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Additional Information

| 1 | Expression and function of the bHLH genes ALCATRAZ and SPATULA in selected |
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| 2 | Solanaceae species |
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| 4 | Clara Inés Ortiz-Ramírez ^{1, 2} , Marco A. Giraldo ³ , Cristina Ferrándiz ² , Natalia Pabón- |
| 5 | Mora ^{1,*} |
| 6 | |
| 7 | ¹ Instituto de Biología, Universidad de Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia, ² Instituto de Biología |
| 8 | Molecular y Celular de Plantas, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas— |
| 9 | Universidad Politécnica de Valencia, Valencia, Spain; ³ Instituto de Física, Universidad de |
| 10 | Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia. |
| 11 | |
| | *Corresponding author: |
| 12 | |
| 13 | Natalia Pabón- Mora |
| 14 | Tel: +57 3217720164 |
| 15 | Email: lucia.pabon@udea.edu.co |
| 16 | |
| 17 | Running Title: The role of ALCATRAZ and SPATULA in Solanaceae |
| 18 | Keywords : <i>ALCATRAZ</i> , berries, capsules, fruit development, lignification, pigmentation, |
| 19 | SPATULA, Solanaceae. |
| 20 | |
| | Summony |
| 21 | Summary |
| 22 | • The genetic mechanisms underlying fruit development have been identified in |
| 23 | Arabidopsis and have been comparatively studied in tomato as a representative of |
| 24 | fleshy fruits. However comparative expression and functional analyses on the bHLH |
| 25 | genes downstream the genetic network, ALCATRAZ (ALC) and SPATULA (SPT) |
| 26 | which are involved in the formation of the dehiscence zone in Arabidopsis, have not |
| 27 | been functionally studied in the Solanaceae. |

- Here we perform detailed expression and functional studies of *ALC/SPT* homologs in *Nicotiana obtusifolia* with capsules, and *Capsicum annuum* and *Solanum lycopersicum* with berries.
- In Solanaceae, ALC and SPT genes are expressed in leaves, all floral organs, especially in petal margins, stamens and carpels, however their expression changes during fruit maturation according to the fruit type. Functional analyses show that downregulation of ALC/SPT genes does not have an effect on gynoecium patterning, however, they have acquired opposite roles in petal expansion and have been coopted in leaf pigmentation in Solanaceae. In addition, ALC/SPT genes repress lignification in time and space during fruit development in Solanaceae.
- Altogether, some roles of *ALC* and *SPT* genes are different between Brassicaceae and Solanaceae. In addition, the paralogs have undergone some subfunctionalization in the former and are mostly redundant in the latter.

Introduction

Fruits are extreme ontogenetic transformations of the carpel walls as a result of ovule fertilization (Esau 1967). As they are often fleshy, tasty and nutritious, fruits are at the core of human and animal diets (Seymour *et al.*, 2013). However, not all fruits are fleshy and frequently the carpel transforms into a pod that dries out and splits open to release the seeds (Esau 1967). A fruit genetic regulatory network has been proposed for the development of the siliques of the model *Arabidopsis thaliana*, based on loss- and gain-of-function mutants that exhibit defects in fruit patterning and development, the identification of the corresponding genes, and the characterization of their functional relationships by genetic analyses (Dinneny *et al.*, 2005, Roeder & Yanofsky, 2006). The genetic model for fruit development has served as reference for comparative studies in other model and non-model plants. *Arabidopsis* species have siliques, which are dry dehiscent fruits formed by two fused carpels. The ovary, formed by two valves corresponding to the carpel walls, is divided longitudinally by the septum, which contains the transmitting tract and whose outer portion

becomes the replum. At the valve margins, between the replum and the valves, the dehiscence 58 59 zone is formed, herein two layers form, one is lignified and the adjacent one is unlignified. The tension between the two during fruit maturation results in dehiscence and effective seed 60 dispersal (Ferrándiz, 2002; Ballester & Ferrándiz, 2017). Proper valve development is 61 62 ensured by the MADS-box transcription factor FRUITFULL (FUL), and replum identity is the result of the maintained expression of the homeodomain REPLUMLESS (RPL) gene (Gu 63 et al., 1998; Roeder et al., 2003; Fourquin & Ferrándiz 2014). FUL and RPL act as repressors 64 of the MADS-box SHATTERPROOF proteins (SHP1 and SHP2) to the valve margin, which 65 in turn are responsible for the downstream activation of the bHLH genes, INDEHISCENT 66 67 (IND) in both the lignified and the separation layers, and of ALCATRAZ (ALC) and SPATULA (SPT) only in the separation layer (Liljegren et al., 2000; 2004; Rajani & Sundaresan 2001; 68 Girin et al., 2011). Tension in these two layers during fruit maturation results in fruit 69 70 dehiscence at the valve margin, leaving the replum intact, and the seeds attached to it. 71 Homologs of these regulatory genes of fruit development have also been studied in 72 Solanaceae, in particular, in tomato and tobacco. Tomato has two functionally characterized FRUITFULL orthologs, SIFUL1 (named also TDR4) and SIFUL2 (named also MBP7) that 73 are known to promote ripening during fruit development (Bemer et al., 2012), and one 74 SHATTERPROOF homolog, Tomato AGAMOUS-Like 1 (TAGL1). The tagl1 mutant displays 75 ripening defects as well as reduction in the number of pericarp layers (Itkin et al., 2009; 76 Vrebalov et al., 2009; Pan et al., 2010). FUL and SHP orthologs have also been functionally 77 78 characterized in tobacco dry dehiscent fruits of *Nicotiana* species. Over-expression of *NtFUL* 79 in Nicotiana sylvestris or down-regulation of NbSHP in Nicotiana benthamiana result in 80 indehiscent fruits, lacking a functional dehiscence zone (Fourquin & Ferrándiz 2012; Smykal 81 et al., 2007). These data suggest that the FUL-SHP genetic switch is maintained in Solanaceae (Fourquin & Ferrándiz 2012; Garceau et al. 2017). In addition to the structural 82 genes identified in Arabidopsis, other ripening genes have been identified in tomato, 83 including SIMADS-RIN, also a MADS-box transcription factor (Vrebalov et al. 2002; Ito et 84 85 al. 2017). Not only SIMADS-RIN controls softening along the maturation time course in 86 tomato (Fujisawa et al. 2011; 2012), but also the heterologous expression of the Capsicum annuum ortholog CaMADS-RIN recovers the wild type phenotypes in Slmads rin mutant 87

backgrounds (Dong et al. 2013) suggesting that ripening via RIN occurs in both climacteric 88 89 tomato fruits and non-climateric pepper fruits. More recently we were able to study the downstream genes of SHP homologs in the 90 91 Solanaceae. The downstream targets comprise specifically the bHLH ALCATRAZ/SPATULA genes, and orthologs of INDEHISCENT/HECATE3. These studies have shown that each gene 92 93 lineage has undergone different duplication time points resulting in different genetic complements in the Solanaceae when compared to the Brassicaceae. In general, Solanaceae 94 95 species have less copies of SHP and lack IND orthologs. IND genes are the result of a Brassicaceae specific duplication event, thus the Solanaceae have preduplication genes more 96 97 similar to HEC3 than to IND. Both Solanaceae and Brassicaceae have the same number of 98 copies of ALC and SPT (Ortíz-Ramírez et al., 2018). However, changes in copy number and 99 functional motifs within Solanaceae are hard to correlate to shifts in fruit type (dry/fleshy). On the other hand, expression analyses done so far in four different Solanaceae species with 100 101 different fruit types show opposite expression of SPT and ALC orthologs between dry and fleshy fruited species during fruit maturation. While ALC genes are turned off in the dry 102 dehiscent fruits of Brunfelsia australis during fruit maturation, SPT orthologs show this trend 103 of decreasing expression levels in fleshy fruits of Capsicum annuum and Solanum 104 lycopersicum during maturation (Ortíz-Ramírez et al., 2018). Altogether, these data are 105 suggestive but insufficient to understand the functional contribution of the bHLH 106 107 downstream effectors in different Solanaceae fruit types. Outside Brassicaceae and Solanaceae only a few other scattered expression studies of 108 ALC/SPT bHLH fruit development genes are available in strawberry (Fragaria vesca) and 109 peach (Prunus persica). In P. persica, expression analysis of the SPT ortholog, 110 111 PPERALCATRAZ/SPATULA (PPERALC/SPT), showed that it is expressed in the perianth, 112 ovary and later in the endocarp margins as well as in leaves (Tani et al. 2011; Dardick & 113 Callahan 2014). Based on these data, *PPERALC/SPT* was proposed to have a role in endocarp patterning during fruit maturation. In F. vesca FvSPT, the SPT ortholog, is involved in 114 115 positively regulating fruit growth, as *faspt* fruits in early stages exhibited reduced size (Tisza et al. 2010). The available data, however, are insufficient to assess if there are conserved 116

roles of ALC/SPT homologs in fruit development across different fruit types in different taxa.

In order to expand the functional analyses of SPT and ALC homologs, we have aimed to assess spatio-temporal expression patterns and functions of SPT and ALC during vegetative and reproductive development, and in particular their putative contribution to fruit morphogenesis and development in different fruit types in Solanaceae. We have performed in situ hybridization studies, as well as gene downregulation studies for ALC and SPT homologs in one dry fruited species, Nicotiana obtusifolia, and in two fleshy fruited species, Capsicum annuum cv Black Pearl and Solanum lycopersicum cv microTom. Our expression analyses show overlapping and broad expression of ALC and SPT genes in the three species during early flower development, but differences in their expression patterns according to the fruit type at later stages. Our functional analyses show that ALC and SPT have roles in floral organ growth, particularly petals, in the three species. In addition, both genes appear to play redundant functions in limiting lignification and maintaining the identity of the pericarp layers in both dry dehiscent and fleshy fruits. Finally, we found that ALC/SPT genes participate in leaf pigmentation via the synthesis and accumulation of anthocyanins in Solanaceae species, particularly those having dark green leaves. The roles in pigmentation had been reported for other bHLH genes but not for those in the ALC/SPT gene lineage.

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Materials and Methods

Plant material and growth conditions

- 137 Capsicum annum ev. Black Pearl seeds were obtained from local supply stores, whereas
- 138 Nicotiana obtusifolia and Solanum lycopersicum var. microTom seeds were obtained from
- the New York Botanical Garden (NYBG). All seeds were germinated on fertilized soil with
- moisture control at 16h of light/8h of dark at 25°C. Seedlings were transplanted and grown
- in the same conditions.

In situ Hibridization

- For *in situ* hybridization, floral buds, carpels from anthetic flowers and fruits at different
- developmental stages (F1 and F2) from wild type plants of *Nicotiana obtusifolia, Capsicum*
- annum and Solanum lycopersicum were collected and fixed under vacuum in freshly prepared
- 146 FAA (50% ethanol, 3.7% formaldehyde and 5% glacial acetic acid). Samples were
- dehydrated, embedded and sectioned at 8-12µm on a Leica RM2125 rotary microtome. DNA

- templates for RNA probe synthesis were obtained by PCR amplification of 400 to 550 bp
- fragments. To ensure specificity, the primers were designed downstream of the bHLH region
- that is highly variable between paralogs. RNA in situ hybridization was performed according
- to Ferrándiz et al., (2000) and optimized for each species: N. obtusifolia and S. lycopersicum
- sections were hybridized overnight at 53°C, whereas C. annuum sections were hybridized
- overnight at 55°C. For regular anatomy, material was fixed, embedded and sectioned as
- described in Ortíz-Ramírez et al., (2018).
- 155 RNA extraction, PCR amplification and cloning of ALCATRAZ and SPATULA in the
- 156 TRV2-LIC vector
- 157 Coding sequences of ALC and SPT genes were obtained from Sol Genomics Network
- 158 https://solgenomics.net/ for all Solanaceae species available in the genera *Nicotiana*,
- 159 Capsicum and Solanum in public repositories, using the Arabidopsis ALC and SPT canonical
- genes as queries. Isolated sequences have the following names: *NiobALC* and *NiobSPT* from
- Nicotiana obtusifolia (GenBank numbers MK645609, MK645610), CaanALC and CaanSPT
- 162 from Capsicum annum (GenBank numbers MK645607, MK645610), and SlyALC
- 163 (Solyc04g078690.2.1) and *SlySPT* (Solyc02g093280.2.1) from *Solanum lycopersicum*.
- Total RNA extraction was performed from immature and mature fruits and leaves from three
- different individuals of each species using TRizol reagent (Invitrogen). Total RNA was
- DNaseI (Roche) treated to remove residual genomic DNA. Samples were quantified with
- NanoDrop 2000 (Thermo Scientific). Three µg were used as template for cDNA synthesis
- with SuperScript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) using OligodT primers. The resulting
- 169 cDNA was used undiluted for amplification reactions by PCR using ACTIN2 as a positive
- 170 control. ALC and SPT sequences were amplified with adaptor primers used in the LIC-VIGS
- method following Dong et al. (2007). For each paralogous pair, the primers were designed
- downstream of the bHLH region that is highly variable between ALC and SPT (Table S1).
- 173 The PCR products were purified with QuickPCR Purification Kit (PureLink, Invitrogen). A
- total of 30ng of purified PCR product was treated with T4 DNA polymerase and 5mM dATP
- at 22°C for 30 min followed by 20 min at 70°C for inactivation of T4 DNA polymerase. The
- 176 TRV2-LIC vector (pYY13; Dong et al., 2007) was digested with PstI and similarly treated
- with T4 DNA polymerase but dTTP replaced dATP. A total of 30ng of treated PCR product

and TRV2-LIC vector were mixed and incubated at 65°C for 2 min and then 22°C for 10 min 178 179 (Dong et al. 2007). Later 6μL of the mixture was transformed into Escherichia coli DHα5 competent cells by thermal shock and were grown in LB medium with 50µg/mL of 180 kanamycin. Positive clones were purified with Quick Plasmid Miniprep Kit (PureLink, 181 182 Invitrogen) and sequenced. Using this protocol, the following TRV2-LIC vectors were generated: TRV2-NiobALC, TRV2-NiobSPT; TRV2-CaanALC, TRV2-CaanSPT; TRV2-183 SlyALC, TRV2-SlySPT and TRV2-NbPDS. The latter included Phytoene Desaturase (PDS) 184 and was used as a positive control for transformation and target gene down-regulation (Liu 185 & Page., 2008). 186

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Agroinfiltration

- For the VIGS assay, TRV1 (pYL192; Liu et al. 2002) and TRV2-LIC (pYY13; Dong et al. 189 190 2007) vectors were introduced into the Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101 by electroporation (BIO-RAD Gene Pulser Xcell), independently. A 5mL culture was grown 191 192 overnight at 28°C in selective medium with 50µg/mL of Kanamycin, 50µg/mL of 193 Gentamycin and 25µg/mL of Rifampicin. The next day, cultures were incubated in 500mL of LB medium containing the same antibiotics, 1M MES, and 10mM acetosyringone. The 194 195 culture was grown 24h/28°C shaker. Agrobacterium cells were spun down and resuspended in infiltration medium (autoclaved miliQ water with 10mM MES, 10mM MgCl2, 200µM 196 197 acetosyringone), adjusted to an OD_{600} of 2.0, and incubated at room temperature for 2 hours. 198 Combinations of TRV1, TRV2:ALC and TRV2:SPT were mixed in equal proportions 1:1:1 and inoculated with a syringe on the abaxial leaf surfaces of 50-65 seedlings per species. 20 199 200 seedlings per species were transformed with TRV1 and TRV2-LIC:PDS. In addition, 20 seedlings per species were transformed with TRV1 and TRV2:empty. 20 wild-type seedlings 201 202 per species were grown side by side with the transformed plants as a control. Infiltrated plants 203 were observed for 16 weeks and photographed with a digital camera CANNON RebelXT 204 200.
 - **Spectrophotometry**
- Changes in leaf pigmentation exhibited by plants transformed with TRV2:*ALC* and TRV2:*SPT* in *N. obtusofolia, C. annuum* and *S. lycopersicum* were further evaluated by

spectrophotometry. This is based on the physical phenomenon of selective absorption of 208 209 specific wavelengths by pigments, which are present in the plant leaves. Thus, changes in pigmentation can be indirectly assessed by changes in the light absorption and reflection 210 (Van der Kooi et al., 2016). Leaf squared pieces (approx. 5 x 5 mm) of three individuals per 211 species were used to measure the reflectance (i.e. the percentage of reflected/incident light) 212 in the visible range (350-800nm). A bifurcated optical probe (Avantes, Apeldoorn, The 213 Netherlands) was used connected to a spectrophotometer (Avaspec-2048, Avantes) with an 214 AvaLight light source composed of two lamps: deuterium (for UV radiation) and halogen 215 (visible range and close infrared). A white reference (WS-2, Avantes) was used as the 216 maximum reflectance control. All measurements were made in full darkness laboratory 217 218 space. The data were collected and stored with the AvaSoft program (Avantes). Finally, the 219 spectra were plotted with the Origin program.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

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- For SEM studies, dehiscent fruits from both wild-type and VIGS downregulated plants of N.
- obtulifolia were fixed in FAA and stored in 70% ethanol. Fruits were dehydrated through an
- 223 ethanol series and critical point dried using a Polaron E300. Material was mounted on
- 224 aluminum stubs with adhesive tabs (Electron Microscopy Sciences), sputter coated with gold
- palladium and examined and photographed at 10 kV in a JEOL JSM-5410 scanning electron
- 226 microscope equipped with a CRIOSEM instrument CT 15000-C.

Testing for Downregulation of ALC and SPT transcripts in the agroinfiltrated plants

- In order to test expression of ALC and SPT we selected young leaves of the wild type plants
- as well as ALC/SPT-VIGS plants from the three species N. obtusifolia, C. annuum, and S.
- 230 *lycopersicum*. We performed total RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis as described above.
- 231 RT-PCR and gRT-PCR was used to evaluate ALC and SPT expression levels in putatively
- downregulated plants in comparison to Wt and empty vector plants. Tissue selection and
- collection in the plants was done following the color changes in the leaves detected in the
- putatively downregulated plants (see results). Both light and dark regions of at least five
- leaves per plant were collected. For qRT-PCR four out of the twenty plants (approx.)
- 236 screened by RT-PCR showing qualitative downregulation in agarose gels were further
- selected. cDNAs was freshly made and diluted 1:4 as has been described in Pabón-Mora et

al., (2012). UBIQUITIN-3 was selected from three additional endogenous controls tested 238 239 included GAPDH, β -TUBULIN and Elongation Factor- 1α (EF- 1α) as it presented the lowest variation in the Ct across samples. Target gene expression was evaluated in reference to 240 UBIQUITIN-3 employing the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method for relative quantification (Livak & Schmittgen 241 2001). The data plotted includes standard deviations for three technical replicates. qRT-PCR 242 was done using the qPCR qTower3.0 system and the qPCRsoft software (Analytik Jena). 243 Independently cDNA from all RNA extractions was made using the TRV2 reverse primer in 244 order to screen for the presence of the viral vector in putatively downregulated plants. 3µg 245 of total RNA were used in the cDNA synthesis as described above. The PCR for TRV2 vector 246 247 screening was done with primers TRV2-Fwd and TRV2-Rev for 35 cycles at Tm 45°C. The 248 PCR product was run in agarose gels following the standard protocols.

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Results

Expression patterns of Solanaceae ALCATRAZ/SPATULA genes

252 We had previously found that all three species selected in this study, namely Nicotiana obtusifolia, Capsicum annuum and Solanum lycopersicum have a single ALCATRAZ ortholog 253 and a single SPATULA ortholog (Ortiz-Ramírez et al., 2018). To further investigate the 254 spatial and temporal expression patterns of ALC and SPT in Solanaceae, RNA in situ 255 hybridization was performed on floral buds at different developmental stages and in fruits 256 right after fertilization (i.e. F1 sensu Ortiz-Ramírez et al., 2018) and at later stages of 257 development ranging between 3-4 days after fertilization of N. obtusifolia, C. annuum and S. 258 259 lycopersicum. The latter stage does not coincide with F2 sensu Ortiz-Ramírez et al (2018), given that in situ hybridization at F2 was problematic due to secondary metabolite 260 261 accumulation in fleshy fruits and lignification in dry dehiscent fruits. In situ hybridization with sense probes for all tested genes yielded no signal (Fig. S1). 262 The results show that both transcripts, ALC and SPT, have similar expression patterns in early 263 stages of flower development in the three species. ALC and SPT genes are expressed in all 264 265 floral organ primordia (Figs 1a-d, h-j; 2a-c, g-i; 3a-c, h-j). Expression during floral organ development is present in sepals, petals, stamens and carpels in the three species, with some 266 species-specific differences (Figs 1a-d, h-j; 2a-c, g-i; 3a-c, h-j). In N. obtusifolia, NiobALC 267

(Fig. 1a-d) is more strongly expressed than *NiobSPT* (Fig. 1h-j), especially in sepal, petal and 268 269 stamen primordia. NiobALC and NiobSPT are also found at the distal most portion of the petals and the carpel, as well as the placenta at later stages of flower development (Fig. 1c, 270 d, i, j). In C. annuum expression of both genes can be seen in all floral organ primordia (Fig. 271 2a-c, g-i) but as flower development progresses, CaALC and CaSPT transcripts concentrate 272 in the tips and the inner epidermis of the sepals and the petals (Figs 2c-f, i-k) as well as in 273 stamens and carpels (2d-f, 2j-l). In the gynoecium expression is detected in the carpel wall, 274 the stigma, the placenta and the ovules (Fig. 2e, f, k, l). In S. lycopersicum, SlyALC and 275 SlySPT are similarly expressed in sepal, petal, stamen and carpel primordia (Fig. 3a-e, h-l). 276 277 Both genes are maintained in preanthesis in the placenta where the nucellus will form, in the 278 developing ovules, and the distal most portion of the style and the stigma (Fig. 3b-e, k-l). In addition, SlySPT expression is detected at the petal margins (Fig. 3j). 279 280 During fruit development, expression of ALC and SPT genes varies depending on the species. 281 In N. obtusifolia, with dry dehiscent fruits, NiobALC and NiobSPT genes are lowly expressed in the pericarp and the developing seeds during day 1-2 after fertilization, that is, at early 282 stages of fruit and seed development (Fig. 1e, k). Both paralogs are first turned on during 283 fruit development in day 3 after fertilization, in what we will call hereafter "intermediate" 284 stages of fruit development, since this is after fertilization, but prior to endocarp lignification. 285 At this time point, NiobALC and NiobSPT are expressed in the endocarp, in an overlapping 286 region to where lignification will occur, and at the most distal portion of the fruit (Fig. 1f, g, 287 1, m). Thus, NiobALC and NiobSPT are more strongly expressed at the tip and the mid-level 288 of the fruit and are not detected at the base (Fig. 1f, 1). In addition, both NiobALC and 289 NiobSPT are also turned on also in the developing seeds, specifically in the exotesta and the 290 291 developing embryo (Fig. 1f,g, 1,m). In S. lycopersicum, SlyALC and SlySPT have opposite expression patterns. SlyALC is turned 292 293 on early in fruit development at around days 1-3 after fertilization (Fig. 3f) and is maintained 294 afterwards between 6-9 days after fertilization, before cell expansion begins (Fig. 3g). In 295 particular, SlyALC transcripts are concentrated in the inner-most layers of the fruit wall (Fig. 296 3f, g). On the other hand, SlySPT is less expressed throughout the pericarp, and is only present 297 in early fruit developmental stages (Fig. 3m) and turned off at later stages (Fig. 3n).

Additionally, both genes are detected in the developing seeds closer to where the embryo

will develop (Fig. 3g, n).

Functional analyses of Solanaceae ALCATRAZ/SPATULA genes

- 301 In order to evaluate the function of ALCATRAZ and SPATULA genes in different species of
- 302 Solanaceae possessing different fruit types we used Virus Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS)
- 303 by employing the bipartite *Tobacco rattle virus* (TRV) to reduce of transcript levels of each
- gene in the plant. At first, we generated single vectors for each gene and attempted to silence
- each gene separately. However, there were no obvious phenotypes during flower or fruit
- development in single downregulated plants where reduction in the level of ALC or SPT was
- verified (Fig S2). Thus, we proceeded to downregulate simultaneously *ALC* and *SPT* in each
- 308 species.

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- Many of the plants simultaneously infiltrated with TRV2:ALC and TRV2:SPT had a first
- obvious phenotype during vegetative growth related to a shift in coloration in the leaves (see
- below). We began evaluating the transcript levels of ALC and SPT genes in the regions or
- leaf patches showing lighter green areas in ALC/SPT-VIGS plants and to compare them with
- 313 Wt plants as well as empty-vector-treated plants, which never showed any changes in leaf
- 314 color (Fig. 4). In general, both the RT-PCR and the qRT-PCR showed a decrease in the
- amount of endogenous transcripts of both ALC and SPT in the three species of 50-80% when
- 316 compared to Wt and empty vector treated plants. In addition, we were able to verify the
- presence of TRV2 only in the ALC/SPT-VIGS plants confirming that TRV was active in
- 318 these downregulated lines (Fig. 4). Hereafter we will describe the phenotypes for each
- species after simultaneous downregulation of ALC and SPT.

320 ALCATRAZ/SPATULA genes control flower size and fruit development in Nicotiana

- 321 *obtusifolia*
- A total of 65 plants were infiltrated with TRV1 and TRV2: *NiobALC* and TRV2: *NiobSPT*.
- Hereafter these plants are referred to as *NiobALC/SPT*-VIGS. In 47% (n= 31) of the treated
- plants, flowers displayed an overall reduction in size in pre-anthesis and anthesis, with shorter
- sepals and less expanded petals (Fig. 5a-e). Petals were shorter in both the tubular portion
- and the star-shaped frontal distal portion of the corolla (Fig. 5e). This reduction was more

- obvious in the first flowers that developed after the treatment. Stamens and carpels were
- 328 likely also shorter as they still fitted in the smaller floral buds and flowers (Fig. 5c-e).
- 329 NiobALC/SPT-VIGS plants also showed changes in fruit development when compared to the
- 330 Wt plants, in particular, in terms of maturation timing and size. Wt fruits reached
- approximately ~10.2 mm at ca. 14 days after fertilization, before dehiscence in our growth
- conditions. Lignification occurred in the endocarp starting at 5DPA and it proceeded from
- top to bottom of the fruit restricted to the two inner fruit wall layers of the endocarp (Fig. 5f-
- h). NiobALC/SPT-VIGS fruits started maturing earlier, when the fruit was only ~5.3mm at
- ca. 9 days after fertilization (Fig. 5i-j). Premature maturation leading to early fruit dehiscence
- was accompanied by the typical basipetal lignification as well as the lignin deposition in an
- additional fruit wall layer, resulting in three to four endocarp layers completely lignified as
- opposed to the typical two to three such layers in Wt fruits (Fig. 5h, k).
- Additional phenotypes were seen in the septum and placenta by SEM after ground tissue of
- the placenta had dried and contracted, releasing the seeds. Wt fruits have an elongated and
- winged septum with isodiametric and papillae like cells towards the middle region of the
- placenta (Fig. 5l, m), while the NiobALC/SPT-VIGS fruits have an acute atypical apical
- septum with flatter and unevenly spaced cells in the placenta (Fig. 5n, o).
- 344 ALCATRAZ/SPATULA genes control petal fusion and fruit development in Capsicum
- 345 annuum and Solanum lycopersicum
- For C. annuum a total of 60 plants were infiltrated with TRV1 and TRV2:CaanALC and
- TRV2: CaanSPT; hereafter these plants are called CaanALC/SPT-VIGS. Similarly, 50 plants
- of S. lycopersicum were infiltrated with TRV1 and TRV2:SlyALC and TRV2:SlySPT;
- hereafter they are referred to as *SlyALC/SPT*-VIGS. Although the two species vary in terms
- of the percentage of plants showing abnormal phenotypes when compared to the empty
- vector and the Wt plants, in 87% (n=52) of the C. annuum treated plants and in 73% (n=37)
- of the *S. lycopersicum* treated plants, the plants exhibit the phenotypes described below.
- Wild type floral buds of C. annuum and S. lycopersicum exhibit protected floral buds with
- 354 complete postgenital petal fusion due to interlocking of trichomes at the margin of the petals,
- 355 that separate during anthesis (Fig. 6a-c; Fig. 7a-d). Both CaanALC/SPT-VIGS and
- 356 SlyALC/SPT-VIGS flowers display smaller petals as well as defects in petal fusion in young

floral buds resulting in premature exposure of developing stamens and carpels in preanthesis, as well as petal asymmetry and unfused stamens during anthesis (Fig. 6d-f; Fig. 7e- h).

As it has been previously described, fleshy fruits of C. annuum and S. lycopersicum, are characterized by having both periclinal and anticlinal cell division as well as cuticle deposition (Pabón- Mora and Litt, 2011; Ortiz-Ramírez et al. 2018). The C. annuum fruits exhibit also a clear differentiation of the two inner layers of the endocarp with respect to the rest of the pericarp. The innermost layer of the endocarp is characterized by having small parenchymatous cells and the one adjacent to it exhibits gigantic cells (almost 5-6 times the normal cell size in the rest of the pericarp) with larger nuclei (Fig. 6g-i). The rest of the endocarp, the mesocarp and the exocarp have parenchymatous cells with active cell division, both anticlinal and periclinal (Fig. 6j). During maturation cell expansion in all layers occur except in the inner endocarp whose cells undergo a change to sclerenchyma in parallel to the expansion of the adjacent layer of gigantic cells. In addition, a cuticle develops over the exocarp at late developmental stages (Fig. 6g-j). On the other hand, S. lycopersicum fruits have a fully parenchymatous pericarp, also exhibiting anticlinal and periclinal cell division in all fruit wall layers followed by cell expansion in the mesocarp and endocarp during fruit growth and maturation. Unlike in C. annuum in S. lycopersicum the placenta protrudes and surrounds the seeds. Most cells retain parenchymatous identity, with the exception of collenchymatous cells in the mesocarp that provide the fruits with firmness to the touch during maturation (Fig. i-1).

In addition to flower phenotypes, *CaanALC/SPT*-VIGS and *SlyALC/SPT*-VIGS plants exhibit evident changes during fruit development when compared to wild type fruits. *CaanALC/SPT*-VIGS and *SlyALC/SPT*-VIGS fruits reach similar sizes than those of the Wt fruits but lack homogenous ripening, and exhibit striated pericarps with unripe areas (Fig. 6k-m; Fig. 7m-o). The *CaanALC/SPT*-VIGS fruits exhibited also embedded lignified portions, in the form of sclerosomes (Fig. 6k-n). The *CaanALC/SPT*-VIGS fruits had significant shifts in the firmness of the pericarp preserving the cuticle intact but with most of the parenchymatic tissue in the mesocarp and endocarp entering lysogenic processes (Fig. 6k-n). Same ectopic lignification was seen in *SlyALC/SPT*-VIGS fruits occurring in parallel to cell lysogeny in the parenchymatic areas of the endo and the mesocarp, however, lignified areas occupied smaller areas when compared to the *C. anuum* fruits (Fig. 7o, p)

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ALCATRAZ/SPATULA genes have a role in leaf pigmentation

390 Downregulation of ALC and SPT homologs in all three selected Solanaceae species resulted 391 in changes in leaf pigmentation. Double ALC/SPT-VIGS down-regulated plants exhibited 392 lighter green leaves (Fig. 8g, i, k), compared to wild type plants and control plants (TRV2: empty) (Fig. 8a, c, e). All plants were grown under the same conditions; thus we believe that 393 394 changes are likely not occurring in response to nutritional deficiencies. 395 In order to quantitatively analyze the presence of specific pigments in wild type and downregulated ALC/SPT-VIGS plants, we performed spectrophotometric analyses from the Wt 396 and ALC/SPT-VIGS leaves from each species. In addition to this comparison, we used the 397 Phytoene Desaturase (PDS) down-regulated control plants. PDS encodes an enzyme in 398 399 carotenoid biosynthesis and silencing pds results in white leaf tissue due to photobleaching (Fig. 8m, o, q). PDS downregulation is very efficient, is often 90% of the plants treated that 400 401 show photobleaching which is present in 7-10 leaves and often until flowering. For this 402 experiment, we compared the reflectance on the adaxial side of the Wt leaves with portions 403 of ALC/SPT-VIGS leaves that exhibited the light-green phenotype and to the PDS-VIGS down-regulated plants having white leaves due to photobleaching. 404 405 The reflectance spectra show that the adaxial side of the wild type of C. annuum and S. 406 lycopersicum leaves are more similar to each other than to the N. obtusifolia (Fig. 8a-f). The 407 CaanWt and SlyWt leaves strongly absorb light between 400-510 nm and 570-700 nm, whilst scattering in the green region (510-570 nm Fig. 8d, f). NiobWt leaves have similar absorption 408 409 ranges, reflecting in 510-650nm (Fig. 8b). This type of spectrum is typical of green leaves, due to the presence of chlorophylls. Spectra of ALC/SPT-VIGS leaves in the three species 410 411 are more similar (Fig. 8g-l). These leaves absorb light between 400-500 nm and 650-700 nm 412 (Fig. 8h, j, l), just as the Wt type (Fig. 8b, d, f). However, a characteristic shoulder appears in the reflectance between 550-650 nm with an increase of 5% when compared with Wt 413 414 leaves. This is presumably due to the reduction (or absence) of the pigments absorbing light 415 in this range. As a comparison, the PDS-VIGS down-regulated leaves in the three species show continuous 416 417 reflectance throughout the visible and infrared part of the spectrum (400-800nm). This is an

expected feature of photobleached leaves (Fig. 8 m-r). All curves show absorption in the UV range (below 400 nm) suggesting that absorption in this range is not affected by either *ALC/SPT*-VIGS or *PDS*-VIGS downregulation. Fluctuations in the curves reveal the presence of variable amounts of chlorophyll A and B due to incomplete silencing (Fig. 8h, j, 1).

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Discussion

ALCATRAZ and SPATULA function in positively controlling cell proliferation in floral

426 organs.

Reduction in the ALC and SPT transcript levels in N. obtusifolia, C. annuum and S. lycopersicum (Fig. 4) results in a reduction of flower and petal size, ectopic lignification in the pericarp and shifts in leaf pigmentation (Fig. 5-8). N. obtusifolia ALC/SPT-VIGS plants show a reduction in general floral size (Fig. 5) while ALC/SPT-VIGS plants in S. lycopersicum and C. annuum downregulated plants exhibit particularly smaller petals resulting in lack of posgenital petal fusion during floral growth and premature exposure of stamens and carpels, as well as petal asymmetry during anthesis (Fig. 6; 7). These results suggest that both SolALC and SolSPT have overlapping positive roles in cell proliferation and/or expansion, in particular in the petal margins. Our observations show that these roles coincide with the active and broad expression in tissues with high cell proliferation including leaves and floral organs, and specifically petal margins and growing sepal tips in N. obtusifolia, C. annuum and S. lycopersicum (Fig. 1-3; Ortiz-Ramírez et al., 2018). Similar expression of ALC/SPT homologs in young floral meristems, as well as all floral organs and in particular sepal and petal tips has been observed in Arabidopsis thaliana (Heisler et al. 2001; Groszmann et al. 2010; 2011), Prunus persica (Tani et al. 2011) and Bocconia frutescens (Zumajo- Cardona et al. 2017) suggesting that ALC/SPT likely control cell proliferation in eudicots. However, they can promote or limit cell leaf and floral organ cell proliferation, as in Brassicaceae they inhibit leaf and petal expansion (Penfield et al. 2005; Ichihashi et al. 2010; Groszmann et al. 2010; 2011). while in Solanaceae they promote their growth (Fig. 5-7).

Changes of the expression and function of orthologs in different plant families can occur due to promoter regions responsive to upstream factors or to shifts in protein interaction partners. Detailed studies of dissected promoter regions of SPT in Arabidopsis reveal that SPT expression in proliferating meristems and young floral organs is mediated by the core promoter region consisting of the E-box, TATA-box, and GA elements, which is bound by TCP factors (Groszmann et al. 2010). This observation was linked to the role of SPT gene function as activator of cell proliferation. In Arabidopsis, ALC and SPT are also expressed in mature tissues like the petals, the endocarp, the nectaries, the hypocotyl, the stem and the leaf stomata (Heisler et al. 2001; Groszmann et al. 2010; 2011). Groszmann et al (2010), identified general enhancers as well as tissue specific enhancers and silencers by targeted promoter deletions for SPT and highlighted the importance of binding sites for the bona fide cell proliferation TCP transcription factors. Less information is available for ALC, as no promoter studies have been done in this gene in Arabidopsis, however, it has been shown that ALC and SPT share regulatory regions like the E-box, elements involved in valve margin activation and the dehiscence zone as well as GA responsive elements (Groszmann et al. 2010; 2011). These shared elements could help explain the overlapping expression of both paralogs, not only in Brassicaceae (Groszmann et al. 2010; 2011), but also in Solanaceae (Figs. 1-3). A possible change in function of ALC/SPT genes between the two plant families due to the presence of TCP responsive elements and the specificity of such activation will require promoter mutation studies in Solanaceae species. In addition to changes in response to specific TCP genes, shifts between the roles of ALC/SPT genes in growing leaves and floral organs could be linked to protein partner specificity in protein-protein interactions, controlling different processes. This is supported by the extensive changes documented in the coding sequences of ALC and SPT orthologs between Brassicaceae and Solanaceae, pointing to massive reduction of ALC in Arabidopsis relatives when compared to most Solanaceae species and the loss of several protein motifs (Pabón-Mora et al., 2014; Ortíz-Ramírez et al., 2018). Functional characterization of specific motifs in Solanaceae sequences will have to be addressed in order to identify which are more important for their function in promoting leaf and petal growth.

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The role of Solanaceae *ALCATRAZ/ SPATULA* genes in gynoecium development and fruit histogenesis.

In Arabidopsis ALC and SPT possess partially redundant functions during gynoecium 480 481 development, as double mutants exhibit delayed medial growth and enhanced fusion defects when compared to the single mutants (Groszmann et al. 2011). In the Solanaceae species 482 483 here studied, both genes have overlapping expression in the gynoecium and particularly in 484 the style and stigma (Fig. 1-3), similarly to the paralogs in P. persica (Tani et al., 2011) and 485 B. frutescens (Zumajo- Cardona et al. 2017) suggesting that in fact they could redundantly control gynoecium medial growth and distal fusion, like in Arabidopsis. Previous 486 487 complementation studies overexpressing Solanum lycopersicum LsSPT rescue the spt2 488 mutant in Arabidopsis and show full restoration of gynoecium apical fusion and silique 489 length, suggesting that SPT orthologs play similar roles in distantly related species 490 (Groszmann et al., 2008). However, our downregulated ALC/SPT-VIGS plants for all three 491 species N. obtusifolia, C. annuum, and S. lycopersicum do not exhibit phenotypic differences 492 with respect to the wild type plants in the gynoecium. These results suggest that either (1) downregulation levels allow for residual activity of ALC/SPT genes in VIGS plants, or (2) 493 other transcription factors acting independently from ALC/SPT genes in this function 494 compensate for the reduced transcript levels in the downregulated plants. Additional 495 496 candidate genes that may be playing redundant roles in distal gynoecium patterning are STY 497 or NGA, both involved in style and stigma development (Gomariz-Fernández et al. 2017). As for fruit development, previous studies have shown that FUL, SHP, IND and ALC 498 499 orchestrate a transcription factor network that controls the formation of the dehiscence zone 500 and tissue differentiation in the valve margins of the Arabidopsis silique (Liljegren et al. 501 2004). FUL negatively regulates SHP1/2 expression (Ferrándiz et al. 2000), while the latter activates the expression of IND and ALC in the valve margins, where the two genes are 502 503 involved in determining the lignified layer and the separation layer, respectively (Liljegren et al. 2000; 2004). In this network ALC plays a decisive role during fruit histogenesis as 504 505 demonstrated by the *alc* mutant where the separation layer (adjacent to the lignified layer) is not properly formed resulting in ectopic lignification in the form of a "bridging zone" 506 507 connecting the valve margin with the replum, and resulting in indehiscent fruits (Rajani & 508 Sundaresan 2001). Thus, ALC is likely playing a direct or indirect role in preventing

lignification to occur in the separation layer during fruit patterning (Rajani & Sundaresan 509 510 2001; Roeder & Yanofsky 2006). Additional functional studies have defined ALC and SPT as partially redundant, likely linked to incipient subfunctionalization where SPT plays 511 prevalent roles during gynoecium development and ALC is more important during fruit 512 513 histogenesis and development (Groszmann et al. 2011). Similar subfunctionalization, or at least function redistribution among paralogs is also seen in *Prunus* 514 persica. In this rosid, the first tier of genetic regulation, the FUL-SHP antagonic relationship 515 is likely maintained, as *PPERFUL* is predominantly expressed in the meso and exocarp, non-516 overlapping with *PPERSHP* restricted to the endocarp (Tani et al. 2007; Dardick et al. 2010; 517 Fourquin & Ferrándiz 2014). The second tier in the genetic cascade involving ALC and SPT 518 519 shows also a trend to subfunctionalization as the ALC ortholog is restricted to the exo and mesocarp, while the SPT ortholog is restricted to the endocarp. Because their expression is 520 non overlapping in this particular fruit type (the drupe) it has been suggested that ALC and 521 SPT are likely specializing in specifying different cell layers during fruit development (Tani 522 523 et al. 2007; 2011; Dardick et al. 2010). 524 There are three aspects that are important to consider up to this point: (1) ALC orthologs are expressed throughout fruit development in fleshy fruits of C. annuum and S. lycopersicum 525 while they are only expressed prior to endocarp lignification in intermediate developmental 526 fruit stages in dry dehiscent fruits of N. obtusifolia (Fig. 1-3; Ortiz-Ramírez et al., 2018). (2) 527 SPT orthologs have a different expression pattern, as they are turned off during berries 528 529 maturation but they are turned on in intermediate to late stages of fruit development in the endocarp of dry dehiscent fruits of N. obtusifolia (Fig. 1-3; Ortiz- Ramírez et al., 2018); 530 finally, (3) Downregulated ALC/SPT-VIGS plants for both genes in the three species here 531 532 studied exhibit ectopic (and/or early) lignification in the pericarp independently of the fruit type (Fig. 5-7). Considering these aspects, we suggest that in dry dehiscent fruits of *Nicotiana* 533 obtusifolia, NiobALC and NiobSPT are likely involved in delimiting cell differentiation in 534 535 the endocarp, as their expression patterns are localized only to these cell layers prior to lignification. However, as Niob ALC/SPT-VIGS plants exhibit premature and ectopic 536 537 lignification, we believe NiobALC and NiobSPT can be negatively regulate premature lignification in the endocarp in wild type fruits during fruit maturation (Fig. 5). Conversely, 538 in fleshy fruits of C. annuum and S. lycopersicum, the ALC orthologs possibly play a more 539

important role than SPT orthologs in fruit patterning and maturation. We believe so, because ALC homologs are expressed during early and late fruit development in higher amounts than SPT homologs, and because SPT is turned off during maturation (Figs. 2, 3). Nevertheless, both genes ALC and SPT are likely repressing lignification in a redundant manner, in favor of maintaining parenchymatous tissue in the pericarp, continuously like in fleshy fruits or momentarily in dry dehiscent fruits. This is supported by the observation that downregulated fleshy fruits for both genes form striate fruits with patched pericarps presenting schlerenchymatic zones (Fig. 6, 7). Thus, SPT and ALC genes in Solanaceae are likely to have a role in repressing lignification in both time and space during fruit patterning and maturation, similar to their role in Arabidopsis, where they provide the identity of the separation layer in the dehsicence zone (Rajani & Sundaresan 2001). Here, it is important to highlight, that these conclusions are based on VIGS double silenced lines, as single gene downregulated plants did not show fruit abnormal phenotypes compared to the wild type plants. With genome editing techniques, it may be possible to unravel the contribution of each gene independently in a more precise manner. Additionally, more detailed functional analyses will have to be done in other plant families with different fruit types outside Solanaceae to test the putative role of ALC and SPT during fruit histogenesis, and to better understand how these genes may be controlled in time and space to form dry dehiscent and fleshy fruits.

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The co-option of ALCATRAZ/SPATULA genes in leaf pigmentation.

The double *ALC/SPT*-VIGS plants in the three species *N. obtusifolia, C. annuum*, and *S. lycopersicum* exhibit defects in leaf pigmentation. This is evident by the shift in light reflectance between 550-650nm (Fig. 8) suggesting that they are linked to the production or accumulation of pigments that are involved in photo-protection, in particular given the wavelength change of anthocianins. This is also indicated by the more obvious leaf lightening occurring in the darker leaves of *C. annuum* than in those already slightly light green in *S. lycopersicum* and *N. obtusifolia*. Anthocianins are a type of flavonoids that are synthesized using the phenylpropanoid pathway, where the substrate p-coumaroyl CoA is common between the flavonoid as well as the lignin biosynthesis (Besseau *et al.* 2007). Anthocyanins

have a broad absorption range at the end of the blue light in the visible spectrum between 520-540 nm, thus, this range is often used in spectrophotometer measurements to indicate anthocyanin accumulation (Horbowicz et al. 2008; Akond et al. 2011). Importantly anthocyanins as well as UV absorbing flavonoid pigments in flowers are more frequently located solely in the epidermal layers, contrary to other pigments like carotenoids that occur and accumulate in the epidermises and the mesophyll (Kay et al., 1981). However, in leaves they can accumulate more broadly in the mesophyll, where it is possible that they act as scavengers of oxygen radicals produced by chloroplasts (Strack et al., 1982; Schulz & Weissenböck, 1986; Gould et al. 2000). Traditionally invasive techniques like high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and mass spectrometry (MS), are necessary to identify chemical compounds present in vegetative tissues. However, recent research in different colored petals has shown that color can be dissected out and measured as the combined effect of pigment absorption spectrum, scattering structures and petal thickness (Van der Kooi et al. 2016). Like these authors we have implemented spectrophotometer measurements in fresh leaves from ALC/SPT-VIGS down regulated plants in order to test for changes in specific pigments, in this case the anthocyanins. Our results, revealing a loss in pigments absorbing between 520-550nm, show that it is likely that ALC and SPT genes have become integrated into leaf flavonoid biosynthesis in Solanaceae species. This may occur in a similar manner to that shown for other bHLH genes like GLABRA3 (GL3), ENHANCER OF GLABRA3 (EGL3) and TRANSPARENT TESTA8 (TT8) that have been linked to the biosynthesis and accumulation of anthocyanins in vegetative tissues in Arabidopsis (Feller et al. 2011; Xu et al. 2015). In the latter case, the bHLH genes are part of larger regulatory complexes known as MBW, where there is one MYB gene component interacting directly with a bHLH gene and the two of them physically interacting with a third gene WD40, hence the name MBW (Nesi et al, 2000; Baudry et al., 2004; Xu et al. 2015). The same complexes with other genes belonging to the same gene families are known to regulate trichome development, radicular hairs and mucilage synthesis covering the seeds (Besseau et al. 2007; Xu et al. 2015). Our comparative alignments for bHLH genes in Solanaceae species revealed little similarity between the ALC /SPT genes, belonging to subgroup VII (a+b) sensu Pires & Dolan (2010) and the bHLH genes typically linked to anthocyanin synthesis mentioned above, belonging to clade IIIF (Pires & Dolan

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2010; Feller *et al.* 2011; Fig. S3; Table S2). The same comparisons overruled a possible off-target silencing effect, as the regions included in the TRV2 vector for downregulation flank the region downstream the bHLH domain where the genes from the two subgroups are highly divergent (Atchley *et al.*, 1999). Altogether, our data points to a likely co-option of *ALC/SPT* genes in the biosynthesis of anthocyanins in the leaves of Solanaceae species. However, it is unclear what are the specific molecular mechanisms employed in this cascade and we can only speculate that MBW complexes are flexible enough to integrate other bHLH partners besides the classical *GL3*, *EFGL3* and *TT8* in pigment accumulation and synthesis in other species outside *Arabidopsis*.

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Author Contributions

- 622 C.I.O-R, C.F, and N.P-M planned and designed the research. All authors performed
- experiments, analyzed the data and wrote and approved the final version of the manuscript.
- 624 ORCID
- 625 Natalia Pabón-Mora ORCID: 0000-0003-3528-8078

626 Supporting information

Fig. S1 Sense probes of all genes resulted in no signal in the *In situ* hybridization analyses.

- **Fig. S2.** Phenotypes recorded for the singly downregulated *NiobSPT*, *NiobALC*, *CaanSPT*
- and CaanALC VIGS plants.
- 630 Fig. S3 Alignments for ALCATRAZ and SPATULA protein with the bHLH genes typically
- 631 linked to anthocyanin synthesis of Solanaceae and *Arabidopsis*.
- Table S1 Primers used for all the experiments.
- Table S2 Accession numbers for all sequences used in alignments for ALCATRAZ and
- 634 SPATULA protein with the bHLH genes typically linked to anthocyanin synthesis of
- 635 Solanaceae and *Arabidopsis*.

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Figure legends

- Fig. 1 Expression analyses by *In situ* Hybridization of *NiobALC* (a-g) and *NiobSPT* (h-m) in
- floral buds (a-d, h-j) and fruits (e-g, k-m) of Nicotiana obtusifolia. (a-d) Expression of
- 808 NiobALC during floral organ development. (e, k) longitudinal section of a fruit during day 1-
- 2 after fertilization. (f-g, 1-m) "intermediate" stages: day 3-4 after fertilization, but prior to
- lignification of the endocarp. Arrowhead indicate the most distal part of the ovary in the site
- connecting with the style and the stigma. Asterisks indicate seeds. b, bracts; fb, floral buds;
- c, carpels; p, petals; pl, placenta; s, sepals; st, stamens; sp, septum. Scale bars= 50μm in
- 813 a,b,h,i; 100μm in c-g, j-m.
- Fig. 2 Expression analyses by *In situ* Hybridization of (a-f) *CaanALC* and (g-l) *CaanSPT* in
- floral buds of *Capsicum annuum*. (a, g) early floral buds with forming sepals. (b, c, e, f, h, i,
- k, l) longitudinal sections of floral buds at different developmental stages. (d, j) cross sections
- of floral buds. s, sepals; p, petals; pl, placenta; o, ovules; st, stamens; c, carpels; fb, floral
- buds; b, bract. Scale bars= 50μm in a,g; 100μm in b-f, h-l.
- 819 Fig 3 Expression analyses by *In situ* Hybridization of (a-g) *SlyALC* and (h-n) *SlySPT* in
- 820 Solanum lycopersicum. (a-e; h-l) floral buds. (f; m) Fruits in longitudinal section at day 3
- after fertilization. (g; n) Fruits in transverse section at day 8 after fertilization. Note that both
- genes are detected in young fruits but only SlyALC is maintained at later stages. Arrow
- indicates the distalmost part of the fruit. White arrowheads in j indicate the petal margins.
- Black arrowhead indicates the inner-most layers of the fruit wall. Asterisks indicate seeds. s,
- sepals; p, petals; st, stamens; c, carpels; o, ovules; sp, septum. Scale bars a, h, i, $j=50\mu m$; b-
- 826 e; k, $l = 100 \mu m$; f, g, m, $n = 200 \mu m$.
- 827 Fig. 4 Down-regulation of ALC and SPT genes in VIGS-treated plants. (a-c) RT-PCR using
- 828 cDNA prepared from leaves of VIGS-treated plants showing change in ALC and SPT
- expression relative to wild-type leaves. For (a) N. obtusifolia, (b) C. annuum and (c) S.
- 830 lycopersicum. (d-e) Quantitative RT-PCR using cDNA prepared from leaves of VIGS-treated
- plants that showed down-regulation of ALC and SPT in C. annuum (d) and S. lycopersicum
- 832 (e). Niobalc/spt, Caanalc/spt and Slyalc/spt: ALC/SPT-VIGS downregulated plants.
- Numbers correspond to individuals screened with downregulation in the levels of both genes.

- dm, double mutants. Values are means \pm SD for three technical replicates. *UBIQUITIN-3*
- was used as the endogenous control.
- Fig. 5 Double ALC/SPT-VIGS down regulated N. obtusifolia plants with changes in flowers
- and fruits development. (a-c) Wt and (d) ALC/SPT-VIGS flowers. (e) comparison of size of
- florals organ between ALC/SPT-VIGS (right) and Wt (left). (f-h) Wt fruit phenotype, with
- 839 lignification during maturation restricted to two inner fruit wall layers (arrowhead in h). (i-
- 840 k) ALC/SPT-VIGS fruits start maturing earlier (arrows) with ectopic lignified patches in the
- pericarp (arrowheads in k). (1-o) Phenotypes in the septum and placenta by SEM shown in
- 842 (1-m) Wt and (n-o) ALC/SPT-VIGS fruits. en, endocarp; ex, exocarp; me, mesocarp; p, petals;
- pl, placenta; s, sepals; sp, septum. Scale bars a, f, g, i, j=2mm; b-d=5mm; $l-o=500\mu m$.
- Fig. 6 Double ALC/SPT-VIGS down regulated C. annuum plants with changes in petal and
- fruit development. (a-c) Wt flowers with posgenital petal fusion. (d-f) ALC/SPT-VIGS
- 846 flowers with premature exposure of stamens and carpel (d-e) and petal asymmetry during
- anthesis (f). (g-i) Wt fruits. (k-n) ALC/SPT-VIGS fruits show lignified regions in the fruit
- 848 walls (arrows). Arrowhead indicate petal mutant. Asterisks indicate seeds. Stars indicate
- giant endocarp cells that accumulate capsaicin. en, endocarp; ex, exocarp; me, mesocarp s,
- sepals; p, petals; st, stamens; sp, septum. Scale bars a, b, d, e =0,5mm; c, f-i, k-m= 2mm.
- Fig. 7 Double ALC/SPT-VIGS down regulated S. lycopersicum plants with changes in petal
- and fruit development. (a-d) Wt flowers with posgenital petal fusion. (e-h) ALC/SPT-VIGS
- 853 flowers with premature exposure of stamens and carpels (e,f) and petal asymmetry during
- anthesis (g,h). (i-1) Wt fruits. (m-p) ALC/SPT-VIGS fruits show lignified regions in the fruit
- walls (arrows). Arrowheads indicate smaller petals. Asterisks indicate seeds. fb, floral buds;
- p, petals; pl, placenta; s, sepals; st, stamens; sp, septum. Scale bars a, b, e, f = 2mm; c, d, g,
- 857 h, i-p=5mm
- 858 Fig. 8 Double ALC/SPT-VIGS down regulated plants with change in leaf pigmentation. (a-
- f) Wild type plants; (g-l) ALC/SPT-VIGS plants and (m-r) PDS-VIGS plants in (a, b, g, h, m,
- 860 n) N. obtusifolia, (c, d, i, j, o, p) C. annuum and (e, f, k, l, q, r) S. lycopersicum. The
- spectrophotometric analyses on the abaxial side of all leaves photographed at the regions of
- shifting pigmentation are shown in b, d, f, h, j, l, n, p, and r. Note the change in the reflectance
- between 500-600nm the Wt and the ALC/SPT-VIGS down regulated plants. (b, d, f, h, j, l)

leaf phenotype. Arrows indicate places with changes in leaf pigmentation. Red, black and blue colors in the curves represent three biological replicates of each species.

Data Statement

All sequences isolated and cloned during the experiments have been submitted to Genbank.

Alignments used are in the supplementary material. For plasmids, vectors and agrobacterium

strains a request should be made to Natalia Pabón-Mora at lucia.pabon@udea.edu.co

Figure 1

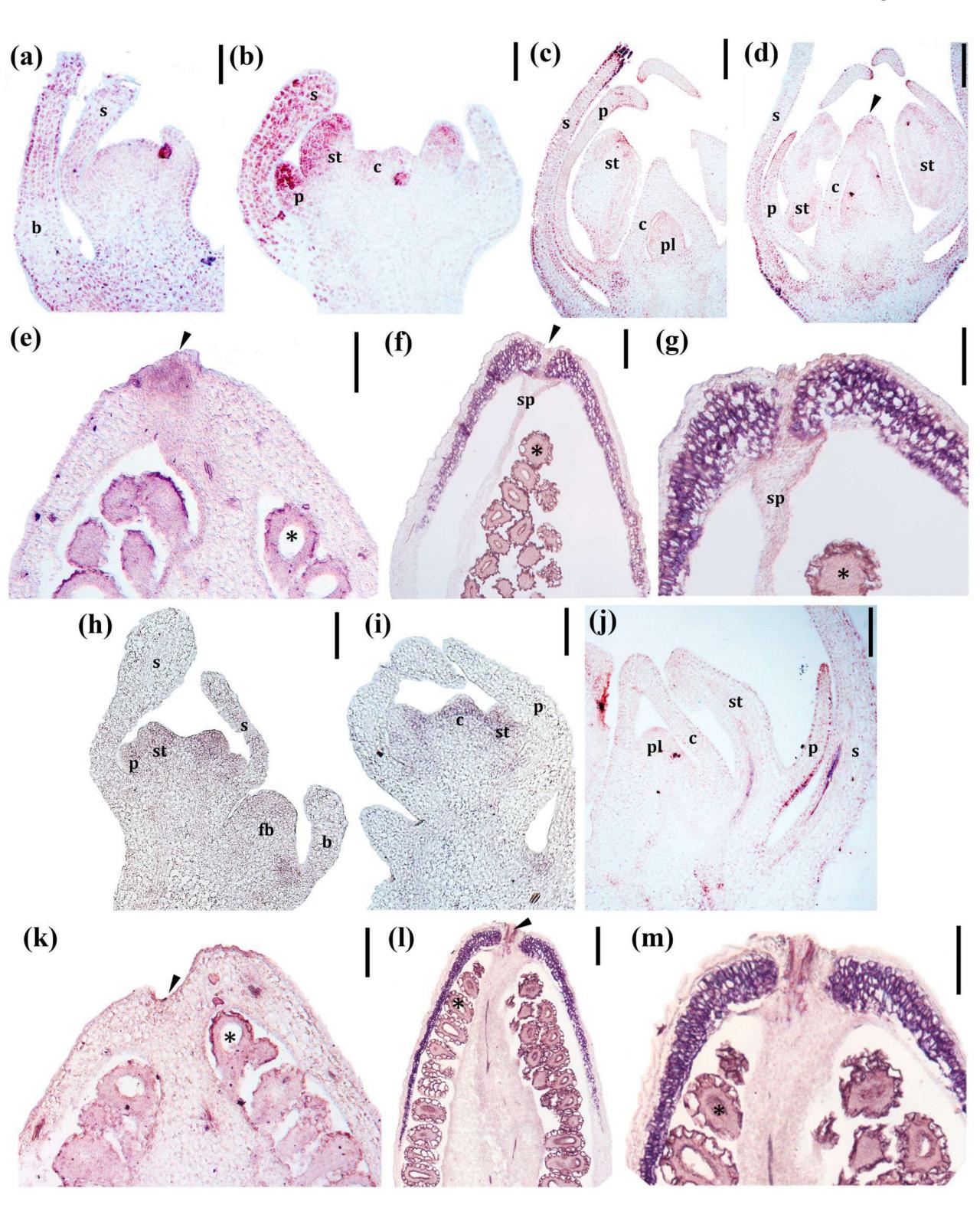


Figure 2

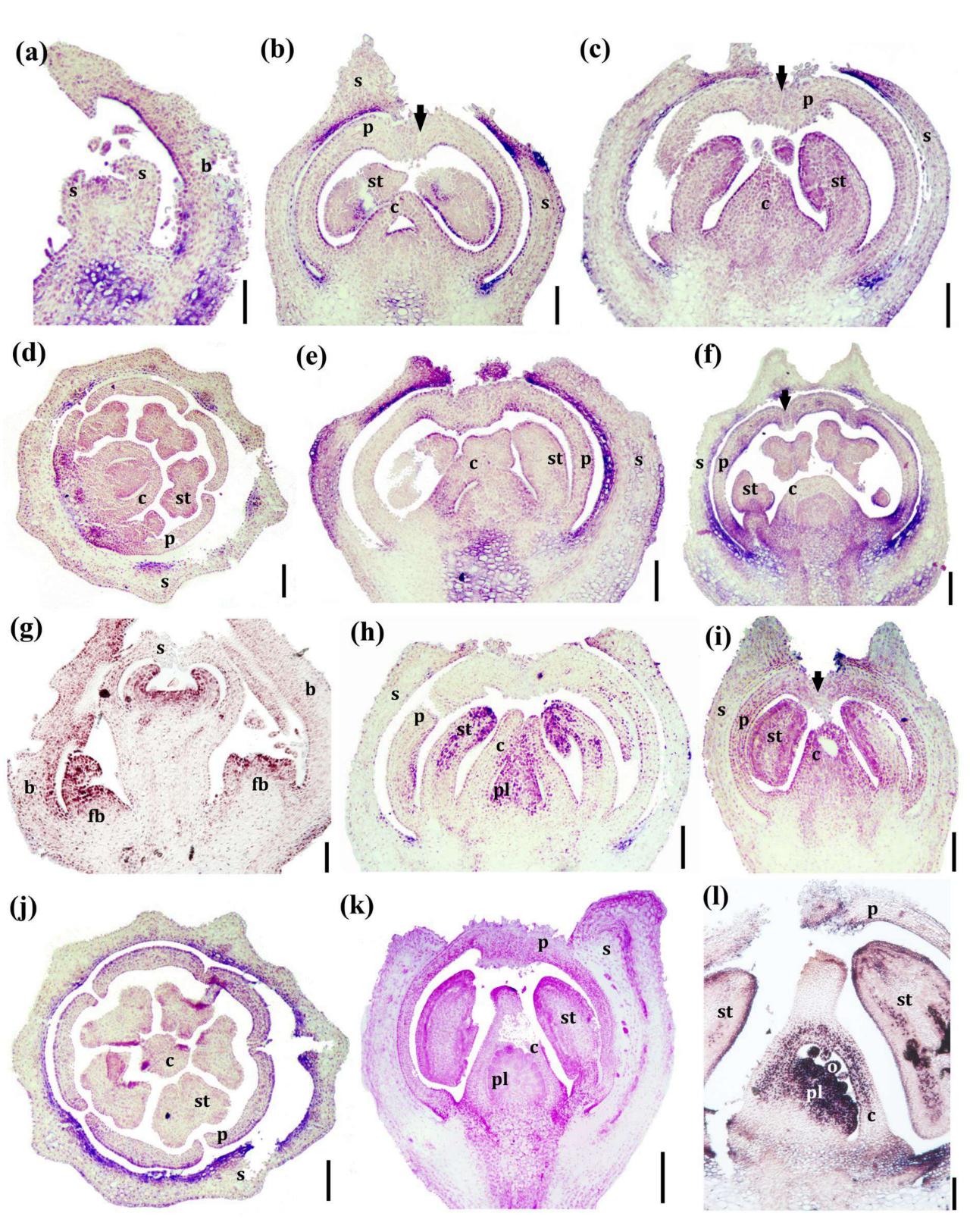
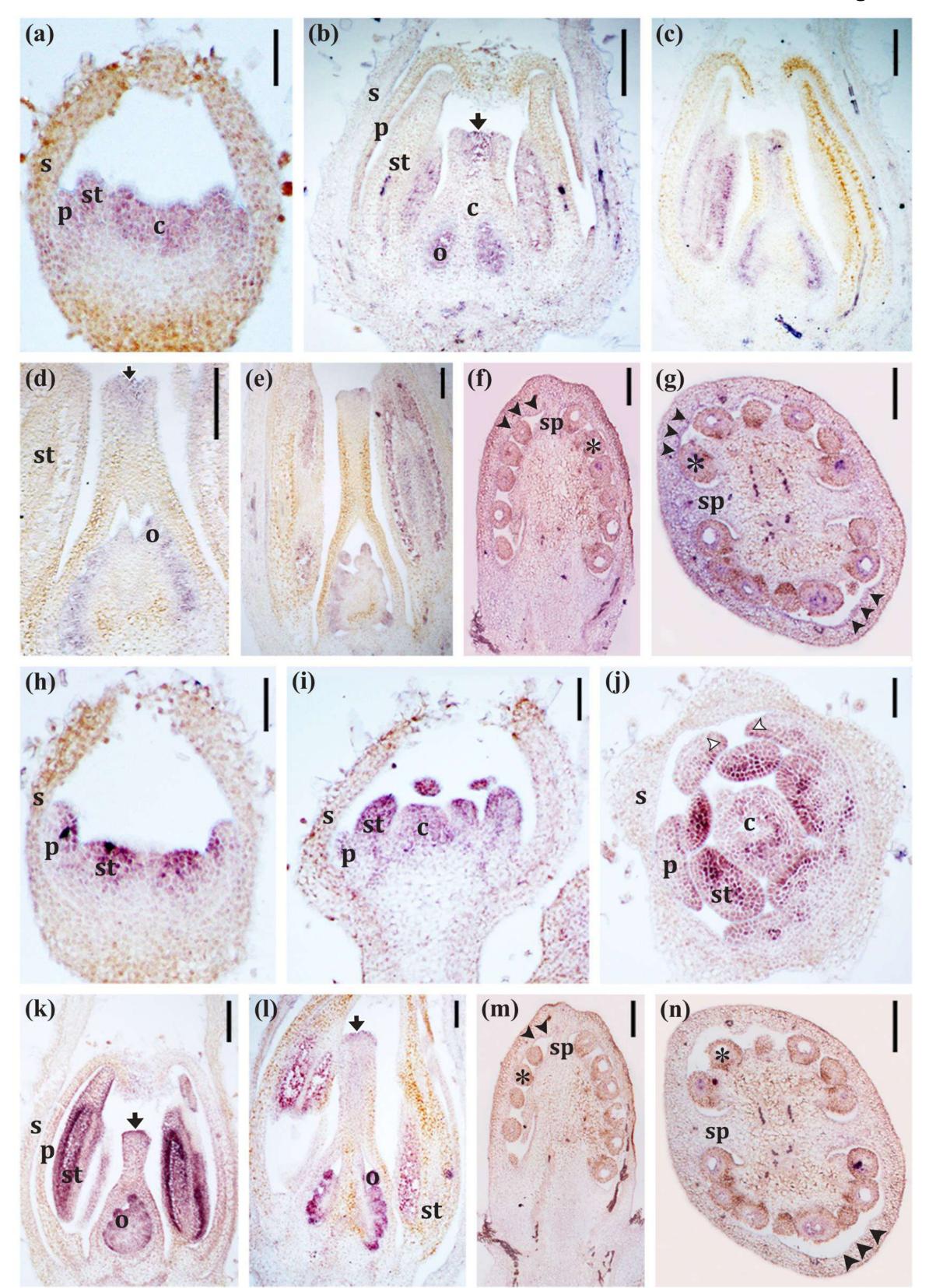


Figure 3



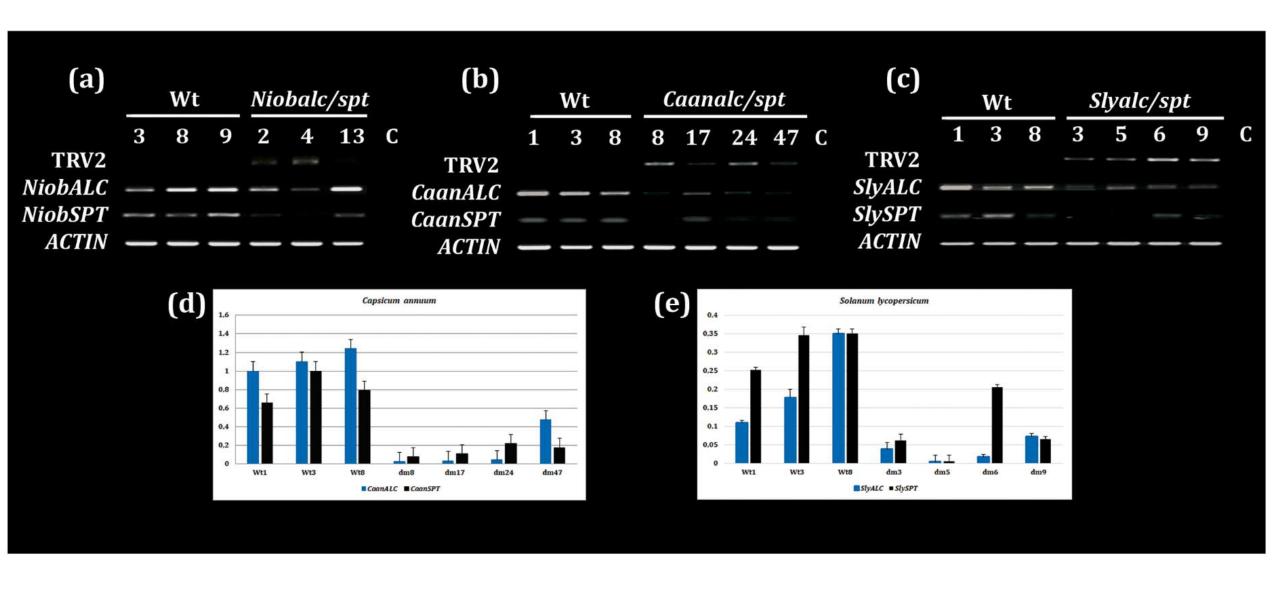


Figure 5

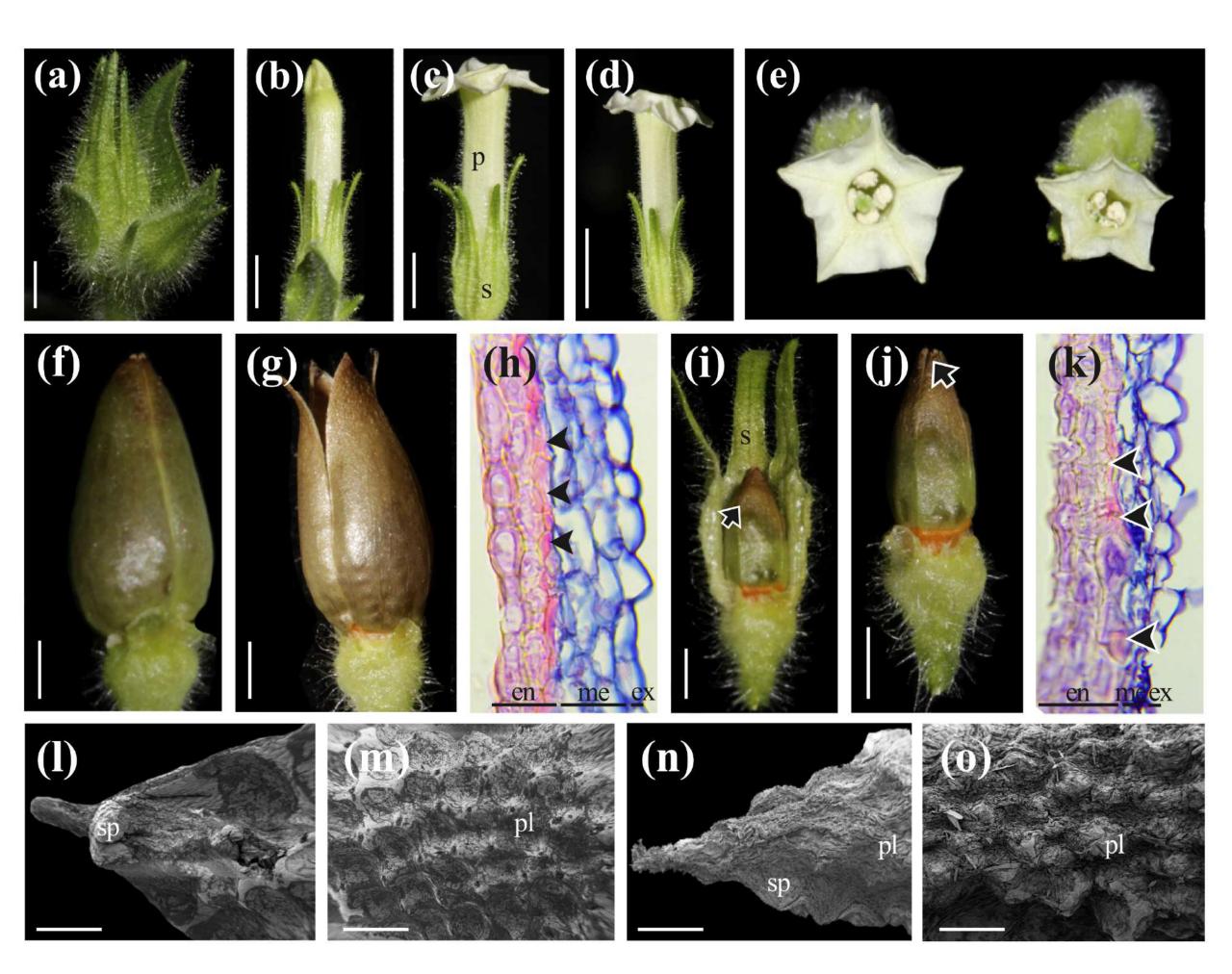


Figure 6

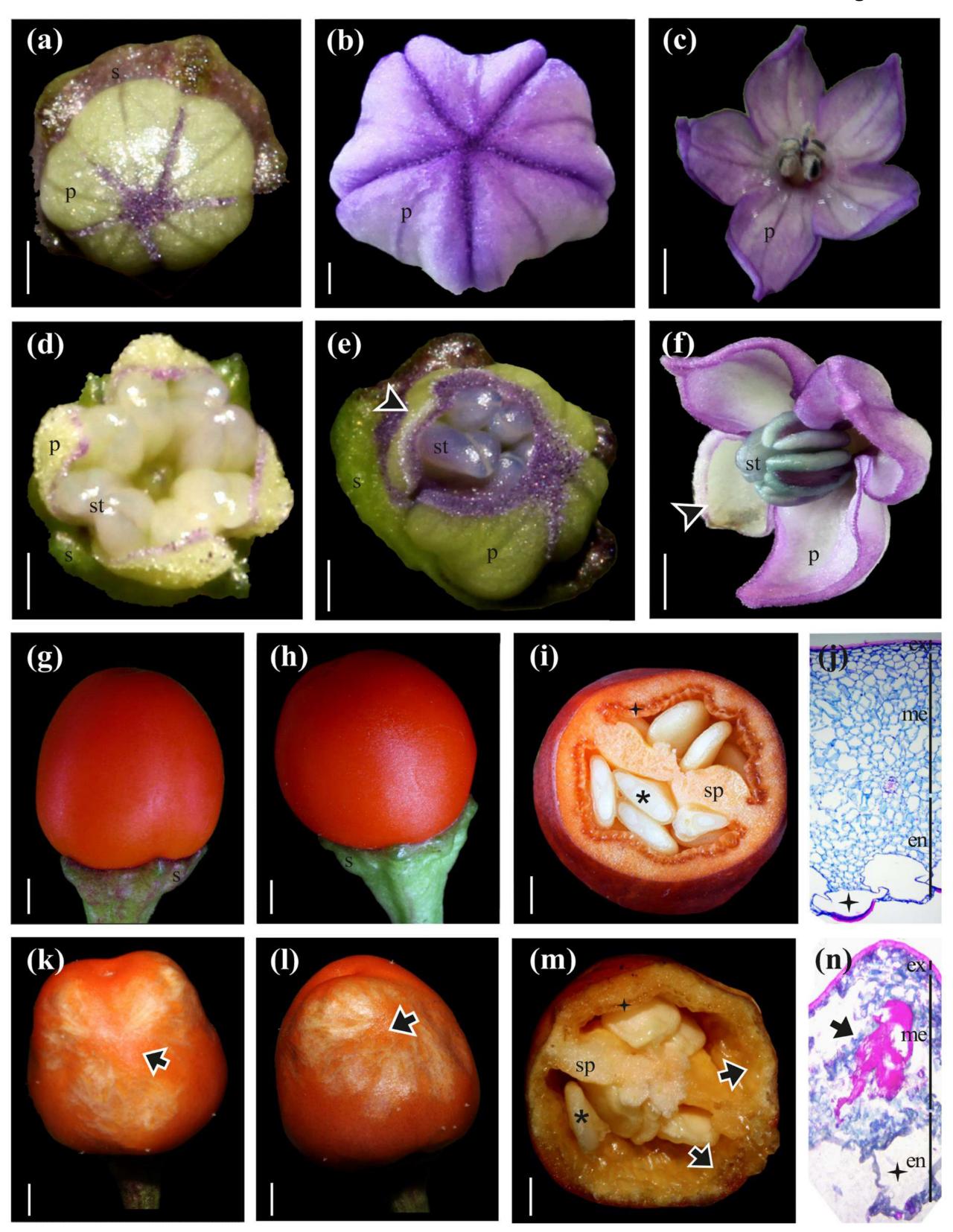


Figure 7

