11(6), 1068675.*
- Souza, N. D. E. (2013). RNA-guided gene editing. *Nature Methods, 10(3), 189.*
- Steiner, F. and Henikoff, S. (2014). Holocentromeres are dispersed point centromeres localized at transcription factor hotspots. *eLife, 3, e02025.*
- Su, S., White, J., Balding, D. J. and Coin, L. J. M. (2008). Inference of haplotypic phase and missing genotypes in polyploid organisms and variable copy number genomic regions. *BMC Bioinformatics, 9, 513.*
- Tachiwana, H. and Kurumizaka, H. Tachiwana, H. and Kurumizaka, H. (2011). Structure of the CENP-A nucleosome and its implications for centromeric chromatin architecture. *Genes & Genetic Systems, 3576364.*

- Tagami, H., Ray-Gallet, D. (2004). Histone H3. 1 and H3. 3 complexes mediate nucleosome assembly pathways dependent or independent of DNA synthesis. *Cell*, 116(1), 51661.
- Talbert and Henikoff, S. (2010). Histone variants: ancient wrap artists of the epigenome. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 11(4), 264675.
- Talbert, P. B., Bryson, T. D. and Henikoff, S. (2004). Adaptive evolution of centromere proteins in plants and animals. *Journal of Biology*.
- Talbert, P. B., Masuelli, R., Tyagi, A. P., Comai, L. and Henikoff, S. (2002). Centromeric localization and adaptive evolution of an Arabidopsis histone H3 variant. *The Plant Cell*, 14(May), 105361066.
- Tamura, K., Stecher, G., Peterson, D., Filipinski, A. and Kumar, S. Tamura, K., Stecher, G., Peterson, D., Filipinski, A. and Kumar, S. (2013). MEGA6: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis version 6.0. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 30(12), 272569.
- Tek, A. L., Kashihara, K., Murata, M. and Nagaki, K. (2011). Functional centromeres in *Astragalus sinicus* include a compact centromere-specific histone H3 and a 20-bp tandem repeat. *Chromosome Research*, 19, 9696978.
- Thomas-Hall, S., Campbell, P. R., Carlens, K., Kawanishi, E., Swennen, R., Sági, L. and Schenk, P. M. (2007). Phylogenetic and molecular analysis of the ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase small subunit gene family in banana. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 58(10), 2685697.
- Thompson, J. D., Higgins, D. G. and Gibson, T. J. (1994). CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 22(22), 4673680.
- Tripathi, L., Tripathi, J. N. and Tushemereirwe, W. K. (2008). Rapid and efficient production of transgenic East African Highland Banana (*Musa* spp .) using intercalary meristematic tissues. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 7(10), 143861445.
- Tyson, J. and Armour, J. A. L. (2012). Determination of haplotypes at structurally complex regions using emulsion haplotype fusion PCR. *BMC Genomics*, 13(1), 1.
- Ude, G., Pillay, M., Nwakanma, D. and Tenkouano, A. (2002). Genetic Diversity in *Musa acuminata* Colla and *Musa balbisiana* Colla and some of their natural hybrids using AFLP Markers. *TAG. Theoretical and Applied Genetics. Theoretische Und Angewandte Genetik*, 104(8), 124661252.

- Van Nocker, S., & Gardiner, S. E. (2014). Breeding better cultivars, faster: applications of new technologies for the rapid deployment of superior horticultural tree crops. *Horticulture Research*, 1(March), 14022.
- Verdaasdonk, J. and Bloom, K. (2011). Centromeres: unique chromatin structures that drive chromosome segregation. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 12(5), 320632.
- Wang, G., He, Q., Liu, F., Cheng, Z., Talbert, P. and Jin, W. (2011). Characterization of CENH3 proteins and centromere-associated DNA sequences in diploid and allotetraploid Brassica species. *Chromosoma*, 120(4), 353665.
- Wendt, T., Holm, P. B., Starker, C. G., Christian, M., Voytas, D. F., Brinch-Pedersen, H., & Holme, I. B. (2013). TAL effector nucleases induce mutations at a pre-selected location in the genome of primary barley transformants. *Plant Molecular Biology*, 83(3), 279685.
- Wisniewski, J., Hajj, B., Chen, J., Mizuguchi, G., Xiao, H., Wei, D., Dahan, M. and Wu, C. (2014). Imaging the fate of histone Cse4 reveals de novo replacement in S phase and subsequent stable residence at centromeres. *eLife*, 3, e02203.
- Wong, C. (2001). Genetic Diversity of the Wild Banana *Musa acuminata* Colla in Malaysia as Evidenced by AFLP. *Annals of Botany*, 88(6), 101761025.
- Wong, C. (2002). Assessment of the Validity of the Sections in *Musa* (Musaceae) using AFLP. *Annals of Botany*, 90(2), 2316238.
- Yahata, M., Kunitake, H., Yabuya, T., Yamashita, K., Kashihara, Y. and Komatsu, H. (2005). Production of a Doubled Haploid from a Haploid Pummelo Using Colchicine Treatment of Axillary. *Journal of American Society for Horticultural Sciences*, 130(6), 8996903.
- Yip, M. K., Lee, S.-W., Su, K. C., Lin, Y. H., Chen, T. Y. and Feng, T. Y. (2011). An easy and efficient protocol in the production of pflp transgenic banana against *Fusarium* wilt. *Plant Biotechnology Reports*, 5(3), 2456254.
- Yoo, M. J., Liu, X., Pires, J. C., Soltis, P. S. and Soltis, D. E. (2014). Nonadditive Gene Expression in Polyploids. *Annual Review of Genetics*, 48(1), 4856517.
- Yoo, M. J., Szadkowski, E. and Wendel, J. F. (2013). Homoeolog expression bias and expression level dominance in allopolyploid cotton. *Heredity*, 110(2), 171680.
- Yuan, J., Guo, X., Hu, J., Lv, Z. and Han, F. (2015). Characterization of two CENH3 genes and their roles in wheat evolution. *New Phytologist*, 206(2), 8396851.
- Zhang, T., Talbert, P. B., Zhang, W., Wu, Y., Yang, Z., Henikoff, J. G., Henikoff, S. and Jiang, J. Zhang, T., Talbert, P. B. (2013). The CentO satellite confers translational and rotational phasing on cenH3 nucleosomes in rice centromeres. *Proceedings of the*

National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 110(50), E4875683.

Zhong, C., Marshall, J. and Topp, C. (2002a). Centromeric retroelements and satellites interact with maize kinetochore protein CENH3. *The Plant Cell*, 14(11), 282562836.

Zhong, C. X., Marshall, J. B., Topp, C., Mroczek, R., Kato, A., Nagaki, K., Birchler, J. A., Jiang, J. and Dawe, R. K. (2002b). Centromeric retroelements and satellites interact with maize kinetochore protein CENH3. *The Plant Cell*, 14(November), 282562836.

Zhou, Z., Feng, H., Zhou, B., Ghirlando, R. and Hu, K. (2011). Structural basis for recognition of centromere histone variant CenH3 by the chaperone Scm3. *Nature*, 472(7342), 23467.

8.0 LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Transgenic lines for different constructs that were transferred to the glass house

Construct	Line number
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	2
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	5
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	7
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	8
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	9
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	19
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	11
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	12
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	17
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	21
<i>GFP-CenH3</i>	31
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	33
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	34
<i>GFP-CENH3</i>	37
<i>GFP- CenH3</i>	40
<i>GFP-Tailswap</i>	1
<i>GFP-Tailswap</i>	2
<i>GFP-Tailswap</i>	4
<i>GFP-Tailswap</i>	6

<i>GFP-Tailswap</i>	7
<i>GFP-Tailswap</i>	9
<i>Tailswap</i>	2
<i>Tailswap</i>	3
<i>Tailswap</i>	4
<i>Tailswap</i>	6
<i>Tailswap</i>	7
<i>Tailswap</i>	8

Appendix 2: Ka/Ks values obtained in *CenH3* full CDS alignment of different cultivars and exon/intron structure groups.

	Seq1	Seq 2	Exon /intron structure	Syn Dif	SynPos	Ks	NSynDif	NSynPos	Ka	Ka/Ks
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106.08	0.076	14.33	310.92	0.0476	0.626315789
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106.08	0.0972	15.33	310.92	0.051	0.524691358
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106.08	0.0656	14.33	310.92	0.0476	0.725609756
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106.08	0.0656	14.33	310.92	0.0476	0.725609756

5	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	4	105.5	0.0389	1	311.5	0.0032	0.082262211
5	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	3	105.5	0.029	1	311.5	0.0032	0.110344828
5	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	3	105.5	0.029	1	311.5	0.0032	0.110344828
5	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	1	105.5	0.0095	0	311.5	0	0
5	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	0	105.5	0	0	311.5	0	0
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
5	Kayinja CENH3	Gros michel CENH3	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526

	clone D	clone E								6
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	2	106. 92	0.01 89	2	310. 08	0.00 65	0.343 91534 4
5	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	2	106. 92	0.01 89	2	310. 08	0.00 65	0.343 91534 4
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	5	0	106. 67	0	0	310. 33	0	0
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106. 08	0.07 6	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.626 31578 9
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106. 08	0.09 72	15.3 3	310. 92	0.05 1	0.524 69135 8
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106. 08	0.06 56	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.725 60975 6
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106. 08	0.06 56	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.725 60975 6
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	5	0	106. 67	0	0	310. 33	0	0
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106. 08	0.07 6	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.626 31578 9
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3	Sukali ndizi CENH3	5	9.67	106. 08	0.09 72	15.3 3	310. 92	0.05 1	0.524 69135

	clone G	clone C								8
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106.08	0.0656	14.33	310.92	0.0476	0.725609756
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106.08	0.0656	14.33	310.92	0.0476	0.725609756
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	6	0	106.67	0	0	310.33	0	0
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.92	0.0189	2	310.08	0.0065	0.343915344

6	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	2	106.92	0.0189	2	310.08	0.0065	0.343915344
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	2	106.58	0.019	4	310.42	0.013	0.684210526
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.92	0.0189	2	310.08	0.0065	0.343915344
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	2	106.92	0.0189	2	310.08	0.0065	0.343915344
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	7	1	106.67	0.0094	0	310.33	0	0
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3	Sukali ndizi CENH3	7	0	106.83	0	1	310.17	0.0032	0

	clone G	clone F								
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	7	1	106.58	0.0094	0	310.42	0	0
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	7	1	106.67	0.0094	0	310.33	0	0
6	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.67	0.019	0	310.33	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106	0.0761	18.33	311	0.0614	0.806833114
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106	0.0972	19.33	311	0.0649	0.667695473
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106	0.0761	18.33	311	0.0614	0.806833114
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106	0.0972	19.33	311	0.0649	0.667695473

7	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106	0.0761	18.33	311	0.0614	0.806833114
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106	0.0972	19.33	311	0.0649	0.667695473
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106	0.0761	18.33	311	0.0614	0.806833114
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106	0.0972	19.33	311	0.0649	0.667695473
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Gros michel CENH3	Zebrina CENH3	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.93455098

	clone D	clone D								9
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106	0.0761	18.33	311	0.0614	0.806833114
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106	0.0972	19.33	311	0.0649	0.667695473
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106	0.0657	18.33	311	0.0614	0.934550989
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106.33	0.0758	16.33	310.67	0.0545	0.718997361
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106.33	0.0969	17.33	310.67	0.058	0.598555212
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106.33	0.0655	16.33	310.67	0.0545	0.832061069
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106.33	0.0655	16.33	310.67	0.0545	0.832061069
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106.33	0.0758	16.33	310.67	0.0545	0.718997361
7	Kayinja CENH3	Sukali ndizi	5	9.67	106.	0.09	17.3	310.	0.05	0.59855521

	clone C	CENH3 clone C			33	69	3	67	8	2
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106. 33	0.06 55	16.3 3	310. 67	0.05 45	0.832 06106 9
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106. 33	0.06 55	16.3 3	310. 67	0.05 45	0.832 06106 9
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	5	1	106. 67	0.00 94	0	310. 33	0	0
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106. 08	0.07 6	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.626 31578 9
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106. 08	0.09 72	15.3 3	310. 92	0.05 1	0.524 69135 8
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106. 08	0.06 56	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.725 60975 6
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106. 08	0.06 56	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.725 60975 6
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	1	105. 5	0.00 95	0	311. 5	0	0
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	5	0	106. 83	0	1	310. 17	0.00 32	0

7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106.25	0.0759	15.33	310.75	0.051	0.671936759
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106.25	0.097	16.33	310.75	0.0545	0.56185567
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106.25	0.0655	15.33	310.75	0.051	0.778625954
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106.25	0.0655	15.33	310.75	0.051	0.778625954
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	5	1	106.58	0.0094	0	310.42	0	0
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	8.67	106	0.0866	14.33	311	0.0476	0.54965358
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	10.67	106	0.1081	15.33	311	0.051	0.471785384
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	7.67	106	0.0761	14.33	311	0.0476	0.625492773
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	7.67	106	0.0761	14.33	311	0.0476	0.625492773
7	Zebrina CENH3	Kayinja CENH3	5	2	106.67	0.019	0	310.33	0	0

	clone B	clone D								
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	9.67	106. 08	0.09 72	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.489 71193 4
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106. 08	0.09 72	15.3 3	310. 92	0.05 1	0.524 69135 8
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	8.67	106. 08	0.08 65	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.550 28901 7
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	8.67	106. 08	0.08 65	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.550 28901 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Kayinja CENH3 clone D	5	1	106. 67	0.00 94	0	310. 33	0	0
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	8.67	106. 08	0.08 65	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.550 28901 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	10.6 7	106. 08	0.10 8	15.3 3	310. 92	0.05 1	0.472 22222 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	7.67	106. 08	0.07 6	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.626 31578 9
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	7.67	106. 08	0.07 6	14.3 3	310. 92	0.04 76	0.626 31578 9
7	Zebrina GF	Kayinja CENH3	5	0	107.	0	2	309.	0.00	0

	CENH3 clone C	clone D			17			83	65	
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone B	5	7.67	106. 58	0.07 56	16.3 3	310. 42	0.05 46	0.722 22222 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone C	5	9.67	106. 58	0.09 67	17.3 3	310. 42	0.05 8	0.599 79317 5
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone E	5	6.67	106. 58	0.06 53	16.3 3	310. 42	0.05 46	0.836 14088 8
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Zebrina CENH3 clone D	5	6.67	106. 58	0.06 53	16.3 3	310. 42	0.05 46	0.836 14088 8
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	6	1	106. 67	0.00 94	0	310. 33	0	0
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	6	0	106. 83	0	1	310. 17	0.00 32	0
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	6	1	106. 58	0.00 94	0	310. 42	0	0
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	6	2	106. 67	0.01 9	0	310. 33	0	0
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	6	1	106. 67	0.00 94	0	310. 33	0	0

7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone F	6	0	107. 17	0	2	309. 83	0.00 65	0
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone G	6	0	107. 17	0	2	309. 83	0.00 65	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	0	106. 5	0	0	310. 5	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	0	106. 5	0	0	310. 5	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	0	106. 5	0	0	310. 5	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	0	106. 5	0	0	310. 5	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	0	106. 5	0	0	310. 5	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	0	106. 5	0	0	310. 5	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	0	106. 5	0	0	310. 5	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3	Gros michel CENH3	7	0	106. 5	0	0	310. 5	0	0

	clone C	clone D								
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	0	106.5	0	0	310.5	0	0
7	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	0	106.5	0	0	310.5	0	0
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	2	106.83	0.019	2	310.17	0.0065	0.342105263
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.83	0.019	2	310.17	0.0065	0.342105263
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	2	106.83	0.019	2	310.17	0.0065	0.342105263
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	2	106.83	0.019	2	310.17	0.0065	0.342105263
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	2	106.83	0.019	2	310.17	0.0065	0.342105263
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	0	107.17	0	0	309.83	0	0
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	2	106.83	0.019	2	310.17	0.0065	0.342105263
7	Kayinja CENH3	Gros michel	7	2	106.	0.01	2	310.	0.00	0.34210526

	clone C	CENH3 clone B			83	9		17	65	3
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	2	106. 83	0.01 9	2	310. 17	0.00 65	0.342 10526 3
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	2	106. 83	0.01 9	2	310. 17	0.00 65	0.342 10526 3
7	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	2	106. 83	0.01 9	2	310. 17	0.00 65	0.342 10526 3
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	3	106. 92	0.02 86	2	310. 08	0.00 65	0.227 27272 7

7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	3	106.92	0.0286	2	310.08	0.0065	0.2272727
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	7	2	106.58	0.019	0	310.42	0	0
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	2	106.75	0.019	5	310.25	0.0163	0.857894737
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.75	0.019	5	310.25	0.0163	0.857894737
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	2	106.75	0.019	5	310.25	0.0163	0.857894737
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	2	106.75	0.019	5	310.25	0.0163	0.857894737
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	2	106.75	0.019	5	310.25	0.0163	0.857894737
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	2	107.08	0.0189	3	309.92	0.0097	0.513227513
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	2	107.08	0.0189	3	309.92	0.0097	0.513227513
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3	Sukali ndizi CENH3	7	1	106.83	0.0094	1	310.17	0.0032	0.34042553

	clone F	clone A								2
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	7	1	106.75	0.0094	1	310.25	0.0032	0.340425532
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	7	1	106.83	0.0094	1	310.17	0.0032	0.340425532
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone B	7	2	106.83	0.019	1	310.17	0.0032	0.168421053
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	3	106.5	0.0287	4	310.5	0.013	0.452961672
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	3	106.5	0.0287	4	310.5	0.013	0.452961672
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	3	106.5	0.0287	4	310.5	0.013	0.452961672
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	3	106.5	0.0287	4	310.5	0.013	0.452961672
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	3	106.5	0.0287	4	310.5	0.013	0.452961672
7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	3	106.83	0.0286	2	310.17	0.0065	0.2272727

7	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	3	106.83	0.0286	2	310.17	0.0065	0.2272727
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	4	106.58	0.0385	4	310.42	0.013	0.337662338
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	4	106.58	0.0385	4	310.42	0.013	0.337662338
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	4	106.58	0.0385	4	310.42	0.013	0.337662338
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	4	106.58	0.0385	4	310.42	0.013	0.337662338
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	4	106.58	0.0385	4	310.42	0.013	0.337662338
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	4	106.92	0.0384	2	310.08	0.0065	0.169270833
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	4	106.92	0.0384	2	310.08	0.0065	0.169270833
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	7	3	106.67	0.0287	0	310.33	0	0
7	Zebrina CENH3 clone B	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	7	3	106.58	0.0287	0	310.42	0	0

7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	3	106. 58	0.02 87	4	310. 42	0.01 3	0.452 96167 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	3	106. 92	0.02 86	2	310. 08	0.00 65	0.227 27272 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	3	106. 92	0.02 86	2	310. 08	0.00 65	0.227 27272 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	7	2	106. 67	0.01 9	0	310. 33	0	0
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	7	2	106. 58	0.01 9	0	310. 42	0	0
7	Zebrina GF CENH3	Zebrina GF CENH3	7	1	106. 67	0.00 94	0	310. 33	0	0

	clone A	clone B								
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone A	7	2	107. 08	0.01 89	6	309. 92	0.01 96	1.037 03703 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone B	7	2	107. 08	0.01 89	6	309. 92	0.01 96	1.037 03703 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone C	7	2	107. 08	0.01 89	6	309. 92	0.01 96	1.037 03703 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone D	7	2	107. 08	0.01 89	6	309. 92	0.01 96	1.037 03703 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Gros michel CENH3 clone E	7	2	107. 08	0.01 89	6	309. 92	0.01 96	1.037 03703 7
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Kayinja CENH3 clone B	7	2	107. 42	0.01 89	4	309. 58	0.01 3	0.687 83068 8
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Kayinja CENH3 clone C	7	2	107. 42	0.01 89	4	309. 58	0.01 3	0.687 83068 8
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone A	7	1	107. 17	0.00 94	2	309. 83	0.00 65	0.691 48936 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone F	7	0	107. 33	0	3	309. 67	0.00 98	0

7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Sukali ndizi CENH3 clone H	7	1	107. 08	0.00 94	2	309. 92	0.00 65	0.691 48936 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone A	7	1	107. 17	0.00 94	2	309. 83	0.00 65	0.691 48936 2
7	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone C	Zebrina GF CENH3 clone B	7	2	107. 17	0.01 89	2	309. 83	0.00 65	0.343 91534 4

Appendix 3: Ka/Ks ratios that were observed to be greater than one in different banana *CenH3* transcripts pairwise alignments

	Sequence 1	Sequence 2	Ks	Ka	Ka/Ks
Full length	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone A	0.0189	0.0196	1.03704
	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone B	0.0189	0.0196	1.03704
	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone C	0.0189	0.0196	1.03704
	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone D	0.0189	0.0196	1.03704
	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone E	0.0189	0.0196	1.03704
N-terminal tail	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone A	0.0276	0.0303	1.09783
	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone B	0.0276	0.0303	1.09783
	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone C	0.0276	0.0303	1.09783
	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone D	0.0276	0.0303	1.09783
	Zebrina GF clone C	Gros michel clone E	0.0276	0.0303	1.09783

	Sukali ndizi clone F	Gros michel clone A	0.0275	0.0303	1.10182
	Sukali ndizi clone F	Gros michel clone B	0.0275	0.0303	1.10182
	Sukali ndizi clone F	Gros michel clone C	0.0275	0.0303	1.10182
	Sukali ndizi clone F	Gros michel clone D	0.0275	0.0303	1.10182
	Sukali ndizi clone F	Gros michel clone E	0.0275	0.0303	1.10182
	<hr/>				
C-terminal	Sukali ndizi clone C	Gros michel clone F	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
	Sukali ndizi clone C	Kayinja clone D	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
	Sukali ndizi clone C	Sukali ndizi clone A	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
	Sukali ndizi clone C	Sukali ndizi clone B	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
	Gros michel clone B	Sukali ndizi clone B	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
	Gros michel clone A	Sukali ndizi clone B	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
	Gros michel clone C	Sukali ndizi clone B	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
	Gros michel clone D	Sukali ndizi clone B	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239

Gros michel clone E	Sukali ndizi clone B	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Sukali ndizi clone C	Sukali ndizi clone E	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Gros michel clone B	Sukali ndizi clone E	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Gros michel clone A	Sukali ndizi clone E	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Gros michel clone C	Sukali ndizi clone E	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Gros michel clone D	Sukali ndizi clone E	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Gros michel clone E	Sukali ndizi clone E	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Sukali ndizi clone C	Sukali ndizi clone F	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Sukali ndizi clone C	Sukali ndizi clone G	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Sukali ndizi clone C	Zebrina GF clone A	0.0159	0.0188	1.18239
Sukali ndizi clone C	Sukali ndizi clone H	0.0158	0.0236	1.49367
