

## Review article

## Sex-linked markers in dioecious plants

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## Abstract

Dioecy is generally associated with sexual dimorphism, which can be noticed with the naked eye, but in plants the sex of an individual, at the early stages of development before flowering, is difficult to diagnose. The situation is more complicated in bryophytes, where determination of sex in adult individuals can be problematic or even impossible. Here, molecular tools are helpful. This paper focuses on sex-linked molecular markers in plants. It presents plant species, for which sex-linked markers have been developed, indicates the most popular marker systems used in the research and tries to emphasise that some kind of information about sex determination can be provided during development of sex-linked markers.

**Keywords:** dioecious plants; female; male; marker systems; sex determination; sex-linked markers.

## Introduction

Whereas only around 6% of angiosperms are dioecious (Renner and Ricklefs, 1995), over 50% of bryophytes develop sexual reproduction organs (antheridia and archegonia) on separate individuals (Shaw and Goffinet, 2000). Dioecy is generally associated with sexual dimorphism. This assumption holds true for most animal species, but in plants the sex of an individual is difficult to determine at the early stages of development before flowering. The situation is even more complex in bryophytes, where determination of sex in adult individuals can be highly problematic. Apart from a seasonal occurrence of sex organs (antheridia and archegonia) in this group of plants, sexual dimorphism is weakly expressed or non-existent. Beside this, sexual reproduction organs in bryophytes are sporadically developed, even in the season. Biochemical and cytological analyses do not always support sex determination in plants. Heteromorphic sex chromosomes are less popular in plants than in the animal kingdom. Morphologically different chromosomes have, however, been found in some plant species, including members of the genera: *Cannabis*, *Humulus*, *Rumex*, *Silene* (Parker, 1990) and three liverwort species: *Sphaerocarpos donnellii*, *Sphaerocarpos texanus* (Allen, 1917), *Marchantia polymorpha* (Bischler, 1986). An occurrence of heteromorphic sex chromosomes is also suspected in mosses of the genus *Macromitrium* (Ramsay, 1966). Early sex identification in plants is especially important for breeders. They attach a different value to male and female plants. Owing to their ability to produce seeds and fruit, female individuals are generally considered to be more valuable in agriculture. Species whose female representatives are more desirable in the production process include *Actinidia deliciosa* (Shirkot et al., 2002), *Borassus flabellifer* (George et al., 2007), *Carica papaya* (Parasnis et al., 2000), *Eucommia ulmoides* (Xu et al., 2004), *Hippophae rhamnoides* (Persson and Nybom 1998; Sharma et al., 2010), *Myristica fragrans* (Shibu et al., 2000), *Piper longum* (Manoj et al., 2005- 2008), *Pistacia vera* (Hormaza et al., 1994),

*Phoenix dactylifera* (Younis et al., 2008) and *Simmondsia chinensis* (Agrawal et al., 2007; Sharma et al., 2008). In other species, male individuals are of a greater breeding value, among them *Asparagus officinalis* whose male individuals produce larger and thicker shoots (Gao et al., 2007). In non-crop plants, sex determination can be of environmental significance. It supports population studies which examine the proportions between male and female individuals and investigate factors that influence sex distribution. The results of such research are used to provide selected plants with the status of protected species. The methods of sex determination in plants are a popular topic of research among experts in various fields, including agriculture, horticulture, ecology and environmental protection.

## Popular marker systems in search of difference between females and males

The discussed demand for tools supporting sex determination in plants gave rise to a series of molecular studies investigating DNA markers that could be used for that purpose. A molecular marker (DNA marker) is a DNA sequence observed in minimum two easy to distinguish versions (Brown, 2001), which reveals individual polymorphisms. The preferred marker should demonstrate the widest possible range of variation in the analyzed trait, and it should not be affected by environmental factors. An effective marker should guarantee reproducibility, and it should be easy to detect. Molecular markers facilitate analyses of variations between individuals, regardless of their development stage (Sztuba- Solińska, 2005), which is particularly useful in sex determination studies of plants. Some researchers have suggested that effective markers for plants should be relatively short to support sex determinations in herbarium specimens with damaged DNA. Shorter sequences increase the probability of successful amplification (Korpelainen et al., 2008).

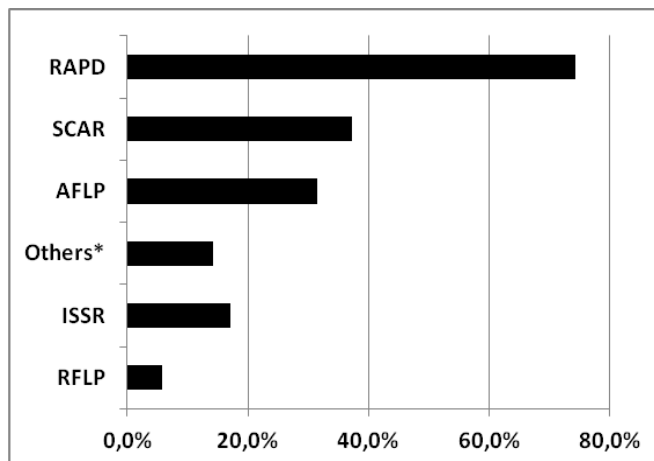
**Table 1.** Sex determination methods and the number of identified sex-linked markers for various plant species.

Plant species	Marker system and other methods	Determined sex and number of discovered markers	References
<i>Actinidia chinensis</i>	RAPD	1F, 1M	Harvey et al. 1997
<i>Actinidia deliciosa</i> var. <i>deliciosa</i>	RAPD	6F, 2M	Shirkot et al. 2002
<i>Asparagus officinalis</i>	RAPD	2F, 2M	Jiang and Sink 1997; Gao et al. 2007
	RAPD-SCAR	1F, 1M	Jiang and Sink 1997; Gao et al. 2007
	RFLP	1F, 1M	Biffi et al. 1995
	AFLP	1M	Spada et al. 1998
<i>Atriplex garrettii</i>	RAPD-SCAR	1M	Ruas et al. 1998
<i>Borassus flabellifer</i>	RAPD	1M	George et al. 2007
<i>Cannabis sativa</i>	RAPD-SCAR	2M	Sakamoto 1995; Mandolino et al. 1999;
<i>Carica papaya</i>	RAPD-SCAR	1M	Parasnis et al. 2000
	ISSR	1 for both M and H; 1 for both F and H	Parasnis et al. 1999; Gangopadhyay et al. 2007
<i>Commiphora wightii</i>	RAPD	1F, 1H, 1 for both F and H	Samantaray et al. 2010
<i>Cycas circinalis</i>	RAPD	1F, 1M	Gangopadhyay et al. 2007
<i>Dioscorea tokoro</i>	AFLP	1M	Terauchi et al. 1999
<i>Distichlis spicata</i>	RAPD	1F	Eppley et al. 1998
<i>Encephalartos natalensis</i>	RAPD	1F	Prakash & Staden 2006
<i>Eucommia ulmoides</i>	RAPD-SCAR	1F	Xu et al. 2004
	AFLP-SCAR	1M	Wang et al. 2011
<i>Ficus fulwa</i>	AFLP	1M	Tracey et al. 2004
<i>Ginkgo biloba</i>	RAPD-SCAR	1F, 1M	Liao et al. 2009
	AFLP	3F, 1M	Wang et al. 2001
<i>Hippophae rhamnoides</i>	RAPD	2M	Persson and Nybon 1998; Sharma et al. 2010
	isozymes	1F	Sharma et al. 2010
<i>Humulus lupulus</i>	RAPD	3M	Seefelder et al. 2000
	ISSR	2M	Danilova and Karlov 2006
	AFLP	10M	Polley et al. 1997
<i>Marchantia polymorpha</i>	Representational Difference Analysis (RDA)	2F, 6M	Fujisawa et al. 2001
<i>Melandrium album</i> ( <i>Silene latifolia</i> )	RAPD-SCAR	5M	Zhang et al. 1998
<i>Melandrium rubrum</i> ( <i>Silene dioica</i> )	RAPD	1F, 1M	Di Stilio et al. 1998
<i>Mercurialis annua</i>	RAPD-SCAR	2M	Khadka et al. 2002
	Arbitrary primed-polymerase chain reaction (AP-PCR)	1F	Yang et al. 1998
<i>Myristica fragrans</i>	RAPD	1F	Shibu et al. 2000
<i>Nyholmiella obtusifolia</i>	ISSR	1F, 1M	Milewicz and Sawicki 2011
<i>Piper longum</i>	RAPD	2M	Banerjee et al. 1999
	RAPD-SCAR	1M	Manoj et al. 2005
	Differential Display	8F, 3M	Manoj et al. 2005-2008
<i>Pistacia vera</i>	RAPD	1F	Hormaza et al. 1994
<i>Phoenix dactylifera</i>	RAPD	3F, 2M	Younis et al. 2008
	ISSR	5M	Younis et al. 2008
<i>Poa arachnifera</i> Torr.	AFLP	2M	Renganayaki et al. 2005
<i>Pseudocalliergon trifarium</i>	ISSR-SCAR	1F	Korpelainen et al. 2008
<i>Rumex acetosa</i>	RFLP	1M	Ruiz et al. 1994
	FISH	1M	Shibata et al. 1999
	AFLP	4M	Rahman and Ainsworth 2004
<i>Rumex nivialis</i>	AFLP	1M	Stehlik and Blattner 2004
	AFLP-SCAR	1M	Stehlik and Blattner 2004
<i>Salix viminalis</i>	RAPD	1F	Alström-Rapaport et al. 1998
	RAPD-SCAR	2F	Gunter et al. 2003
<i>Simmondsia chinensis</i> ( <i>jojoba</i> )	RAPD	1M	Agrawal et al. 2007
	ISSR	1M	Sharma et al. 2008
<i>Sphaerocarpos texanus</i>	RAPD	3F, 1M	McLetchie and Collins 2001
<i>Trichosanthes dioica</i>	RAPD	1F, 1M	Kumar et al. 2008
<i>Uapaca kirkiana</i>	AFLP	1F	Mwase et al. 2007

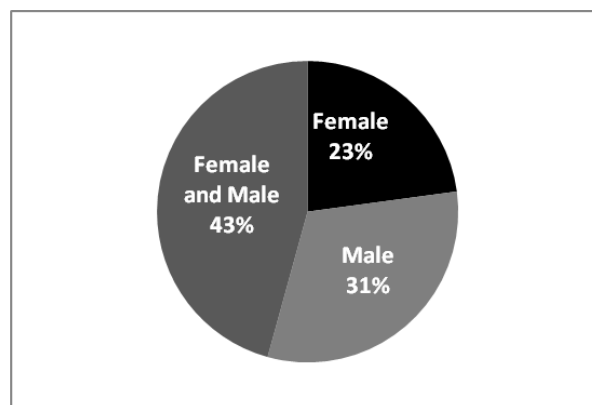
The most popular markers for sex determination in plants include RAPD (Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA), SCAR (Sequence-characterized Amplified Region), AFLP (Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism), RFLP (Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism) and microsatellites (Table 1). The search for molecular markers has continued for many years (Table 1), and although RAPD was developed in the early 1990s (Williams et al., 1990), it continues to enjoy high popularity today. In the discussed studies, RAPD was the method of choice for determining the sex of investigated plant species. The above technique is simple, cheap and not very time consuming. It is a highly reliable method that enjoys greater popularity than the much older, and seemingly better studied technique of RFLP. RAPD requires much smaller DNA samples, and it is much cheaper than RFLP (Sztuba-Solińska, 2005). Obviously, the method has its disadvantages, which include poor reproducibility due to high sensitivity to changes in amplification conditions. For this reason, it is recommended that RAPD markers are converted to specific SCAR markers (Paran and Michelmore, 1993). Regardless of the applied marker systems, the search for genetic variations between the sexes should give rise to the marker mentioned above. Longer (20-30 bp) and more specific primers for these markers would facilitate amplification of the desirable sequence, and they would guarantee repeatability of measurement results. Furthermore, development of sex-linked SCAR markers support sex differentiation even of a single individual- the sex-specific band appears or does not. For other marker systems, which generate the whole band patterns, it would be difficult to identify a gender without the need of comparing the band patterns for both sexes. Unfortunately, new SCAR markers are rarely developed by scientists who investigate genetic differences between the sexes in plants (Table 1). Despite their usefulness, such markers have been identified in only around 37% of the examined species (Fig. 1). The AFLP method, which dates back to the mid-1990s, is also rarely used (Vos et al., 1995). Despite its high efficiency (a high level of polymorphism: 50-100 bands per primer per individual) (Vos et al., 1995), the popularity of AFLP decreased gradually due to high cost, and multiple and time consuming analytical phases. ISSR is a simple and reproducible method that overcomes many of the limitations noted in RAPD and AFLP, but to date, it has been rarely used to determine sex markers in plants (it was used in only 17% of the analyzed species) (Fig. 1). RAPD and ISSR primers generate sequences with a limited number of bands, therefore, polymorphism analyses that rely on the above methods can be laborious. Without the luck factor, dozens or even hundreds of primers need to be tested. To illustrate - only 10 RAPD primers had to be analyzed in *Cycas circinalis* to find differences in band sequences between male and female individuals (Gangopadhyay et al., 2007), whereas *Asparagus officinalis* required examinations of 760 primers (Jiang and Sink, 1997).

#### What makes sex determination easier?

In a review of studies into sex determination in plants, Ainsworth (2000) noted that most researchers identified sex-linked markers for males. This trend has been visibly reversed in the past 11 years, and the number of species where markers have been found for both sexes continues to increase (Fig. 2). In some cases, several markers are identified by the same research team with the application of the same method, and a study of *Sphaerocarpos* testifies to the above (McLetchie and Collins, 2001).



**Fig 1.** The most popular methods of sex determination in plants based on the species analyzed in this study (frequency of application in percentage) \*mentioned in Table 1



**Fig 2.** The number of plant species where sex-linked markers have been found for males, females, both males and females (based on the species analyzed in this study).

In other experiments, including a study of *Phoenix dactylifera* (Younis et al., 2008), the same group of scientists may use different marker systems to observe genetic differences between sexes. There are still different studies in which separate teams complement their achievements finding markers specific for each sex of the investigated species. Such was the case with *Carica papaya* (Parasnis et al., 1999; Gangopadhyay et al., 2007). Sex-linked markers are more likely to be found in cases where a sex chromosome system functions (Ainsworth, 2000; Korpelainen et al., 2008). Since the majority of research studies conducted before 2000 reported male-specific markers, we can assume that males of the investigated species are heterogametic (Ainsworth, 2000), and sex-linked markers are related to maleness chromosomes. Sex-linked markers for both sexes are even easier to identify in haploid plants with a chromosomal mechanism of heredity. The above is clearly manifested in bryophytes. In *Sphaerocarpos texanus*, 3 markers for females and 1 marker for males were identified (McLetchie and Collins, 2001), whereas 2 markers characteristic of females and 6 markers typical of males were observed in *Marchantia polymorpha* (Fujisawa et al., 2001). In haploid plants containing sex chromosomes, there are even chances of determining male and female markers because the haploid genome contains only one sex chromosome: X or Y. When heteromorphic

chromosomes are absent, and sex is determined by genes on autosomal chromosomes, significantly fewer markers are identified in a single species (Ruas et al., 1998).

### Searching for sex-linked markers brings additional information

A smaller number of sex-linked markers than the number of primers used in DNA genome screening could also point to the small size of the DNA segment involved in sex determination (Hormaza et al., 1994; Gunter et al., 2003). The above correlation was observed in a study of *Pistacia vera*, where 700 different RAPD primers were used, but only a single female-specific marker was found. It is quite likely that in the above plant, only a single gene is responsible for the sex determination mechanism (Hormaza et al., 1994). It may seem puzzling that using an identical genome screening method, one team can quickly identify the differences between male and female individuals, whereas another group of scientists has to apply hundreds of various primers. Mulcahy et al. (1992) used only 60 RAPD primers to identify 4 markers characteristic of the Y chromosome in *Melandrium album*, whereas McLetchie and Collins (2001) tested 200 RAPD primers to discover the same number of sex-linked markers in *Sphaerocarpos texanus*. The above could result from insignificant differences in X and Y chromosome sequences in this liverwort plant. The study by McLetchie and Collins (2001) points to a homology between the sequence specific for males, and one of the sequences characteristic of females. The similarity is considerable enough to suggest the existence of alternative forms of the same locus in homologous regions of X and Y chromosomes. A greater number of homologous regions on sex chromosomes could exist in *Sphaerocarpos texanus*. Comparisons of male- and female-specific sequences in a species can provide valuable information about the organization of regions responsible for sex determination. Absence of homology generally indicates that sequences originated from different chromosome regions, but when the degree similarity reaches 80%, sequences could also be derived from different loci (Khadka et al., 2002). The higher the number of non-homologous sequences, the larger the region which is responsible for sex determination. The degree of homology between male- and female-specific sequences also supplies information about the chromosomes on which they are located. Korpelainen et al. (2008) suggested that at 40% similarity, such sequences are unlikely to represent the genetic material of heteromorphic sex chromosomes. Nonetheless, such a possibility cannot be ruled out. Heteromorphic sex chromosomes could have similar or even partially shared regions (Korpelainen et al., 2008). An example of the above is *Marchantia polymorpha*, where at least 6 of 64 Y chromosome genes have analogs on the X chromosome (Yamato et al., 2007). Additionally, the degree of variability (the number of substitutions) in homologous regions could indicate whether the analyzed sequences originate from coding regions. A high number of substitutions in homologous regions could suggest that those sequences originated in non-coding regions with accumulated mutations (Korpelainen et al., 2008).

### Mistakes in sex determination

The ideal sex determination method should produce reliable results and be relatively easy to perform. When a marker for only one of the sexes has been found, there is a risk that analysis results were false. The absence of a PCR product in

the sample could be a negative result, but it could also explain the absence of DNA in the sample or other inconsistencies in the PCR process. Ideally, a researcher should use one or two different SCAR markers which create products of different length in males and females in the same amplification. Sex-linked markers for *Ginkgo biloba* were determined in line with the above method. SCAR markers generated products with the length of 571 bp for males and 688 bp for females (Liao et al., 2009). Annealing temperature differed for both primer pairs, but various temperatures for this amplification stage can be set in the thermocycler. Situations such as those encountered in the study of *Ginkgo biloba* happen rarely. Even if the markers of both sexes are found in the same species, they are rarely discovered by the same research team, and their identification is a laborious process. The male-specific marker of *Asparagus officinalis* was found in 1997 (Jiang and Sink), whereas the female-specific marker of the taxon was identified only a decade later (Gao et al., 2007). When a sequence characterized marker is developed for only one species, researchers make various attempts to guarantee the reliability of their findings. Tests of primer pairs for male-specific sequences in *Melandrium album* (Zhang et al., 1998) and *Mercurialis annua* (Khadka et al., 2002) revealed pairs which generated products not only in males but also amplicons of different length in females and monoecious individuals (Khadka et al., 2002). The internal PCR control is an alternative method which was successfully used by Parasnis et al. (2000) and Stehlik and Blattner (2004). Parasnis et al. (2000) used the chloroplast DNA intergenic spacer sequence in a study of *Carica papaya*, whereas Stehlik and Blattner (2004) relied on the internal transcribed spacer (ITS2) sequence in analyses of *Rumex nivialis*.

### Conclusions

Despite the growing body of research, the mechanism of sex determination in many plant species remains unexplained. The search for molecular sex-linked markers paves the way for future scientific discoveries. Sex-linked markers alone do not explain the molecular mechanism of sex determination in dioecious plants, but the number of markers, their sequence structure and homology between sequences characteristic of males and females provide a certain venture point for studies into sex determination mechanisms. Sex differentiation in plants is a popular research topic, and the results of recent studies complement previous findings. In pre-2000 studies, the majority of discovered markers were characteristic of males, whereas more recent research efforts found markers for both sexes of the same species. Attempts are made to identify sex-linked markers not only in cultivated plants, as illustrated by the study of bryophytes where both male and female markers were discovered. Such achievements could stimulate new population studies analyzing the proportions of the sexes in dioecious plants where sexual dimorphism is weakly expressed.

### Acknowledgements

Monika Milewicz is a scholarship holder in the project „Dr INNO 3. Doctoral scholarships” organized by Institute of Animal Reproduction and Food Research of the Polish Academy of Sciences in Olsztyn and funded by European Union within the European Social Fund.

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